



**Nano-fibrillated Cellulose/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/Polytetrafluoroethylene  
Hybrid Protective Layer Enabling Dendrite Free Zn Anodes  
for Rechargeable Aqueous Batteries**

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# 1 Nanofibrillated Cellulose/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/Polytetrafluoroethylene Hybrid Protective Layer

## 2 Enabling Dendrite Free Zn Anodes for Rechargeable Aqueous Batteries

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### 11 Abstract

12 Aqueous zinc ion batteries (ZIBs) are considered as promising options for energy storage  
13 devices due to their high safety and abundant resources. However, Zn dendrites and short-circuit  
14 pose a significant challenge. To address this issues, a hybrid protective membrane of  
15 nanofibrillated cellulose (NFC)/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/ Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) was fabricated and  
16 coated on the surface of zinc metal anode. The in-situ formation of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles  
17 created nano pores inside the dense NFC network, while the addition of PTFE improved the  
18 adhesion of protective membrane to the surface of zinc metal. The NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating  
19 layer restricted the active water and anions from the electrode/electrolyte interface by  
20 dehydrating zinc ions, thus preventing water and anion-induced corrosions. With the  
21 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer, zinc symmetric batteries exhibited significantly improved  
22 cycling performance with highly stabilized charge/discharge profiles, outperforming bare zinc  
23 symmetric batteries. Furthermore, full vanadium dioxide (VO<sub>2</sub>)||NFC/ Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn  
24 batteries demonstrated a high initial specific capacity of 406.2 mAh g<sup>-1</sup> at 2 A g<sup>-1</sup> and excellent

25 cycling stability with a 94% retention of initial capacity after 300 cycles , and 72% after 3300  
26 cycles, making them practical for energy storage applications.

27 **Keywords:** Zn ion battery, dendrite-free anode, inhibit water-induced corrosion, protective  
28 coating layer

## 29 1. Introduction

30 Fast depletion of unsustainable fossil fuels (i.e., coal, oil, and gas) and their detrimental  
31 impacts on the environment along with growing population have increased the demand for  
32 alternative green energies such as solar, wind, geothermal, and biofuels<sup>1,2</sup>. With the wide  
33 utilization of intermittently available solar and wind energy, there is an urgent need for the  
34 development of grid-scale energy storage devices that are safe, reliable, and low-cost<sup>3,4</sup>. Despite  
35 the excellent performance of lithium-ion batteries in some applications, their application is  
36 limited in grid-scale energy storage systems due to their safety issues and high cost<sup>5</sup>. Hence,  
37 rechargeable aqueous zinc-ion batteries (ZIBs) have attracted increasing attention widely owing  
38 to safety, low toxicity, and abundant raw materials<sup>4,6</sup>. Due to its low cost and the ability for  
39 industrial manufacturing, Zn metal is widely employed as the anode for ZIBs. Moreover, its high  
40 volumetric capacity (5854 mAh/cm<sup>3</sup>), high gravimetric capacity (820 mAh/g), and low redox  
41 potential (-0.76 V vs standard hydrogen electrode) has made the Zn metal an appropriate anode  
42 for next-generation energy storage technologies<sup>4,7</sup>. However, one of the main challenges in  
43 developing commercial Zn metal anodes is the formation of dendrites. When Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions are  
44 deposited onto the surface of the anode during the plating process, they frequently build up  
45 protrusions due to their high surface energy. This leads to the formation and continued growth of  
46 Zn dendrites, which can penetrate through the separator, causing a short-circuit failure<sup>8,9</sup>. The  
47 application of ZIBs is also hindered by the unstable Zn anode/electrolyte interface due to the

48 water-induced hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and chemical corrosions, decreasing the  
49 Coulombic efficiency and cycling lifetime of ZIBs <sup>7,10</sup>.

50 In order to address the abovementioned problems, some strategies have been employed,  
51 including using Zn alloys <sup>11</sup>, constructing artificial interfaces <sup>10,12,13</sup>, modifying electrolytes using  
52 electrolyte additives <sup>14,15,16</sup>, and fabricating functional separators <sup>17,18</sup>. Among them, the addition  
53 of a protective interface layer as an artificial interface is a promising approach to make the  
54 surface electric field uniform and prevent the dendrite formation on the Zn anode. An artificial  
55 coating layer with appropriate stability in aqueous electrolyte, good ionic conductivity, and  
56 uniform porosity can regulate the deposition of Zn ions on the Zn anode surface <sup>15,19,20</sup>.

57 As natural organic polymers, cellulose nanomaterials (CNMs) are produced after the  
58 chemical and physical treatment of sustainable fiber sources from trees, plants, sugarcane, and  
59 other biomass. CNMs have two main forms – nanofibrillated cellulose (NFC) and cellulose  
60 nanocrystals (CNCs), which can be used for different applications <sup>21,22</sup>. Favorable properties of  
61 CNMs including high mechanical strength, hydrophilicity, and biodegradation rate have made  
62 CNMs an appropriate material for use in energy storage devices such as ZIBs <sup>17,23,24</sup>. With  
63 further development, CNMs can be used as coating suspensions and separators to inhibit dendrite  
64 growth on the zinc anode of ZIBs and improve their performance <sup>17,25</sup>. Moreover, utilizing  
65 cellulose-based materials as a sustainable protective layer prevents water-induced side reactions  
66 such as hydrogen evolution reactions in the electrode-electrolyte interface to further improve the  
67 cycling performance of ZIBs <sup>20,26,27</sup>. Liu et al. <sup>10</sup> used lignin-containing cellulose nanofiber  
68 (LCNF) and MXene (LM) to enhance the stability of the zinc anode interface. Their results  
69 revealed that LCNF component offers considerable mechanical strength, preventing the dendrite  
70 growth due to limited diffusion. Meanwhile, MXene plays a role as a zinc gating layer,

71 facilitating the movement of zinc ions, guiding the deposition of zinc ions along the (002) plane.  
72 Guo et al.<sup>30</sup> developed a porous zinc electrode coated with polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) for  
73 improved performance in zinc-ion batteries. Their result showed that the addition of PTFE has  
74 several positive effects: it suppressed the hydrogen evolution reaction, ensuring the stability of  
75 the zinc metal anode; it enabled dendrite-free zinc plating, enhancing long-term battery  
76 performance; and it contributed to improved cycling performances of the Zn||V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> battery,  
77 thanks to the artificial layer provided by the PTFE coating. Therefore, in order to investigate the  
78 zinc anode dendrite suppression, active water restriction, and corrosion prevention, an ideal  
79 protective layer would need to combine a sustainable porous material with an artificial protective  
80 layer to suppress dendrite formation and ameliorate the cycling performance of Zn-ion battery.

81         Herein, the main objective of this study is to develop a novel nanofibrillated cellulose  
82 (NFC)/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE protective layer to hinder the growth of dendrites, regulate the deposition  
83 of Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions, and stabilize the Zn metal anode in ZIBs. The hydrophilic NFC layer absorbs the  
84 free water molecules and prevents water-induced corrosion reactions in electrode-electrolyte  
85 interface. In addition, the in-situ formation of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles increases the porosity of  
86 NFC network interfacial layer and improves the electrolyte uptake. Moreover, Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>  
87 nanoparticles can effectively fill the spaces between cellulose nanofibers, resulting to a higher  
88 surface area and increased formation of voids within the film structure, thereby enhancing  
89 porosity. The porous structure of NFC network, as uniform channels, has a shunt effect on Zn  
90 ions, which provides position selected uniform ion transportation and even electrochemical  
91 deposition. The addition of PTFE to the coating suspension ameliorates the adhesion of  
92 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> suspension to the surface of Zn metal. Finally, the aforementioned mechanisms  
93 prevent the dendrite growth of zinc, enhance the cycling life and stability of ZIBs.

## 94 **2. Experimental section**

### 95 **2.1. Materials**

96 Commercially grade NFC (15 wt.% solid concentration) was purchased from the  
97 University of Maine (Orono, ME, USA). Ethanol (98%) and oxalic acid dihydrate (>99%) were  
98 purchased from Fisher Scientific Co (Hampton, NH, USA). Carbon black powder (CB 60),  
99 Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) (Condensed Liquid Binder, EQ-Lib-PTFE), and coin-type cell  
100 parts (CR2032) were supplied by MTI corporation (Richmond, CA, USA).

### 101 **2.2. Preparation of NFC/Al (OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating suspension**

102 NFC material (3.5 g) was first added to 100 ml NaOH solution (2 wt.%) and the  
103 suspension was stirred for one hour. In situ synthesis of Al (OH)<sub>3</sub> was performed by the addition  
104 of 0.05 g Al foil to the as-prepared alkaline NFC suspension and the mixture was stirred for 24 h  
105 at room temperature. Then, hydrochloric acid (HCl) was added to the mixture to decrease pH,  
106 accelerate the hydrolysis reaction, and facilitate the conversion of sodium aluminate into  
107 aluminum hydroxide. After that, the suspension was rinsed with deionized (DI) water and  
108 centrifuged three times at 10000 rpm for 7 minutes. Finally, the as-obtained cake material was  
109 dispersed in DI water to form the NFC/Al (OH)<sub>3</sub> suspension. The coating suspension was  
110 prepared by the addition of PTFE (1:1 weight ratio based on the dried NFC) followed by stirring  
111 and sonication for 1 h. Finally, the suspension was casted onto the surface of circle bare zinc  
112 foils (diameter = 0.8 cm) and dried at room temperature (25 °C) for 24 h. The mass ratio between  
113 the protective layer and the zinc anode foil was around 0.028 and the thickness of the protective  
114 layer was around 20 μm.

### 115 **2.3. Preparation of VO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers**

116 The VO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers were prepared based on the method by Xu et al.<sup>19</sup>. First, oxalic acid  
117 (5 g) was dissolved and stirred in 60 mL deionized water. Then, 2.5 g divanadium pentoxide  
118 (V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) was added into the solution. The solution was stirred at 25 °C for 1 h to obtain a  
119 transparent blue solution. The solution was then transferred to a Teflon-lined autoclave for  
120 heating at 180 °C for 12 h. Then, the precipitated material was collected with centrifugation and  
121 washed with deionized water and ethanol for three times respectively. The final product was  
122 obtained after drying at 70 °C for 24h.

#### 123 **2.4. Material characterization**

124 The XRD analysis was conducted using a PANalytical Empyrean X-ray Diffractometer  
125 (Malvern Panalytical Ltd., Malvern, Worcestershire, UK) equipped with a CuK $\alpha$  radiation source  
126 ( $\lambda = 0.15418$  nm) at 45 kV and 40 mA with the  $2\theta$  range from 5° to 90° and a scan rate of 1° per  
127 minute to evaluate the crystal structure of hybrid coating material. The surface and cross-section  
128 morphologies of coated Zn foils were observed by Quanta™ 3D DualBeam™ FEG FIB-SEM  
129 (FEI Co, Eindhoven, Netherlands) at an acceleration voltage of 20 kV. Prior to SEM  
130 observations, a sputter-coater was used to coat the samples with Pt. The morphology of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>  
131 nanoparticles and NFC was analyzed using transmission electron microscope (TEM) (JEM 1400,  
132 JEOL Inc., Peabody, MA, USA) with an accelerating voltage of 120 kV. Prior to TEM imaging,  
133 each suspension was diluted to 0.002 wt. % using deionized water and subjected to a 30-minute  
134 ultrasonic treatment. The Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) observations were conducted using a  
135 Bruker Dimension Icon XR (Bruker Nano Inc, Tucson, AZ, USA). The energy-dispersive X-ray  
136 spectroscopy (EDS) was conducted to analyze the elemental compositions of the coating layer.  
137 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) data were gathered by applying an AC potential  
138 with an amplitude of 5 mV across a frequency range of 0.01-100 kHz. The measurement of the

139 porosity of the membranes was conducted using the following procedure. First, 3 circular  
140 specimens of NFC, as control, and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE membrane were dried in an oven set at a  
141 temperature of 60°C for 24 hours and the weight of the dried samples ( $W_{dry}$ ) and their thickness  
142 was measured. After that, specimens were completely submerged in ethanol for a duration of 5  
143 hour. The specimens were removed from ethanol and wiped with a damp linen cloth saturated  
144 with ethanol. They were then promptly weighed in the to obtain the wet weight ( $W_{wet}$ ). The  
145 porosity (P) of the membranes was subsequently determined by employing the following  
146 equation:

$$147 \quad P (\%) = \frac{(W_{wet} - W_{dry})/\rho_e}{(W_{wet} - W_{dry})/\rho_e + W_{dry}/\rho_m} \quad (1)$$

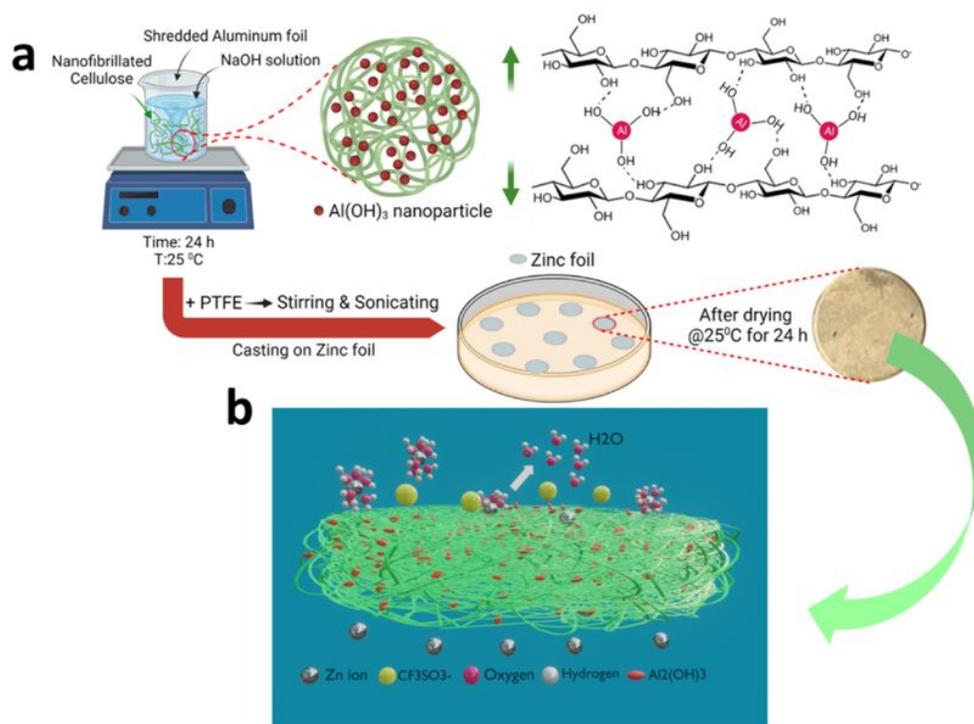
148 where,  $W_{wet}$  and  $W_{dry}$  are the mass of the wet and the dry membranes, respectively, while  $\rho_e$  and  
149  $\rho_m$  are the density of ethanol and the membrane, respectively.

## 150 **2.5. Coin cell assembling and electrochemical measurement**

151 For making full cell coin batteries, cathode was prepared by mixing a composition of as-  
152 prepared VO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers, carbon black, and PTFE binder with a weight ratio of (6:3:1) in  
153 ethanol, followed by grinding in a mortar and pestle. Glass fiber and 3M Zn (CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> aqueous  
154 solution were used as the separator and electrolyte, respectively. The symmetric coin cell  
155 batteries were assembled using same bare and coated zinc foils as both anode and cathode to  
156 evaluate the stripping/plating behavior and cycling stability of the batteries. The galvanostatic  
157 charge-discharge (GCD) electrochemical tests were carried out on a multichannel LAND battery  
158 analyzer (CT3001A, LAND Electronics Corporation, Wuhan, China) with the voltage range of  
159 0.2 - 1.6 V at room temperature. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) test was conducted on an  
160 electrochemical workstation (CHI 760e) in a potential range of 0.2-1.7 V.

161 **3. Results and Discussion**

162 Fig.1 shows the schematic of the in-situ formation process of  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles in  
 163 the NFC and the coating process of hybrid NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE as a protective interface layer  
 164 on the bare zinc foil. The spacing between the cellulose molecular chains and the hydrogen  
 165 bonding between  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  and NFC can facilitate the transfer of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions through the interface  
 166 layer.



167  
 168 **Fig.1.** Schematic illustration of (a) in-situ fabrication of  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles in NFC, and  
 169 coating Zn foil using the NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE suspension as a hybrid protective layer, and (b) the  
 170 membrane's ion sieving mechanism illustrating how the movement of the bulky hydrated  
 171  $\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3^-$  anion and water molecules within the hydrated  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  being impeded.

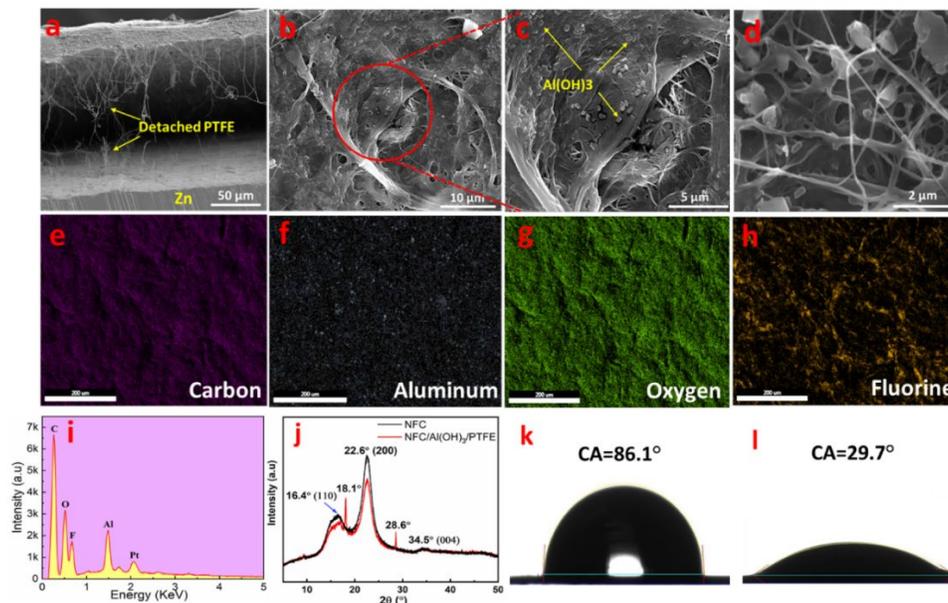
172 The cross-section and surface morphology of the NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE coated Zn is  
 173 displayed in Fig.2 (a-d). The detached coated membrane from the Zn surface after cutting shows

174 the PTFE fibers, which confirms the appropriate adhesion of hybrid membrane on the surface of  
175 Zn anode. The  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles and micro/nano porous structure of coated membrane are  
176 shown in Fig. 2 (b-d). The in-situ synthesis of  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles renders the establishment  
177 of interconnected nanoscale tortuous channels inside the dense NFC. Transmission Electron  
178 Microscopy (TEM) was employed to observe the distribution of nanoparticles within the NFC  
179 matrix, as is shown in Fig. S1 (supporting information). TEM images illustrate the well-  
180 distributed nanoparticles within the NFC matrix, showcasing a uniform dispersion throughout the  
181 nanofibrillated cellulose. AFM was used to provide more details of protective layer's topographical  
182 features as is shown in Fig. S2. Low heights (dark colors) in Fig. S2a represent regions of the  
183 surface of protective layer that are lower in height, indicating smoother or less textured surface.  
184 High heights (bright colors) represent elevated features on the sample surface such as NFC,  
185  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles, or other topographical variations during the casting of the protective  
186 layer. The color gradient in Fig S2b, corresponding to the force values ranging from -8.3 to 8 nN,  
187 represents the varying forces between the AFM tip and the sample surface during scanning.  
188 Bright areas indicate strong adhesion or interaction forces and dark areas suggest smoother,  
189 reduced adhesion or minimal interaction between the tip and the surface of protective layer. The  
190 results of porosity measurements revealed that the porosity of NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE membrane is  
191 around  $53.1 \pm 3.6\%$  which is considerably higher than the porosity of neat NFC membrane  
192 ( $23.1 \pm 6.7\%$ ). EDS elemental mappings as shown in Fig 2. (e-g) confirm that the elements C,  
193 Al, O, and F are uniformly distributed in the coated hybrid membrane. The recorded EDS  
194 spectrum of coated material is shown in Fig. 2 h. The strong signal of Al element supports the in-  
195 situ synthesis of  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  nanoparticles inside the NFC suspension. The crystalline structure of  
196 NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE protective layer was evaluated by XRD, as shown in Fig. 2j. The results

197 revealed that both NFC and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE membrane show cellulose I $\beta$  crystalline  
198 structure with different intensities, where the main characteristic peaks at 16.4° (110), 22.6°  
199 (200), and 34.5° (004) can be observed<sup>21</sup>. The sharp peak at around 2 $\theta$ =18.1° could be attributed  
200 to the crystalline structure of PTFE corresponding to diffraction in the (100) plane<sup>28</sup>. Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>  
201 nanoparticles also exhibit a dominant narrow peak around 18.1° corresponding to the (002)  
202 crystal plane of monoclinic phase. Moreover, the small narrow peak at 2 $\theta$ =28.6° can be ascribed  
203 to the (202) plane of crystallized in-situ prepared Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles. The XRD pattern of  
204 separately prepared pure Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and PTFE is shown in Fig. S3. The pattern of the  
205 Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles matches the literature values, demonstrating their high degree of  
206 crystallinity<sup>29</sup>. The presence of narrow and sharp peaks further confirms the well-defined  
207 crystalline structure of the Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles. Moreover, the synthesis of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> was  
208 confirmed by observing the formation of a distinct white precipitate resulting from the reaction.  
209 The emergence of this white precipitate provided further evidence that Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> was successfully  
210 synthesized in the process. The contact angle measurement was conducted using 3 M  
211 Zn(CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> electrolyte solution on the bare zinc foil and the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coated Zn  
212 foil. As demonstrated in Fig. 2 (k,l), the contact angle of NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @ Zn (29.7°) is  
213 much lower in comparison with the contact angle of bare Zn foil (86.1°), reflecting its enhanced  
214 wettability and electrolyte affinity due to the presence of abundant hydroxyl groups in the coated  
215 hybrid layer. The cellulose, which possesses numerous surface functional groups such as C-OH  
216 and C-COOH, is believed to undergo deprotonation in the electrolyte. This deprotonation process  
217 enhances the cellulose's affinity for cations, thereby facilitating their adsorption and flux across  
218 the membrane, while exhibiting the less tendency for anions. This mechanism can effectively  
219 prevent the occurrence of the anion decomposition or corrosion reaction. In the Zn(CF<sub>3</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>

220 electrolyte, each  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ion is bound to six  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, which imparts an extremely high  
221 desolvation energy to  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  <sup>19</sup>. When using NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE protective layer,  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  initially  
222 coordinates with two C-OH terminals on the NFC backbone structure, followed by coordination  
223 with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules, leading to the desolvation process. As illustrated in Fig. 1, the protective  
224 layer can capture active water molecules and prevent them from reaching the  
225 electrolyte/electrode interface, which can facilitate improved kinetics of Zn plating/stripping.  
226 This implies that a desolvation and ion-selective membrane are advantageous for enhancing the  
227 performance of zinc metal batteries <sup>19</sup>.

228         The Zn plating/stripping electrochemical performance was studied using symmetric  
229 Zn||Zn batteries with and without NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE coating layers. Fig. 3a demonstrates the  
230 cycling performance of symmetric bare Zn and NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE @ Zn cells at 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>,  
231 0.5 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup>. Symmetric NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE @Zn cell exhibits stable cycling and smooth  
232 voltage profile for over 260 h. However, using the bare Zn in the symmetric cell causes unstable  
233 charge/discharge cycling at the beginning and rapid short circuit after only 20 hours. The long  
234 cycling properties of symmetric bare Zn and NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE @ Zn cells at 1 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> are  
235 shown in Fig.3b. The results illustrate that NFC/ $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ /PTFE coating on the zinc surface



236

237 **Fig. 2.** Material characteristics of the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer: (a) SEM images of  
 238 cross-section of coated Zn with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE, (b-d) surface of the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE  
 239 coating layer, EDS mapping (e-h), EDS spectrum of prepared NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE membrane  
 240 (i), XRD patterns of pure NFC membrane and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer (j), contact  
 241 angles on bare zinc anode (k) and coated Zn with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE (l).

242 significantly enhances the stability and cycling life of the battery for over 1000 hours.

243 Nevertheless, the battery without coating suffered from the severe fluctuations in the first 100  
 244 hours and short circuit occurred after around 500 hours. This fluctuation during the

245 charge/discharge and rapid short circuit failure could be attributed to the irregular deposition and  
 246 fast longitudinal growth of dendrites that penetrate through the separator. In order to understand  
 247 the effectiveness of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and PTFE on the cycling performance of batteries,

248 Zn//Zn symmetric batteries with NFC @Zn and PTFE @Zn coating layers were tested at 2.5

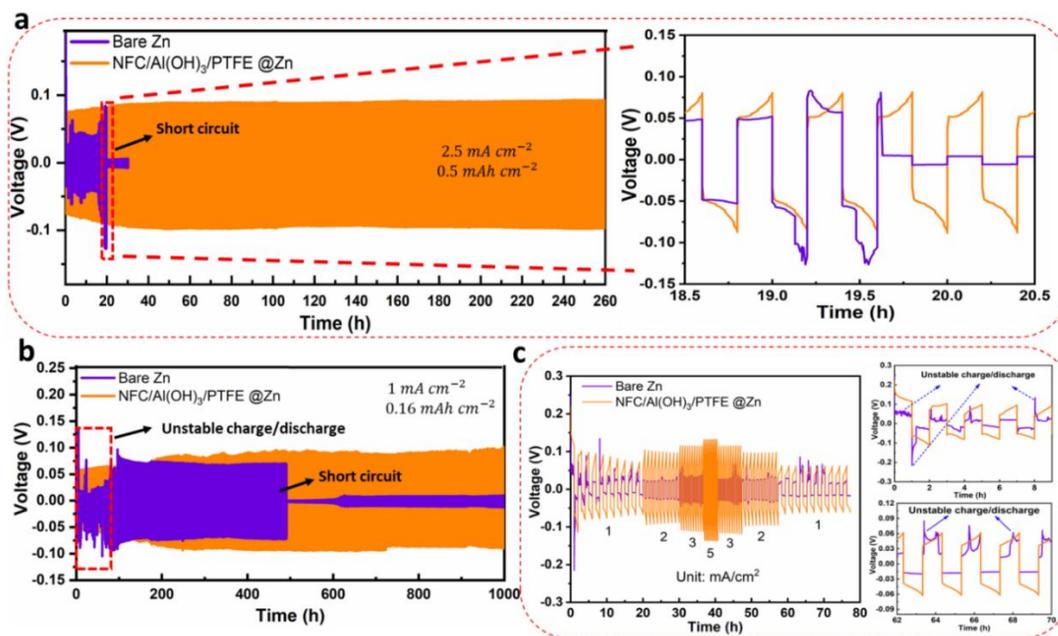
249 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (0.5 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup>), which are demonstrated in Fig. S4. The PTFE coating was applied on

250 the surface of zinc plates through casting of PTFE emulsion (70 μl PTFE in 10 ml DI water). The

251 results revealed that the symmetric PTFE @Zn cell leads to relatively unstable charge/discharge  
252 cycling, higher overpotential, and eventually results in a short circuit within a mere 120 hours.  
253 The presence of the inert and insulating PTFE coating may impact the kinetics of Zn plating and  
254 stripping, leading to a higher overpotential and instability because of increased charge-transfer  
255 resistance. However, the application of pure PTFE coating addresses the issues related to  
256 hydrogen evolution and Zn corrosion. This synthetic PTFE layer serves multiple purposes,  
257 including facilitating controlled  $Zn^{2+}$  migration, promoting uniform nucleation of Zn metal,  
258 acting as a barrier against water and oxygen ingress and finally improve the cycling life of  
259 batteries <sup>30</sup>. The cycling of NFC @Zn symmetric batteries showed relatively more stable  
260 charge/discharge behavior and slightly higher cycling life around 150 cycles. The improved  
261 cycling life and stability could be attributed to the restriction of the access of active water and  
262 anions to the electrode/electrolyte interface, which effectively inhibits corrosion induced by  
263 water and anions. However, hybrid NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating, shows a prolonged and smooth  
264 cycling lifespan (Fig. 3a), which could be attributed to the combined effect of uniform and slow  
265 deposition of  $Zn^{2+}$  ions and lower probability of side reactions such as hydrogen evolution  
266 reaction (HER). On the other hand, the abundance of hydroxyl groups on the surface of NFC can  
267 promote the even deposition of  $Zn^{2+}$  on the anode (Q. Li et al., 2022; Z. Li et al., 2023). Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>  
268 nanoparticles create nano channels inside the dense structure of NFC network and its dual  
269 function as water-gating and zinc-sieving improves the uniform penetration of  $Zn^{2+}$  ions into the  
270 coated layer, resulting in evenly deposition of  $Zn^{2+}$  ions on the anode surface and prevent the  
271 growth of Zn dendrites. Moreover, NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating may also act as a kind of gel  
272 polymer electrolyte which can decrease the fast transfer of  $Zn^{2+}$  ions and prevent the rapid  
273 growth of dendrites <sup>31</sup>. The hybrid coating layer, as a solid-electrolyte interface, prevents the

274 direct contact of H<sub>2</sub>O molecules and Zn anode surface and inhibits hydrogen evolution reaction  
275 <sup>30,32</sup>. In spite of improved cycling life and stability of the battery with coated Zn anode, the  
276 potential of symmetric NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn is only slightly higher than the symmetric bare  
277 Zn cell. The increased polarization potential can be ascribed to the sluggish behavior of Zn<sup>2+</sup>  
278 desolvation on the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE hybrid membrane because of the interactions between  
279 Zn[(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub>]<sup>+2</sup> complex, Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles and abundant hydroxyl groups of NFC.  
280 Consequently, the Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions cannot easily reach to the surface of anode, electron tunneling is  
281 reduced, and it needs more energy to break the Zn<sup>2+</sup> solvation sheath <sup>33</sup>. In order to determine  
282 the optimal thickness for the protective layer, impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted to  
283 assess the transfer impedance of Zn<sup>+2</sup> at thicknesses of 10, 20, and 30 μm (Fig. S5a). The results  
284 revealed an increase in thickness corresponded to higher resistance, indicative of reduced ionic  
285 conductivity. Subsequently, the cycling stability of symmetric batteries was tested with  
286 protective layers of varying thicknesses at a current density of 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (0.5 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup>). as is  
287 shown in Fig. S5b. While the protective layer with a thickness of 10 μm demonstrated favorable  
288 ionic conductivity, as indicated by the EIS results, its cycling stability proved inadequate.  
289 Additionally, it did not effectively inhibit dendrite formation, leading to a short circuit.  
290 Conversely, the thickest protective layer exhibited low ionic conductivity, resulting in increased  
291 internal resistance within the battery. This increased resistance contributes to higher  
292 overpotentials during charge/discharge, leading to unstable charge/discharge and reduced cycling  
293 life. Furthermore, the low ionic conductivity hampers the transport of ions between the  
294 electrodes, impacting the kinetics of electrochemical reactions. This sluggish ion transport can  
295 manifest in slower charge/discharge rates and an overall decrease in the performance of

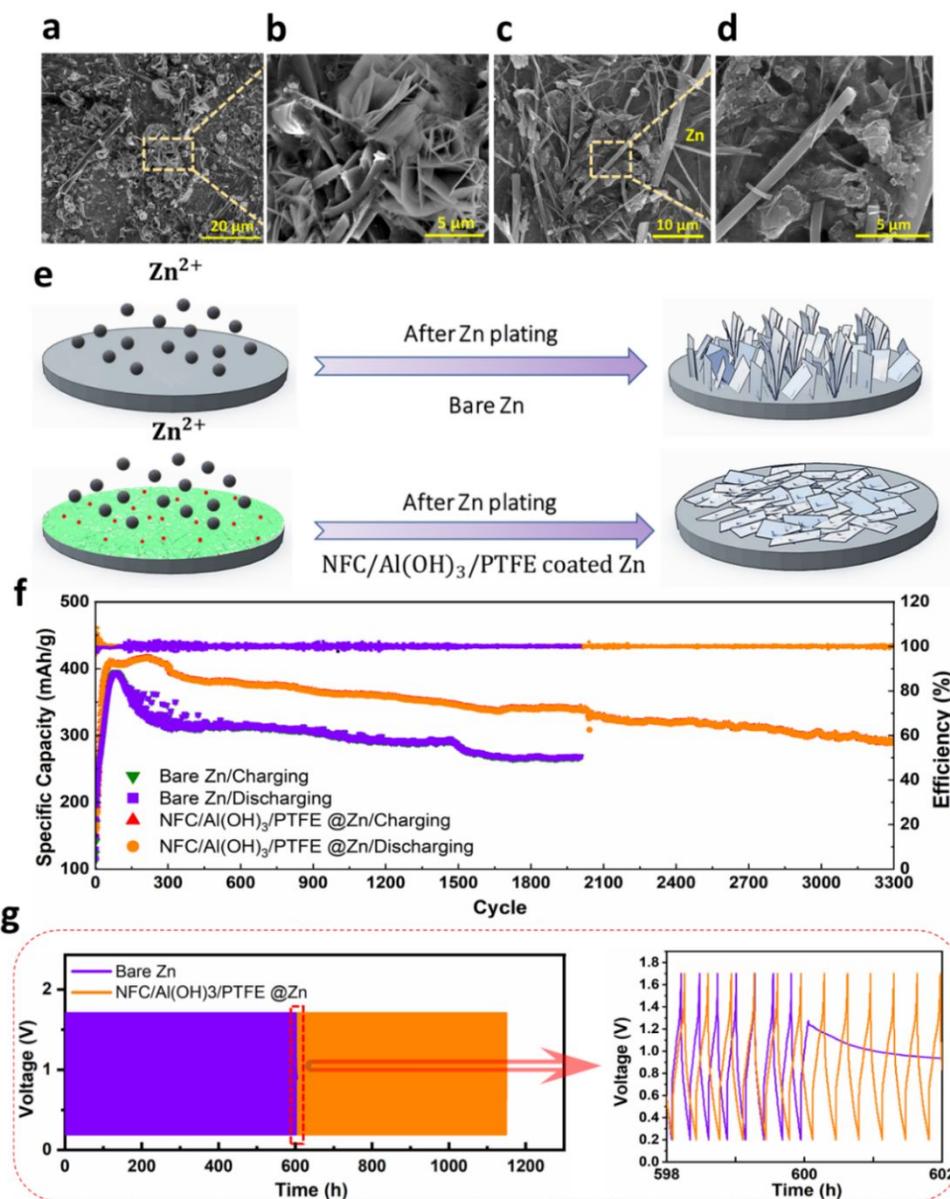
296 batteries<sup>33</sup>. These results highlighted that the 20  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness exhibited an extended cycling life  
 297 with acceptable ion transportation, representing the optimized thickness.



298  
 299 **Fig. 3.** Electrochemical behaviors of symmetric cells with bare Zn and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE  
 300 @Zn: (a) cycling performance at different current densities of  $2.5 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , (b)  $1.0 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , and  
 301 (c) rate performance at various current densities of 1, 2, 3, 5, 3, 2, and 1  $\text{mA cm}^{-2}$  at a fixed  
 302 capacity of  $1 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$ .

303 Fig. 3c shows the rate performance of the Zn symmetric batteries with and without  
 304 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layers at a fixed capacity of  $1 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$ . The results clearly show  
 305 that the batteries with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coated Zn anodes demonstrate a flat and stable  
 306 voltage plateau at each current density. While the coating of the Zn anode, as a solid-electrolyte  
 307 interface, regulates the deposition of  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions and suppresses the parasitic side reaction, the  
 308 sluggish  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  ions transfer can increase the polarization potential of batteries at all current  
 309 densities.

310           In order to investigate how the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer affects the behavior of  
311 Zn plating, the morphology of Zn foils was examined with and without the coated layer after  
312 being plated for 1 hour at 1mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. As illustrated in Fig. 4a-b, the bare zinc anode displayed  
313 significant spike shaped dendrites formation and distributed piles of Zn protrusions on its  
314 surface. The morphology of the Zn metal with the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer, after  
315 partially removing the coated layer from the Zn anode, is displayed in Fig. 4c-d. The images  
316 demonstrate a flat and smooth deposition of Zn ions among NFC network and glass fibers,  
317 indicating that the deposition behavior of Zn on the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE@Zn anode is distinct  
318 from that on its bare counterpart. Fig.4e provides a visual comparison of zinc deposition  
319 mechanisms, highlighting the differences between bare zinc and zinc coated with the  
320 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE protective layer. It illustrates the distinct behaviors observed during zinc  
321 plating, emphasizing the impact of coating on deposition processes.  
322



323

324 **Fig. 4.** Surface morphology of bare Zn anode (a, b) and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn anode (c, d)

325 after Zn plating for 1 hour at current density of 1 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (e) Illustrative Schematics Unveiling

326 the Zn Plating Behavior of bare Zn and coated Zn. Electrochemical behaviors of full cell

327 batteries with bare Zn and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn: (f) galvanostatic cycling performance at

328 current density of 2.0 A/g, and (g) charge/discharge curves at current density of 2.0 A/g.

329

330 The Coulombic efficiencies (CEs) of Zn plating and stripping, which are crucial indicators of  
331 redox reversibility, were examined using Zn//Cu coin cell configuration (Fig. S6). The voltage  
332 profiles of the asymmetric cells at specific cycles at areal specific capacity of 1 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup> are  
333 illustrated in Fig. S7. The Cu//NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn asymmetric batteries demonstrated  
334 exceptional stability and consistently maintained an average Coulombic efficiency (CE) around  
335 100.5% over an extended period of more than 400 cycles at a fixed plating capacity of 1  
336 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup>. In stark contrast, in the absence of protective layers, the CE value of the bare Zn//Cu  
337 asymmetric cells deteriorates over approximately 180 cycles, demonstrating the intrinsic  
338 instability in zinc stripping and plating behaviors on the copper substrate. The substantial  
339 enhancement in CE performance of can be ascribed to the presence of the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE  
340 hybrid protective layers, which effectively mitigate rapid formation of zinc dendrites, while  
341 concurrently inhibiting detrimental side reactions.

342 The performance of NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coated Zn was evaluated in practical  
343 applications by assembling full cells using NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn as the anode and the  
344 synthesized VO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers as the cathode. Fig. 4f and g show the cycling performance and  
345 charge/discharge curves of the batteries with bare Zn anode and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE@ Zn at the  
346 current density of 2 A/g, respectively. The results reveal that the VO<sub>2</sub> || NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE  
347 @Zn batteries deliver a high initial specific capacity of 406.2 mAh/g, and stabilizes at 381.6  
348 mAh/g after 300 cycles, retaining 94% of the initial capacity. The utilization efficiency of the  
349 prepared battery after 300 cycles was approximately 1% and N/P ratio was 130.02 . The cycling  
350 continued until 3300 cycles with the specific capacity of 292.2 mAh/g and 72% retention of  
351 initial capacity, indicating an effectual long-term permanence with 100% coulombic efficiency.  
352 The improved cycling life, higher specific capacity, and enhanced capacity retention could be

353 due to the improved wettability by the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE coating layer, which regulated the  
354 deposition of Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions on the Zn anode surface, and inhibition of parasitic side reactions.  
355 Moreover, the presence of PTFE layer on the Zn anode surface can reduce the electrode  
356 corrosion. However, the initial specific capacity of VO<sub>2</sub> || bare Zn batteries was 398.4 mAh/g and  
357 it dropped to 321 mAh/g after 300 cycles, with the capacity retention of 80.5%. For the batteries  
358 with the bare Zn anode, the short circuit and failure happened after around 2000 hours with the  
359 specific capacity of 265.6 mAh/g and 66.6% retention of initial specific capacity. This failure  
360 probably results from the corrosion of the bare Zn anode, rapid growth of Zn dendrites, and the  
361 associated side reactions such as hydrogen evolution.

362 The rate performance of VO<sub>2</sub> || bare Zn and VO<sub>2</sub> || NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn cells from 1  
363 to 10 A/g is demonstrated in Fig. 5a. The results reveal that the specific capacity of VO<sub>2</sub> ||  
364 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE cell returned to the initial values after the cycling, showing appropriate  
365 cycle stability and rate endurance. However, at 10 A/g the value of specific capacity of the  
366 battery with coated Zn was slightly lower than that of the battery with bare Zn anode. The  
367 slightly weaker performance of the VO<sub>2</sub> || NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn can be attributed to the  
368 slower Zn<sup>2+</sup> ion transfer through the NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE protective layer. As a result, when  
369 designing the thickness and formulation of hybrid coating suspension, a balance between cycling  
370 lifespan and rate performance needs to be considered. Fig. 5b illustrates the Galvanostatic  
371 Charge-Discharge (GCD) behavior of the VO<sub>2</sub> || NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn cell across different  
372 current densities. The enhanced performance exhibited by full batteries utilizing  
373 NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn anode are notably in line with the aforementioned observations, thus  
374 reaffirming the efficacy of this strategies.

375 Fig. 5c illustrates the first three cycles of CV curves of VO<sub>2</sub> || NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn  
376 battery at a scan rate of 0.2 mV/s. The multi-step reversible insertion of Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions into the VO<sub>2</sub>  
377 cathode led to the occurrence multiple anode and cathode peaks<sup>34</sup>. The overlapped CV curves  
378 indicate that coating the Zn anode with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE led to a highly reversible reaction of  
379 the VO<sub>2</sub> cathode in the full cell battery. In order to evaluate the electrochemical reaction kinetics  
380 of the full cell battery with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn, CV curves at 0.1, 0.2, and 0.5 mV/s were  
381 measured. As shown in Fig. 5d, two pairs of redox peaks can be observed, related to the redox  
382 reactions during charging/discharging process. The following equation was employed to  
383 investigate the relationship between peak currents (*i*) and scan rate (*ν*)<sup>34</sup>:

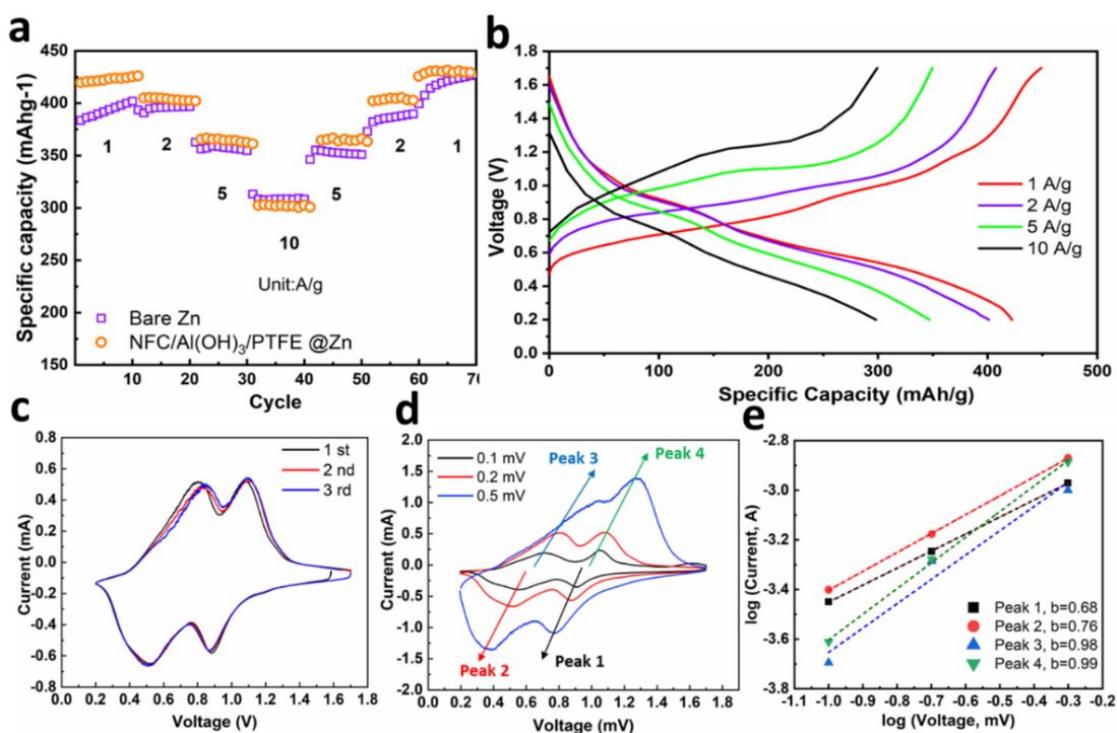
$$i = a\nu^b$$

(2)

386 where *i* represents the current, *ν* is the scan rate, and **a** and **b** are adjustable parameters. The *b*  
387 values of 0.5 and 1 show the reactions of diffusion control and capacitance control, respectively  
388<sup>35</sup>. The log (*i*) versus log (*ν*) plot in Fig. 5e shows that the obtained *b* values corresponding to the  
389 peak 1 and peak 2 are 0.68 and 0.76, respectively, indicating that the electrochemical reactions  
390 responsible for these peaks are likely influenced by a combination of diffusion and capacitance  
391 effects. Moreover, as illustrated in Fig. 5e, the *b* values of peak 3 and peak 4 are equal to 0.98  
392 and 0.99, respectively which indicates that the oxidation reactions are controlled by the  
393 capacitance reaction. It means that the rate of the reaction is determined by the charge transfer  
394 kinetics at the electrode-electrolyte interface. In other words, the electrochemical process occurs  
395 quickly because electrons can easily transfer between the electrode and the electroactive species  
396 in the electrolyte<sup>36</sup>.

397 Cycling tests at 50°C with a current density of 2.5 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (0.5 mAh/cm<sup>2</sup>) was conducted to  
 398 assess the performance of symmetric bare Zn and NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE@Zn batteries at higher  
 399 temperature. The results have been included in Fig. S8. The findings indicate that the  
 400 performance of bare Zn was unfavorable, with rapid short-circuit occurrences. However, the  
 401 application of the protective layer significantly improved the cycling life of the battery. Despite  
 402 the challenges posed by high temperatures, where increased kinetic energy and accelerated ion  
 403 transportation may expedite dendrite formation, the coated layer demonstrated enhanced battery  
 404 performance.

405 Table 1 presents a comparative analysis of the electrochemical performance of the batteries  
 406 prepared in this study in relation to recently published papers that investigated zinc-ion batteries  
 407 featuring various zinc protective layers. The findings in this table highlight that the utilization of  
 408 an NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE protective layer on the zinc anode, as implemented in this study,  
 409 demonstrated notable efficiency, particularly at elevated cycling numbers.



410

411 **Fig. 5.** Electrochemical performances of VO<sub>2</sub>||NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn batteries: (a) Rate  
 412 performance at the current densities of 1, 2, 5, 10, 5, 2, and 1 A/g, (b) Charge/discharge profiles  
 413 at various currents of the full cell with NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn, (d) Cyclic voltammetry curve  
 414 at 0.2 mV s<sup>-1</sup> (c), cyclic voltammetry plots scanned at 0.1, 0.2, and 0.5 mV s<sup>-1</sup>, and (e) log i  
 415 versus log scan rate plots of VO<sub>2</sub>||NFC/Al(OH)<sub>3</sub>/PTFE @Zn cells.

416 **Table 1.** Electrochemical properties of zinc-ion batteries featuring various protective layers,  
 417 investigated in the present study and some of recent publications

Protective layer	Cathode	CD (A/g)	Specific Capacity (mAh/g)	Cycles	Efficiency (%)	Ref.
CNF/MXene	VO <sub>2</sub>	2	357	500	93.3	19
PAN	MnVO	0.5	255	500	~60	37
PTFE/Porous Zn	MnV <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	1	289.2	500	~37	30
LCNF/MXene	MnO <sub>2</sub>	1	175.4	1000	50	10
NFC/Al(OH) <sub>3</sub> /PTFE	VO <sub>2</sub>	2	406.2	3300	72	This study

418

#### 419 4. Conclusion

420 In this work, in-situ synthesis of Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> nanoparticle was carried out in the NFC  
 421 network. PTFE was added to the NFC/ Al(OH)<sub>3</sub> suspension to produce a hybrid protective layer  
 422 on the Zn anode surface, which regulates the zinc ion plating and stripping processes. The dense,  
 423 hydrophilic, and porous structure of the coated layer modulated the diffusion and transport of  
 424 Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions on the zinc anode through active water restriction /zinc-sieving and reduced the  
 425 corrosion and parasitic side reactions in the electrode/electrolyte interface. By taking advantage  
 426 of the high reversibility, Zn//Zn symmetric cells maintained steady charge-discharge processes  
 427 for more than 1000 hours at a current density of 1 mAcm<sup>-2</sup>. The full battery with a VO<sub>2</sub> cathode  
 428 showed excellent electrochemical performance, achieving high specific capacity (406.2 mAh/g at  
 429 2 A g<sup>-1</sup>), acceptable rate performance, and long cycling stability for more than 3300 cycles. The  
 430 proposed method and the detailed understanding of the mechanism presented in this study

431 represent a significant advancement in mitigating zinc dendrite formation, and can help inspire  
432 further research and development in the field of zinc-metal anodes and other aqueous metal-ion  
433 batteries.

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#### 437 **Author Contributions**

438 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval  
439 to the final version of the manuscript.

#### 440 **Conflicts of interest**

441 There are no conflicts to declare.

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