Chinese Chemical Society | Xiamen University Journal of Electrochemistry

Online First

8-1-2024

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Article ID: 1006-3471(2024)00-0000-00 Https://jelectrochem.xmu.edu.cn/



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Dendrite-Free Strategies for Aqueous Zinc-Ion Batteries: 4 Structure, Electrolyte, and Separator 5

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Abstract

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Continued growth in energy demand and increased environmental pollution constitute major challenges that need to be addressed urgently. The development and utilization of renewable, sustainable, and clean energy sources, such as wind and solar, are crucial. However, the instability of these intermittent energy sources makes the need for energy storage systems increasingly urgent. Aqueous zinc ion batteries (AZIBs) have received widespread attention due to their unique advantages, such as high energy density, cost-effectiveness, environmental friendliness, and safety. However, AZIBs face significant challenges, mainly the formation of zinc dendrites that seriously affect the stability and lifetime of the batteries, leading to battery failure. Therefore, reducing the formation of zinc dendrites is crucial for improving the performance of AZIBs. This review systematically and comprehensively comprehends the current strategies and advances in inhibiting the formation of zinc dendrites. By comprehensively analyzing the latest developments in zinc anode, electrolyte, separator design and modification, as well as other novel mechanisms, it provides researchers with a thorough understanding to guide future research and advance the development of AZIBs.

Keywords: Aqueous Zinc Ion Batteries • Dendrite-free • Zn Anode • Electrolyte Optimization • Separator Design • HER

16 **1** Introduction

17 18 Currently, the continuous growth in energy demand and 19 increasing environmental pollution constitute major challenges 20 that need to be addressed urgently. It is essential to develop and 21 utilize renewable, sustainable and clean energy sources such as 22 wind and solar energy. ^[1, 2] However, these intermittent energy 23 sources cannot be directly utilized in the electrical grid, thereby 24 generating a demand for energy storage systems. [3] In the 25 search for energy storage solutions, electrochemical energy 26 storage systems stand out for their convenience and efficiency. 27 Secondary batteries have become the focus of global research 28 and various battery systems have been investigated in recent 29 decades.^[4-6] In particular, aqueous zinc ion batteries (AZIBs) 30 have attracted much attention by virtue of their unique 31 advantages, Firstly AZIBs use zinc, which is abundant in the 32 earth's reserves, as well as water-based electrolytes that are 33 relatively cheap and have an ionic conductivity at least as high 34 as most organic electrolytes. Secondly, they are environmentally 35 friendly with low toxicity and have a low redox potential (-0.763 V 36 vs. SHE), a high specific volume capacity (5855 mAh cm⁻³), a 37 large theoretical specific volume capacity (820 mAh g⁻¹) and a 38 high hydrogen precipitation overpotential (1.2 V). AZIBs have 39 shown great potential for wide application in portable electronic 40 devices, grid energy storage and electric transport vehicles. [7-9]

41 Nevertheless, the development of AZIBs still faces several 42 challenges, notably the formation of dendrites that hinder their 43 practical application, as they can seriously affect the stability and 44 lifetime of the cells and are highly susceptible to cell failure.^[10] 45 Furthermore, the proliferation of zinc dendrites can precipitate a 46 short circuit between the anode and cathode, significantly 47 diminishing the battery's cycle life. In addition, the dendritic 48 structure augments the specific surface area of the zinc 49 electrode, which exacerbates zinc corrosion and impairs zinc 50 utilization efficiency. Moreover, the poor adhesion of zinc 51 dendrites to the electrode surface often results in their detachment, forming "dead" zinc and consequently leading to a 52 53 reduction in battery capacity. [11-14] During the charge/discharge cycling of AZIBs, the uneven deposition of zinc ions on the 54 55 anode surface triggers the formation of zinc dendrites. This not 56 only adversely affects the Coulombic efficiency and cycle 57 stability of the battery, but also increases the risk of short circuit 58 and potential safety hazards. [15] Therefore, solving the above 59 problems can greatly facilitate the large-scale application of 60 AZIBs in energy storage systems.

61 The importance of this review is underscored by its 62 systematic and thorough aggregation of the prevailing strategies 63 and advancements in the suppression of zinc dendrite formation, coupled with its provision of insightful perspectives on prospective research trajectories. This review systematically examines and summarizes the causes of zinc dendrite formation and provides a meticulous and integrated analysis of the latest advancements in the fields of zinc anodes,^[16, 17] electrolytes,^{[11, 18, ^{19]} and separator technologies,^[20-22] endeavors to equip researchers with a comprehensive body of knowledge. This endeavor is aimed at guiding future scholarly inquiries and catalyzing the advancement of aqueous zinc-ion battery technology.}

2. Mechanisms of Zinc Dendrite Formation and Strategies for Uniform Deposition

2.1 The challenges facing the Zn anode in AZBs

The electrochemical behavior of zinc anodes is significantly influenced by the electrolytic environment, with the electrolyte's composition and pH value playing a crucial role. Zinc metal anodes in alkaline solutions encounter a multitude of challenges, ^[23] such as the growth of zinc dendrites, hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), electrolyte depletion, and the formation of byproducts like ZnO and Zn (OH)2. [24] These phenomena contribute to substantial polarization, diminished capacity, and decreased Coulombic efficiency. Conversely, these adverse impacts are significantly mitigated in environments that are neutral or mildly acidic, where Zn2+ ions predominantly remain in their ionic state, thereby enhancing the reversibility of zinc deposition and dissolution processes. Therefore, contemporary research in AZIBs is largely centered around electrolytes with near-neutral pH values. Nevertheless, the problem of dendrite growth remains a significant obstacle in AZIBs. In short, zinc dendrite formation presents a prevalent and formidable challenge in the realm of existing zinc-ion battery technology. Dendrites, characterized by their distinctive branching fractal structures, emerge due to the microscopically uneven surfaces of zinc anodes. The proliferation of such dendrites poses substantial risks, including impaired battery performance, potential short-circuiting, and safety concerns. This irregularity fosters preferential nucleation of Zn²⁺ ions at minute protrusions, a process driven by the minimization of surface energy. This intricate phenomenon was initially explored by J. W. Diggle et al., who pr that the genesis of zinc dendrites could be comprehensively described by a pyramidal helical growth model on the substrate surface, predominantly governed by diffusion mechanisms. $^{\mbox{\tiny [25, 26]}}$ Crucially, they identified that when the apex of a zinc dendrite precursor attains a critical threshold condition, the growth mechanism transitions from being diffusion-controlled to activation-controlled, thereby altering the growth trajectory and rate. Building upon these foundational insights, Matsushita and colleagues proposed the two-dimensional diffusion-limited



1 aggregation (DLA) model as а new mechanism for 2 understanding zinc dendrite development.[27] This model has 3 since been acknowledged as a pivotal contribution to the 4 theoretical understanding of dendritic growth patterns in AZIBs. 5 The evolution of computational science has further enriched the 6 field of AZIBs, introducing a variety of phase-field-based 7 models.^[28] Notably, Mashayek et al. made significant strides in 8 elucidating the variations in dendritic morphology attributable to 9 differing current densities within zinc sulfate electrolytes.^[29] In 10 recent years, the advent of advanced in situ microscopy 11 techniques has enabled more nuanced and detailed explorations 12 of zinc dendrite growth mechanisms. These studies have not 13 only augmented our understanding of dendritic structures but 14 have also opened new avenues for potential solutions to 15 mitigate or control this persistent challenge in zinc-ion battery 16 technology. This approach enables better detection of premature 17 cell death caused by dendrite growth.[30] It is worth noting that 18 some in-situ characterization techniques cannot fully restore the



Figure 1 Strategy of dendrite-free in AZIBs.

19 actual working state of the battery. The mechanism of dendrite 20 growth in AZIBs represents a complex interplay of various

21 factors and stages.

22 2.2 The strategies of dendrite-free

23 The key factors influencing the growth of dendrites in AZIBs 24 are summarized as follows:1) non-uniform deposition: zinc ions, during charging, undergo reduction to metallic zinc on the 25 26 electrode surface. Surface anomalies, such as roughness and 27 defects, create preferential zones for zinc ion deposition, 28 catalyzing dendrite initiation.^[31] 2) Ion concentration gradient: 29 Disparities in zinc ion concentration within the electrolyte can 30 accelerate dendrite formation. The consumption of zinc ions 31 proximal to the electrode generates a concentration gradient, 32 thereby dictating the pattern of zinc deposition.^[32] 3) Electric field 33 distribution: Inhomogeneous electric field distribution on the 34 electrode surface can lead to areas where zinc ions are more 35 readily reduced, thus fostering dendritic growth.[33] 4) Electrolyte 36 characteristics: The electrolyte's composition, concentration, and 37 temperature significantly influence the migration and deposition 38 of zinc ions, consequently impacting dendrite formation.^[34] 5) 39 Charge-discharge dynamics: The rate of charge-discharge, 40 current density, and cycle frequency are pivotal in influencing 41 dendrite growth. [35] Conditions such as high current density and rapid charge-discharge cycles are particularly prone to inducing dendrite formation. 6) Electrode material and architecture: The choice and architectural design of electrode materials play a vital role in dendrite growth. Electrodes designed with extensive surface areas and porous configurations can promote more homogeneous zinc deposition. A comprehensive understanding and strategic management of these factors are crucial for mitigating dendrite formation in AZIBs, thereby bolstering their operational efficiency and safety.

As shown in Figure 1, among the strategies to slow down the growth of dendrites, researchers are actively investigating a range of strategies including zinc anode design (coatings, structural design), electrolyte optimization (eutectic electrolyte, co-solvent electrolyte, additives, gel electrolyte), and diaphragm design (diaphragm modification, self-supporting diaphragm). In addition to these, there are also methods to retard dendrites by mitigating side reactions such as HER. These methods can significantly slow down or even prevent the formation of dendrites, thus improving the safety and extending the cycle life of AZIBs.

3. Zinc Anode Optimization

The zinc anode, often the site of dendrite formation, is a focal point in battery research and development. The growth of dendrites at the zinc anode is usually accompanied by other issues such as corrosion, passivation, and hydrogen evolution, creating a complex set of interrelated challenges. Therefore, a comprehensive strategy for optimizing the zinc anode is crucial to address the dendrite issue effectively. Current methods to improve the performance of the zinc anode mainly involve advanced coating techniques and innovative structural designs, which are necessary to confront the diverse challenges related to the anode's role in AZIBs.

3.1 Surface Coating

The interaction between the zinc anode and the electrolyte significantly elevates the risks of dendrite formation, corrosion, and HER. To mitigate these challenges, the most straightforward approach is to apply a protective coating on the zinc anode surface. This coating serves as an effective barrier, diminishing the direct contact area between the zinc surface and the electrolyte, thereby attenuating the propensity for dendrite formation, corrosion, and HER during the battery's operational cycles.

The functionality of coatings extends beyond mere physical isolation. They play a crucial role in modulating the electric field, facilitating controlled ion transport, directing zinc deposition, and enhancing the kinetics of zinc deposition to ensure uniform nucleation. Additionally, they are instrumental in preventing excessive dissolution of zinc ions, enhancing the compatibility between electrolyte and zinc, reinforcing the mechanical strength of zinc, and reducing zinc corrosion and oxidation. The efficacy of these coatings largely depends on their inherent properties, including thickness, porosity, wettability, insulation characteristics, mechanical strength, and film-forming ability. Hence, the selection of coating materials necessitates careful consideration of their synthesis methods and processing parameters to optimize their protective capabilities. The most common method of film formation for coatings is through the application of a binder-mixed slurry, a process that is simple but often results in poor mechanical strength. To address this,

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techniques such as chemical vapor deposition (CVD) ^[36], atomiclayer deposition (ALD) ^[37] have been developed for in situ film formation, enhancing strength but adding complexity. But these two methods are too complicated. Table 1 compares the performance of different coatings. Even with the same material there is a huge difference in the stability of the electrolyte cycle with different coating methods and different electrolytes. Current research in coating materials encompasses conductive materials



9 like carbon and metals, as well as non-conductive metal
10 compounds, polymers, inorganic non-metals, and various
11 innovative composite materials. Each material presents its
12 unique advantages and challenges in optimizing zinc anodes.

13 It is generally accepted that zinc deposition is triggered by 14 heterogeneous nucleation and that the nucleation energy barrier 15 needs to be overcome to form the solid phase. The introduction 16 of a conductive coating acts as a seed for crystal nucleation, in 17 addition to homogenizing the electric field. Archer's group 18 achieved the directional deposition of Zn based on the low lattice 19 mismatch between graphene and Zn.[38] However, in recent 20 years it has been found that this substrate effect fails with depth 21 of discharge. Therefore, the use of non-conductive coatings has 22 become the main direction of current research. Non-conductive 23 coatings need to have the ability to conduct zinc ions. In their 24 seminal work, Kang et al. advocated for the utilization of porous

Figure 2 (a-c) Schematic illustration of the surface evolution of Zn/ZIF-7-Zn. and schematic illustration of highly coordinated ion complexes of H_2O -Zn^{2+.}OSO₃²⁻migrating through MOF channels. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[43]. Copyright 2020, Wiley-VCH. (d, e) The importance of constructing ultrathin crack-free with rigid. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[57] Copyright 2023, Wiley-VCH. (color on line)

nano-CaCO₃ as a protective layer, a strategy designed to facilitate uniform and site-selective zinc metal plating/stripping behaviors. ^[39] The significance of the coating's porous structure cannot be overstated, as it plays a crucial role in the suppression of zinc dendrite formation. The employment of this nano-porous inorganic coating has notably improved the plating/stripping stability of the zinc metal anode.

32 Some other inorganic coatings layer such as TiO₂ and ZrO₂ 33 have also been demonstrated to effectively inhibit the growth of zinc dendrites. [40-42] The efficacy of these coatings can be 34 35 attributed to their dense interfacial structure, characterized by 36 uniformly dispersed nanochannels. These nanochannels play a 37 pivotal role in curtailing the two-dimensional diffusion of zinc ions 38 across the electrode surface. The ion concentration gradient is 39 greatly reduced, resulting in a more uniform distribution of zinc 40 ions near the electrode. Nevertheless, these non-adjustable 41 porous, non-conducting materials always present a large 42 impediment to ion migration, so the search for more suitable 43 porous materials is more in line with the need to improve the 44 stability of AZBs.

battery Recent developments in technology have highlighted metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) as a novel coating material. Zhou's research group pioneered a ZIF-7 based MOF coating to augment the performance of aqueous zinc batteries. ^[43] Illustrated in Figure 2a, this innovative coating effectively curtails zinc dendrite growth and water decomposition by forming a supersaturated electrolyte precursor layer on the zinc anode surface. The effectiveness of this approach is primarily attributed to the MOF channels' selective exclusion of large solvated ion complexes and their ability to sustain a supersaturated electrolyte under electrical influence. In a symmetric zinc half-cell setup, the MOF-coated zinc demonstrated remarkable endurance, maintaining stability for up to 3000 h at a current density of 0.5 mA cm². Building upon this foundation, further theoretical investigations based on ZIF-7 explored the nanoscale dynamics and mechanisms influencing Zn² ion flux, solvation structure alterations, and the continuous dehydration process of Zn² ions moving from the electrolyte to the MOF channels. This study revealed that a 2.0 M zinc sulfate electrolyte concentration optimizes conductivity and ensures a uniform distribution of water-mediated ion pairing, effectively balancing the counter-ion effects and spatial constraints during Zn² dehydration.

Table 1 Comparison of the performance of different coatings

Coating layer	Method	Electrolyte Current (mA cm ⁻²) / (mAh cm ⁻²)		Cycle life(h)	Ref.
CaCO ₃	Doctor blading	3M ZnSO4+0.1M 0.25/0.05 MnSO4		840	[39]
TiO ₂	ALD	3M Zn (OTf) ₂ 1/1		150	[44]
TiO ₂	Doctor blading	1M ZnSO ₄	1M ZnSO ₄ 1/1		[45]
TiO ₂ -PVDF	Drop cast	2M ZnSO ₄	0.885/0.885	2000	[46]
PDMS/TiO _{2-x}	Spin coating	3M ZnSO ₄	1/1	900	[47]
ZnO	Chemical deposition	2M ZnSO4+0.1M MnSO4	5/1.25	500	[48]
Al ₂ O ₃	ALD	3M Zn (CF ₃ SO ₃) ₂	1/1	500	[49]
Oxyhydroxide	Chemical decoration	2M ZnSO4	1/1	4000	[50]
BaTiO ₃	Doctor blading	2M ZnSO ₄	1/1	2000	[51]
BaTiO ₃	Doctor blading	1M ZnSO4+0.1M MnSO4	1/1	4100	[52]
PVDF	Spin coating	2M ZnSO ₄	0.25/0.05	2000	[53]
P(VDF-TrFE)	Spin coating	2M ZnSO ₄	0.2/0.2	2000	[54]
ZrO ₂	Casted	2M ZnSO ₄	0.25/0.125	3800	[55]
ZIF-7	Doctor blading	2M ZnSO4	0.5/1	3000	[43]

This novel coating effectively inhibits the growth of zinc dendrites and water decomposition by forming a supersaturated electrolyte layer on the zinc anode surface. This is primarily attributed to the selective exclusion of large dissolved ion complexes by the ZIF-7 channels and the ability to maintain a supersaturated electrolyte at the zinc anode's frontal interface under an electric field. As shown schematically in Figure 2b, the solvated shell layer of Zn2+ in aqueous electrolyte presents six surrounding water ligands. Zn2+ must shed these water molecules to complete the deposition and these water molecules will lead to the instability of the zinc negative electrode. Figure 2c shows that the presence of ZIF-7 changes the coordination of Zn²⁺ from solvated ion-pairs mainly a solvent-separated ion-pairs (SSIP) to contact ion-pairs (CIP), thanks to its appropriately sized pores. Leveraging this advantage, symmetric zinc halfcells exhibited remarkable durability, maintaining stability for up to 3000 h at a current density of 0.5 mA cm². Further theoretical



1 studies based on ZIF-7 explored nanoscale dynamics and 2 mechanisms affecting Zn² ion flux, dissolution structure 3 changes, and the continuous dehydration process of Zn² ions 4 moving from the electrolyte to ZIF-7 channels. This research 5 confirmed the Zhou's group claim that an electrolyte concentration of 2.0 M zinc sulfate could optimize conductivity. 6 7 ^[56] This concentration ensures uniform water-mediated ion 8 pairing distribution, effectively balancing the counterion effects 9 and spatial constraints during the Zn² dehydration process. 10 Nevertheless, the coating still faces the risk of cracking during 11 cycling. Following this research direction, Zhou's group 12 developed an ultra-thin, crack-free ZIF-7x-8 MOF layer with 13 robust sub-nanometer pores (0.3 nm), facilitating the desolvation 14 of zinc ions before reaching the zinc metal surface. The layer 15 was prepared by the fast current driven synthesis (FCDS) 16 method to grow in situ on the zinc metal surface.[57] As illustrated 17 in Figure 2d, the flexible pore window will lead an incomplete 18 Zn²⁺ desovation, resulting a unstable CE and dendrite growth. In 19 contrast, the rigid sub-nanometer structured channels in the 20 coating contribute to highly ordered deposition of zinc ions on 21 the Zn metal (Figure 2e). This protective approach endowed the 22 battery with exceptional cyclic stability (over 2200 h) and 23 achieved an extremely high Coulombic efficiency (99.96%) over 24 6000 cycles. Additionally, practical soft-pack batteries have surpassed over 120 working cycles. The use of MOF-type 25 26 coatings effectively regulates Zn² ion diffusion on zinc metal 27 anodes, ensuring a uniform zinc ion flux and preventing dendrite 28 formation.

29 In addition to the desolvation coatings achieved through 30 porous MOFs, the functional groups on the coating surface also 31 serve a similar purpose. For instance, Zhou et al. demonstrated 32 the enhancement of AZIBs performance by designing a 33 polydopamine (PDA) layer on the surface of metallic zinc. The 34 PDA layer, through its dual-effect of rapid desolvation and ion 35 confinement, reduced the number of water molecules and 36 lowered the energy barrier for Zn²⁺ migration, while also 37 modulating the ionic flux through an ion-aggregation effect, 38 thereby improving the deposition kinetics of Zn²⁺. Furthermore, 39 when paired with a MnO₂ cathode, the Zn@PDA//MnO₂ full cell 40 exhibited high discharge efficiency and cycling stability over 41 1000 cycles. Although this coating engineering significantly 42 enhances battery performance, it also adds a layer of complexity 43 to the anode materials, necessitating further improvements in 44 structural design.

46 3.2 Anode Structural Design

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48 To optimize the deposition behavior of zinc anodes, rational 49 design of the substrate surface or structural optimization can 50 also be employed. Powdered anodes and three-dimensional 51 electrodes, due to their unique structures, expand the surface area. [58, 59] The increased surface area enhances the contact 52 53 area between the electrode and the electrolyte, thereby 54 facilitating accelerated ion diffusion within the electrode. This 55 improvement is crucial for enhancing the battery's charge-56 discharge rate and overall performance. The overpotential of 57 zinc deposition increases with rising current density. Conductive 58 three-dimensional porous anodes, characterized by their large 59 specific surface area, can effectively reduce the surface current 60 density significantly. Additionally, three-dimensional porous 61 anodes provide numerous nucleation and deposition sites for 62 zinc, thereby considerably reducing dendrite formation. For 63 instance, the three-dimensional porous zinc structure developed by Rolison et al. can be directly used as a zinc anode. This structure effectively accommodates the growth of zinc dendrites and isolates the deposition of zinc oxide. Simpler and more costeffective approaches involve direct treatment of the zinc foil surface. The protrusions or passivation layers on the original zinc surface are primary contributors to the aggregation of zinc crystals and uneven electro-deposition. In the study conducted by Zhu et al., a novel and efficient electropolishing method was introduced for the first time. [60] This method, being non-corrosive and superior to the laborious and inconsistently effective mechanical polishing commonly used in laboratories, enables the preparation of a smoother and cleaner zinc metal surface. By removing the original passivation layer on the zinc surface, the newly prepared zinc anodes were able to operate stably at high current densities up to 40 mA cm ² for over 6000 cycles. It provides a reliable foundation for studying the mechanisms of zinc deposition and assessing the effectiveness of protective strategies.

Substrate effects offer a noteworthy strategy for dendrite suppression. In 2019, Archer's group conducted research that highlighted the advantages of the (002) crystal plane.^[38] This finding has since sparked a surge in efforts to engineer substrates featuring an increased prevalence of the (002) crystal plane. However, it is crucial to acknowledge that the efficacy of this substrate effect tends to diminish as cycling progresses. Moreover, the (002) plane is known for its chemical instability, rendering it susceptible to corrosion by the aqueous components present in the electrolyte. This susceptibility results in the formation of disordered zinc dendrites, suboptimal Coulombic efficiency (CE), and limited battery lifespan.

In a recent study, Zhou's group departed from conventional approaches that focused on maximizing the proportion of (002) zinc crystal faces or enhancing strong (002) textures on various zinc substrates. [61] Instead, they introduced an innovative approach by selectively etching the chemically unstable (002) zinc surface within the original zinc metal. This chemical etching served as an effective means of passivating the zinc. Their research demonstrated that the etched zinc exhibited a unique structure with vertically aligned zinc columns. This structural characteristic proved highly efficient in suppressing the growth of zinc hydroxide sulfate (ZHS) in aqueous electrolytes. Consequently, it facilitated the nucleation and growth of zinc ions along these vertical zinc columns, eliminating zinc dendrites, thereby achieving a high level of average Coulombic efficiency (CE) of 99.94% over 4500 cycles. Additionally, the pouch cell with NH₄V₄O₁₀ cathode demonstrated a high specific capacity of 317.3 mA g⁻², and maintained 85.2% of its capacity even after 350 cycles. This breakthrough substantially improved the reversibility and longevity of the zinc metal anode.



Figure 3 SEM images of zinc metal deposited in (a) 1 M (b) 3 M ZnSO₄ electrolyte at different current densities (1-100 mA cm⁻²). Reproduced with permission of ref. ^[62]. Copyright 2022, Wiley-VCH. (color on line)

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4 Electrolyte Optimizations

3 4 The role of the electrolyte in AZIBs is indeed crucial, serving 5 as both the conduit that connects the anode and cathode and 6 the carrier for Zn² ion migration. Alkaline electrolytes possess 7 the potential to exacerbate undesirable side reactions at the zinc 8 anode, while acidic environments may result in anode corrosion. 9 Consequently, AZIBs predominantly opt for neutral or mildly 10 acidic electrolytes. Electrolytes encompass salts, solvents, and 11 additives, with the solvation structure of different ions 12 significantly impacting the electrolyte's conductivity, 13 electrochemical stability window, and thermal stability. In 14 contemporary research, a range of water-soluble zinc salts finds 15 application, including zinc sulfate (ZnSO₄), zinc perchlorate (Zn 16 (ClO₄) ₂), zinc chloride (ZnCl₂), zinc trifluoromethanesulfonate 17 (Zn (CF₃SO₃) ₂), and zinc acetate (Zn (CH₃COO) ₂), among 18 others. Among these, ZnSO₄ and Zn (CF₃SO₃) ₂ aqueous solutions enjoy widespread use due to their expansive 19 20 electrochemical stability windows and efficiency in zinc 21 deposition/stripping. Present-day electrolyte engineering 22 primarily concentrates on techniques like eutectic electrolytes. 23 cosolvents, additives, and gel electrolytes and other methods to 24 tailor the solvation structure of the electrolyte, broaden the 25 electrochemical window, suppress side reactions, and optimize 26 the deposition characteristics of zinc anodes. 27

28 4.1 Electrolyte concentration

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30 Optimizing zinc battery performance can be attained by 31 modifying the concentration of zinc salts. This is mainly related 32 to the presence of hydrated ions (e.g. Zn (H₂O) x^{2+} and SO₄²⁻ 33 $(H_2O)_x$, which are highly active species. For example, reducing 34 free water in the bulk electrolyte to diminish the high-energy 35 barriers for Zn² diffusion can significantly enhance the rate 36 performance of zinc batteries. Wang et al. demonstrated the 37 expansion of the voltage window for aqueous electrolytes by 38 elevating salt concentrations to a high level (approximately 21 39 mol kg⁻¹). This approach compels excess anions to aggregate 40 around Zn²⁺, forming an anion-involved solvation structure that 41 suppresses hydrated ions. The "molecularly crowded" electrolyte, 42 introduced at a relatively lower salt concentration (around 2 M), 43 inhibits the activity of water by coordinating with H₂O molecules 44 through the incorporation of high concentrations of crowding Nevertheless, such strategies 45 agents. are deemed 46 unsustainable on a large scale due to their elevated cost, 47 susceptibility to crystallization, and heightened viscosity. In 48 contrast to high concentration electrolyte strategies, a recent 49 study proposed an anomalous ultra-low salt concentration 50 electrolyte strategy. By reducing the concentration of zinc salts, 51 this approach minimizes active hydrated ions, thereby 52 significantly expanding the electrolyte's voltage window and 53 curtailing side reactions induced by water. This strategy 54 diminishes polarization during battery charging and discharging, 55 narrowing the median voltage gap of full-cell operations. Employing this strategy, Zn-polyaniline (PANI) full cells stably 56 function within a voltage range of 0.50-1.50 V, achieving a 57 58 cathode loading of approximately 11 mg cm⁻² with minimal 59 sacrifice of rate performance. In stark contrast to the strategies, 60 Sun et al. employed in situ optical imaging and theoretical 61 modeling to confirm the variance in the dynamic electro-62 deposition behavior of zinc metal under different concentrations 63 of electrolytes and current densities.[62] As shown is Figure 3a, at



a low-concentration 1 M ZnSO₄ electrolyte, as the working current density increased from 1 to 100 mA cm⁻², the zinc deposition morphology transitioned from thermodynamically favorable flake-like shapes to kinetically controlled dense crystals, and finally to diffusion-limited zinc metal columnar morphologies. In contrast, in Figure 3b demonstrated a high-concentration 3 M ZnSO₄ electrolyte promoted ion diffusion and elevated Sand's limiting current density, enabling the formation of dense and highly uniform deposits at high current densities (10-100 mA cm⁻²), thereby achieving high Coulombic efficiency (>99%).

4.2 Eutectic Electrolyte

As analyzed above, the unfavorable factors for zinc anode



protection in AZBs are mainly due to the large amounts of free water present in the solvent. Besides, electrolytes contain Zn [OH]₆²⁺ ions which can also cause severe side reactions such as HER, corrosion and passivation and lead dendrites. To reduce the activity of water molecules, introducing deep eutectic solvents (DES) is an effective strategy. DES is a type of ionic

Figure 4 (a) Schematic illustration of the Zn²⁺ solvation shell and interfacial side reactions in WF, GC, and GF electrolytes. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[66]. Copyright 2023, American Chemical Society. SEM images of deposited Zn in 5 mM THL and 1 M ZSO using SEM images of (b) Zn and (c) Cu substrate and (d) XRD after cycling. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[80]. Copyright 2023, Wiley-VCH. (color on line)

liquid analogues formed from eutectic mixtures of Lewis or Bronsted acids and bases, or Bronsted acids and bases, which can contain a variety of anions and/or cations. Eutectic electrolytes are typically characterized by low melting-point and freezing-point, high vapor pressure, non-flammable. [63] Cui et al. have engineered a eutectic aqueous electrolyte supported by ligand-directed solvation shells. [64] This work combined a hydrated zinc salt (Zn (ClO₄)₂·6H₂O), with a neutral ligand, succinonitrile (SN), to create a new electrolyte. Specifically, SN molecules adeptly supplant the H₂O molecules within the solvation shells of Zn² ions. This substitution raises the desolvation energy of Zn² , ensuring a smoother and more controlled zinc deposition process. Recently, Zhang et al. introduced a novel hydrated eutectic electrolyte (HEE) consisting of Zn (ClO₄)₂-6H₂O, ethylene glycol (EG), and InCl₃ solution, where the dissociative reduction of the eutectic molecules in-situ forms a zincohobic/zincophilic bilayer interfacial phase. [65] The



1 zincophilic interface lowers the energy barrier for Zn nucleation 2 and promotes the uniform deposition of Zn, while the Zn-phobic 3 interface prevents the active water from contacting the Zn 4 surface, thus suppressing the side reaction. Effectively extends 5 the service life of AZIBs over a wide temperature range of -50 to 50 °C (2500 h (at 50 °C) and 800 h (-50 °C) at 1 mA cm⁻²). While 6 7 the eutectic electrolyte approach offers significant improvements 8 in protecting zinc anodes and enhancing the performance of 9 AZIBs, its implementation is challenged by material costs, 10 formulation complexity, and potential environmental impacts. 11 Addressing these limitations through continued research and 12 development will be crucial for the practical and widespread 13 application of this technology.

14 The elevated cost of Zn (CIO₄)₂·6H₂O has prompted 15 exploration into cost-effective alternatives. Yang et al. selected 16 cheaper zinc salt Zn (BF₄)₂-xH₂O and introduced a novel 17 eutectic electrolyte featuring y-butyrolactone (GBL) and Zn 18 (BF₄)₂-xH₂O, which retains the multifunctional attributes of the 19 electrolyte while reducing costs. Zn (BF4)₂-xH₂O is unstable in a 20 pure water-based electrolyte and stable performance cannot be 21 obtained. Experimental results substantiate the effectiveness of 22 this approach.^[66] By forcibly introducing GBL solvent into the 23 solvation shells of Zn² ions and promoting the formation of a 24 fluorine-rich interface at the zinc anode surface through anion 25 decomposition as shown in Figure 4a, reactivity between water 26 and the zinc anode is significantly mitigated. The synergistic 27 effect of these factors ensures remarkable zinc reversibility, with 28 an average Coulombic efficiency of 99.74%, high areal capacity 29 (55 mAh/cm²). Consequently, zinc-ion batteries featuring a VO₂ 30 cathode exhibit outstanding stability over 5000 charge-discharge 31 cycles. The main reason for obtaining dendrite-free zinc anodes 32 from eutectic electrolytes is the use of large amounts of organic 33 solvents, which reduces the amount of free water and changes 34 the coordination environment of Zn²⁺, but eutectic electrolytes 35 are usually viscous and expensive.

37 4.3 Co-solvent electrolyte

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39 In contrast to eutectic electrolytes, an alternative approach 40 known as the co-solvent electrolyte has been developed to 41 address the trade-off between performance and cost in AZIBs. 42 This strategy combines aqueous and non-aqueous components, 43 aiming to harness the inherent non-flammable and non-toxic 44 properties of water-based solutions while effectively modifying 45 the solvation environment of Zn2+. The introduction of co-46 solvents simultaneously reduces the use of organic solvents and 47 water. Specifically, the co-solvent electrolyte involves the 48 replacement of coordinating H₂O molecules in the primary solvation shell of Zn²⁺ with non-aqueous solvents. This alteration 49 50 in the solvation structure of Zn^{2+} reduces the presence of H_2O 51 and increases the coordination number of co-solvents, thus 52 enhancing the smooth and controlled deposition of zinc. One of 53 the primary advantages of this approach lies in its ability to 54 shield reactive zinc metal from direct contact with water, thus 55 mitigating the detrimental effects of the HER, corrosion, and 56 hasty passivation. The strength of interactions between active 57 sites in co-solvents and Zn2+ plays a pivotal role in dictating the 58 interfacial chemistry and the solvation environment, 59 subsequently influencing the kinetics of Zn2+ reactions. For 60 instance, organic solvents containing polar groups or lone-pair 61 electrons, including alcohols, ethers, sulfones, nitriles, or amides, 62 have been identified as cosolvent that can effectively modulate 63 the solvation structure of zinc ions or the strength of hydrogen

bonding within the electrolyte.[67] These co-solvents facilitate stable zinc deposition and stripping processes, consequently enhancing the operational stability and lifespan of AZIBs. It is noteworthy that these mixed electrolytes often exhibit varying physical and electrochemical properties due to the diverse interaction mechanisms between co-solvents and Zn²⁺/H₂O. Cosolvent-based electrolytes typically demonstrate higher viscosity and lower ionic conductivity. Therefore, the selection of appropriate co-solvents becomes imperative, as they must simultaneously improve the stability of the zinc anode, reduce the reactivity of H₂O, and maintain favorable kinetics for Zn²⁺ reactions. Notably, the recent introduction of a highly polar solvent based on urea (TMU) by the Huang research group represents a significant development in co-solvent electrolytes. ^[68] TMU, characterized by its dual-hydrophobic -N(CH₃) ₂ groups and a hydrophilic -C=O group, exhibits complete miscibility with water. This unique property stems from TMU's ability to replace water molecules in the solvation shell of Zn²⁺ entirely. TMU's influence results in the transformation of the solvation structure of Zn²⁺ from [Zn(H₂O)] ²⁺ to [Zn(H₂O) (TMU)] ²⁺, accompanied by the disruption of hydrogen bonds through the -C=O group. Simultaneously, the -N(CH₃) 2 groups prevent H₂O from entering the solvation structure of Zn²⁺, thereby isolating H₂O from direct interaction with the zinc anode. A notable feature of urea is its complete miscibility with water in any proportion, rendering it a versatile component that serves both as a co-solvent and an additive at the interface of zinc anode in AZIBs.

4.4 Additives

Common additives in AZIBs include various water-soluble polymers, organic small molecules, metal ions, and other inorganic substances. The addition of small quantities of additives in the electrolyte can play a crucial role at the electrolyte/electrode interface, influencing the behavior of cations and anions, adjusting the electric field strength, forming protective layers, and inhibiting the growth of zinc dendrites. As mentioned in section 4.3, due to the unique properties of TMU, Yang et al. used a 0.25 M TMU-based 4 M Zn (OTF)₂ aqueous electrolyte, which facilitated the formation of an inorganicorganic bilayer solid electrolyte interface (SEI). [69] This allowed for uniform and rapid transport of Zn² ions, ultimately achieving dendrite-free zinc deposition in zinc symmetric cells, with over 4000 h of cycling life. However, not all solvents are readily miscible with water in all proportions. Many solvents have limited solubility in water, leading to diverse roles for different solvents as additives in AZIBs.

Table 2	Comparison	of cycle	life of	Zn	symmetric	cells	with	different
additives								

Electrolyte	Current density/Capacity (mA cm ⁻² /mAh cm ⁻²)	Cycle life(h)	Ref.
2 M ZnSO₄ + N- Acetyl-ε-caprolactam	0.2/0.2	9800	[70]
1 M ZnSO₄ + 6 M Acetamide	1/1	3000	[18]
2 M ZnSO₄+0.037wt.% fucoidan	1/2	2800	[71]
2 M ZnSO₄+0.5 Mm C ₈ TAB	1/1	2000	[15]
0.5 M Zn (CF ₃ SO ₃) ₂ / H ₂ O + TEP (1:1)	1/1	1500	[34]
2 M ZnSO4 + 67 wt. % maltose	1/0.5	1200	[72]
1 M ZnSO₄ + 5 mM TU	1/1	800	[73]

4 M Zn (CF ₃ SO ₃) ₂ + 0.25 m TMU	0.5/0.5	4080	[69]
2 M ZnSO ₄ + 0.9 g β- CD	4/2	1700	[74]
0.5 M ZnCl ₂ + 1 M TC	1/0.5	2145	[75]
2 M ZnSO ₄ + 5 vol % NMP	5/5	200	[76]
2 M ZnSO4 + 0.05 M SG	1/1	1000	[77]
3 M Zn (CF ₃ SO ₃) ₂ / H ₂ O + surfoplane	5/5	1100	[78]

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2 Esters are typically immiscible with water, and their role as 3 additives in aqueous electrolytes has received limited attention. 4 As mentioned in section 4.1, y-butyrolactone (GBL), due to its 5 limited dispersibility in water, was added in small quantities to 6 the electrolyte by Li and co-workers. [79] They observed a 7 significant transformation in the morphology of zinc deposition 8 from loose accumulation to dense deposition. Even under high 9 current density and large areal capacity, the ultra-dense 10 structure remained unchanged, enabling the zinc anode to 11 endure thousands of cycles, with a lifespan exceeding 1250 h 12 (at 5 mA cm² and 5 mAh cm²). Density functional theory (DFT) 13 calculations revealed that GBL preferentially adsorbs at the 14 interface, altering the zinc ion diffusion from 2D to 3D and 15 significantly promoting the abundant generation of nucleation 16 sites on the zinc anode.

17 In addition to exploring common additives, researchers are 18 also developing novel additives. For instance, recently, the 19 Zhou's group recognized the advantages of trehalose in 20 maintaining biological stability and introduced trehalose into the 21 electrolyte as an additive for the first time. [80] The addition of 22 trehalose facilitated oriented deposition on crystal facets, 23 transforming the electrodeposition from random thin flakes to 24 dense blocks, as shown in Figure 4b and c, exposing the (002) 25 crystal plane (Figure 4d). This resulted in highly reversible zinc 26 anodes, demonstrating an average Coulombic efficiency of up to 27 99.8% in Zn//Cu cells and stable cycling for over 1500 h with a 28 discharge depth of 9.0% in zinc symmetric cells. 29



Gel electrolytes, as a novel class of electrolyte materials, combine the advantages of both liquid and solid electrolytes. They effectively mitigate interfacial side reactions caused by the presence of high concentrations of active water molecules in traditional liquid electrolytes, thereby protecting the zinc anode. Gel electrolytes employ a three-dimensional network structure that restricts the mobility of water molecules, significantly reducing the likelihood of undesired chemical reactions occurring at the electrode/electrolyte interface reactions that are prevalent in liquid electrolyte systems. This restriction of water molecules, coupled with the retention of ionic conductivity, provides a promising strategy for enhancing the stability and cyclability of zinc-based batteries. The common gels are sodium alginate (SA)^[81], polyvinyl alcohol (PVA)^[82], polyvinyl pyrrolidone (PVP), polyacrylamide (PAM)^[83], xanthan gum ^[84] and guar gum^[85] and so on. In addition to this many new gel electrolytes have been developed in recent years. Yang et al. used crosslinked kappa alginate and chitin (Carra Chi) to prepare a gel electrolyte with many polar functional groups (-OH, -NH₂, -SO₄²⁻) that bind water molecules and inhibit rapid electrolyte evaporation and HER.^[86] It was applied to an open symmetric soft-packed battery at 10 mA cm⁻² current density and 35 mAh cm⁻² face capacity, the lifetime reaches about 4000 h. Gel electrolytes not only work wonders in inhibiting HER but have recently been shown to improve zinc deposition orientation as well. Wu et al. designed a multifunctional charged group gel electrolyte using poly(3-(1-vinyl-3-imidazolyl) propane sulfonate) (PVIPS) oligomeric imine gel.[87] The sulfonate and imidazole charged groups in this gel electrolyte can orient the nucleation and deposition plane of Zn²⁺ to the (002) plane. The (002) plane exhibits higher activation energy, which can resist side reactions and induce uniform growth of Zn metal, resulting in a dendritefree structure. In order to increase the mechanical properties of gels, Pan et al. developed a highly entangled gel (Acrylamide (AM, AR) and N, N'-Methylenebis (acrylamide) (MBAA)), which balances high mechanical properties (446 kPa tensile



Figure 5 (a) Loading curves of different separators under uniaxial elongation. (b) Tearing toughness of separators. (c) SEM images and EDS mappings of the ZSH-rich composite layer on the VVLP separator. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[96]. Copyright 2023, Royal Society of Chemistry. (d) Schematic construction of the GF and PTFE. (e) PTFE and GF separator after cycle. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[21]. Copyright 2023, Royal Society of Chemistry. (color on line)

strength) with high ionic conductivity (3.93 mS/cm), resulting in

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stable cycling for 6000 h at a current density of 0.5 mA cm⁻². ^[88] Nevertheless, the use of gels will increase the weight of AZBs, which will decrease the energy density.

5 5. Separator Optimization

6 7 Separators play a crucial role in ensuring the safety and 8 performance of aqueous zinc-ion batteries (AZIBs). To achieve 9 uniform distribution of electric field and ion flux, the separator 10 needs to ensure pore size consistency, distribution, and 11 electrolyte wettability. Commonly employed separators for AZIBs 12 include glass fiber (GF) separators, cellulose-based separators, 13 and polymer-based separators. GF separators are widely used 14 in AZIBs due to their excellent chemical stability, favorable ion 15 conductivity, and compatibility with the electrolyte. However, the 16 low mechanical strength of GF separators has posed challenges, 17 as the highly rigid zinc dendrites with a Young's modulus of 108 18 GPa can readily penetrate these separators, hindering the 19 superior cycling lifespan of AZIBs. Optimization of separator 20 pore structures and zinc affinity can promote uniform zinc ion 21 flow while suppressing dendrite formation. Recent attention has 22 been directed towards functionalization strategies for separators. 23 primarily achieved through the modification of commercial 24 separators or the design of novel self-supporting separators, to 25 enhance the performance of AZIBs. 26

27 5.1 Separator Modification28

29 Methods for the modification of separators primarily involve 30 the incorporation of functional materials on the surface or within 31 the separator matrix, possessing either zinc-affinitive or zinc-32 repelling properties. These materials serve to regulate the 33 distribution and migration of zinc ions, thereby inhibiting the 34 growth of zinc dendrites and preventing the penetration of 35 harmful species. To address these challenges, researchers have 36 introduced various functional materials into glass fiber 37 separators, such as BaTiO₃, cellulose, graphene, and molecular 38 sieves. The addition of these functional materials has 39 demonstrated the capacity to enhance the mechanical 40 properties of glass fiber separators, modulate zinc ion flux and 41 crystal orientation, effectively suppress zinc dendrite growth, and 42 consequently improve the stability and efficiency of batteries. 43 For instance, Wang and colleagues introduced supramolecular 44 entities into glass fiber separators (GF@SM).[89] These entities 45 possess a surface rich in polar functional groups (amino, 46 carbonyl, and triazine), which exhibit favorable adsorption 47 properties towards Zn² ions. This adsorption behavior prevents 48 the localized accumulation of zinc ions and the formation of zinc 49 dendrites

50 Another category of common separators in AZIBs is 51 cellulose-based separators. In comparison to glass fiber, 52 cellulose separators offer multiple advantages, including higher 53 mechanical strength, excellent hydrophilicity, superior insulation 54 properties, and high biodegradability. Wang's group proposed 55 the use of hydrophilic filtration membranes with a uniform pore 56 size distribution as separators for AZIBs.^[90] Research findings 57 indicate that symmetric cells utilizing these filtration membranes 58 exhibited sustained performance for over 2600 h, attributable to 59 the regulatory effect of the uniform porous structure on Zn2+ ion 60 flow. Building upon this concept, recent developments have 61 witnessed the emergence of cellulose-based separators utilizing 62 materials such as filter paper and cotton.^[91, 92] These separators hold promise as they leverage the inherent advantages of 63

cellulose, opening new avenues for enhancing the performance and sustainability of AZIBs.

In addition to glass fiber (GF) and cellulose separator materials, polymer separators have garnered attention for their favorable mechanical properties. However, due to the poor hydrophilicity of most commercial polymer separators, they have not been widely applied in aqueous zinc-ion batteries (AZIBs). Current research is primarily focused on utilizing certain polymers with specific functional groups that can form coordination bonds with zinc ions, thereby facilitating their uniform distribution and mobility within the battery. Therefore, it leads to the development of novel separators that combine hydrophilic substances such as cellulose with these polymers. For example, separators composed of polymer nanofibers, such as polyacrylonitrile (PAN),^[93] polyvinyl alcohol (PVA),^[94] and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), [95] have been developed. It is worth noting that Zhou's group. recently developed a mechanically reinforced separator based on polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), named VVLP. [96] This separator achieves a balance between mechanical toughness, ion conductivity, rapid zinc ion diffusion, and technical feasibility. Notably, the Young's modulus and shear modulus of the VVLP separator are significantly higher than those of the GF separator (Figure 5a and b). VVLP membranes can withstand a high yield stress of 10.9 MPa at 57% strain. As shown in Figure 5c, during the charge-discharge cycling process, the VVLP separator forms an in situ composite layer, which reduces porosity and inhibits the formation of zinc dendrites. The main by-product is zinc sulfate hydroxide hydrate (ZSH, (Zn(OH)₂)₃ZnSO₄ xH₂O). This means that the PVDF separator is difficult to peel off from the electrode, something that numerous researchers do not want. This shortcoming has been attributed to the lack of ion transport in the ion conducting phase, leading to the occurrence of side reactions. To solve this problem, Wu et al. used PTFE-based commercial filter membranes with better mechanical performance as separators for AZIBs.[21] Compared to the GF separator, it possesses a more uniform and immobile structure, the structures are shown in Figure 5d. The PTFE separator showed a thin thickness of 50 μ m, the ability to be fully infiltrated, and mechanical properties with a Young's modulus of 114 MPa after infiltration. As shown in Figure 5 e, the PTFE separator cells are cleaner after cycling of unmodified 2M ZnSO4 electrolyte, resulting 400h cycling life at high current densities (20 mA cm⁻²) and high capacities (20 mAh cm⁻²). This innovative approach utilizes mechanical suppression effects and rapid ion diffusion strategies to address key challenges, including short cycling lifetimes, uncontrolled dendrite growth, and the limited reversibility of zinc metal anodes during high-capacity operation.

Table 3 The comparison of different kinds of separator with various thickness and transference number.



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5.2 Free-standing separators

6 Separator engineering the encompasses not only 7 modification of existing membranes and the implementation of 8 barrier strategies but also the development of novel membrane 9 materials. For example, porous materials such as MOFs and 10 Mexene materials have been used in separators. In a notable contribution, the Zhou's group has introduced a zeolite 11 12 molecular sieve separator, which effectively lowers the water 13 activity within aqueous electrolytes.[107] This zeolite-modified 14 electrolyte preserves a highly active solvation layer and 15 significantly mitigates the reactivity of water molecules. As a result, it exhibits reduced hydrogen evolution and enhanced 16 17 corrosion resistance at the zinc anode. As shown in Figure 6a, 18 the Zn²⁺ ion pairs passing through the molecular sieve are 19 converted from SSIP to CIP. Importantly, due to the reduced 20 water decomposition observed in the zeolite-modified electrolyte, 21 the zinc symmetric cell achieves a substantially extended cycling 22 life, with a remarkable endurance of 4765 h (0.8 mA cm⁻²). 23 Furthermore, the Zn-V₂O₅ cell demonstrates exceptional 24 performance, enduring 3000 cycles. As shown in Figure 6b and 25 Figure 6c, space-resolution operando Raman and micro-infrared spectroscopy showed the composition of the etched zinc foil 26 27 surface. The Zn with zeolite separator showed accumulated 28 lighter by-products. The compact and dense Zn stack deposition 29 pattern also favors the reversibility of the zinc anode.



Figure 6 (a) Solvation structure analysis by space-resolution operando component analysis by Raman spectroscopy and microinfrared spectroscopy and optical microscopy of zinc anodes in (b) pristine $ZnSO_4$ electrolyte and (c) zeolite-modified electrolyte. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[103]. Copyright 2021, Wiley-VCH. (color on line)

Furthermore, Zhou et al. selected a molecular sieve (4A) with a
more suitable pore size for effective application in zinc-iodine
batteries,^[108] maintaining an impressive capacity retention rate of
91.0% and achieving a perfect 100% Coulombic efficiency over



an extensive 30,000 cycles, even when operating at a high current density of 4.0 A g^{-1} .

6. Other Strategies

In addition to the common design modification strategies of anode, electrolyte, and separator, there are many other factors that have an impact, such as the collector, cell case, and charging and discharging conditions. Stainless steel (SS) coin cells are widely used to evaluate the electrochemical performance of AZIBs. However, a study by Zhou's group found that HER occurs significantly in SS button cell materials with subsequent accumulation of insulating layered double hydroxide byproducts. [14] In this study, titanium (Ti) foil was used as a spacer to act as a barrier to prevent direct contact between the electrolyte and the SS material, as shown in Figure 7a. Without modifications to the electrodes, electrolyte, or separator, the Ti foil spacer cells increased the cycle life of the battery by more than 10 times compared to the SS cells, reaching an astonishing 1200 h (Figure 7b). This is mainly attributed to the lower HER activity of Ti relative to SS, which greatly reduces side reactions within the cell. HER and the kinetics of the zinc plating/stripping mechanism are closely related. Recently, Yang et al. found a significant concentration gradient of solvated Zn (H₂O)₆²⁺ species at high current densities, which was identified as the main species triggering HER. [109] At a low current density (0.3 mA cm⁻²), zinc electrodeposition exhibits a hexagonal platelet structure, which shows high porosity in cross-sectional view (Figure 7c). Samples subjected to zinc electrodeposition/stripping cycles display numerous irregular residues, characterized by high porosity and difficulty in stripping

> **Figure 7** (a) Schematic diagram of a Zn symmetric cell with Ti spacer. (b) Comparison of cycle life curves for Zn symmetric cells. Crosssectional SEM images of zinc electrodeposition on a copper substrate show distinct morphologies under different conditions. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[14] Copyright 2023, Royal Society of Chemistry. Zinc plating at (c) low current density and (e) high current density exhibit different structural features. After zinc plating/stripping cycles, the samples reveal (d) the morphology at low current density and (f) the morphology at high current density. Topsectional SEM images and corresponding elemental mapping further Uhighlight the differences in zinc plating morphology at (g) low current density and (h) high current density. Reproduced with the authors' permission of ref. ^[105]. Copyright 2024, Royal Society of Chemistry. (color on line)



at a high cutoff potential of 0.5 V (Figure 7d). At a high current density (30.0 mA cm⁻²), zinc electrodeposition forms a densely packed structure without noticeable platelet ZSH species (Figure 7e). The uniform dense pattern observed under repeated high current density electrodeposition facilitates rapid electron/ion

1 diffusion and high reversibility of stripping (Figure 7f), with 2 negligible byproducts. Surface SEM images (Figure 7g, h) and 3 corresponding EDS mapping clearly illustrate the differences in 4 zinc deposition morphology obtained at high and low current 5 densities. At a low current density, HER near the zinc metal's negative electrode acts as a competitive side reaction, releasing 6 7 OH-, which promotes the formation of ZSH. ZSH further 8 precipitates on the zinc metal surface to form a passivation film. 9 High current densities generate high electric fields, resulting in 10 significant Zn $(H_2O)_{6^{2+}}$ concentration gradients, which induce 11 sparse Zn $(H_2O)_{6^{2+}}$ concentrations at the interface, limiting Zn²⁺ 12 mass transport or slowing down the kinetics of zinc 13 electrodeposition. Zn (H₂O)₆²⁺ exhibits a relatively low energy 14 barrier in HER, and thus, at high current densities, AZIBs 15 obtained fewer by-products on the zinc-coated/stripped zinc 16 surface.

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18 7. Summary and outlook

20 The study of inhibiting zinc dendrite formation in AZIBs 21 continues to present several significant challenges. These 22 challenges encompass material design, electrolyte stability, and 23 separator engineering, all of which are directed towards the 24 objective of restraining zinc dendrite formation to enhance the 25 overall performance of AZIBs. Despite notable progress in 26 mitigating zinc dendrite growth at the negative electrode in 27 AZIBs, several unresolved issues persist. Future endeavors will 28 be focused on addressing these challenges with the aim of 29 further enhancing AZIBs performance and its potential 30 applications. Potential research directions include:

31 1) A theoretical investigation into the mechanisms of zinc 32 dendrites formation at the negative electrode. The major of 33 current research is focused on the development of methods for 34 suppression and elimination zinc dendrite growth, with the 35 aiming of improving the cycling performance of AZIBs. 36 Nevertheless, future research must investigate the fundamental 37 mechanisms regulating zinc nucleation and growth on the 38 negative electrode surface during the initial stages of deposition 39 in greater depth. To achieve this goal, it will be necessary to 40 adopt a multifaceted approach, encompassing experimental, 41 computational, and theoretical calculations.

42 2) The integration of diverse strategies to jointly suppress or 43 eliminate zinc dendrites. The current research strategies 44 primarily focus on assessment of the impact of individual factors 45 on zinc dendrite growth, including electrode additives, surface 46 modifications, structural optimization, electrolyte adjustments, 47 and separator enhancements. An effective integration of these 48 strategies may facilitate a more comprehensive mitigation of 49 dendrite formation

50 3) Using in-situ techniques for tracking zinc Ion 51 electrodeposition. The deployment of sophisticated in-situ 52 techniques to monitor the electroplating behavior of zinc ions 53 offer considerable promise for attaining a comprehensive 54 understanding of their deposition dynamics. Direct observation 55 of authentic zinc nucleation and growth within operational 56 batteries can contribute substantially to a deeper comprehension 57 of the mechanisms governing zinc dendrite formation. This 58 insight will guide the development of tailored strategies for 59 dendrite growth inhibition.

60 These prospective research directions hold considerable 61 potential to advance the field of AZIBs, address its extant 62 challenges, enhance its performance, and facilitate progress 63 toward greater sustainability and efficiency.

Acknowledgements

G. W. acknowledges for the scholarship from the China Scholarship Council (CSC), China, and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), Japan. Y. Y. and W. Y. acknowledge for scholarships from China Scholarship Council (CSC).

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水性锌离子电池的无枝晶策略:结构、电解质和隔 膜

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摘要: 能源需求的持续增长和环境污染的加剧构成了亟待解决的主要挑战。开发和利用风能和太阳能等可再 生、可持续的清洁能源至关重要。然而,这些间歇性能源的不稳定性使得对储能系统的需求日益迫切。水系锌离子 电池(AZIBs)因其独特优势,如高能量密度、成本效益、环保性和安全性,受到广泛关注。然而,AZIBs 面临着 重大挑战,主要是锌枝晶的形成严重影响了电池的稳定性和寿命,导致电池失效。因此,减少锌枝晶的形成对于提 高 AZIBs 的性能至关重要。本综述系统而全面地梳理了当前抑制锌枝晶形成的策略和进展。通过综合分析锌阳极、 电解质、隔膜设计和改性以及其他新机制的最新发展,为研究人员提供一个透彻的理解,以指导未来的研究,推动 水性锌离子电池技术的发展。

关键词:水系锌离子电池 无枝晶 锌阳极 电解质优化 隔膜设计 析氢反应