

# Journal of Materials Chemistry A

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

## Three-dimensional porous graphene/polyaniline composites for high-rate electrochemical capacitors

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Qinqin Zhou, Yingru Li, Liang Huang, Chun Li, Gaoquan Shi\*

Received 00th January 2012,  
Accepted 00th January 2012

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

[www.rsc.org/](http://www.rsc.org/)

We report an electrochemical co-deposition method to prepare three-dimensional (3D) porous composites of reduced graphene oxide (rGO) and polyaniline (PANI) with pores vertically oriented on the surfaces of current collectors and used as an electrode material of electrochemical capacitors (ECs). These composites showed much larger areal specific capacitances and greatly improved rate capability than those of PANI. Typically, the rGO/PANI composite film with a thickness of 150  $\mu\text{m}$  exhibited a high areal specific capacitance ( $C_a$ , 67.2  $\text{mF cm}^{-2}$ ), small relaxation time constant ( $\tau_0$ , 316 ms) and good electrochemical stability, promising for the fabrication of high-rate EC.

### Introduction

Electrochemical capacitors (ECs) are attractive energy storage devices because of their high power densities, fast charge-discharge processes and long cycling life.<sup>1–3</sup> According to their energy storage mechanisms, ECs are classified as electronic double layer capacitors (EDLCs) and pseudocapacitors.<sup>3</sup> The former accumulates charges at the interfaces of electrodes and electrolytes, and the latter stores energy by reversible redox reactions of electrode materials. Polyaniline (PANI) has been extensively studied among conductive polymers for pseudocapacitors mainly due to its high specific pseudocapacitance, ease of synthesis, good environmental stability, and low cost.<sup>4–6</sup> However, the cycling life and rate-capability of PANI electrodes are unsatisfactory because of their large volume changes, slow redox reactions during charging/discharging processes.<sup>7,8</sup> Furthermore, the low conductivity of neutral PANI also weakens its performances in ECs. To address these problems, PANI was frequently blended with carbon nanomaterials to improve its conductivity, mechanical and electrochemical stabilities and the kinetics of redox reactions.<sup>9–11</sup>

Among carbon nanomaterials,<sup>12–15</sup> graphene is unique and attractive because of its huge specific surface area, high conductivity, and good electrochemical and mechanical stabilities.<sup>16,17</sup> Recently, graphene/PANI composites have been prepared by in-situ chemical oxidative polymerization,<sup>18–20</sup> electropolymerization<sup>5,21–23</sup> or interfacial polymerization<sup>24–26</sup> for the fabrication of ECs. Chemical oxidative polymerization usually produces a powdery composite. Interfacial polymerization involves using a toxic organic solvent, and the morphology of product is difficult to be controlled. On the other hand, electropolymerization has several advantages including short reaction time, oxidant-free, and the composites

are directly deposited on the surfaces of current collectors, avoiding using binders and conductive fillers.<sup>6,27,28</sup> Nevertheless, the ECs based on electrodeposited PANI composites reported previously usually have unsatisfactory rate-performances because of their relatively compact morphology and heavily stacking of graphene sheets.<sup>8,22,23</sup>

High-rate ECs are important for the applications in AC-line filtering, aircrafts, automotive vehicles and power suppliers.<sup>28</sup> For these purposes, a variety of high-rate ECs were reported, while their areal specific capacitances are relatively low.<sup>29,30</sup> Herein, we report three-dimensional porous graphene/PANI composites with pores vertically oriented on current collector by one-step electrodeposition from the homogeneous mixed solution of aniline monomer and graphene oxide. In this case, graphene network provided not only a scaffold with large specific surface area for the deposition of PANI, but also highly conductive porous channels for the transfer of electrons and the facile adsorption-desorption of ions in electrolyte. Thus, the ECs based on these graphene/PANI composites exhibited much higher areal specific capacitances, excellent rate capability and improved cycling stability compared with those of the counterparts based on pristine PANI films.

### Experimental section

**Synthesis of graphene oxide (GO).** GO was synthesized by the oxidation of natural graphite power (325 mesh, Qingdao Huatai Lubricant Sealing Science and Technology Co. Ltd., Qingdao, China) following a modified Hummers' method.<sup>31, 32</sup> It was purified by dialysis for a week to remove the remaining salts and acid impurities and centrifuged for 30 min at 4000 rpm to remove aggregates. Finally, the resulted GO dispersion was adjusted to 4.5  $\text{mg mL}^{-1}$  for use.

**Preparation of graphene/PANI composites.** 68.5  $\mu\text{L}$  distilled aniline was added to 5 mL twice distilled water. Then, this system was purged with nitrogen gas and sonicated at 20  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min to form a transparent solution (solution A). 720 mg  $\text{LiClO}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was dissolved in 10 mL GO dispersion (4.5 mg  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) and sonicated for several minutes (solution B). Successively, solutions A and B were mixed by sonication for 10 min under a deoxygenated condition, and the resulting mixture was used as the electrolyte for electrosynthesis. The electrochemical co-deposition was carried out in a dark environment using cyclic voltammetry at a scan rate of 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$  in a potential range of  $-1.2$  V to 0.8 V. Gold (Au) and platinum (Pt) foils were used as the working and the counter electrodes, respectively, and the potentials were referred to a saturated calomel electrode (SCE). For control experiments, PANI films were synthesized *via* cyclic voltammetry scanning in the potential range of 0–0.8 V at 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ . Pure rGO films were also grown by cyclic voltammetry scanning in the potential range of  $-1.2$  to 0 V at 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ . These samples were washed repeatedly with water to remove the absorbed monomer and/or the residual salts. They were immersed in 1 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  electrolyte before electrochemical tests.

The rGO, PANI and Graphene/PANI composites were prepared by cyclic voltammetry scanning for different cycles, and they were nominated as  $\text{rGO}_n$ ,  $\text{PANI}_n$ , and  $\text{GP}_n$ , respectively ( $n$  is the number of CV cycles).

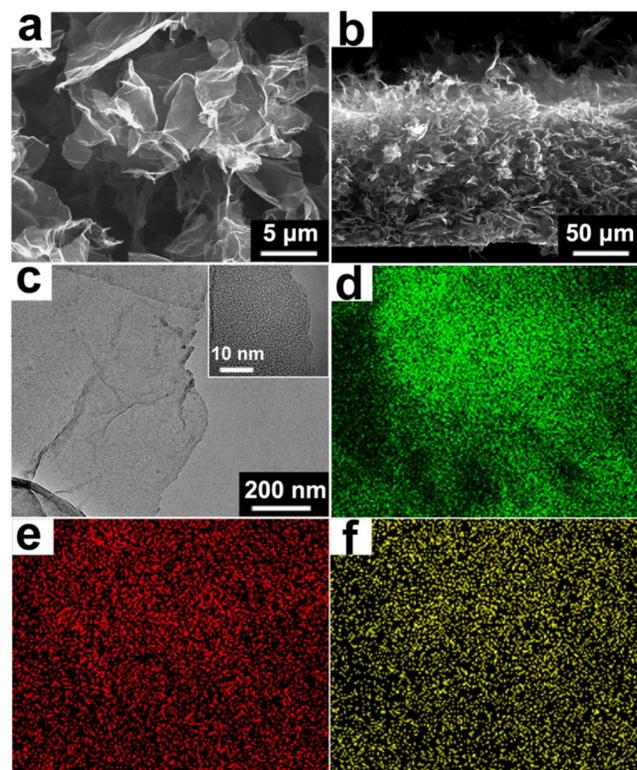
**Electrochemical measurements.** Cyclic voltammograms (CV), electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) and galvanostatic charge–discharge tests were performed by the use of a CHI 660B Potentiostat (CH Instruments, Inc.). The Au electrode coated with electrode material was used as the working electrode. The counter electrode was a Pt foil and the reference electrode was a SCE. EIS spectra were recorded in the frequency range of 0.01 to  $10^5$  Hz with a 5 mV amplitude referring to the open circuit potential. It should be noted here that the electrode material (e.g.  $\text{rGO}_n$ ,  $\text{PANI}_n$  or  $\text{GP}_n$ ) is too light to be weighted accurately as  $n$  is smaller than 10. Thus, the specific capacitances of EC electrodes were evaluated in area units ( $\text{mF cm}^{-2}$ ). The areal specific capacitance ( $C_a$ ) was calculated by the equation  $C_a = I\Delta t/s\Delta V$ , where  $I$  is the constant discharge current,  $\Delta t$  is the discharge time,  $\Delta V$  is the discharge potential drop (excluding IR drop), and  $s$  is the area of electrode.

The performances of  $\text{rGO}_{100}$ ,  $\text{GP}_{20}$  and  $\text{PANI}_{100}$  have also been examined in a two-electrode system. This is mainly due to that the loadings of  $\text{GP}_{20}$  and  $\text{PANI}_{100}$  electrodes were measured to be nearly the same ( $0.17 \pm 0.03$  mg  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). CVs were carried out in a potential range of  $-0.2$  to 0.8 V and galvanostatic charge–discharge tests were performed in the potential range of 0 to 0.8 V. In this case,  $C_a$  was calculated by  $C_a = 2I\Delta t/s\Delta V$ .

**Characterizations.** The morphologies of electrode materials were studied by using a field-emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, Sirion200) and a FEI TECNAI TF20 transmission electron microscope (TEM). Raman spectra were recorded on a LabRAM HR Evolution Raman spectrometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon) with a 514-nm

laser. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopic (XPS) examinations were carried out by using an ESCALAB 250 photoelectron spectrometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, USA).

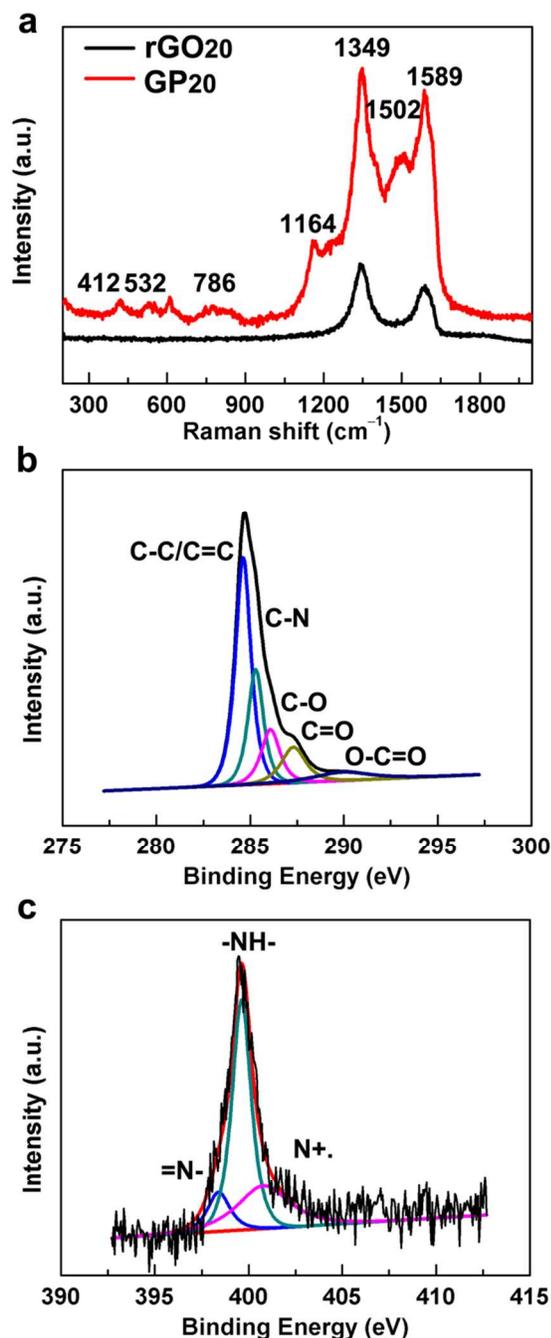
## Results and discussion



**Fig. 1** (a) Top view and (b) cross-section SEM images, and (c) TEM image of  $\text{GP}_{20}$  (inset: HR-TEM image); (d–e) The element mapping images of carbon (d), nitrogen (e) and oxygen (f) for the marked region in panel (a).

The graphene/PANI composites were prepared by one-step cyclic voltammetry scanning in the potential range of  $-1.2$  to 0.8 V. The initial potential was controlled to be  $-1.2$  V; thus, GO sheets were firstly electrochemically reduced to form a rGO layer on the substrate electrode, and then aniline monomers were oxidized and polymerized on the surfaces of rGO sheets at the positive potentials.<sup>5,22</sup> The composites grown for different CV cycles have similar morphologies, while their microstructures were slightly changed to be more irregular and compact with the increasing in CV cycling number. Meanwhile, the thickness of the composite layer increased nearly linearly with the increase in the number of CV cycles ( $\text{GP}_1 \sim 31$   $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\text{GP}_3 \sim 52$   $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\text{GP}_6 \sim 72$   $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\text{GP}_{10} \sim 107$   $\mu\text{m}$ , Fig. S1†). Here,  $\text{GP}_{20}$  (e. g. the composite grown for 20 CV cycles) is taken as an example.  $\text{GP}_{20}$  has a 3D porous microstructure (Fig. 1a) with a thickness of about 150  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 1b). In comparison, the pure PANI film deposited under the same condition is a granular film (Fig. S2†). The composite sheets of  $\text{GP}_{20}$  (Fig. 1c) are thicker and more blurred than pure rGO sheets (Fig. S3†), indicating the coating of PANI on the surfaces of rGO sheets.

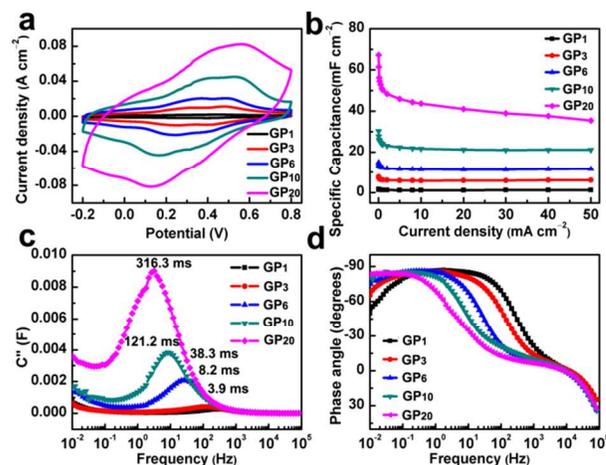
The HR-TEM image of a GP20 sheet (inset of Fig. 1c) also confirms this conclusion. The element mapping images (for the



**Fig. 2** (a) Raman spectra of rGO<sub>20</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub>; (b, c) C 1s (b) and N 1s (c) XPS spectra of GP<sub>20</sub>.

marked region of Fig. 1a) demonstrate the homogeneous distributions of carbon, nitrogen and oxygen elements in GP<sub>20</sub> (Fig. 1d to 1f), reflecting the formation of a uniform rGO/PANI composite. As described above, PANI layer coated on the surface of conductive rGO framework with hierarchical pores fully exposed to the electrolyte for the access of ions to form electrochemical double layers and supporting the redox reactions of PANI.

Fig. 2a illustrates the Raman spectra of rGO<sub>20</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub>. The spectrum of rGO<sub>20</sub> has two dominant peaks at 1346 and



**Fig. 3** (a) CV curves of GP<sub>n</sub> electrodes at a scan rate of 1 V s<sup>-1</sup>; (b) Plots of areal specific capacitances of GP<sub>n</sub> electrodes versus discharge current densities; (c, d) Bode plots of the imaginary areal specific capacitances (c) or phase angles (d) versus frequencies.

1586 cm<sup>-1</sup>, corresponding to its D and G bands.<sup>33,34</sup> In the spectrum of GP<sub>20</sub>, the characteristic rGO bands slightly shifted to higher frequencies (1349 and 1589 cm<sup>-1</sup>), possibly due to the interaction between rGO sheets and PANI chains. This spectrum also shows the characteristic Raman bands of PANI. The Raman band at 421 cm<sup>-1</sup> is associated with the out-of-plane C-H wag. The band related to phenazine-like segment appears at around 532 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The 786 cm<sup>-1</sup> band is assigned to the imine deformation. The 1164 and 1502 cm<sup>-1</sup> bands are associated with the in-plane C-H bending and C=N stretching vibrations of the quinonoid units.<sup>18, 21</sup>

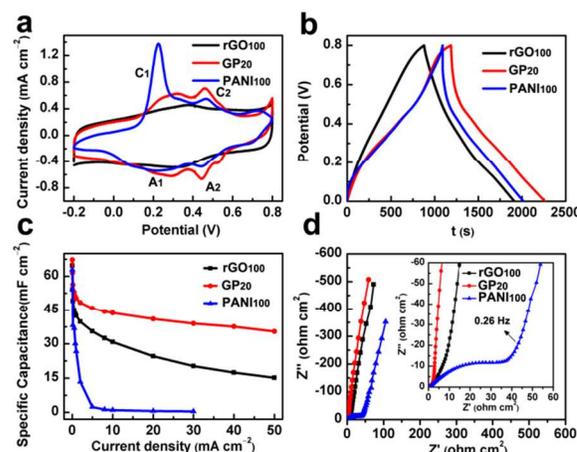
The C 1s XPS spectrum of GP<sub>20</sub> demonstrates five types of carbon bonds: C-C/C=C (284.6 eV), C-N (285.3 eV), C-O (286.1 eV), C=O (287.3 eV) and O-C=O (289.9 eV) (Fig. 2b).<sup>5,23</sup> The relative intensities of oxygen functionalities in this spectrum are much weaker than those of GO (Fig. S4†). Actually, the C/O atomic ratio of rGO component in GP<sub>20</sub> composite was calculated to be 3.03. This value is higher than that of GO (2.26), confirming that the GO sheets have been partially reduced. The N 1s XPS spectrum of GP<sub>20</sub> shows three peaks located at 398.4, 399.6, and 400.8 eV, and they are assigned to benzenoid amine (=N-), quinoid amine (-NH-) and nitrogen cationic radical (N<sup>+</sup>), respectively (Fig. 2c). The Raman and XPS spectra results described above also confirm the successful growth of graphene/PANI composites.<sup>5,35</sup>

The electrochemical capacitive performances of the graphene/PANI composites were studied by CVs, charge-discharge tests and EIS spectra. Each CV curve of the composites has a quasi-rectangular shaped baseline current and two pairs of redox waves at a high scan rate of 1 V s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3a, Fig. S5a†). The baseline current is attributed to the electrochemical double layers capacitance of the electrode and the redox waves are associated with the

leucoemeraldine/emeraldine and emeraldine/ pernigraniline transformations of PANI, correspondingly.<sup>36,37</sup> These two-couples of redox peaks of PANI can be observed from the CV curves at ultra-fast scan rates: up to  $50 \text{ V s}^{-1}$  for GP<sub>1</sub>,  $10 \text{ V s}^{-1}$  for GP<sub>3</sub>,  $5 \text{ V s}^{-1}$  for GP<sub>6</sub>,  $2 \text{ V s}^{-1}$  for GP<sub>10</sub> and  $1 \text{ V s}^{-1}$  for GP<sub>20</sub> (Fig. S5b-f†). In comparison, a PANI film grown for 20 CV cycles shows a  $C_a$  comparable to that of GP<sub>1</sub>. However, its CV is severely distorted from the curve with two-couples of redox waves at  $5 \text{ V s}^{-1}$ , reflecting its much worse rate capability than that of GP<sub>1</sub> (Fig. S6†). The  $C_a$ s of GP<sub>1</sub>, GP<sub>3</sub>, GP<sub>6</sub>, GP<sub>10</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub> were measured to be 1.6, 7.7, 14.9, 30.3 and  $67.2 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ , respectively, at a discharge current density ( $i_d$ ) of  $50 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ . In addition, the capacitance retention was tested to be 99.5 % for GP<sub>1</sub>, 96.1% for GP<sub>3</sub>, 92.7 % for GP<sub>6</sub>, 85.4 % for GP<sub>10</sub> and 67.0 % for GP<sub>20</sub> as  $i_d$  increased from 0.5 to  $50 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 3b). These results reflect the 3D porous GP<sub>*n*</sub> electrodes have excellent rate capability. Moreover, GP<sub>1</sub>, GP<sub>3</sub>, GP<sub>6</sub>, GP<sub>10</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub> still remain  $C_a$ s of 1.3, 6.1, 11.6, 21.1 and  $35.4 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at an  $i_d = 50 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. Accordingly, these electrodes can be operated at several tens to several hundreds ms level (Fig. S7†), comparable to the most rapid counterparts based on graphene or graphene composites.<sup>7, 17, 38, 39</sup> Furthermore, the  $C_a$ s of the GP<sub>*n*</sub> ( $n \geq 3$ ) composites are twice to over ten times higher than those of the high-rate carbon electrodes such as onion-like carbon ( $1.7 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at a potential scan rate of  $1 \text{ V s}^{-1}$ ),<sup>29</sup> activated carbon ( $4.5 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ )<sup>29</sup> and laser scribed graphene film ( $3.67 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at  $i_d = 36.3 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ ).<sup>30</sup> This is mainly attributed to the combined contributions of graphene electrochemical double layers capacitance and PANI faradic capacitance in the 3D porous composites.

Relaxation time constant ( $\tau_0$ ) is another parameter to evaluate the rate capability of capacitive electrodes.<sup>40</sup> The reciprocal of the frequency at which the imaginary specific capacitance reaches the maximum is  $\tau_0$ .<sup>41</sup> The  $\tau_0$ s of GP<sub>1</sub>, GP<sub>3</sub>, GP<sub>6</sub>, GP<sub>10</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub> were tested to be 3.9 ms (258.8 Hz), 8.2 ms (122.1 Hz), 38.3 ms (26.1 Hz), 121.2 ms (8.254 Hz) and 316.3 ms (3.162 Hz), respectively (Fig. 3c). The  $\tau_0$ s of GP<sub>1</sub> and GP<sub>3</sub> are shorter than those of reported onion-like carbon (26 ms)<sup>29</sup>, activated carbon (700 ms)<sup>29</sup> and multilayered graphene (13.3 ms)<sup>42</sup> based high-rate EDLCs. Fig. 3d shows that the phase angle of each electrode increases up to around 90 degrees with the decreasing of frequency and shows a platform at low frequencies. In the region of platform, PANI can be nearly fully used to contribute capacitance.<sup>43</sup> The highest frequency of the plateaus for GP<sub>1</sub> was measured to be about 38 Hz, and this value is much higher than that of other GP<sub>*n*</sub> electrodes (12.12 Hz for GP<sub>3</sub>, 3.162 Hz for GP<sub>6</sub>, 1.468 Hz for GP<sub>10</sub> and 0.3162 Hz for GP<sub>20</sub>), indicating its best rate-performance. These results reflect the fast transports of electrons and ions in the composite electrodes. In the composites, the porous graphene framework provided a highly conductive support for PANI, shortening the charge transfer distance from PANI to current collector.<sup>44</sup> In addition, the 3D architecture with hierarchical pores oriented vertically to the surface of current collector, providing a large specific area accessible to electrolyte.

The electrochemical capacitive performances of graphene/PANI composites were compared with those of their single components. We chose GP<sub>20</sub>, rGO<sub>100</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> as examples because they have comparable  $C_a$ s (Fig. S8†). The

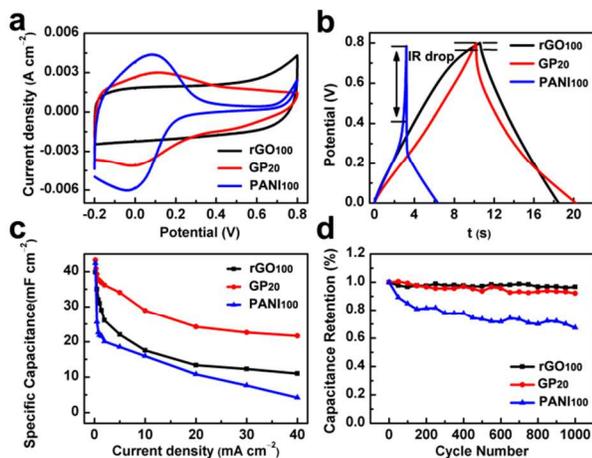


**Fig. 4** (a) CVs of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> electrodes at a scan rate of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ; (b) galvanostatic charge–discharge curves of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> electrodes at an  $i_d$  of  $50 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ ; (c) Areal specific capacitances calculated from the charge–discharge curves of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> electrodes at different  $i_d$ s; (d) Nyquist plots of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> electrodes.

large quasi-rectangular areas of all CV curves at  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  are attributed to electrochemical double-layer (EDL) capacitances (Fig. 4a). The CV curve of GP<sub>20</sub> or PANI<sub>100</sub> exhibits two-couples of redox peaks ( $C_1 \sim 0.22 \text{ V}$ ,  $A_1 \sim 0.22 \text{ V}$ ;  $C_2 \sim 0.46 \text{ V}$ ,  $A_2 \sim 0.44 \text{ V}$ ). The  $C_1$  peak of GP<sub>20</sub> is broader than that of PANI<sub>100</sub>, possibly due to the presence of redox reaction of residual oxygenated groups of rGO sheets. As the scan rate increased to  $100 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ , the CV curves of rGO<sub>100</sub> and GP<sub>20</sub> kept their primitive shapes, while that of PANI was severely distorted (Fig. S9a†). The charge–discharge curves of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> at  $i_d = 50 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$  are demonstrated in Fig. 4b. The curve of rGO<sub>100</sub> has a nearly symmetric triangle shape, indicating a dominant EDL capacitance. However, the curves of GP<sub>20</sub> has a nonlinear shape with two sections. The first section in the potential range of 0.8–0.45 V has a short discharge duration, and it is associated with EDL capacitance and the second section ranging from 0 to 0.45 V is related to a combination of EDL and redox capacitances from PANI.<sup>4,5</sup> The discharge curve of PANI<sub>100</sub> has a shape similar to that of GP<sub>20</sub>. However, PANI<sub>100</sub> electrode showed a much larger “IR drop” (0.39 V) than that of GP<sub>20</sub> electrode (0.037 V) at the same  $i_d = 10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. S9b†). This result implies PANI<sub>100</sub> film has a larger internal resistance, which waste more energy to produce unwanted heat. Therefore, GP<sub>20</sub> is more suitable for power-saving device compared with PANI<sub>100</sub>.

The  $C_a$ s of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> measured by charging–discharging tests are plotted in Fig. 4c. The  $C_a$ s of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> were measured to be 64.7, 67.2 and  $62.9 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at  $i_d = 50 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. However, GP<sub>20</sub> kept about 82.5 % of initial capacitance as  $i_d$  increased from 0.5 to  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , while the capacitance retentions of rGO<sub>100</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> were

found to be only 68.5 % and 2.7 % in the same  $i_d$  range. At  $i_d = 10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , the  $C_a$  of GP<sub>20</sub> ( $43.7 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ ) is more than 40 times that of PANI<sub>100</sub> ( $1.0 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ ). Furthermore, GP<sub>20</sub> kept a  $C_a$  of  $35.4 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  as  $i_d$  increased to  $50 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , indicating it has the best rate capability.



**Fig. 5** (a) CV curves of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> based ECs at a scan rate of  $100 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ; (b) Galvanostatic charge-discharge curves of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> based ECs at an  $i_d$  of  $1.4 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ; (c) Areal specific capacitances calculated from charge-discharge curves of GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> based ECs in a large range of current densities; (d) Cycling stability of GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> based ECs at an  $i_d$  of  $1.4 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . All the experiments were performed in two-electrode systems.

EIS is an effective method to measure the internal resistances and charge transfer kinetics of electrodes.<sup>45</sup> The Nyquist plots of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> electrodes are shown in Fig. 4d. In general, a Nyquist plot composes of a semicircle in high frequency region associated with charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ),  $45^\circ$  section in middle frequency region corresponding to porous structure of the electrode and a straight line in low frequency region related to capacitive behaviour. According to the magnified plots (inset of Fig. 4d, Fig. S9c†), the equivalent series resistances (ESR) were measured to be  $1.7 \Omega$  for rGO<sub>100</sub>,  $1.1 \Omega$  for GP<sub>20</sub> and  $38.8 \Omega$  for PANI<sub>100</sub> by extrapolating the straight line to intersect  $Z'$  axes.<sup>46</sup> The ESR is assigned to electrolyte solution resistance, intrinsic resistance of active materials and the interfacial contact resistance between active materials and current collector.<sup>43</sup> Furthermore,  $R_{ct}$  of PANI<sub>100</sub> electrode ( $34.3 \Omega$ ), corresponding to the diameter of incomplete semicircle, is much larger than that of rGO<sub>100</sub> ( $0.22 \Omega$ ) and GP<sub>20</sub> (a inconspicuous loop) electrodes, demonstrating the incorporation of 3D rGO framework improved the conductivity of GP<sub>20</sub>. The transition point between  $45^\circ$  region and the vertical line in the low-frequency is generally called “knee” frequency. It is the maximum frequency at which the capacitive behaviour is dominant.<sup>47</sup> The “knee” frequencies of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> are 6.81, 21.54 and 0.26 Hz, respectively, implying GP<sub>20</sub> electrodes exhibits a capacitive behaviour at the highest frequency compared with those of rGO<sub>100</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub>. Furthermore, the slope of the low-frequency region for GP<sub>20</sub> electrode is larger than those of rGO<sub>100</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub>, suggesting a faster ion diffusion of electrolyte. These results further

demonstrate that GP<sub>20</sub> electrode has much higher conductivity and a better ion diffusion behaviour than those of rGO<sub>100</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub>, leading to its excellent rate capability. Furthermore, the  $\tau_0$  of GP<sub>20</sub> electrode ( $316.3 \text{ ms}$ ) is much shorter than that of rGO<sub>100</sub> ( $2.61 \text{ s}$ ) and PANI<sub>100</sub> ( $17.8 \text{ s}$ ) (Fig. S9d†), also reflecting its best rate capability. However, as the  $\tau_0$ s of electrodes were controlled to be the same ( $\tau_0=316.3 \text{ ms}$ ), GP<sub>20</sub> possesses the largest  $C_a$  ( $67.2 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ ) compared with those of rGO<sub>21</sub> ( $18.8 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ ) and PANI<sub>5</sub> ( $0.8 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ ) (Fig. S10†). On the basis of the results described above, it is reasonable to conclude that GP<sub>20</sub> electrode has a large areal specific capacitance and an excellent rate-performance.

The electrochemical performances of rGO<sub>100</sub>, GP<sub>20</sub> and PANI<sub>100</sub> were also evaluated in a more practical two-electrode system. The CV curve of GP<sub>20</sub> exhibits a characteristic shape combined with EDL and redox capacitances (Fig. 5a). Meanwhile, the discharge curve of the EC based on GP<sub>20</sub> shows a much smaller “IR drop” than that of the EC based on PANI<sub>100</sub>, implying an enhanced conductivity of the GP<sub>20</sub> electrodes (Fig. 5b). The  $C_a$  of GP<sub>20</sub> based EC was measured to be about  $43.3 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at an  $i_d$  of  $0.2 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 5c). As  $i_d$  increased from  $0.2$  to  $40 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , the capacitance retention of GP<sub>20</sub> based EC ( $50.0\%$ ) is much higher than those of rGO<sub>100</sub> ( $29.1\%$ ) and PANI<sub>100</sub> ( $10.0\%$ ) based ECs, exhibiting the similar characteristic as that measured in the three-electrode systems described above. The most serious problem of PANI-based ECs is their poor cycling stability caused by the volume changes of electrode material during the process of doping-dedoping process. As is shown in Fig. 5d, the GP<sub>20</sub> based EC exhibits a good stability with a capacitance retention of  $92\%$  after 1000 cycles of charge-discharge tests at  $i_d = 1.4 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , which is comparable to that of rGO<sub>100</sub> based EC. In comparison, under the same condition, the capacitance retention of pristine PANI based EC was measured to be only  $67\%$ . Furthermore, the durability of GP<sub>20</sub> based EC is much better than that of the EC based on graphene/PANI fibre composites ( $79\%$ , at  $3 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ )<sup>4</sup> or PANI electrodeposited on graphene paper ( $82\%$ , at  $5 \text{ A g}^{-1}$ ).<sup>48</sup> The improved stability performance of GP<sub>20</sub> based EC is mainly due to the graphene sheets provide a flexible, mechanically strong and electrically conductive network to accommodate the volume changes of PANI, delivering electrons efficiently to the current collectors.

## Conclusions

3D porous rGO/PANI composites were successfully prepared by electrochemical co-deposition. Graphene component provides a porous conductive support with large specific surface for PANI, improving the efficiency of using PANI and facilitating ion or charge transfer in the electrodes. These composites can be directly used as electrode materials of ECs, without using binder and conductive filler. The ECs based on GP composites have high areal specific capacitances, and good electrochemical stability. Particularly, they exhibited excellent rate-capability, promising to deliver large power within a short time.

## Acknowledgements

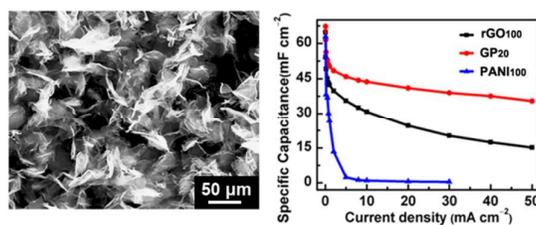
This work was supported by the National Basic Research Program of China (973 Program, 2012CB933402) and the Natural Science Foundation of China (51161120361, 21274074).

## Notes and references

Department of Chemistry, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, People's Republic of China. Fax: 86 62771149; Tel: 86 6277 3743; E-mail: gshi@tsinghua.edu.cn

† Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [Supplementary figures about the morphologies, structures and electrochemical performances of different electrode materials]. See DOI: 10.1039/b000000x/

- P. Simon and Y. Gogotsi, *Nat. Mater.*, 2008, **7**, 845–854.
- J. R. Miller and P. Simon, *Science*, 2008, **321**, 651–652.
- H. Jiang, P. S. Lee and C. Z. Li, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 41–53.
- Q. Wu, Y. X. Xu, Z. Y. Yao, A. R. Liu and G. Q. Shi, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **4**, 1963–1970.
- X. M. Feng, R. M. Li, Y. W. Ma, R. F. Chen, N. E. Shi, Q. L. Fan and W. Huang, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2011, **21**, 2989–2996.
- L. Wang, X. P. Lu, S. B. Lei and Y. H. Song, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, **2**, 4491–4509.
- Y. F. Wang, X. W. Yang, L. Qiu and D. Li, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 477–481.
- Q. Q. Zhang, Y. Li, Y. Y. Feng and W. Feng, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2013, **90**, 95–100.
- J. Yan, T. Wei, Z. J. Fan, W. Z. Qian, M. L. Zhang, X. D. Shen and F. Wei, *J. Power Sources*, 2010, **195**, 3041–3045.
- G. H. Yu, X. Xie, L. J. Pan, Z. N. Bao and Y. Cui, *Nano Energy*, 2013, **2**, 213–234.
- N. A. Kumar and J. B. Baek, *Chem. Commun.*, 2014, **50**, 6298–6300.
- X. J. He, N. Zhao, J. S. Qiu, N. Xiao, M. X. Yu, C. Yu, X. Y. Zhang and M. D. Zheng, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2013, **1**, 9440–9448.
- X. J. He, P. H. Ling, J. S. Qiu, M. X. Yu, X. Y. Zhang, C. Yu and M. D. Zheng, *J. Power Sources*, 2013, **240**, 109–113.
- Z. Y. Cao and B. Q. Wei, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 3183–3201.
- Y. Zhou, N. Lachman, M. Ghaffari, H. P. Xu, D. Bhattacharya, P. Fattahi, M. R. Abidian, S. Wu, K. K. Gleason, B. L. Wardle and Q. M. Zhang, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2014, **2**, 9964–9969.
- M. D. Stoller, S. Park, Y. Zhu, J. An and R. S. Ruoff, *Nano Lett.*, 2008, **8**, 3498–3502.
- J. Chen, K. X. Sheng, P. H. Luo, C. Li and G. Q. Shi, *Adv. Mater.*, 2012, **24**, 4569–4573.
- H. L. Wang, Q. L. Hao, X. J. Yang, L. D. Lu and X. Wang, *Nanoscale*, 2010, **2**, 2164–2170.
- J. J. Xu, K. Wang, S. Z. Zu, B. H. Han and Z. X. Wei, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **4**, 5019–5026.
- N. A. Kumar, H. J. Choi, Y. R. Shin, D. W. Chang, L. M. Dai and J. B. Baek, *ACS Nano*, 2012, **6**, 1715–1723.
- Y. Zhao, H. Bai, Y. Hu, Y. Li, L. T. Qu, S. W. Zhang and G. Q. Shi, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2011, **21**, 13978–13983.
- X. Q. Jiang, S. Setodoi, S. Fukumoto, I. Imae, K. Komaguchi, J. Yano, H. Mizota and Y. Harima, *Carbon*, 2014, **67**, 662–672.
- T. Lindfors and R. M. Latonen, *Carbon*, 2014, **69**, 122–131.
- J. H. Zhu, M. J. Chen, H. L. Qu, X. Zhang, H. G. Wei, Z. P. Luo, H. A. Colorado, S. Y. Wei and Z. H. Guo, *Polymer*, 2012, **53**, 5953–5964.
- B. Ma, X. Zhou, H. Bao, X. W. Li and G. C. Wang, *J. Power Sources*, 2012, **215**, 36–42.
- J. L. Shen, C. Y. Yang, X. W. Li and G. C. Wang, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces*, 2013, **5**, 8467–8476.
- C. Peng, J. Jin and G. Z. Chen, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2007, **53**, 525–537.
- J. Chen, C. Li and G. Q. Shi, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2013, **4**, 1244–1253.
- D. Pech, M. Brunet, H. Durou, P. H. Huang, V. Mochalin, Y. Gogotsi, P. L. Taberna and P. Simon, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, 2010, **5**, 651–654.
- M. F. El-Kady, V. Strong, S. Dubin and R. B. Kaner, *Science*, 2012, **335**, 1326–1330.
- W. S. Hummers, R. E. Offeman, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1958, **80**, 1339–1339.
- Y. X. Xu, K. X. Sheng, C. Li and G. Q. Shi, *ACS Nano*, 2010, **4**, 4324–4330.
- K. X. Sheng, Y. Q. Sun, C. Li, W. J. Yuan and G. Q. Shi, *Sci. Rep.*, 2012, **2**, 247.
- Y. R. Li, K. X. Sheng, W. J. Yuan and G. Q. Shi, *Chem. Commun.*, 2013, **49**, 291–293.
- T. Lee, T. Yun, B. Park, B. Sharma, H. K. Song and B. S. Kim, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2012, **22**, 21092–21099.
- S. J. He, X. W. Hu, S. L. Chen, H. Hu, M. Hanif and H. Q. Hou, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2012, **22**, 5114–5120.
- Y. F. Xu, M. G. Schwab, A. J. Strudwick, I. Hennig, X. L. Feng, Z. S. Wu and K. Müllen, *Adv. Energy Mater.*, 2013, **3**, 1035–1040.
- L. Zhang and G. Q. Shi, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2011, **115**, 17206–17212.
- Y. N. Meng, K. Wang, Y. J. Zhang and Z. X. Wei, *Adv. Mater.*, 2013, **25**, 6985–6990.
- J. A. Lee, M. K. Shin, S. H. Kim, H. U. Cho, G. M. Spinks, G. G. Wallace, M. D. Lima, X. Lepro, M. E. Kozlov, R. H. Baughman and S. J. Kim, *Nat. Commun.*, 2013, **4**, 1970.
- P. L. Taberna, P. Simon and J. F. Fauvarque, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, 2003, **150**, A292.
- X. W. Yang, J. W. Zhu, L. Qiu and D. Li, *Adv. Mater.*, 2011, **23**, 2833–2838.
- F. Huang and D. Chen, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2012, **5**, 5833–5841.
- Q. Q. Zhou, J. Gao, C. Li, J. Chen and G. Q. Shi, *J. Mater. Chem. A*, 2013, **1**, 9196–9201.
- L. Wang, Y. J. Ye, X. P. Lu, Z. B. Wen, Z. Li, H. Q. Hou and Y. H. Song, *Sci. Rep.*, 2013, **3**, 3568.
- M. D. Stoller and R. S. Ruoff, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2010, **3**, 1294–1301.
- M. Hughes, M. S. P. Shaffer, A. C. Renouf, C. Singh, G. Z. Chen, J. Fray and A. H. Windle, *Adv. Mater.*, 2002, **14**, 382–385.
- H. P. Cong, X. C. Ren, P. Wang and S. H. Yu, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2013, **6**, 1185–1191.



Three-dimensional porous composites of reduced graphene oxide and polyaniline prepared by electro-codeposition exhibited much larger areal specific capacitances, greatly improved rate capability compared with those of their individual components.