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# Three-dimensional Si / vertically oriented graphene nanowalls composite for supercapacitor applications

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#### ABSTRACT

Three-dimensional (3D) carbon nanostructures are promising architectures to improve both specific capacity and power density of electrochemical energy storage systems. Their open structure and porosity provide a large space for active sites and high ion diffusion rates. To further increase their specific capacity, they can be combined with metal oxides. However, this combination often results in the loss of cycling stability and power density. Among the different electrode materials being studied, vertically oriented graphene nanowalls (VG) have recently been put forward as a potential candidate. Here, we report the use of VG covered by Si for increased supercapacitor performance. VG were grown on flexible graphite sheet (FGS) substrate by inductively coupled plasma chemical vapor deposition (ICP-CVD). Furthermore, silicon (Si) was deposited by magnetron sputtering on VG and the electrochemical performance studied in ionic liquid (IL) electrolyte. The incorporation of Si in VG/FGS provides an areal capacitance up to 16.4 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, which is a factor 2 and 1.4 greater than that of bare substrate and VG/ FGS, respectively. This increase in capacitance does not penalize the cycling stability of Si/VG/GS, which remains outstanding up to 10,000 cycles in IL. In addition, the relaxation time constant decreases from 9.1 to 0.56 ms after Si deposition on VG/FGS.

#### **1. Introduction**

Nowadays the society demands for safe, flexible, reliable and lightweight energy storage devices like batteries and supercapacitors to run modern electronics [\[1](#page-6-0)–3]. Supercapacitors (SC) also named as electrochemical capacitors or electric double layer capacitors (EDLC) can deliver high energy densities comparable to those of batteries and high-power densities comparable to conventional capacitors [[4](#page-6-0)]. Therefore, supercapacitor performance lies between conventional capacitors and batteries.

Supercapacitors rely on two mechanisms to store energy described as electrostatic charge storage and pseudocapacitance. The former consists in the formation of an electric double layer at the interface between electrode and electrolyte. Mainly large surface area carbon material and its composites are used as electrodes for EDLC. The latter consists in reversible and faradaic surface redox reactions taking place at the surface of conductive polymers, transitions metal oxides, or surface nitrogen-containing groups [5–[7\]](#page-6-0). The performance of a SC depends on four important parameters: electrode material, electrolyte, current collector, and the electrode-current collector interface [\[8\]](#page-6-0).

The use of a variety of nano-and/or composite materials as an electrode has made significant improvements in ion diffusion length and volumetric expansion issues during charge/discharge process [9–[15](#page-6-0)]. Graphene, regarded as the most interesting material since Novoselov synthesized it in 2004 [\[16](#page-6-0)], is a two-dimensional structure made of a single layer of carbon atoms. Due to its remarkable properties, graphene has become a promising material for many applications like supercapacitors [\[17](#page-6-0)[,18](#page-7-0)], Li-ion batteries [\[19](#page-7-0),[20](#page-7-0)] and solar cells [\[21](#page-7-0)].

The supercapacitor performance depends on the design and manufacturing process of the electrode materials [\[22](#page-7-0)–25]. In the case of

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SC, translation of graphene orientation from horizontal to vertical enhances 38% capacitance at scan rate of 100 mV s $^{-1}$  due to high specific surface area as well as an open perpendicular structure that provides facile diffusion paths for ions [\[26](#page-7-0)]. The perpendicular structure of vertically aligned graphene nano-walls (GNWs) may also work as an open surface for deposition of other materials [\[27](#page-7-0)–29]. The specific capacitance delivered by carbon materials is lower than the one obtained as composites with certain metal oxides or polymers [\[30](#page-7-0)]. However, due to the faradic nature of their charge storage mechanism, these composites suffer from a lack of cycling stability and lower power density than the corresponding bare carbon material.

Silicon nanostructures are considered as a next generation electrode material for energy storage devices. It has been stated that  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  electrode materials display a very high differential capacitance (180 μF  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) in comparison to carbon electrodes (below 40 µF  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) [\[31](#page-7-0)]. Silicon and its derivatives such as SiNW (Si nanowires),  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ , SiC have been tested alone or in composite with other materials as EDLC by several researchers as presented in Table 1 [32–[39\]](#page-7-0).

Three types of electrolytes, namely aqueous, organic, and ionic liquids (IL) are mainly employed in supercapacitor manufacturing. The aqueous electrolytes are environmentally friendly, low-cost, non-flammable and have higher ionic conductivity. However, aqueous electrolytes have a small potential window of about  $\sim$ 1.23 V [\[8\]](#page-6-0). On the other hand, organic electrolytes provide larger potential windows of  $\sim$  2.3 V. However, they are toxic, flammable and expensive. Still, most commercial supercapacitors are constructed using organic electrolytes because they provide a larger potential window in comparison to aqueous electrolytes [\[40](#page-7-0)]. ILs are non-flammable, chemically and thermally stable and provide a potential window larger than 3 V. Conversely, they are expensive and due to their high viscosity, supercapacitors display poor cycling stability and failure at high power [\[40](#page-7-0)]. Another significant factor influencing supercapacitor performance is the current collector. The prime contribution of the current collector in a supercapacitor is to let electrons flow efficiently between the active material and the external circuit during the working process. It is highly desirable to have a strong contact between the current collector and the active materials to minimize the series resistance of the device. Otherwise, a significant loss of energy would occur during the charging and discharging process [\[41](#page-7-0)].

#### **Table 1**





In this work, vertically aligned graphene nanosheets (VG) were grown on flexible graphite sheet (FGS) substrate using inductively coupled plasma (ICP). Later, Silicon (Si) was sputtered on the surface of VG/FGS to prepare a nanocomposite for supercapacitor electrodes. Due to the instability of Si in aqueous electrolytes [[36,38](#page-7-0)] an IL has been used to analyse its performance. The results show a good contact at the electrode/current collector interface, and an increase in cycling stability and power density after Si deposition. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that Si/VG nanocomposites grown on flexible graphite current collector have been demonstrated for supercapacitor applications.

## **2. Experimental**

Flexible graphite sheets (FGS) were purchased from Mersen Graphite company (Papyex flexible graphite sheet, n998) with a thickness of 0.02 cm. Vertically oriented graphene (VG) nanostructures were grown directly on FGS by using inductively coupled plasma chemical vapor deposition (ICP-CVD) method. A detailed description of the ICP-CVD system has been reported previously [\[29](#page-7-0)]. FGS was introduced inside a quartz tubular reactor and the system was pumped down to a pressure below 1 Pa. Afterwards, the synthesis of VG on FGS was performed as follows. The system was heated up to 750  $°C$  without introducing any gas. After reaching the desired temperature, the precursor gas  $(CH<sub>4</sub>, 10$ sccm) was introduced at a pressure of 50–60 Pa and the plasma ignited with an input power of 400 W. The growth time of VG was set to 40 min. Subsequently, the heating and plasma powers were switched off, as well as the CH4 flow. Finally, the system was let to cool down to room temperature. Pulsed DC magnetron sputtering was used for the sputtering process of Si (~20 nm thick) on VG/FGS. The parameters used were: 120 W plasma power, 100 kHz frequency of pulsed signal, 2016 ns pulse width, 20 sccm of Ar gas flow and a working pressure of 1 Pa. After the growth of the vertical nanostructures and in order to increase their surface energy, the VG were treated in situ at room temperature with a ICP of 40 W at a  $O_2$  pressure of 43 Pa for 30 s. This post-treatment has a double effect of purifying the VG and increasing the wettability of the nanostructures, which facilitates contact with the electrolyte.

#### **3. Characterization techniques**

#### *3.1. Analysis methods*

The morphological analysis of the samples was performed using scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, HITACHI SU5000). The quality and structure of the samples were examined by micro-Raman spectroscopy (HORIVA LabRam HR800, Japan). A green laser of 532 nm wavelength, 0.5 mW power, and a 50LWD objective was used during the measurements. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was carried out using a Kratos AXIS ultra DLD with an Al K $\alpha$  (h $\nu = 1486.6 \text{ eV}$ ) X-ray source. The high-resolution spectra were deconvoluted using Shirley background subtraction and Gaussian-Lorentzian functions for the peak fitting (Casa XPS software). The electrochemical characterization of the samples was performed using a two-electrode cell configuration in non-aqueous electrolyte. The symmetrical supercapacitors were built in a MBRAUN Unilab dry glove box by sandwiching an ionic liquid (bmim-MeSO $_3$ ) soaked separator (Whatman glassy-fiber GF/A) between two of the following electrodes: FGS, VG/ FGS and Si/VG/FGS. The geometrical area was  $1.13 \text{ cm}^2$  and the electrodes were analysed electrochemically using a potentiostat/galvanostat (Autolab PGSTAT30, Eco Chemie B.V., Utrecht, The Netherlands).

## *3.2. Calculation formulas and methods*

The areal capacitance of one electrode calculated from cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements was estimated using equations [\(1\) and](#page-2-0)  [\(2\)](#page-2-0).

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
C = (q_a + |q_c|) / (2 \times \Delta U_{appl})
$$
\n(1)

$$
C_a = 2 \times C_A \tag{2}
$$

Where  $C_a$  is the areal capacitance of a single electrode in mF  $\text{cm}^{-2},\text{q}_\text{a}$ , and  $q_c$  are the anodic and cathodic charges in C,  $C$  is the measured capacitance for the two-electrode cell and *A* is the area of one electrode in cm<sup>2</sup> [[42,43\]](#page-7-0).

The areal capacitance (*Ca*) of a single electrode was calculated from charge-discharge curves of a complete device by the following equation (3).

$$
C_a = 2 \times (I \times \Delta t) / (A \times \Delta U) \tag{3}
$$

Where *I* is the discharge current in mA, *Δt* is the discharge time excluding IR drop due to the series resistance (ESR) in s, *ΔU* is the potential window in volt (V) excluding the voltage drop, *A* is the area of one electrode material in  $\text{cm}^2$  [\[44](#page-7-0)].

Energy density and power density are two important parameters to evaluate the performance of SC for real applications. The energy density (*Ea*) and volumetric power density (*Pa*) were calculated using the following equations (4) and (5) [\[44](#page-7-0)].

$$
E_a = C(\Delta U)^2 / (2A \times 3600) \tag{4}
$$

$$
P_a = E_a \times 3600/_{\Delta t} \tag{5}
$$

Where *C* is the capacitance calculated from the discharge curve in F, *ΔU*  is the voltage window and *Δt* is the discharge time in s and *A* the area of one electrode in  $cm<sup>2</sup>$ . The imaginary capacitance  $(C'')$  is calculated using equation  $(6)$  [\[45](#page-7-0)].



**Fig. 1.** SEM image of {(a) flexible graphite sheet (FGS), (b) Vertical graphene (VG) grown on FGS, lines and numbers indicate the pore size in nm, (c) Si deposited on VG}. Raman spectra of {(d), flexible graphite sheet (FGS), (e), Vertical graphene (VG) grown on FGS, and (f), Si deposited on VG/FGS}.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>
$$
C'' = \frac{-Z'}{2\pi f |Z|^2}
$$
 (6)

Where *C*′′ is the imaginary capacitance in F, *Z*′ is the real part of the impedance in Ω, *f* is the frequency in Hz and *|Z|* is the modulus of the impedance in Ω.

#### **4. Results and discussion**

## *4.1. Microscopic and spectroscopic analysis*

[Fig. 1](#page-2-0) shows SEM images of FGS, VG/FGS and Si nanocluster decorated VG composite nanomaterial. The flexible graphite paper used as a substrate consists of parallel stacking of graphite sheets of different lengths visible in [Fig. 1](#page-2-0)(a). The structure of VG grown on graphite papers is extremely porous, with big voids and wavy ([Fig. 1\(](#page-2-0)b)).

The VG are around 600 nm in length, a few nanometres thick and with sharp edges. The vertical nature of graphene with wider spaces between them makes it easier for carbon species to reach at the sides and bottom of the nanosheets. That is, it seems that geometry facilitate the creation of nucleation centres that lead to the formation of secondary nucleated VG structure. With the growth of secondary VG sheets, the density of the nanosheets or nanoflakes increases, which implies an enhancement in the surface area. This wider open structure (meso and macro pores) of VG is very convenient for further grafting of nanomaterials on the surface of graphene nanoflakes.

The wide voids provide good space to deposit other materials directly making good contact with graphene nanoflakes. Si deposited on VG has a maximum thickness of  $\sim$  20 nm (calibrated by sputtering Si on a flat surface) on sharp edges of nanoflakes and interlaced vertical graphene nanowalls. The sputtered Si does not disturb the wavy structure of the nanosheets. The Si atoms are located coating basal planes and edges of VG due to the non-directionality of the sputtering process. Nanosized clusters of Si are formed that can provide short diffusion pathways for ions and electrons, effectively diminishing the problem of pulverisation induced by large volumetric expansion [\[15](#page-6-0)].

Raman spectroscopy is a highly recommended technique to study the structural quality (disorder, defects, and doping level) of carbon-based nanomaterials. It also differentiates the structure of different carbon nanomaterials such as graphite, graphene, vertically oriented graphene, and carbon nanotubes. Raman spectroscopy displays bands based on the nature of the carbon nanomaterials at different wavenumbers.

The 1st and 2nd order Raman spectra of a carbon material displays most prominent peaks appearing at  $\sim$ 1582 cm<sup>-1</sup> (G band), which corresponds to C–C stretching modes, D band at  $\sim 1350~\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$  and D′ band at  $\sim$ 1620 cm $^{-1}$ , which are related to various kinds of lattice defects. A 2D (G') band appears at 2700  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which is the 2nd order of D mode [[46,47](#page-7-0)]. [Fig. 1\(](#page-2-0)d) shows typical graphite Raman spectra of FGS with a very weak D peak, that can be attributed to a small number of structural defects. Raman spectra of VG/FGS exhibit four main peaks at (1350, 1587.2, 1618.2 and 2690.9  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) corresponding to D, G, D′ and G′ bands respectively ([Fig. 1\(](#page-2-0)e)).  $G'$  to  $G$  band intensity ratio provides an estimate of the number of layers [\[48](#page-7-0)]. The  $I_G/I_G = 0.42 \pm 0.04$  ratio confirms that the VG/FGS sample consists of a few layers of graphene nanoflakes. The quality of carbon materials is mainly identified by measuring the intensity ratio *I*<sub>D</sub>/*I*<sub>G</sub> [[49\]](#page-7-0). The value of this ratio is 1.69  $\pm$ 0.07 and  $1.60 \pm 0.06$  for VG/FGS and Si/VG/FGS, respectively. These similar values indicate that the Si deposition process does not damage the VG structure. The Raman spectra of SNC/VG/FGS presents an additional peak at 470 cm<sup>-1</sup> [[50\]](#page-7-0), which confirms the presence of amorphous Si deposited on VG/FGS [\(Fig. 1\(](#page-2-0)f)).

The elemental quantification was achieved from the XPS survey scan spectra (Fig. 2). The survey scan of FGS and VG/FGS demonstrates the presence of carbon and oxygen at 284.5 eV and 531 eV binding energies, respectively. Si/VG/FGS survey scan displays carbon and oxygen peaks

![](_page_3_Figure_12.jpeg)

**Fig. 2.** XPS wide energy survey scan of flexible graphite sheet (FGS), Vertical graphene (VG) grown on FGS, and Si deposited on VG/FGS.

as well as a peak at 99 eV, which corresponds to Si. The quantification analysis was performed at three different places of the sample to confirm its homogeneity. The elemental composition analysis reveals that the as received FGS sample consists of C1s (98.68 at.%) and O1s (1.32 at.%), VG/FGS sample consists of C1s (96.89 at.%) and O1s (3.11 at.%) and Si/ VG/FGS sample consists of C1s (18.39 at.%), O1s (41.5 at.%) and Si (40.12 at.%). The higher ratio of oxygen in VG/FGS in comparison to FGS is probably due to the existence of defect sites and grain boundaries in the graphene, which readily react with atmospheric oxygen when the sample is removed from the reactor.

The high Si percentage and a small amount of carbon in the Si/VG/ FGS is in accordance with the Si coating on the surface of VG. The high oxygen percentage in the Si/VG/FGS sample is probably due to the existence of residual water molecules in the sputtering system and reaction of sputtered silicon with atmospheric moisture upon exposure to air.

The asymmetric shape of high resolution C1s spectra indicates the presence of other chemical moieties at the surface of the FGS, VG/FGS, and Si/VG/FGS as shown in [Fig. 3](#page-4-0). The deconvolution of C1s spectra for FGS and VG/FGS shows 9 peaks. The main C1s peak at  $284.5 \pm 0.2$  eV ros and vo/ros shows 9 peaks. The main C1s peak at 264.5  $\pm$  0.2 ev was characterized as C1 (C=C)/sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized graphite like carbon. The C2 peak at 285.1  $\pm$  0.2 eV was a feature of C–C/sp<sup>3</sup> hybridized carbon atoms. The C3 peak at  $285.8 \pm 0.1$  eV corresponds to the C–OH chemical atoms. The C3 peak at 285.8  $\pm$  0.1 eV corresponds to the C-OH chemical group. The C4 (C-O) peak at 286.4  $\pm$  0.1 eV, C5 (C=O) at 287.3  $\pm$  0.2 group. The C4 (C–O) peak at  $280.4 \pm 0.1$  eV, C5 (C–O) at  $287.5 \pm 0.2$ <br>eV, and C6 (O–C=O) at  $288.4 \pm 0.1$  eV indicate the presence of alcohol/ ether, carbonyl and carboxylic groups, respectively [[11,](#page-6-0)[51](#page-7-0)–53]. The C7 peak located at 291.0  $\pm$  0.1 eV and C8 at 293.5  $\pm$  0.2 eV were designated as shake up satellite (p-p\*) and bulk-loss, respectively  $[54]$  $[54]$ . Due to the high number of defects in VG/FGS, the percentage of adsorbed impurities as oxygen functional groups is higher in comparison to FGS. In addition, a peak at  $283.9 \pm 0.1$  eV was assigned to vacancy-like defects [[53\]](#page-7-0). In the case of Si/VG/FGS, C1, C2, and C3 peaks appear at the same binding energies as those for FGS and VG/FGS. For sample Si/VG/FGS the C4, C5, C6, C7, and C8 peaks were not detected, and the C9 peak is slightly shifted ~0.5 eV to lower binding energies. The disappearance of the oxygen functionalities and downshift of C9 is possibly due to changes in the local chemical environment of carbon related to the presence of Si. The quantitative analysis of carbon attached to various oxygen groups for FGS, VG/FGS and Si/VG/FGS are provided in supplementary information (S1). [Fig. 3](#page-4-0)(d) shows Si2p deconvoluted spectra of Si/VG/FGS in two elemental Si peaks, S1 (Si2p<sub>3/2</sub>; 99.34  $\pm$  0.1 eV) and S2 (Si2p<sub>1/2</sub>; 99.87  $\pm$  0.1 eV), one complete oxide peak S6 (SiO<sub>2</sub>;  $103.28 \pm 0.1$  eV) and three sub-oxide peaks, S3 (Si<sub>2</sub>O; 100.09  $\pm$  0.1 eV),

<span id="page-4-0"></span>![](_page_4_Figure_2.jpeg)

**Fig. 3.** High resolution deconvoluted spectra {C 1s (a) FGS, (b) VG/FGS, (c) Si/VG/FGS}, {Si2p (d) Si/VG/FGS}.

S4 (SiO;  $100.63 \pm 0.1$  eV) and S5 (Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>;  $101.54 \pm 0.1$  eV) [[55,56](#page-7-0)]. Supplementary information (S2) shows that the concentration of elemental silicon is 30.58 at.% and the rest (69.42 at.%) consists of  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$ and sub-oxides.

## *4.2. Electrochemical measurements*

Supercapacitors tested in IL at different scan rates (5–150 mV  $\rm s^{-1}$ ) in the voltage range of 0–1.8 V, show typical rectangular-shape voltammograms (Fig. 4(a)). As anticipated, the CV of Si/VG/FGS presents a larger integrated area and current in comparison to other samples. The CV curves display two different non-faradic and faradic capacitance

regimes at different potentials. The charge storage mechanism presented by VG/FGS is mainly electrostatic (electric double layer capacitance) as can be seen from the linear increase in voltage until 1.65 V, above this voltage current increases exponentially which can be related to faradaic charge transfer due to minor oxygen functional groups at the surface of graphene. Samples FGS and Si/VG/FGS start to have significant faradaic charge transfer at 1 V or below. The faradaic charge transfer taking place at the electrode-electrolyte interface for FGS is due to moisture (oxygen groups) at the surface of graphite sheets. For Si/VG/FGS the emergence of faradaic charge transfer was mainly due to the presence of Si oxide derivatives. Fig. 4(b) shows a comparison of the capacitance at different scan rates. The delivered capacitances for (FGS, VG/FGS, and Si/VG/

![](_page_4_Figure_8.jpeg)

Fig. 4. (a) Cyclic voltammetry comparison between samples at 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> scan rate and (b) capacitance comparison at different scan rates.

FGS) are (12.7, 14.9 and 16.4 mF  $\rm cm^{-2})$  respectively, at scan rate 10 mV  $s^{-1}$ . The highest capacitance obtained for Si/VG/FGS is related to the well-anchored Si to VG. The capacitance decreases as the scan rate increases because at lower scan rates electrolyte ions have more time to diffuse into almost the whole available space of the electrode material. At high scan rates (150 mV s $^{-1}$ ) sample (Si/VG/FGS) delivers the highest capacitance of 4.3 mF  $cm^{-2}$ .

Fig. 5(a) presents galvanostatic charge-discharge measurements of FGS, VG/FGS and Si/VG/FGS at a constant current of 0.4 mA in the potential window 0–1.8 V. The charge-discharge profiles display a symmetrical shape for all samples. The capacitance of a single electrode from two electrode cell configuration was calculated using equation [\(5\)](#page-2-0). The capacitance values of (FGS, VG/FGS, and Si/VG/FGS) were (3.6, 6.1, 8.4 and mF  $cm^{-2}$ ) respectively (see Fig. 5(b)). The decrease in capacitance with an increase in current could be related to ohmic resistance along the path of micropores and/or to ion diffusion constraints through the porous structure surface [\[57\]](#page-7-0).

The long-term charge-discharge stability of the supercapacitors was evaluated by charging and discharging at 0.5 mA current during 10,000 cycles (Fig. 5(c)). SNC/VG/FGS sample shows an increase in capacitance from  $(6.5-7.1 \text{ mF cm}^{-2})$  after 3500 cycles most probably due to improvement in electrolyte wetting with time. In addition, due to a large pore structure and electrostatic charge storage mechanism, this sample presents a stable capacitance during 10,000 cycles. VG/FGS sample shows a decrease in capacitance from 3.8 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> to 3.5 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> in the first few cycles. Afterwards, it keeps an almost constant capacitance value of 3 mF  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  up to 10,000 cycles, which corresponds to 79% capacitance retention. In contrast, Si/VG/FGS sample shows a 106% capacitance retention after the same number of charge/discharge cycles, which demonstrates its suitability as a nanocomposite for supercapacitor applications.

Energy density and power density are two important parameters to evaluate the performance of supercapacitors for real applications. The

energy density (*E*) and power density (*P*) were calculated using equations [\(6\) and \(7\).](#page-3-0) The corresponding Ragone plot of the samples is shown in Fig. 5(d), where it can be seen that Si/VG/FGS delivers the highest energy density (0.0037 mWh cm<sup>-2</sup>, 0.0017 mWh cm<sup>-2</sup>) and power density (0.7 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>, 1.8 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>) at 0.35 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and 0.88 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> currents densities respectively, in comparison to other samples.

The supercapacitors were further analysed by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The results are presented using the Nyquist plot in [Fig. 6,](#page-6-0) where the inset shows the high frequency region. The ESR values for (FGS, VG/FGS, and Si/VG/FGS) were (3.5, 3.6 and 2.9 Ω  $cm<sup>2</sup>$ ) respectively. The low ESR values demonstrate excellent contact between Si, VG, and graphite sheet [[58,59](#page-7-0)], which also leads to enhanced ionic conductivity through the inner structure of the electrode. There was no appearance of semicircle for all samples, which indicates that double layer capacitance is the main charge storage mechanism. At low frequencies, the trend of the slope Si/VG/FGS*>*VG/FGS*>* FGS manifests that amorphous Si nanoclusters are well-anchored to VG/FGS and promote ionic diffusion into Si pores, graphene, and graphite sheet. Thus, direct growth of VG results in strong adhesion to the flexible graphite sheet substrate, which diminishes contact resistance. In addition, its vertical structure allows fast ion diffusion and, consequently, a decrease in the ESR.

The imaginary capacitance (*C*′′ )was calculated by equation 8. The *C*′′ vs. frequency plot shows a maximum at the relaxation frequency  $f_0$  that normally appears at 45<sup>°</sup> phase angle in phase versus frequency plots. The frequency  $f_0$  separate the resistive and capacitive parts of the supercapacitor. The inverse of  $f_0$  is called the relaxation time constant  $(\tau_0)$ , which can be calculated by the following equation ( $\tau_0 = \frac{1}{f_0}$ ) as shown in [Fig. 6\(](#page-6-0)b). Supercapacitors require low values of  $\tau_0$  in order to deliver high power densities. The relaxation time constant for VG/FGS is 9.1 ms and 0.56 ms for Si/VG/FGS. These results indicate that VG composite with amorphous Si nanocluster promote fast ion

![](_page_5_Figure_9.jpeg)

**Fig. 5.** (a) Charge/discharge comparison at 0.4 mA current, (b) comparison of capacitance at different currents, (c) charge-discharge cycling stability comparison and (d) Ragone plot comparison at different current densities.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>![](_page_6_Figure_2.jpeg)

**Fig. 6.** (a) Nyquist plot for FGS, VG/FGS and Si/VG/FGS, (b) Variation of imaginary capacitance with frequency.

transportation through the pores of the composite electrode material, which results in a better power delivery nature [[60\]](#page-7-0). The sudden increase in C′′ at very low frequencies is due to the contribution of faradic capacitance [[61\]](#page-7-0). We did not observe the peak maximum for FGS sample in *C*′′ vs frequency plot. The absence of this peak could be due to leakage current or a wide distribution of porous structure [[62,63](#page-7-0)].

## **5. Conclusion**

We have manufactured Si/VG/FGS nanocomposite electrodes by vapor deposition methods. Morphological and spectroscopic results reveal the formation of few layer vertical graphene nanoflakes grown on flexible graphite sheet. The deposited silicon nanoclusters were determined to be amorphous in nature and cover the surface of vertical graphene from top to bottom. The Si/VG/FGS composite show a 2 and 1.4-fold increase in capacitance with respect to FGS and VG/FGS respectively, a high cyclic reversibility up to 10,000 cycles at 0.5 mA and a very small relaxation time constant of 0.56 ms in IL. The energy and power densities were for Si/VG/FGS than those of FG and VG/FGS. These results show the potential of Si/graphene nanowalls composite electrode as high power and energy density electrodes in IL.

## **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ceramint.2021.04.190)  [org/10.1016/j.ceramint.2021.04.190](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ceramint.2021.04.190).

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