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Charge storage in WO₃ polymorphs and their application as supercapacitor electrode material

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ABSTRACT

Tungsten oxide is a versatile material with different applications. It has many polymorphs with varying performance in energy storage application. We report simple and facile way to synthesize four phases of tungsten oxide from same precursor materials only by changing the pH and temperature values. Monoclinic, hexagonal, orthorhombic and tetragonal phase obtained, were analyzed and tested for supercapacitor application. The electrochemical analysis of four phases indicates that the hexagonal phase is best-suited electrode material for supercapacitor. The hexagonal phase exhibits higher specific capacitance (377.5 Fg^{-1} at 2 mV s^{-1}), higher surface capacitive contribution (75%), better stability and rate capability of all four phases.

Introduction

Recently, owing to factors such as greenhouse gas emissions, pollution and the resulting global warming and climate change, cleaner forms of energy sources are being sought to mitigate the damage done to environment. This creates the necessity to develop new and better energy storages. Battery and fuel cell technologies are being investigated to make them a viable option. However, both technologies have their disadvantages and are not commercially viable to be used as large scale energy storage systems. The drawbacks are lower number of charge-discharge cycles, lower power density, lower rate capability and high cost. As the Ragone plot shows, both battery and fuel cells are high energy - low power devices whereas the demand for higher power density devices is increasing. Considering the recent market trends, there is a need of such a device which will bridge this gap. The consumer electronics, wearable technologies, portable electronics, electric vehicles etc. need higher power devices which will help them unleash their true potential. Supercapacitors (SC) or Ultracapacitors are such device which can fill in the void [1,2]. SC can handle the high power requirement better than battery without sustaining damage to itself. The pressure of high power can cause serious problems in batteries and thereby further reducing their life. As on the Ragone plot, SC have lower energy density but higher power density. Using SCs in tandem with battery they can ease of pressure on battery by providing peak power or with discovery of new electrode materials, SC can solely

power the applications. The electrode materials used currently limit the capacity of the SC to $5\text{--}40 \text{ Wh Kg}^{-1}$ and thus the application of SCs is more feasible in low energy consumption devices or using them in tandem with the battery.

SCs are classified into two types, electrochemical double layer capacitors (EDLC) and Pseudocapacitors. EDLC are mostly Carbon based devices. The electrode material used in the device is generally carbon or carbon derived material. Activated Carbon, Carbon Nano tubes, Graphene, Reduced Graphene oxide, etc. are most prominently used because of their large surface area [34,35]. The charge is stored by means of reversible ion adsorption on the surface of the electrode. Thus, these devices inherently have faster and higher charge-discharge cycles and higher power density. Since the ions are only adsorbed on the surface, the structural integrity of the electrode is maintained for longer period thereby providing longer life to the device. Surface adsorption also means the charge stored is easily and readily available which translates to higher power density however this also means lower energy density. Pseudocapacitors are devices which store charge faradaically by the fast reversible redox reactions at or near the surface of the electrodes. Transition metal oxides and conduction polymers exhibit this kind of charge storage behavior. Since the redox reactions occur at or near the surface, the pseudocapacitors are limited in their power density (still higher than battery) but they have higher energy density than the EDLC type. RuO_2 , MnO_2 , V_2O_5 , IrO_2 , CoO_2 , Fe_2O_3 and hydroxides (Ni(OH)_2 , Co(OH)_2 , Cu(OH)_2 etc. and conducting polymers

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such as Polypyrrole, Polyaniline, Polythiophene etc. are used as electrode material for pseudocapacitors [3]. Tungsten oxide (WO_3) has also been used as pseudocapacitive electrode material. Tungsten oxide is an electrochemically stable n type semiconductor metal oxide with applications in various fields. After Deb's discovery of electrochromism in tungsten oxide, it gained huge attention from the scientific community and was extensively researched for its different properties. Tungsten oxide became a suitable candidate for electrochromic devices, gas sensing, photo catalysis etc. [4–7]. In recent years, many reports published confirm the feasibility of WO_3 as energy storage material [8,9,20–24,29–31]. High conductivity, desirable crystal structure and small radius have contributed to its electrochemical performance [10].

Tungsten oxide has at least five polymorphs and their respective crystal structure has notable influence on its electrochemical performance. Many reports on synthesis and characterization of WO_3 polymorphs have been published [11–20]. Various methods have been employed to synthesize WO_3 , which include Chemical Vapor Deposition, Electrochemical deposition, Sol-Gel processing, Magnetron Sputtering, Chemical Precipitation method, Hydrothermal methods etc. [11–15]. Chacon et al. have reported synthesis and characterization of WO_3 polymorphs using solvo-thermal technique. They synthesized and characterized monoclinic, hexagonal and orthorhombic WO_3 by controlling the water content in the solvo-thermal method [16]. Kalhori et al. synthesized flower like WO_3 particles using hydrothermal method. By adding varying quantities of ammonium oxalate to precursor solution, they were able to synthesize orthorhombic and monoclinic WO_3 at different hydrothermal temperature and test the gas chromic response of WO_3 [17]. Huang et al. observed the effect of hydrothermal temperature on structure, morphology and phases of WO_3 . They tested the as prepared samples for their photochromic properties [18]. Similarly, Nagy et al. have reported the effect of morphology and phases of WO_3 on its photocatalytic efficiency. They varied the pH to obtain different morphologies and phases of WO_3 [19]. Many reports on application of WO_3 as electrode material for supercapacitor are available [20–24,29–31]. However, the authors have only reported the performance of single phase of WO_3 . Most commonly reported are monoclinic and hexagonal WO_3 [20–24]. According to the literature survey it is inferred that the hexagonal phase is most preferred phase due to its superior performance. Other phases are suitable electrode materials but their performance doesn't quite match that of the metastable hexagonal phase. Not many reports have been published which correlate the phase structure to energy storage capability [8,20,26]. In this paper, we report synthesis of 4 phases of WO_3 namely monoclinic, tetragonal, hexagonal and orthorhombic by hydrothermal method and analyze their electrochemical charge storage performance. The WO_3 samples were synthesized by varying the hydrothermal temperature and pH of the precursor solution. The variation of experimental parameters yielded many samples. All the samples were analyzed using X-ray diffraction and only the phase pure samples were utilized for further characterization and electrochemical testing.

Experimental section

Materials

Sodium Tungstate (Na_2WO_4 , Sigma Aldrich) was used as tungsten precursor. Hydrochloric acid (HCl) was used to adjust the pH. Deionized water (DI) was used to dissolve the precursor, dilute the acid to desired molarity and for washing the final product. Ethanol was also used to wash and clean the final product of any impurities. Carbon cloth (CC) was used as substrate to slurry cast the as prepared powder. PVDF, Nafion and carbon black were used in slurry casting the samples onto the substrate.

Table 1

Sample synthesis parameters with resulting phase and particle shape.

Sample	pH	Hydrothermal Temperature	Phase	Shape
W1	0.5 & 1	180	Monoclinic	Cube
W2	3	160	Hexagonal	Cube
W3	2	180	Orthorhombic	Nano rods
W4	1	200	Tetragonal	Cubic Plate

Synthesis of WO_3 powder and electrode preparation

In a typical synthesis, 0.6 g of Na_2WO_4 was dissolved in 10 ml DI by magnetically stirring for 10 min at room temperature. 3 M HCl was added drop by drop to the Na_2WO_4 solution while stirring it until the desired pH value was reached. Once the pH value was achieved the complete mixture was kept under stirring until it turned milky or yellowish depending on the pH value. This final solution was transferred into a Teflon liner (100 ml) and then sealed in an autoclave. The hydrothermal temperature was set and autoclave was heated in the oven for 12 h. In these experiments, time was kept constant. At each pH values 0.5, 1, 2 and 3, experiments were conducted at 160, 180 and 200 °C yielding 12 samples. The phase pure samples were selected for further analysis. The autoclave was allowed to cool down naturally in the oven. The precipitate collected was washed alternately with DI and ethanol for three times. The samples (powder) were centrifuged and dried at 80 °C in an oven for 6 h. The synthesis parameters of the phase pure samples are listed in the Table 1 below.

The samples were ground in mortar and pestle and mixed with PVDF and Carbon black in 85:15:5% w/w (Sample: PVDF: Carbon black). 3 ml of Nafion was added to the mixture to form a slightly viscous paste. Carbon cloth (2×2 cm) was dipped and ultra-sonicated in the viscous paste for 30 min. The substrate was removed and placed on the table. The viscous paste was casted onto the substrate using 5 ml dropper. Carbon cloth was left for drying in a vacuum oven at 60 °C for 18 h. The as prepared samples used for electrochemical testing. The weight of Carbon cloth was recorded before and after slurry casting. The mass loading of the active material was calculated to 1.5 mg cm^{-2} , 0.8 mg cm^{-2} , 1.5 mg cm^{-2} , 1 mg cm^{-2} for samples W1, W2, W3 & W4 respectively.

Characterization of materials

The X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) was done using Bruker AXS D8 Advance Model with copper radiation ($K\alpha$ with $\lambda = 1.54 \text{ \AA}$). XRD spectra were recorded for 2θ values ranging from 10° to 90° at a scanning rate of $4^\circ/\text{s}$. The surface morphology was characterized using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Model: JSM-6700F, Japan). X-ray photoelectron Spectroscopy was performed by VG Multilab 2000 to obtain information regarding the oxidation state of the elements. XPS is fitted by Gaussian distribution method. The high-resolution transmission electron microscopy image (HR-TEM) was obtained using a high resolution JEOL-3010 microscope. The samples were prepared by dispersing the powder in ethanol and putting a drop of suspension onto a carbon-coated copper grid. Raman Spectroscopy was performed using JASCO NRS-5100 with 532.13 nm Laser wavelength. OHAUS Explorer EX125 (0.01 mg) analytical balance was used to precisely measure the weight of substrate before and after hydrothermal deposition.

Electrochemical measurements

The electrochemical characterization was done using Wonatech WBCS3000S. In order to decide the best performance for supercapacitor application, all the electrochemical measurements were carried out in three electrode system, which contain the as prepared electrodes as

working electrodes, saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as reference electrode and Pt as counter electrode in 1 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte.

Result and discussion

The formation of WO₃ can be explained through the equations [19].



The first step is protonation of tungstate ions upon acidification to form milky white or yellowish tungstic particles. The tetrahedral H₂WO₄ further undergoes hydration to form octahedral crystalline complex with water molecule held by weak intermolecular forces. This step is important because during this step, the morphology and size could be controlled by means of additives but in absence of such agents, influence of pH and temperature is more dominant. The last step is the condensation or removal of water from the tungstic particles. As the water is removed from the structure, the W–O bonds reform and enable O atoms to interconnect and stack together leading to phase transition. More compact, low energy and stable phase is preferred. The hydrothermal conditions and the degree of dehydration results in different polymorphs of WO₃.

Control of particle size by pH variation

As evident from the equation H⁺ play important role in formation of WO₃. This points to the fact that pH is a crucial factor in crystal nuclei formation. The degree of supersaturation determines the rate of formation of crystal nuclei and crystal growth. Highly acidic system has higher concentration of H⁺ ions and thus the rate of crystal nuclei formation is also high. Large number of crystal nuclei are formed which subsequently determine the size of the particle. Smaller sized particles are formed in this situation. On the contrary, low level of supersaturation i.e. less acidic system the particle size is larger. The monoclinic and orthorhombic phases are formed at 180 °C hydrothermal temperature and pH value 0.5 and 1, 2 respectively. The hexagonal phase was formed at 160 °C temperature and at pH 3. The particle size of the samples, as seen from the SEM images and HRTEM Fig. S9, shows increasing trend as we transition from monoclinic to orthorhombic and to hexagonal phase. Tetragonal phase was synthesized at 200 °C for pH value 1. With the supply of more energy to reaction system, the W–O bonds reform themselves to realign in crystal system with lower energy level and become more stable.

The structural and phase analysis of W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples synthesized with different pH and temperature values are performed by recording the X-ray diffraction pattern as shown in Fig. 1 followed by the Rietveld refinement method in the structural fitting mode. According to the JCPDS cards 00-005-0363, 00-0033-1387, 00-020-1324 and 00-005-0388 the W1, W2, W3 and W4 sample exhibits the monoclinic, hexagonal, orthorhombic and tetragonal crystal structure, respectively. The detailed structural evaluation of these sample are investigated by means of the Rietveld refinement in FullProf suit with structural fitting profile matching mode in corresponding space symmetry (SI Fig. S7 and 8). The refinement parameters of all sample shows that all sample exhibit single phase WO₃. Table 2 shows that the W1 sample exhibit very stable phase in monoclinic structure having P21/a space symmetry. The large distortion is observed on WO₆ octahedron of W3 sample which exhibit the orthorhombic crystal structure. Table 3 shows that the W3 sample exhibit the maximum value of the W–O bond length which promotes the electron hopping mechanism via oxygen vacancies. Hence, the probability to enhance the electrochemical property of WO₃ sample maximizes.

The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) is used to probe the

surface morphology of the all WO₃ samples. Fig. 2 shows the SEM images of the all WO₃ sample at 50kX and 150kX resolution. In general all the samples exhibit well porous surface morphology. For the W1 (Fig. 2a, b) and W3 (Fig. 2e, f) sample, the nanocubes of different sizes are observed. The size of the nanocube of sample W1 is comparatively smaller than the sample W3. This may be due to preferred structural elongation of the lattice along one direction in orthorhombic structure. W2 (Fig. 2c, d) and W4 (Fig. 2g, h) samples show formation of plates like morphology with spherical shaped particles sprinkled all over the surface. W2 sample has formation of hexagonal plates while W4 shows formation of cubic plates.

In order to corroborate the structural analysis of XRD and morphological evolution by SEM, the transmission electron microscopic measurement of these samples are performed along with the complementary study of the selective area electron diffraction (SAED) study, inset pictures in Fig. 3. In addition, the effect of the variation of pH is clearly seen in the TEM images of the samples in Fig. 3. The grains were textured into the respective morphology of the W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples. The cube shaped grains are observed for W1 (Fig. 3a) and W3 (Fig. 3c) samples while hexagonal like grains are observed in W2 (Fig. 3b) sample. Partially distorted surface morphology is observed for the W3 and W4 (Fig. 3d) samples due to the incomplete orientation of the lattice.

Raman spectroscopy was performed to identify distinguishable peak pattern for the four phases of tungsten oxide. As shown in the Fig. 4, the peaks between 200 and 400 cm^{−1} correspond to bending of O–W–O bonds while the peaks between 700 and 900 cm^{−1} correspond to the stretching of the O–W–O bonds. The peak in the region 950–980 cm^{−1} is attributed to the terminal bond stretching (W=O) [10].

The monoclinic structure is distorted ReO₃ type structure and consists network of WO₆ octahedra. Two maxima are observed in the stretching regions. The two peaks are centered at 715 and 809 cm^{−1}. No peak is observed in the 950–980 cm^{−1} region suggesting the anhydrous nature of the sample [25]. The peak at 331 cm^{−1} which is observed in the bending region corresponds to the bending of O–W–O bonds. The second sample, W2, has hexagonal structure which is formed by corner sharing of WO₆ octahedra forming a six member hexagonal ring. The stacking of these ring in 001 direction leads to the formation of hexagonal tunnels. A peak at 340 cm^{−1} is attributed to the O–W–O bond bending. Further, the Raman spectra shows two maxima, one at 684 cm^{−1}, a big shift from the monoclinic phase, due to the open structure arrangement of the crystals and second maximum centered at 810 cm^{−1} [26]. The peak at 948 cm^{−1} is attributed to terminal W=O bond stretching. W3 sample has bending peak at 331 cm^{−1} and stretching peaks at 712 and 810 cm^{−1} [26]. The tetragonal phase has a peak at 330 cm^{−1} (O–W–O bending) and two peaks at 713 and 809 cm^{−1} (O–W–O stretching) [27]. The bending peaks do not show much variation except in case hexagonal phase. In the stretching region, the 800 band is less indicative of phase transition than the 700 band. The variation in the 700 band is more prominent and sensitive to phase transition.

The surface chemistry and the oxidation state of tungsten was determined using XPS analysis. In the survey scan of four samples as observed in Fig. 5a, only W, O, and C were present suggesting the samples contained no impurities. All four samples show well defined peaks and confirm the formation of tungsten oxide (WO₃). Fig. 5b shows W 4f core scans. The positions of W 4f5/2 and W 4f7/2 peaks confirm the +6 oxidation state of Tungsten (W). The O 1s scan depicted in Fig. 5c shows peaks with similar binding energies to that of O–W bond [19]. A shoulder peak at around 533 eV is observed in samples 2, 3 and 4 suggesting presence of O–H bond.

Electrochemical characterization

The charge storage behavior and mechanism in the four phases of tungsten oxide was studied using cyclic voltammetry. The potential

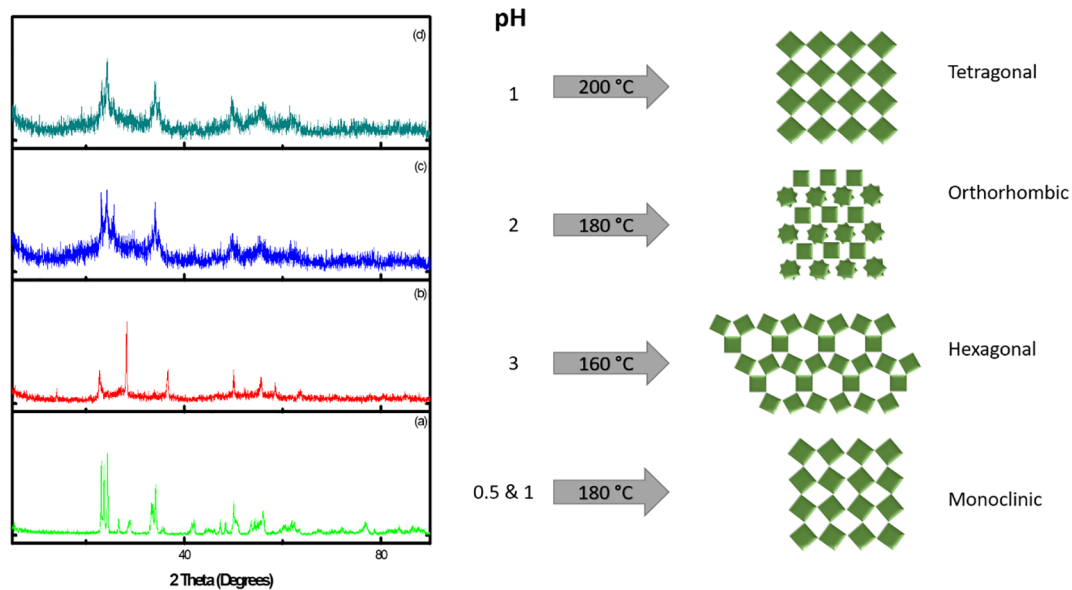


Fig. 1. XRD pattern of W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples with their corresponding crystal structure.

Table 2

Rietveld refinement parameters of WO₃ samples.

Sr. No.	Sample ID	Crystal Structure	Space Group	R _p	R _{wp}	χ ²
1	W1	Monoclinic	P21/a	9.21	15.4	3.2
2	W2	Hexagonal	P6/m m m	10.17	15.69	3.6
3	W3	Orthorhombic	P c n b	10.58	19.1	4.3
4	W4	Tetragonal	P4/n m m	9.88	17.5	3.9

window for the active material was determined to be from -0.6 to 0.2 V vs S.C.E by scanning the electrodes in three electrode setup at 2 mV s^{-1} scan rate. Shape of the curve, hydrogen evolution and complete pair of redox peaks were used to restrict the potential window. There is considerable difference in the shape of CV curves of the WO₃ phases as observed in Fig. 6. During the cathodic cycle, one can observe the onset of hydrogen evolution near -0.6 V. The current switching between (cathodic to anodic) is faster in samples W2 and W3. W4 shows a little delay while sample W1 has a considerable delay. Considering the shape and the current switching, the hexagonal (W2) and orthorhombic (W3) WO₃ show behavior similar to that of an ideal supercapacitor. The specific capacitance of the four samples at different scan rate are listed in the Table 4. The following formula was used to calculate the specific capacitance from the CV curves.

$$C = \frac{\int I(v)dv}{mv\Delta V} \quad (4)$$

where $\int I(v)dv$ is the area under the CV curve, m is the mass of active material in grams, v is the scan rate in millivolts per second and ΔV is the potential window in volts. The hexagonal phase W2 (377.5 Fg^{-1}) sample shows the highest capacitance at 2 mV s^{-1} scan rate followed by W4 (368.75 Fg^{-1}), W3 (331 Fg^{-1}) and W1 (325 Fg^{-1}).

Table 3

Crystal structure, lattice parameters, Bond length and unit cell volume of WO₃ samples.

Sr. No.	Sample ID	Crystal Structure	Lattice parameters						W - O (Å)	Unit cell Volume (V) (Å ³)
			a (Å)	b (Å)	c (Å)	α (deg.)	β (deg.)	γ (deg.)		
1	W1	Monoclinic	7.30	7.52	3.84	90	90.76	90	2.51	211.20
2	W2	Hexagonal	7.29	7.29	3.89	90	90	120	4.23	179.03
3	W3	Orthorhombic	7.33	7.57	7.74	90	90	90	1.84	429.85
4	W4	Tetragonal	5.24	5.24	3.93	90	90	90	1.01	107.81

As the scan rate increases, the specific capacitance of all samples decreases at different rate. The W4 sample shows the highest drop in capacitance (83%) when the capacitance at lowest 2 mV s^{-1} and highest scan rate 100 mV s^{-1} are compared. While the W2 sample shows the least drop of 64%. The contribution in charge storage from carbon cloth substrate was found to be negligible. CV of bare carbon cloth (substrate) in $1 \text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$ electrolyte at 50 mV s^{-1} scan rate, as depicted in SI Fig. S1, suggests insignificant contribution to total charge stored in the samples. To understand further the nature of charge storage mechanism the electrochemical kinetic analysis was performed. First, the charge storage mechanism of WO₃ is considered. The charge storage in WO₃ is due to the intercalation of protons and injection of electrons and transition of W^{6+} to W^{5+} and vice versa.



Form the experimental data, the variation in the specific capacitance of the samples at different scan rates suggests that the total charge stored is contribution of two distinct charge storage methods namely, surface capacitive and diffusion limited. The current (i) at particular potential (V) follows power law relationship with the scan rate (v). The equation describes the power law relationship:

$$i(V) = av^b \quad (6)$$

where a , b are adjustable constants. The range of values which b can take are limited within 0.5 to 1. If the value of b is 0.5 then the current is controlled by semi-infinite linear diffusion of ions (like in battery) and if the value is 1 then the current is surface controlled (EDLC and Pseudocapacitive). Thus, closer the value of b to 1, more ideal supercapacitive behavior of the material. The current values at the reduction peak potentials present in the CV curves are considered. The peak positions are not exactly same for all the samples. Samples W1 and W4

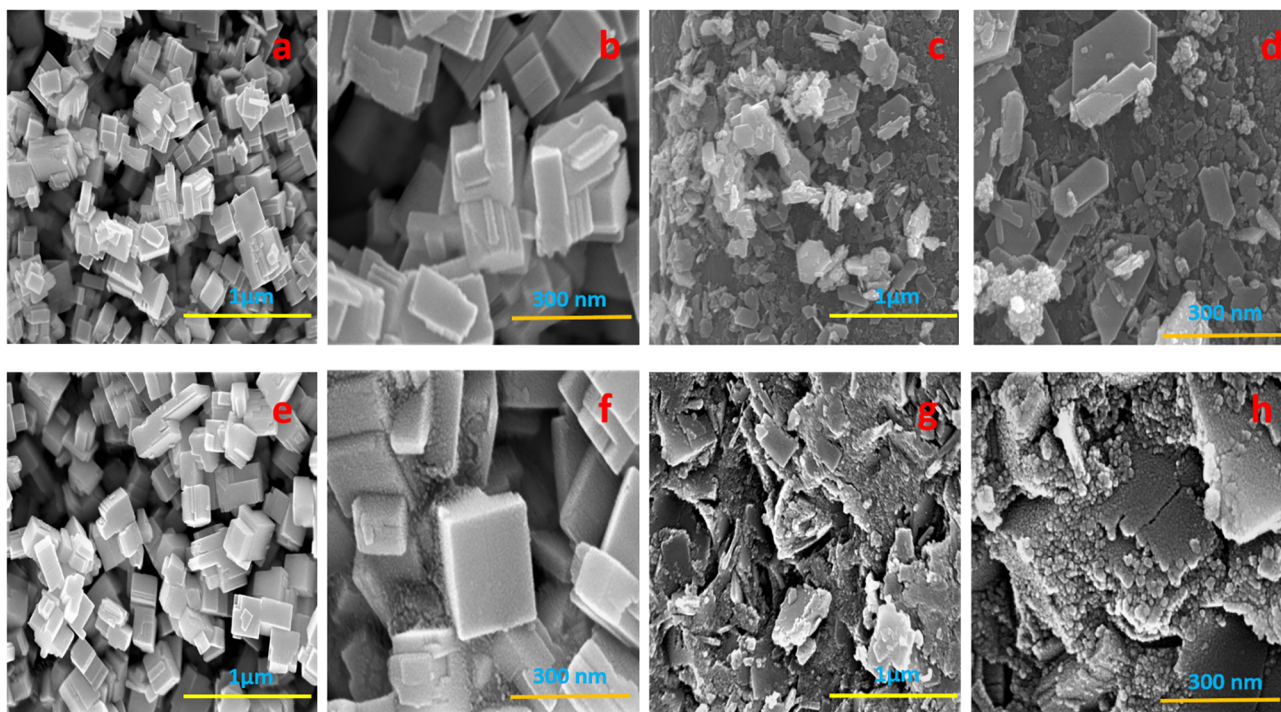


Fig. 2. SEM images at 50kX and 150kX magnifications of W1 (a, b), W2 (c, d), W3 (e, f) and W4 (g, h) samples, respectively.

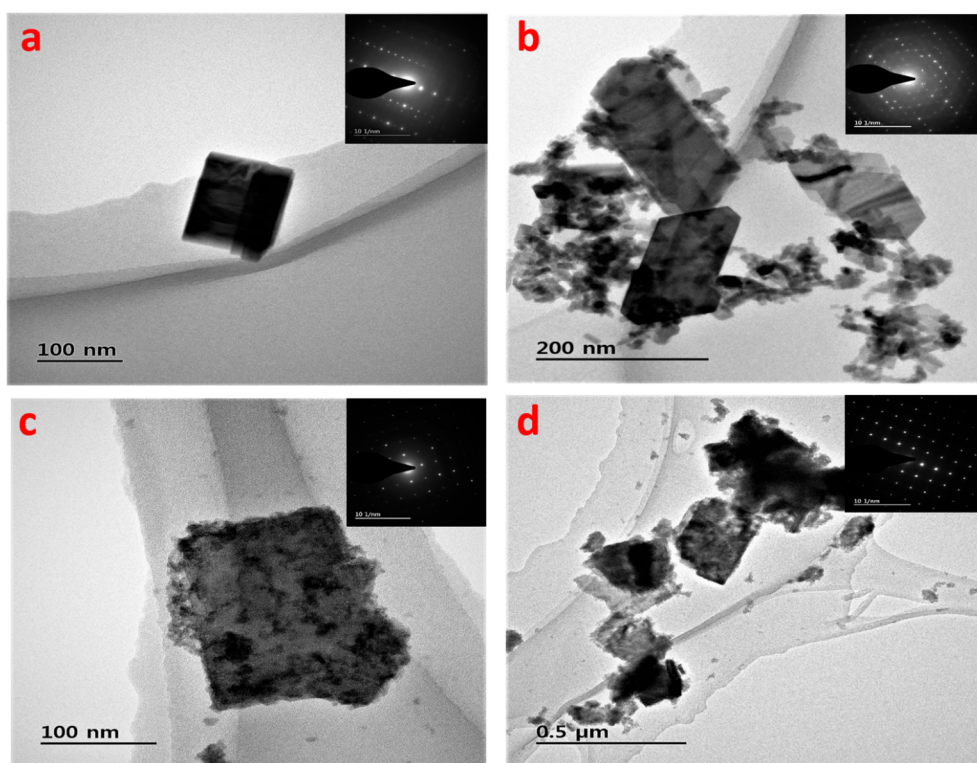


Fig. 3. TEM images of W1 (a), W2 (b), W3 (c) and W4 (d) with inset images of SAED pattern.

show cathodic peaks at fairly the same potentials at -0.1 and -0.35 V. In sample W3, only one peak at -0.5 V is distinguishable. Similar peak is observed in sample W2 in addition to peak at -0.1 V. The plot of the $\log(v)$ to $\log(i)$ gives the value of b . The plot is shown in SI Fig. S2. In case of W2 and W3 the values are very close to 1 hence suggesting the supercapacitive behavior. However, for W1 and W4 the values of b suggest battery type behavior. To analyze and categorize the charge

storage contribution, the analytical model proposed by Dunn et al. was adopted [28]. The model can be summarized in the equation below.

$$i(v) = k_1 v + k_2 v^{1/2} \quad (7)$$

where k_1 and k_2 are the coefficients of the diffusion controlled and surface capacitive charge respectively. For the kinetic analysis only the CV curves at lower scan rates are considered (50 and 100 mV s^{-1} are

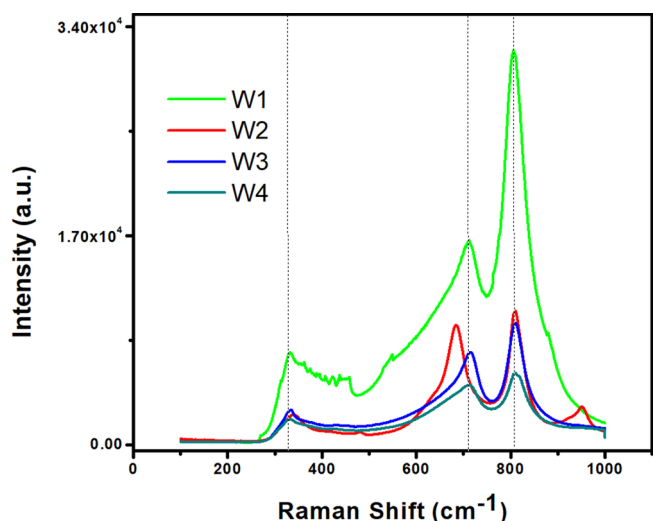


Fig. 4. RAMAN spectra of W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples.

excluded) because at higher scan rates the effect of factors such as ohmic losses, polarization and considerable shift in peak positions are not compensated for in the model. The total charge stored at different scan rates is calculated as explained in SI and plotted against inverse of the square root of scan rate. The plot was linearly fitted and extrapolated to find the contribution of surface capacitive charge (Q_c) as shown in SI Fig. S4. The remaining charge stored was concluded to be contributed from ion diffusion mechanism (Q_d) into the material. The CV curves plots for the samples W1, W2, W3 and W4 for 2–20 mVs^{-1} scan rate range are shown in SI Fig. S3. The value of surface capacitive contribution is assumed to be independent of scan rate (for lower scan rates) according to the model. As observed, the total charge stored decreases with increase in scan rate. This is because diffusion controlled charge contribution gets subdued with increase in scan rate. Ions diffusion into WO_3 lattice is time dependent and with increasing scan rate, lesser time is available. The contribution from the surface capacitive

reactions increases with increase in scan rate and dominates the total contribution at higher scan rates. At 2 mVs^{-1} , the surface capacitive contribution was 34, 45, 43 and 21% for W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples, respectively. This contribution increased up to 64, 75, 70 and 63% for 20 mVs^{-1} scan rate. The charge contribution from the two separate processes is shown in Fig. 7. Crystal structure and morphology play a vital role in charge storage within the material. Sample W2, hexagonal phase has well defined hexagonal tunnels for easy ion intercalation. The elongation of the structure provides better-unobstructed pathways. Similarly, sample W3 has larger unit cell volume as calculated in Table 3. This helps in easy movements of ions within the crystal structure and contributes towards better electrochemical performance. Thus, by the virtue of their crystal structure and morphology, samples W2 and W3 are expected to perform better. Their physical characteristics are more conducive for fast surface reaction.

Stability is an important performance parameter for supercapacitor electrode material. A supercapacitor has to undergo many more charge-discharge cycles than a battery. In our studies we observed the stability of all the samples over 4000 cycles scanned at 20 mVs^{-1} scan rate. Stability is greatly impacted by the morphology of the material. In our case though the morphology of all the samples is more or less similar. However, the stability of the samples vary greatly as shown in Fig. 8a. The capacitance retention for W2 and W3 samples is 90 and 94% respectively. Since the surface capacitance plays dominant role in the charge storage, the structure of the material is not greatly affected. Samples W1 and W4 show much higher loss in capacitance. The capacitance retention for the samples is 82 and 76% respectively. The diffusion of ions deeper into the material has profound effect on the structure of the material and thus its stability. Diffusion mechanism into the WO_3 lattice leads to structural degradation and consequently the cyclic capability of the sample suffers. EIS study was conducted to analyze the impedance of the samples. EIS was performed before the electrochemical analysis. The EIS was performed by measuring the impedance spectra in the frequency range of 100 KHz to 0.1 Hz at open circuit potential with ac perturbation of 10 mV. The Nyquist plot is shown in Fig. 8b.

At very high frequencies, the intercept on the x-axis i.e. on the Z real

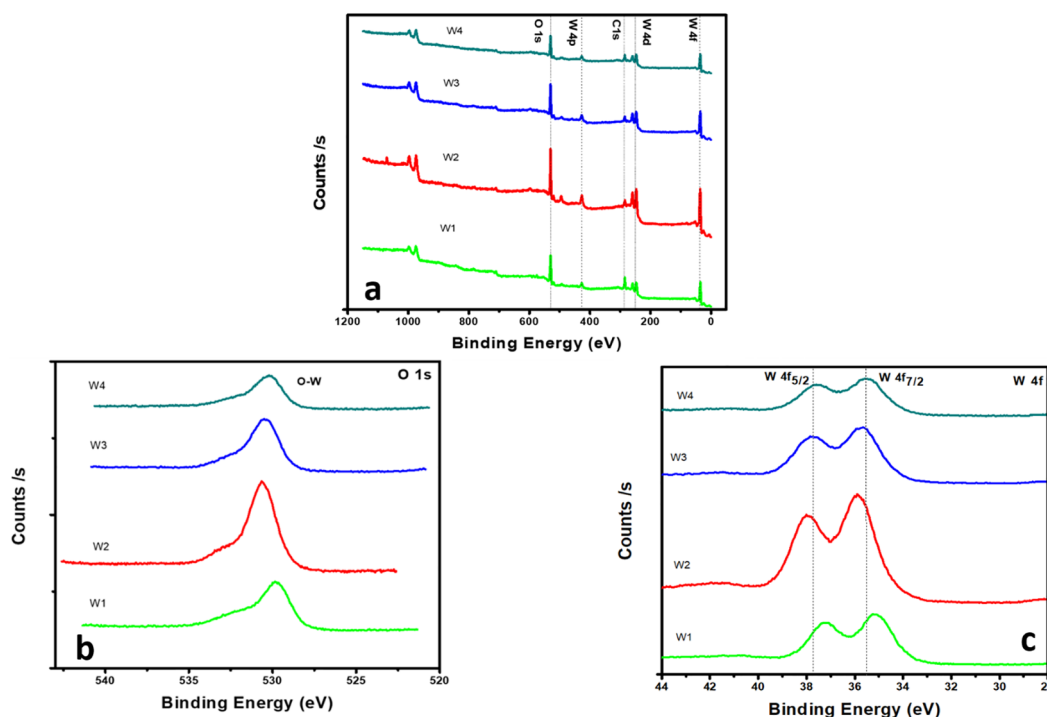


Fig. 5. (a) Survey spectrum (b) W 4f scans and (c) O 1s scans of samples W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples.

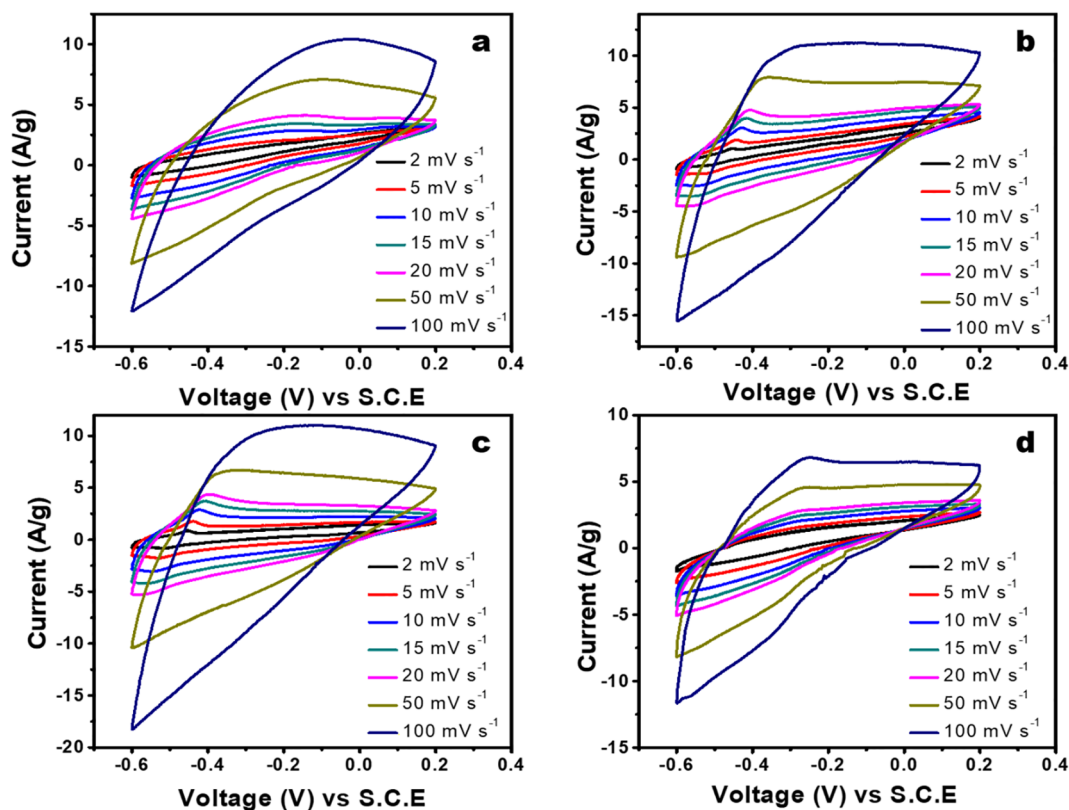


Fig. 6. CV curves of samples (a) W1, (b) W2, (c) W3 and (d) W4 at scan rate 2–100 mV s^{-1} .

Table 4

Capacitance of WO_3 samples at different scan rate.

Sample	Scan rate (mV s^{-1})							Capacitance Fg^{-1}
	2	5	10	15	20	50	100	
W1	325	240	220	190	175	125	90	
W2	377.5	316.667	275	250	229.166	166.66	133.33	
W3	331	250	227	212.12	204	135.41	104.166	
W4	368.75	232.5	168.7	140	123.75	82.5	61.25	

axis indicates R_s (Series resistance/intrinsic resistance). This is the cumulative resistance of intrinsic resistance of the substrate, ionic resistance of the electrolyte and the interfacial resistance at the substrate and active material interface. Small semicircle is observed in the high frequency region. This arises due to the faradaic charge transfer process and double layer capacitance and hence is called as R_{ct} (charge transfer resistance). The low frequency region has a sloped line referred as Warburg diffusion resistance W . Warburg diffusion indicates the frequency dependent ion diffusion in the electrolyte to electrode. The EIS data acquired was fitted using Zman Software. The data and equivalent circuit diagram is shown in SI Fig. S5 and S6. The sample W2 has the smallest R_s value 1.59 followed by W3, W1 and W4 respectively, indicating that there is better contact between active material and the substrate. Similarly, the R_{ct} value for W2 is 1.59, which is the smallest of all samples indicating fast kinetics and easy transfer of charge [32,33]. The Z phase angle at lower frequencies, as shown in the bode plot SI Fig. S5, confirm that the sample W2 and W3 exhibit capacitive behavior. The sample W1 and W4 with Z phase angle closer to 45 suggest battery like behavior. All the parameters of the equivalent circuit for all the samples are given in SI Table S2. Thus, the EIS data analysis further strengthens our findings about the nature of charge

storage in different phases of tungsten oxide.

Conclusion

We report synthesis of tungsten oxide polymorphs by simply varying the pH and hydrothermal temperature. Monoclinic, hexagonal, orthorhombic and tetragonal phases of tungsten oxide obtained by hydrothermal route are studied for the charge storage mechanism in each phase. The contribution from two different charge storage mechanism (i) surface capacitive (ii) diffusion limited were analyzed and quantified. Based on the electrochemical performance, hexagonal and orthorhombic phases are ideally suited for supercapacitor application. They exhibit pseudocapacitive behavior with better cyclic stability, rate capability and higher specific capacitance than the monoclinic and tetragonal phase. More open structures and wide tunnels enable fast, reversible intercalation of ions in hexagonal and orthorhombic phase. Monoclinic and tetragonal phase prominently exhibit diffusion type charge storage mechanism, suitable for battery application. Tungsten oxide can be used as energy storage material with hexagonal phase being most suitable as supercapacitor active electrode material.

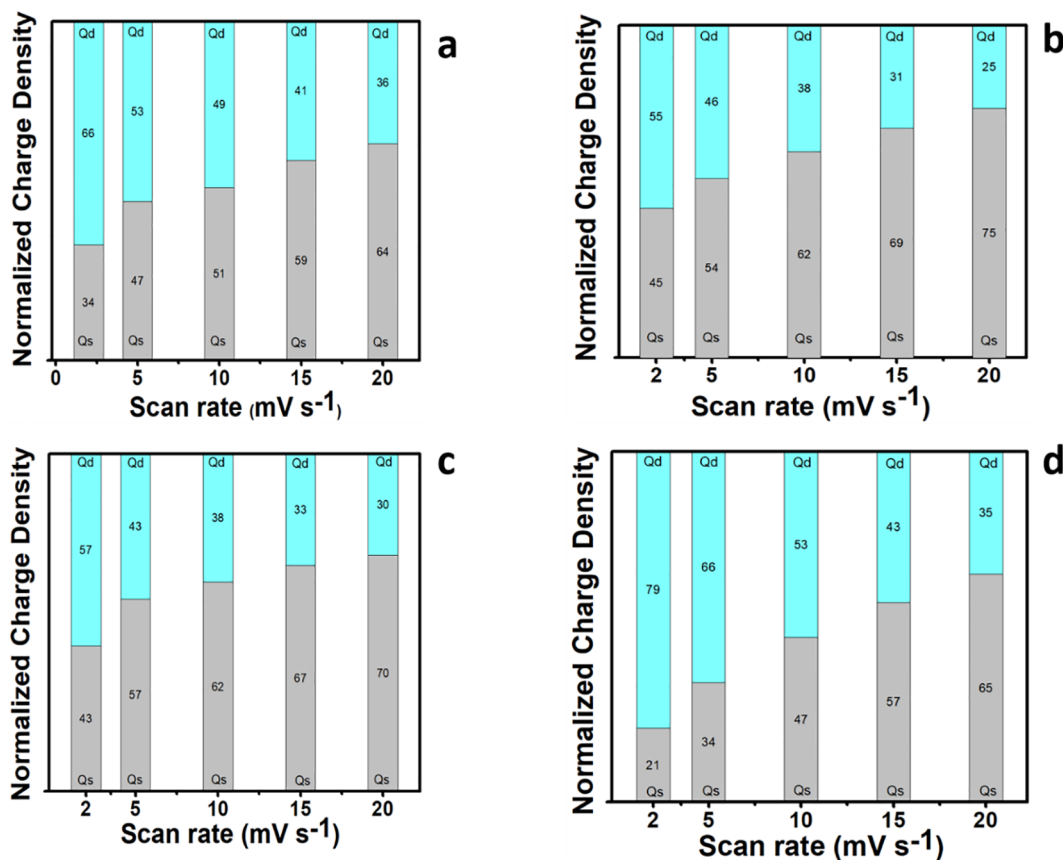


Fig. 7. Surface capacitive and diffusion limited contribution for (a) W1, (b) W2, (c) W3 and (d) W4.

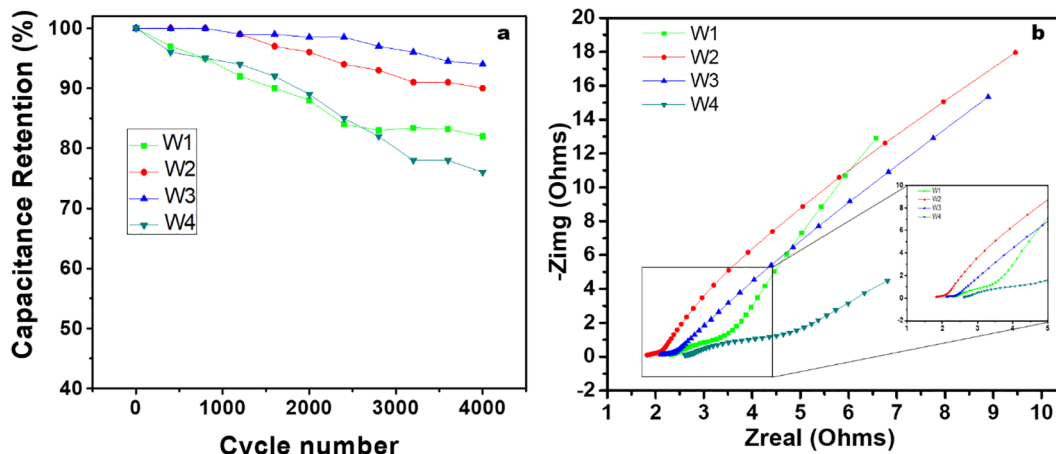


Fig. 8. (a) Cyclic stability study for 4000 cycles and (b) Nyquist plot of W1, W2, W3 and W4 samples (inset magnified image of selected area on graph).

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rinp.2019.02.012>.

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