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#### Direct ink writing of energy materials

Direct Ink Writing, one of the leading extrusion-based 3D printing processes, holds great potential for the sustainable fabrication of energy devices with arbitrary architectures. Ink formulation is a crucial step in the manufacturing of electrochemically efficient and mechanically robust devices, offering the possibility to boost the performance and the durability of energy systems. In this work, we discuss the ink formulation approaches that have been proposed to print energy materials *via* Direct Ink Writing, providing insights into the integration of different materials to manufacture all-printed energy systems in a single production process.

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## Direct ink writing of energy materials

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3D printing is a promising technique for the sustainable fabrication of energy devices with arbitrary architectures. Extrusion-based 3D printing, called direct ink writing, is increasingly used for the manufacturing of batteries, supercapacitors and catalytic systems. In order to obtain mechanically stable and functional devices, inks formulation must meet stringent criteria for printability, that are usually expressed in terms of rheological properties. Inks are rheologically complex fluids, in which the electroactive materials are mixed with additives and solvents to form an extrudable and self-standing paste. The ink formulation process plays a key role in tuning the rheology and the functional properties of the printed device. In this review, inks formulation, rheological characteristics and device performance are critically discussed, providing insights into the rheology–printability and formulation–functional properties relationships. The main strategies that have been proposed to obtain printable inks from energy materials are reviewed. The role played by the different ink components to achieve the target rheology is contextualized and the integration of different inks into an all-printed device is discussed. Finally, an outlook on the future challenges and opportunities for the DIW of energy materials is provided with the view that general formulations which do necessitate thermal post processing could widen the opportunities of this manufacturing technique enabling the use for large scale production of energy devices.

## Introduction

There is an increasing demand in developing sustainable manufacturing techniques which can enable an automated fabrication of a defined number of products on demand, at comparable cost of the conventional serial production routes. The advantage would be to make goods production more sustainable, minimizing the waste and energy involved. This would lead to a paradigm shift in the current industry, where advanced manufacturing techniques would then establish a new system of large-scale production. 3D printing is an additive manufacturing technique which would respond to this new demand of societal sustainability. The use of 3D printing to produce functional devices is rapidly growing, with an increasing number of publications on printed sensors and electrochemical devices every year.<sup>1–3</sup>

In specific, printing techniques offer significant advantages over existing methods for the fabrication of electrochemical devices for energy storage and conversion in small dimensions. These advantages include: (1) the production of structures with arbitrary geometry, lateral extension and thickness; (2) tunable composition and physical properties of the printed devices and (3) low manufacturing costs and reduced material waste, permitted by the additive nature of the process. Additionally, 3D printing presents good compatibility with curved and

flexible substrates, such as plastic and paper,<sup>2</sup> as the process is usually performed in air and at room temperature.

These unique features make 3D printing a valuable manufacturing technique for the production of three-dimensional energy devices in miniaturized dimensions. Three-dimensional structures with tailored geometry can efficiently enhance the performance and durability of batteries and supercapacitors, allowing larger amounts of active material per footprint area, and promote short and uninterrupted diffusive paths for the efficient transport of electrons, ions and charge–discharge products.<sup>4</sup> Additionally, programmable designs can minimize the mechanical strain that arises during cycling, challenging the structural integrity of the electrodes, and enhance the surface area accessible to charge storage processes.<sup>5,6</sup> As a result, 3D printed batteries and supercapacitors often exhibit superior performance than bulk structures.<sup>6</sup>

3D printing can also enhance the performance of catalytic systems, that are often limited by sluggish mass transport and low accessibility to the active surface.<sup>7</sup> When 3D printing is combined with templating techniques, hierarchical structures with controlled micro- and macroporosity can be obtained, increasing the catalytic performance.<sup>8</sup> Contrary to templating methods, 3D printing allows to pattern the material structure in a completely deterministic way, broadening the possibility of structural optimization.

Recent reviews have discussed the advantages of printing energy devices, comparing the benefits and limitations of different

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printing techniques.<sup>9–14</sup> Egorov *et al.*,<sup>13</sup> in particular, have assessed the suitability of 3D printing techniques for energy storage applications considering five parameters: prototyping speed, volume, manufacturing cost, quality of the printed structure and possibility to print multiple materials.

The principal aim of this review is to discuss the fabrication of energy devices *via* Direct Ink Writing (DIW), placing emphasis on the formulation of printable inks for energy applications. Firstly, the advantages of DIW over the other 3D printing techniques to produce three-dimensional energy devices are presented. Secondly, we provide detailed insights into the concept of printability for DIW, examining how optimal ink extrusion and deposition can be achieved, ensuring the formation of a highly performing functional electrode. We then critically discuss the strategies employed to formulate inks based on solid-state materials that are relevant for energy applications, and the challenges in the field. We ultimately promote a comprehensive approach to prototyping that can lead to relying on DIW for the manufacturing of the entire device, paving the way towards the adaptation of a new industrially scalable approach to energy systems.

## The wide spectrum of 3D printing techniques

A wide variety of 3D printing techniques has been recently employed to fabricate three-dimensional energy devices from digital designs (Fig. 1). Printed devices are usually obtained *via* the deposition and consolidation of subsequent layers of material, although the printable materials, the building speed,

the printing resolution and the manufacturing cost strongly depend on the specific process considered.

3D printing processes based on the consolidation of sequential layers of powder, such as selective laser melting and selective laser sintering,<sup>15,16</sup> are usually compatible with large-volume printing. However, their high cost, rough surface finish, and difficulty to recycle the unsintered powders have limited their application for energy devices.<sup>10,11</sup> In contrast, stereolithography and other lithographic processes<sup>17,18</sup> ensure high resolution and good shape definition, since they are based on the layer-by-layer polymerization process of a photosensitive resin under irradiation. Arbitrarily complex shapes can be obtained through these techniques, although some of them require the use of a lithographic mask, that reduces the number of obtainable architectures and increases the production costs.<sup>14</sup> Nevertheless, stereolithography has seen limited applications for energy devices, owing to the constrained use of photocurable polymers in the formulations and to the low printing speed, around a few millimetres per hour in the vertical direction.<sup>9,10,19</sup>

Inkjet printing has been extensively used for the fabrication of electronic devices.<sup>20,21</sup> It is based on the ejection of ink droplets from a printing head, *via* a thermal or piezoelectric mechanism, to form a continuous line with good spatial resolution (<25  $\mu\text{m}$ ) onto the substrate.<sup>22,23</sup> This technique allows the deposition of a variety of different inks, which are usually characterized by high fluidity to avoid nozzle clogging. As a consequence, the concentration of active materials is usually around a few  $\text{mg mL}^{-1}$ ,<sup>24,25</sup> which is considerably lower than the inks used in other printing techniques, such as direct ink writing.<sup>26</sup> Inkjet printing can be assimilated to the family of 3D printing processes because it offers a certain degree of control over the thickness of the printed features, which usually ranges between tens and hundreds of microns.<sup>23,27</sup> Nonetheless, three-dimensional architectures presenting voids, load-bearing elements and unsupported overhangs cannot be fabricated *via* this process.<sup>28</sup>

In fused deposition modelling a filament of thermoplastic polymer is heated over its glass transition temperature and extruded through the printing head.<sup>29,30</sup> This process presents low costs and it ensures high printing speed. Currently, it is not particularly suited for energy storage applications, since the active materials must be blended with large amounts of thermoplastic polymers, thus compromising the functional properties of the printed structure. In addition, the printing resolution is limited to hundreds of microns,<sup>31</sup> hindering the fabrication of miniaturized devices.<sup>9</sup>

Direct ink writing<sup>32</sup> has recently gained significant attention for energy applications. This printing process is unique in its ability to extrude continuous filaments at room temperature, since the solidification of the printed filament does not rely on temperature but on the rheological properties of the ink. The maximum resolution achievable depends on the diameter of the extrusion nozzle and on the flow behaviour of the ink. In particular, solid features with a lateral dimension smaller than 1  $\mu\text{m}$  can be printed using nozzles with a diameter of  $\sim 600 \text{ nm}$ ,<sup>33–35</sup> indicating the suitability of this process to

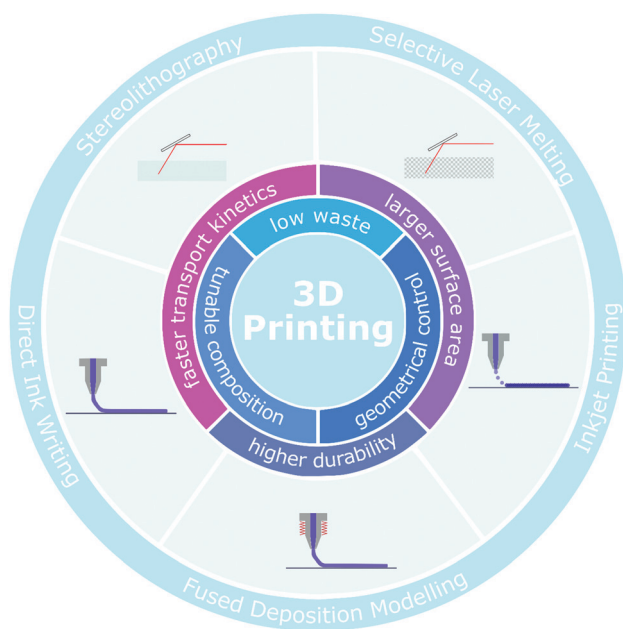


Fig. 1 Advantages of 3D printing for energy devices and main 3D printing techniques.



obtain miniaturized devices with high form factors. Additionally, a wide variety of materials can be printed *via* direct ink writing, including ceramics, polymers and metals. The multimaterial capability of this printing technique allows the fabrication of all-printed devices that can be readily integrated with external electronics, reducing the cost and complexity of the manufacturing process.

Although DIW holds great potential for the fabrication of energy devices, the optimization of ink rheology to achieve suitable printability and desirable functional properties is a pressing challenge. Most publications about direct ink writing for energy applications place a great deal of attention on the choice of the active materials and on the electrochemical properties of the final device. Nonetheless, control over the rheology of the inks, obtained by carefully adjusting the ink composition, is fundamental to attain the desired geometry, resolution and functionality of the device and to ultimately achieve good performance.

A wide variety of strategies have been presented in recent literature to formulate printable inks from energy materials. However, a comprehensive review that discusses the advantages and limitations of the different strategies, and how they can be combined to print multimaterial devices, is currently missing. The main ink formulation strategies, together with the concept of printability for DIW, will be critically presented in the following discussion.

## Rheology of inks for energy devices

### Printability of energy materials

The DIW deposition process can be divided into three steps (Fig. 2): (1) the flow of the ink through the syringe barrel and printing nozzle; (2) the ejection of the ink from the nozzle and (3) the deposition of the ink onto the underlying printed layers. During each one of these fundamental steps, the ink should meet specific requirements to be printable. It has often been highlighted that the concept of printability is not universal, and it is



Fig. 2 (a and b) Schematic showing the main steps of the printing process: flow of the ink inside the syringe barrel and nozzle (1), ejection of the ink from the nozzle (2) and deposition onto the substrate to form a self-standing structure (3).

strictly related to the use and application of the printed object.<sup>36</sup> Hence, this section will discuss the printability of inks for the fabrication of energy devices, and review how printability has been effectively linked to the rheological properties of the ink. In particular, we will present the requirements to print self-supported device components, such as battery electrodes and cell casing. Different ink properties might be required to manufacture non-structural elements, notably the electrolyte and the current collector. Further discussion on the fabrication of these components will be presented in the section dedicated to multimaterial printing.

As a very general definition, an ink is considered printable if it can be extruded through a selected nozzle in the form of a continuous filament, able to build structures that accurately replicate the digital model. The morphology of the printed structure should be retained after deposition, drying and post-processing.<sup>37</sup> In recent times there has been a significant interest in miniaturized electrochemical systems, especially microsupercapacitors<sup>38,39</sup> and microbatteries.<sup>40,41</sup> In order to print devices with miniaturized footprint area, the physical properties of the inks must be carefully tailored, and inks that have been designed for large-scale systems might prove unsuitable for microfabrication, owing to clogging during the first steps of the printing process. In particular, the ink should be able to flow smoothly, without forming large and hard agglomerates that can jam the deposition nozzle.<sup>32,42</sup> The flow behaviour of the ink should also promote moderate extrusion pressures, especially when using micronozzles.<sup>43,44</sup> This requirement is particularly important to fabricate miniaturized devices, since the diameter of the deposition nozzle is the main factor that controls the printing resolution.<sup>43</sup> From a rheological perspective, a shear thinning behaviour is usually sought to meet these criteria.<sup>43,45,46</sup> Shear-thinning, *i.e.* a reduction of viscosity over increasing shear rate, can favour the flow of the ink through capillary nozzles and reduce the extrusion pressure, ensuring ink extrudability.<sup>46</sup>

When the ink is ejected from the printing head, it must quickly turn from a shear-thinning fluid into a solid-like material to retain its shape after deposition.<sup>32</sup> Inks employed in direct ink writing are usually yield stress fluids,<sup>32,36,47</sup> which behave as elastic or viscoelastic solids under a threshold value of stress, known as the yield stress, while they flow when the yield stress is exceeded. Ideally, the properties of a yield-stress ink should only depend on the instantaneous rate at which it is sheared, so that its structural integrity is immediately retrieved when it stops flowing. However, ink properties are often influenced by shear history as well, indicating that inks are thixotropic.<sup>36,44,46,48</sup> In thixotropic materials the rest properties are only retrieved after a finite recovery time, which can be relatively long when compared to the deposition time,<sup>46,49</sup> and microstructural changes may still be taking place after the deposition of the ink.<sup>46</sup> During DIW, the recovery process should be adequately fast in order to achieve good shape accuracy and avoid slumping of the structure. It is worth noting that when the ink leaves the nozzle it is not yet completely at rest. Although it is not subjected to the high shear stresses experienced during flow anymore, the ink filament still goes through bending and



stretching before final deposition. The degree of ink stretching can be controlled by altering the ratio between the extrusion rate and printing speed. In particular, Yuk *et al.*<sup>50</sup> have shown that the stretching experienced during extrusion can be tailored to print structures with a finer resolution than the nozzle diameter. This technique is potentially promising for the printing of miniaturized electronics, but it has only been applied to polymeric inks so far.

When the deposition process is complete, the printed structure must retain its shape until full solidification has occurred, usually by solvent removal. The rheological properties required during this final step of the printing process are highly dependent on the design of the structure. The main designs used for printed electrodes, namely the woodpile, the interdigitated and the compact design, pillars and fibres, are presented in Fig. 3. Woodpile and interdigitated electrodes are commonly employed in printed batteries and supercapacitors.<sup>51–53</sup> The former consists of alternated layers of equally spaced rods, each perpendicular to the rods of the previous layer, forming macroscopic channels that promote electrolyte infiltration and ion diffusion.<sup>52</sup> Woodpile structures are also used as electrodes for electrocatalysis, since they present high surface area and good mechanical stability.<sup>8,54</sup> In contrast, interdigitated electrodes present arrays of interdigital fingers, printed side by side on the same substrate. Several authors<sup>39,41,55,56</sup> have discussed the advantages of the interdigitated geometry for energy storage systems. These include shorter diffusion length, smaller distance between the electrodes and the absence of a separator, which are beneficial to the performance of miniaturized and integrated energy devices.<sup>56</sup> The third and the fourth electrodes designs are fibres and pillars. The former is gaining importance in flexible and wearable systems and there are a few examples of the realization of such design.<sup>57</sup> In contrast, the fabrication of pillar structures *via* DIW has not been studied extensively for energy devices yet, owing to the uncommon rheological requirements necessary to avoid lateral instabilities, though micropillars are relatively common in non-printed three-dimensional batteries.<sup>58–60</sup> Finally, compact and space-filling structures can also be obtained with 3D printing,<sup>61</sup> however they are not very common in energy storage and conversion devices, where high surface area is usually sought to enhance transport.

The main geometrical features presented by the designs in Fig. 3 are spanning elements (woodpile structure) and vertical walls, which can be either made of stacked filaments (interdigitated structure), or of a single continuous filament (pillar structure). After printing, the ink should possess suitable rheology to prevent the slumping of the stacked filaments under their own weight and under the effect of capillary forces, and it should be able to minimize the bending of spanning elements.<sup>62,63</sup> In particular, a high storage modulus at rest is necessary to limit bending of suspended parts, whereas a high yield stress prevents the structure from collapsing.<sup>36,62,63</sup> It is worth noting that space-filling structures would require a lower storage modulus to avoid that the excessive elasticity may hinder the fusion of neighbouring filaments.<sup>64,65</sup> However, since dense and thick structures are rarely employed in energy storage, a very high storage modulus ( $>10^4$  Pa) is usually desirable.



Fig. 3 Common 3D designs used in printed energy devices: (a) woodpile (adapted with permission from ref. 74, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons), (b) interdigitated (adapted with permission from ref. 109, Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry), (c) fibres (adapted with permission from ref. 57, Copyright 2017 John Wiley and Sons), (d) pillars (adapted with permission from ref. 60, Copyright 2019 American Chemical Society) and (e) compact structures (adapted with permission from ref. 61, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons).

### Structure of printable inks

In order to meet the rheological criteria presented above, inks should behave as yield-stress fluids with a marked shear thinning during flow and a fast recovery of their elastic properties after



shear. We will now examine ink microstructures that have been proven to satisfy these conditions, promoting favourable rheological properties during printing. In this regard, Nelson *et al.*<sup>66,67</sup> have discussed the design of yield stress fluids, providing guidelines to select the right microstructure to meet functional requirements, such as printability.

Yield-stress materials used as inks in 3D printing include polymeric gels, emulsions and colloidal dispersions (Fig. 4), which are all characterized by a jammed microstructure arising from soft interactions between their constitutive elements.<sup>68</sup> The interactions in the jammed materials are usually either attraction- or repulsion-dominated,<sup>66</sup> although the two types of interactions might coexist in more complex systems.<sup>69</sup> The jammed structure is broken down when a sufficiently high stress is applied to the material, causing the typical yielding behaviour.<sup>68</sup>

Among yield-stress fluids, colloidal suspensions can be taken as model systems to describe the microstructural evolution during the printing process, since they have been widely studied as inks for printed ceramic architectures.<sup>44</sup> Colloidal dispersions that present a yield stress can be divided into two

types: jammed colloidal glasses and colloidal gels. In the first ones, the colloidal particles interact through repulsive forces, while the second ones consist of a percolated network of attracting particles.<sup>67</sup> In particular, in colloidal glasses the particles are trapped by cages formed by their nearest neighbours, and the repulsive potential arise from steric stabilization which prevents aggregation due to van der Waals interactions.<sup>70</sup> The properties of colloidal glasses may vary significantly with small fluctuations in concentration and particles can very easily clog microchannels. For this reason, colloidal gels are considered more suitable for DIW than colloidal glasses.<sup>71</sup> In colloidal gels the attractive interactions can either arise from hydrogen bonds between hydrogen-containing moieties or from electrostatic forces between charged particles and bridging ions.<sup>44,72</sup> When the material yields under stress, the interparticle bonds are broken and large clusters of particles gain mobility (Fig. 5). With increasing stress, the clusters of particles are fragmented into smaller flocs, determining the shear-thinning behaviour that is commonly observed in these materials.<sup>49,71</sup> Finally, after flow cessation, bonds between flocs rebuild, forming larger aggregates and eventually a network.<sup>46</sup>

This qualitative description is useful to understand the behaviour of most inks for energy devices, which usually rely on attractive interactions between their components, presenting a microstructure similar to colloidal gels. In inks for energy devices, the percolated network can be either directly formed by the particles of active material,<sup>73,74</sup> or be promoted by the addition of inactive additives.<sup>75,76</sup> The properties of the attractive networks can be strongly affected by the shear history, causing a thixotropic behaviour that might be detrimental for printing.

### Rheological models for ink printability

Several mathematical models have been proposed to translate the concept of printability in measurable quantities. The flow behaviour of inks for DIW is usually described using the Herschel–Bulkley model:<sup>32,68</sup>

$$\tau = \tau_y + K\dot{\gamma}^n$$

where  $\tau$  is the shear stress,  $K$  the viscosity parameters,  $n$  the flow index and  $\tau_y$  the yield stress. This empirical model assumes that the ink cannot flow for values of stress lower than  $\tau_y$ , and that it presents a rate-dependent viscosity during flow (either shear-thinning if  $n < 1$ , or shear-thickening if  $n > 1$ ).



Fig. 4 Schematics showing typical yield-stress fluids used as inks in direct ink writing: (a) polymeric gels, (b) emulsions and (c) colloidal dispersions. Materials for energy storage can be added to these formulations to obtain functional inks (d–f).



Fig. 5 Microstructure evolution inside a colloidal gel made of a percolated particle network at increasing level of stress.



The Herschel–Bulkley parameters (*i.e.*  $n$ ,  $K$  and  $\tau_y$ ) have been used to predict the shear rate profile and the pressure gradient required to print ceramic inks *via* DIW.<sup>63</sup> The Herschel–Bulkley model was also implemented in finite-element numerical simulation to predict the flow profiles of colloidal inks in microchannels.<sup>77,78</sup> Although this model is widely used, it is unable to describe the transient destruction and restructuring process taking place in yield-stress materials during flow, and their elastic or viscoelastic behaviour below the yield stress.<sup>68</sup> In addition, the parameter  $K$  has non-integer dimensions ( $\text{Pa s}^n$ ) that depend on the flow index  $n$ , and does not allow the direct comparison of different inks. Alternative formulations of the Herschel–Bulkley model based on more physically-meaningful parameters have been consequently proposed.<sup>66</sup>

A simple model to describe the thixotropy of DIW inks was introduced by Zhu *et al.*<sup>46</sup> to study the rheology of alumina pastes. It is based on the definition of a structure parameter  $\lambda$ , which represents the degree of aggregation of primary flocs in the ink. When  $\lambda = 1$  the gel is completely structured, and a sample-spanning network exists. Assuming that the destruction rate is proportional to  $\lambda$ , and that the reconstruction rate to  $1 - \lambda$ , a kinetic equation that describes the time evolution of the structure during flow was derived. The elastic modulus and viscosity were then related to the structure parameter  $\lambda$ , and a constitutive equation for the fluid was obtained. It was then shown how the constitutive equation parameters, describing the material viscosity, elasticity and evolution kinetics, could be controlled by altering the system composition.

M'Barki *et al.*<sup>62</sup> introduced a quantitative criterion to establish the minimum yield stress necessary to avoid slumping under the effect of gravity and capillary forces. It can be expressed as:

$$\sigma_y^{\text{dyn}} \geq \gamma R^{-1} + \rho gh$$

where  $\sigma_y^{\text{dyn}}$  is the dynamic yield stress,  $\gamma$  the suspension surface tension,  $R$  the nozzle diameter and  $\rho gh$  represents the gravitational force acting on the printed filament. They also showed that this criterion describes printability better than models purely based on gravitational slumping. Simple mathematical models have also been employed to describe the deformation of printed structures at rest. Smay *et al.*<sup>63</sup> applied the elastic beam theory to spanning ink filaments to determine the minimum storage modulus required to have a sufficiently small deflection. Setting the maximum acceptable deflection equal to 5% of the nozzle diameter, this useful scaling relationship was obtained:

$$G' \geq 1.4\gamma \left(\frac{L}{D}\right)^4 D$$

where  $L$  is the length of the spanning element,  $D$  its diameter and  $\gamma$  the specific weight of the ink. When deriving this equation, it was assumed that the ink is incompressible (*i.e.* has a Poisson ratio of 0.5), which might not hold true for all formulations. Applying this equation to the woodpile structure in Fig. 3 and measuring the density of the inks, it is possible to calculate the minimum storage modulus to print an electrode with good shape fidelity. This simple elastic model was then

refined to consider viscoelastic effects on the shape of spanning elements.<sup>79</sup> Similarly, a linear viscoelastic model was used by Cao *et al.*<sup>76</sup> to determine the range of printability of inks for Li-ion batteries.

### Rheological characterization

The rheological properties of inks for DIW are usually assessed *via* shear rheology using a rotational rheometer (Fig. 6).<sup>80</sup> The most common rheological tests are flow ramps, which allow to evaluate the degree of shear thinning of inks,<sup>63</sup> and oscillatory tests, which give information on the viscoelastic properties at rest.<sup>33</sup> In most of the publications on printed energy materials the yield stress is also determined from oscillatory tests, as the value of stress at which the storage modulus equals the loss modulus.<sup>61,81</sup> This method appears to be quick and reliable, although it provides higher values than the Herschel–Bulkley fitting, since the yielding process and the consequent departure from a linear response have already started when the storage modulus equals the loss modulus.<sup>82</sup> Additionally, the crossover between  $G'$  and  $G''$  lies outside the linear region, thus the viscoelastic moduli only represent the fundamental harmonic of the oscillatory response.<sup>80</sup> Corker *et al.*<sup>36</sup> distinguished two different characteristic values of stress in the oscillatory response of GO pastes: the yield stress and the flow stress. Their ratio gives an indication of the brittleness of the ink and can be related to ink printability. The three-interval thixotropy tests (3ITT) are an easy way to study the thixotropy of inks,<sup>83</sup> however they have been rarely reported for energy materials. During 3ITTs, the ink is at first sheared at a low stress, to allow its microstructure to stabilize.<sup>48</sup> A high-stress interval follows, which destroys the microstructure of the ink, mimicking the flow inside the nozzle. Finally, during the last interval, a low shear stress is applied again, and the recovery kinetics of the material is measured. Extensional rheology has also been performed to assess printability, but extensional tests are often more complicated than shear rheology for yield stress fluids.<sup>36</sup>

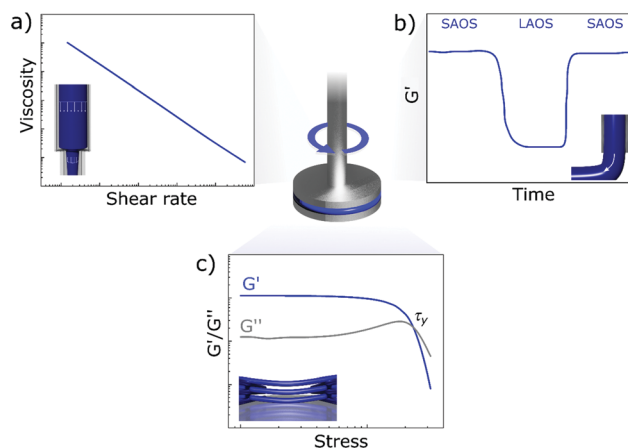


Fig. 6 Schematic showing the ideal rheological response of a printable ink, as determined through shear rheology: (a) flow curve showing a highly shear-thinning behaviour; (b) rapid recovery of the elastic modulus during 3ITT tests, after large amplitude oscillatory shear (LAOS); (c) solid-like behaviour below the yield stress.



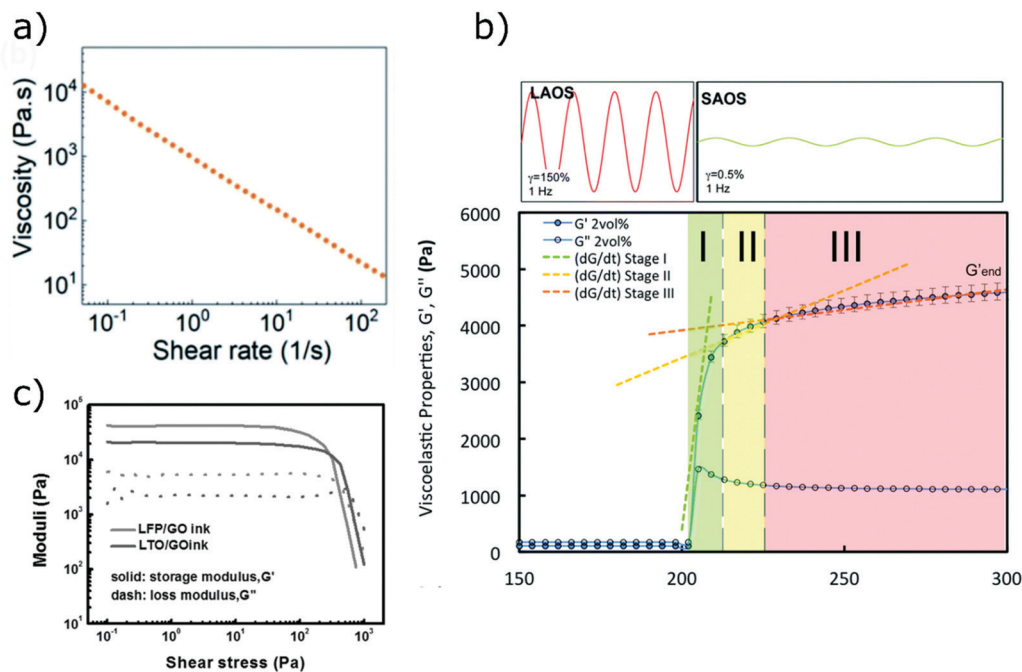


Fig. 7 Experimental data showing the ideal rheological behaviour of inks for DIW: (a) shear thinning flow behaviour (adapted with permission from ref. 149, Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry); (b) quick recovery of the storage modulus after large amplitude oscillatory shear (adapted with permission from ref. 36, published by The Royal Society of Chemistry 2019); (c) solid-like response below the yield stress (adapted with permission from ref. 92, Copyright 2016 John Wiley and Sons).

For example, in capillary break-up extensional tests, yield-stress fluids do not form cylindrical filaments and the filament thinning strongly depends on the initial deformation applied to the material.<sup>84,85</sup> The ideal rheological response of inks for DIW is presented in Fig. 6 and 7.<sup>36,44,53</sup>

## Ink design

### The fundamental components of an ink

Inks for 3D printing are often complex systems, made of different functional elements whose interaction must be carefully controlled. During ink formulation, two major objectives are pursued. Firstly, the ink must fulfil the rheological criteria discussed in the previous section in order to be printable. Secondly, the device that is obtained after solvent removal and post-processing should possess specific functional properties, such as high energy density, good electrical conductivity and mechanical integrity. These two aspects must be simultaneously taken into account for ink design, although they are often in contrast with one another. In fact, inactive and non-conductive species often need to be added to the active component to increase printability, hindering the electrochemical performance of the final device. These inactive species include stabilizers, surfactants and viscosifiers which must be subsequently removed at high temperatures, increasing the complexity and cost of the manufacturing process. High-temperature post-processing might also be detrimental for the properties of the electroactive material, causing decomposition or unwanted phase transitions.

Nevertheless, electroactive materials that can also act as rheology modifiers have been recently proposed.<sup>24,86</sup> It is, for example, the case of graphene oxide, which can be used to form printable pastes at high concentration and also provides conductive paths and capacitive behaviour after thermal or chemical reduction. Therefore, in some cases the active functional materials can be also used to control rheology.

Another common categorization for ink components has been discussed by Hu *et al.*<sup>87</sup> and draws inspiration from typographic inks. Ink components are divided into functional fillers, binders, additives and solvents.<sup>12,87,88</sup> Functional fillers are responsible for the functional properties of the final device, and in the context of energy materials they can range from carbonaceous materials to ceramics and metals. Functional fillers are usually in the form of colloidal particles or nanomaterials, such as nanoflakes, nanotubes, nanowires and quantum dots. The use of nanomaterials is often twofold: they present unique electronic properties and they are several orders of magnitude smaller than the nozzle diameter, hence they avoid clogging.<sup>89</sup> Suspensions made of nanoparticles are also less prone to sedimentation and promote ink stability, which is important to avoid changes in rheology during printing.<sup>90</sup> In addition, nanoparticles can shorten transport pathways and minimize the volume variation during cycling of batteries.<sup>91</sup> Conductive fillers are particularly important in three-dimensional energy devices to promote electron transport through the electrode to the current collector.<sup>92</sup>

Binders are usually polymeric materials used to bind particles together and promote adhesion with the substrate. Examples of



inorganic or electroactive binders have also been proposed recently.<sup>93,94</sup> These materials have a role in controlling the stability of the inks and in preventing particle sedimentation. However, they often need to be removed after printing because they limit the electrochemical performance of the system. Therefore, the amount of binders added to the ink must be minimized, although this can sometimes lead to inhomogeneities in the ink affecting the final performance of the printed structure.<sup>95</sup> As an alternative, binders can also be converted into functional components after printing, e.g. *via* thermal carbonization or reduction.<sup>76</sup>

The solvent is a fundamental component of DIW inks, necessary to give fluidity to the system during the extrusion and the deposition processes. Organic solvents can be flammable, toxic or leave residues that hinder the electrochemical performance of the printed devices. Therefore, aqueous inks are usually preferred for their lower cost and greater sustainability. Finally, additives are supplementary ingredients that are included in the ink formulation to control specific properties, such as particle dispersion, drying rate or rheology.

The classification presented here will be used in the next section to discuss the composition of the inks for the DIW of energy devices.

### Ink formulation strategies

A large number of ink formulations proposed for energy materials have been directly inspired from ceramic processing. Direct ink writing was in fact originally developed for the fabrication of dense ceramic structures and significant effort has been devoted to the study of ceramic inks in the past. Common goals can be identified between ceramic printing and energy device fabrication, which made it possible to apply techniques originally developed for ceramics to the broad class of energy materials. These include: (1) need for low amounts of binders and high fractions of active materials; (2) reduction of the nozzle diameter to achieve high printing resolution; (3) shape retention and mechanical integrity after printing and post-processing. Nevertheless, energy devices also require additional features that are not usually pursued in ceramics research, such as electrical conductivity and high specific surface area. Here we review the recent ink developments to meet these specific requirements. There are several ways in which inks for DIW can be categorized. In the following discussion they are classified on the basis of the type of solvent, binder and the interactions between the solid particles within the ink.

**Inks based on organic solvents.** Fluorinated polymers have been widely used to formulate slurries for the fabrication of commercial batteries, usually *via* coating processes.<sup>96</sup> In particular, polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) and its copolymers provide high mechanical and thermal stability and favourable electrochemical properties when used as binders.<sup>97</sup> However, PVDF is usually dissolved in organic solvents, since it presents low solubility in water. Recently, inks for DIW based on fluorinated polymers and organic solvent have been proposed.<sup>57,98</sup> Kohlmeier *et al.*<sup>98</sup> used PVDF as a binder to obtain printable inks from  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$  and carbon nanofibers dispersed in *N*-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP).  $\text{Li}_4\text{Ti}_5\text{O}_{12}$  acted as the active material for

Li-ion batteries, while carbon nanofibers provided a conductive network to promote electron transport across the electrode. Although the use of carbon nanofibers prevented cracking during curing, they were also responsible for a shear-thickening behaviour observed at high shear rates, which deters the extrudability of the inks. The use of different active materials ( $\text{LiFePO}_4$  and  $\text{LiCoO}_2$ ) did not alter the rheology of the inks. However, the electrodes consisted of a single printed layer, which ultimately provided thin structures of 100–200  $\mu\text{m}$  in height.

All-fibre Li-ion batteries with potential applications in wearable electronics can also be fabricated through DIW, as demonstrated by Wang *et al.*<sup>57</sup> They formulated inks with a composition similar to industrial slurries for Li-ion batteries,<sup>96</sup> consisting of active material particles (either LTO or LFP), PVDF-*co*-HFP and carbon nanotubes. The formulation was optimized to present higher yield stress and storage modulus than conventional slurries, in order to enhance printability. Single fibres were printed in an ethanol coagulation bath, and then soaked in a gel electrolyte and twisted together to form a 1D battery. The polymeric binder gave flexibility and mechanical strength to the fibre electrodes, allowing their integration into textile.

As organic solvents can be toxic or flammable, and they pose environmental problems and safety issues in large-scale production systems,<sup>99</sup> recent research on ink formulations has predominantly centred on aqueous systems. To this end, hydrophilic materials able to form hydrogels have been often considered.<sup>65,75,99</sup>

**GO and MXenes: towards binder-free inks.** Printed electronics would greatly benefit from inks containing minimal amounts of inactive binders to enhance their performance and environmental sustainability, and to reduce the cost of the manufacturing process. So far, two main ink formulations have been developed for DIW which do not rely on binders to attain printability. They are based on aqueous dispersions of highly hydrophilic atomically-thin materials with high aspect ratio (lateral sizes up to  $\sim 50$  microns), namely graphene oxide (GO) and MXenes (Table 1).

GO is a derivative of graphene that presents oxygen-containing functionalities (hydroxyl, epoxy and carboxyl groups) along the basal planes and edges of the honeycomb carbon structure.<sup>100–103</sup> These functional groups make graphene oxide highly dispersible in water, even at very high concentrations.<sup>104</sup> The influence of GO concentration on the rheology of water suspensions was studied by Naficy *et al.*,<sup>105</sup> who showed that a gel behaviour starts appearing over a critical threshold ( $\sim 2.5$  mg mL<sup>-1</sup>). The storage modulus and the yield stress grow with the concentration and are dependent on the lateral size of the GO flakes. These rheological features arise from the formation of hydrogen bonds between the oxygen-containing moieties on GO sheets and water molecules,<sup>106–108</sup> and can be exploited to formulate printable inks without any binders (Fig. 8d). For example, García-Tuñón *et al.*<sup>106</sup> showed that water dispersions containing up to 3.5 vol% GO flakes with large lateral dimensions ( $\sim 44$   $\mu\text{m}$ ) can be printed through direct ink writing without the need of additional rheology modifiers. These inks exhibit a storage modulus of  $\sim 10^5$  Pa which is quickly recovered after shear and allows the fabrication of complex architectures (Fig. 8a–c).



Table 1 Comparison between MXenes- and GO-based inks for direct ink writing

Material	Aspect ratio	Concentration	Conductivity	Post-processing	$\tau_y$ and $G'$	Ref.
Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> T <sub>x</sub>	1–2 $\mu\text{m}$ vs. 2 nm	36 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>	2000 $\Omega \text{ sq}^{-1}$ (1 line) 10 $\Omega \text{ sq}^{-1}$ (5 lines)	None		24
Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> T <sub>x</sub>	8 $\mu\text{m}$ vs. 1–3 nm (aspect ratio $\sim$ 4000)	50 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>		Freeze-drying	$\tau_y = 206 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 36\,507 \text{ Pa}$	73
N-Doped Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> T <sub>x</sub> + GO + AC + CNTs				Freeze-drying + reduction in HI	$\tau_y = 300 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 2 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$	122
Ti <sub>3</sub> C <sub>2</sub> T <sub>x</sub>	0.3 $\mu\text{m}$ (lateral size)	290 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>		None	$\tau_y = 24 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$	65
GO		20 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>	170 S m <sup>-1</sup>	Freeze drying + reduction in HI	$\tau_y = 50 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 3 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$	109
Holey GO	>1 $\mu\text{m}$ vs. 2 nm	100 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>		Freeze-drying + thermal reduction @1000 °C in Ar	$\tau_y = 500 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 3 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$	81
GO + Ca <sup>2+</sup>	5–20 $\mu\text{m}$ (lateral size)	20 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>	800 S m <sup>-1</sup> after thermal treatment @3000 K	Freeze-drying + reduction in HI or thermal treatment	$\tau_y = 160 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 6 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$	74
GO + Pluronic F-127 + HPMC		40 mg mL <sup>-1</sup> (initial GO suspension)		Polymer curing @85 °C + freeze-drying + annealing at 1050 °C in N <sub>2</sub> + growth of PPy	$\tau_y = 60 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 1 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$	52
GO + urea + G $\delta$ L	0.6–1.2 $\mu\text{m}$ vs. 1 nm		40 S m <sup>-1</sup>	Freeze-drying + reduction in HI @120 °C	GO solutions: $\tau_y = 40 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 1 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$ GO inks: $\tau_y = 450 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 4 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$	51
GO in water + PANI in NMP		16 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>		Reduction in HI	GO solution: $\tau_y = 90 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 2 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$	125
GO scaffold		120 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>		Annealing in Ar/H <sub>2</sub> at 700 °C	$\tau_y = 40 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 3 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$	5
GO + silica + gelling agent	150–400 nm (lateral dimensions of single layers)	20–40 mg mL <sup>-1</sup>	87 S m <sup>-1</sup> (20 mg mL <sup>-1</sup> )  198 S m <sup>-1</sup> (40 mg mL <sup>-1</sup> )	Curing at 85 °C + supercritical drying in CO <sub>2</sub> + annealing at 1050 °C in N <sub>2</sub> + etching in HF	20 mg mL <sup>-1</sup> : $\tau_y = 35 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 8 \times 10^2 \text{ Pa}$ 40 mg mL <sup>-1</sup> : $\tau_y = 100 \text{ Pa}$ $G' = 6 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa}$	113

Binder-free inks based on GO were originally proposed for advanced ceramics, but have been readily applied to the fabrication of batteries<sup>81</sup> and supercapacitors.<sup>74,109</sup> Woodpile structures were for example fabricated by Jiang *et al.*<sup>74</sup> and tested as electrodes for supercapacitors after reduction in a hydroiodic acid solution. The chemical or thermal reduction of GO structures after printing is necessary to reprecipitate some electrical conductivity (up to 0.4 S cm<sup>-1</sup> for printed filaments presenting a density of 6 mg cm<sup>-3</sup>)<sup>110</sup> and favour electron transfer to the current collector. Before the reduction process, printed GO electrodes are usually freeze-dried to completely remove water and increase the surface area accessible to the electrolyte ions. Li *et al.*<sup>109</sup> showed that it is possible to control the structure of GO electrodes from a macroscopic to a microscopic scale using a combination of DIW and freeze-drying at different temperatures. They fabricated supercapacitors with optimized porosity and high mechanical flexibility, displaying a 97% capacitance retention over 200 bending cycles. A further degree of control was achieved by Lacey *et al.*,<sup>81</sup> who employed holey GO flakes to introduce nanopores in the electrodes. The structures printed from concentrated inks ( $\sim$ 100 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of holey GO) presented trimodal porosity, which ensured promising electrochemical performance for Li–O<sub>2</sub> battery cathode.

Binder-free GO inks have attracted great attention for their numerous advantages. Firstly, GO inks are water-based and do not require toxic or flammable solvents to improve colloidal

stability. Secondly, the ink composition is simple and scalable, and the porosity of printed GO can be easily controlled with freeze-drying. However, high volume fractions of GO are usually necessary to obtain printable pastes, implying time-consuming procedures for concentration and redispersion.<sup>74</sup> Post-processing after printing is necessary to make the structure electrically conductive, although the conductivity of reduced GO is significantly lower than graphene conductivity, owing to its inherently defective structure.<sup>101,111</sup>

Physical and chemical crosslinking are viable routes to increase the connectivity of GO sheets in aqueous inks.<sup>112</sup> In this way, it is not only possible to enhance the ink printability but also to increase the electrical conductivity<sup>113</sup> and the mechanical strength<sup>114</sup> of the GO architectures. For example, small amounts of Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions can be added to GO suspensions to form coordination bonds with the carboxyl and hydroxyl moieties and bridge different flakes. It is thereby possible to control the rheology of inks and improve printability without altering the concentration of GO. The storage modulus and yield stress of GO inks (8–20 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of GO) can be increased of one order of magnitude with the addition of CaCl<sub>2</sub> (15 mM), as demonstrated by Jiang *et al.*<sup>74</sup> (Fig. 8e and f). This approach shows strong similarities with the ionic gelation of functionalized ceramic particles induced by multivalent cations, which has been widely investigated to formulate inks for robocasting.<sup>44</sup> Urea has also been used to induce a moderate crosslinking of





**Fig. 8** (a–c) Viscoelastic moduli and yield stress of GO dispersions at different concentrations (adapted with permission from ref. 106, Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society); (d) self-assembly of GO flakes in water mediated by the oxygen-containing moieties on their surface (adapted with permission from ref. 106, Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society); (e and f) viscoelastic moduli of GO suspensions physically cross-linked with  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  cations, at different cationic concentrations (adapted with permission from ref. 74, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons)

GO sheets through the release of ammonium ions, which promotes the formation of hydrogen bonds.<sup>51</sup> The hydrogen bonds between ammonium ions and GO sheets increase the elasticity and strength of the gel by over an order of magnitude.<sup>51</sup> Alternatively, resorcinol and formaldehyde can be added to the GO ink to form covalent bonds through sol-gel chemistry, usually in the presence of sodium carbonate as a catalyst. Chemical gelation is subsequently induced with a thermal treatment after printing, and the crosslinked structure can then be reduced in inert atmosphere. This process was shown to increase the mechanical recovery after compression and the rigidity of the printed GO scaffolds, although it involved temperatures over 1000 °C.<sup>113</sup> Additionally, this approach allows the control of the surface area, density and conductivity of GO structures by simply altering the concentration of resorcinol and formaldehyde. Graphene nanoplatelets (GNP) can then be added to the cross-linkable GO inks to increase the electrical conductivity of almost one order of magnitude and enhance the capacitive performance, while retaining high specific surface area.<sup>115</sup>

High aspect ratio GO sheets can be used to enhance the rheological properties of the inks and the conductivity of the annealed structures. In particular, flakes with larger lateral dimensions result in lower gelation concentrations and fewer

inter-sheet junctions, reducing the contact resistance.<sup>116,117</sup> However, the graphene oxide used in DIW is usually obtained through the modified Hummers' method for the oxidation of the graphite platelets, and large crystals would significantly slow the reaction kinetics during this process.<sup>118</sup> For this reason, instead of trying to use large graphene oxide flakes, polymeric binders and rheology modifiers are often used to improve printability, however increasing the complexity of the system.<sup>6,52,75,115</sup> Common binders are hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPCM), Pluronic F-127 and silica, which can enhance the viscosity of GO inks by several orders of magnitude.<sup>6,52,75,115</sup> Silica and Pluronic F-127 can also act as template agents to increase mesoporosity upon removal *via* thermal treatment or chemical etching.<sup>52,115</sup>

In summary, GO has attracted great attention for its ability to form printable inks in water without the addition of binders or additives. However, despite their simplicity, inks based on graphene oxide have a limited electrical conductivity, thus chemical reduction steps at temperatures higher than 1000 °C are needed to fabricate conductive structures for energy storage. After reduction, GO exhibits a capacitive behaviour, confining its use to supercapacitors. Nonetheless, graphene oxide is versatile



material since it can be also used as a rheology modifier to formulate inks based on a wide range of electroactive materials, as will be discussed in the next section.

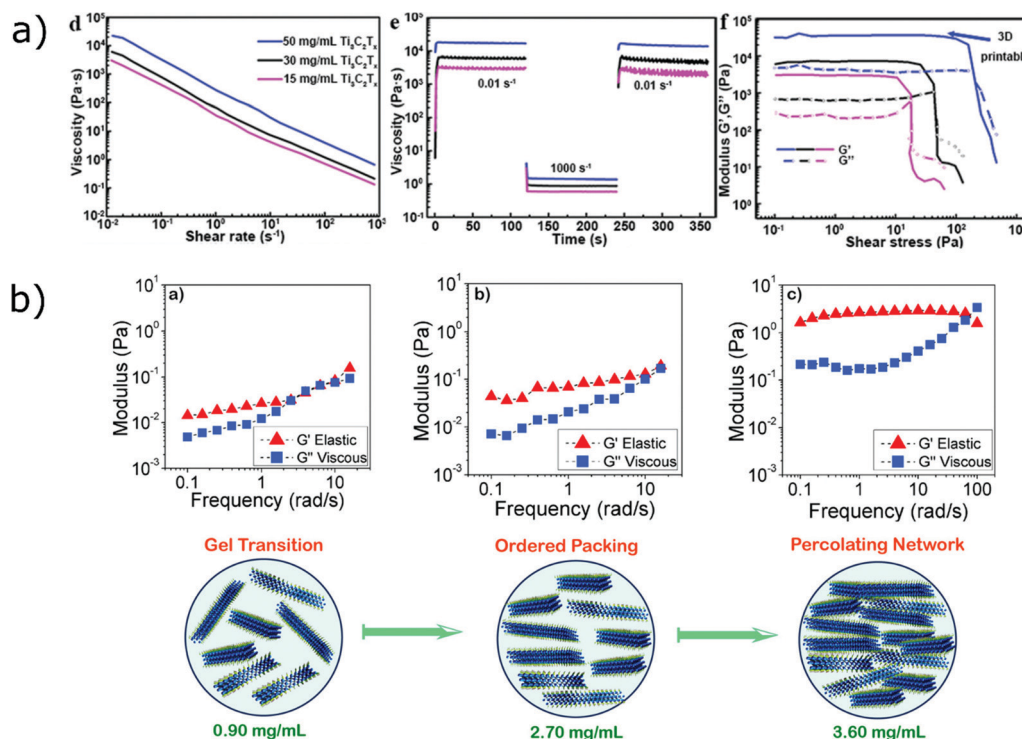
Similarly to graphene oxide, MXenes present a two-dimensional atomically thin nature with negative surface charges and hydrophilic surface functionalities ( $-F$ ,  $-OH$  and  $=O$ ).<sup>119</sup> Additionally they are highly conductive, with a metal-like conductivity that reaches  $6.5 \times 10^3 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$  for spin cast films,<sup>120</sup> making them particularly suitable for energy storage applications. Concentrated dispersions of MXenes in water are characterized by a volume spanning percolating networks of interacting particles, as discussed by Akuzum *et al.*<sup>121</sup> who have investigated the rheology of MXenes suspensions at different volume fractions (Fig. 9b). In particular, they showed that pastes containing high concentrations of monolayer  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  ( $> 1.80 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ ) have a suitable rheology for extrusion printing:  $G'/G''$  ratio higher than  $\sim 2$  and gel-like behaviour. However, their conclusions were mainly based on the viscoelastic response of MXene inks at low amplitudes (*i.e.* below the yield stress),<sup>121</sup> and overlooked other parameters that might be relevant for processing, such as yield stress and recovery time in the case of DIW.

The favourable pseudocapacitive behaviour and high electrical conductivity presented by MXenes are well suited for electrochemical applications.<sup>122</sup> As post-printing high temperature processes are not needed by inks based on MXenes, they are also compatible with flexible substrates, such as paper or plastic. Zhang *et al.*<sup>24</sup> have employed paper substrates to fabricate

printed supercapacitors starting from aqueous  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  inks (Fig. 10b). Their devices showed pseudocapacitive behaviour and good adhesion between flakes thanks to strong hydrogen bonds. Despite the high conductivity of the MXene thin films, the electron transport strongly depends on the orientation of sheets in the three-dimensional printed structures. Orangi *et al.*<sup>65</sup> showed that the printing process induces an alignment of MXenes in the direction of the nozzle movement, which determines a lower out-of-plane conductivity and slower charge-discharge kinetics in thicker structures.

As already discussed for graphene oxide, the morphology of MXenes platelets influences the rheology of the dispersion and it can be tailored to optimize printability. The use of platelets with high aspect ratio permits to achieve high viscosity at relatively lower concentrations (tens of  $\text{mg mL}^{-1}$  vs. thousands of  $\text{mg mL}^{-1}$ ),<sup>73</sup> as demonstrated by Yang *et al.*<sup>73</sup> The inks they formulated consisted of  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  sheets with large lateral size ( $\sim 8 \mu\text{m}$ ) and low thickness (1–3 nm), having an aspect ratio as high as  $\sim 4000$ .<sup>73</sup> The excellent printability of these inks was confirmed by rheological analysis (Fig. 9a), showing high storage modulus ( $\sim 3.5 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}$ ) and quick structural recovery at a concentration of 2D platelets as low as  $50 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ . Printed architectures obtained from these high-aspect-ratio inks are presented in Fig. 10a.

The electrochemical performance of printed MXenes can be tuned through elemental doping achieved as a post-printing process. Yu *et al.*<sup>122</sup> used melamine formaldehyde spheres to



**Fig. 9** (a) Shear rheology of  $Ti_3C_2T_x$  dispersions at different concentrations: flow ramps showing shear-thinning, viscosity drop and recovery after shear at high rates and viscoelastic moduli of the suspensions (left to right, adapted with permission from ref. 73, Copyright 2019 John Wiley and Sons); (b) formation of a percolated network at increasing concentrations in MXenes suspensions (adapted with permission from ref. 121, Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society).











Fig. 13 (a) Images of the PEDOT:PSS inks at different polymer concentrations and schematic showing the network of entangled nanofibers in the inks; (b) rheology of PEDOT:PSS inks at different concentrations (all panels adapted with permission from ref. 138, Copyright 2020 Springer Nature).

can be added to aqueous suspensions. If the secondary fluid wets the solid better than the primary fluid, it forms concave bridges between solid particles.<sup>140</sup> Otherwise, no bridges are formed, but the particles would still aggregate to form tetrahedral or octahedral clusters.<sup>140</sup> In both cases, a reticulate network is formed determining a rheological transition to a gel state (Fig. 14c). The rheology of the capillary suspension can be finely tuned by changing the fraction of secondary fluids in order to achieve the highest printability, without adding surfactants.<sup>140</sup>

The formulation of capillary suspensions is similar to Pickering emulsions, in which the colloidal particles self-assemble at the interface between the two immiscible fluids. Pickering emulsions also exhibit rheological properties that are favourable for direct ink writing and have been used to formulate

printable inks from ceramic particles.<sup>141</sup> However, in contrast to Pickering emulsions, capillary suspensions are preferentially formed at lower volume fractions of the secondary fluid, since they are promoted by pendent bridges smaller than the particle size. Therefore, aqueous inks can be formulated from capillary emulsions with extremely small amounts of secondary fluid, as small as 0.2 wt%. Schneider *et al.*<sup>142</sup> prepared shear-thinning capillary pastes based on nickel and silver particles suspended in a mixture of water and terpineol for potential applications in capacitors and fuel cells. The solvent and secondary fluid could be removed more easily than the binders of commercial pastes, which usually leave residues hampering the electrical conductivity.

Capillary inks have also allowed to print aqueous suspension of graphene nanoplatelets, which usually require large amount



Fig. 14 (a) Rheological properties of capillary suspensions before and after the addition of the secondary fluid (adapted with permission from ref. 143, Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry); (b) 3D printed liquid metal inks (adapted with permission from ref. 144, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons); (c) secondary fluid linking the solid particles of a capillary suspension (adapted with permission from ref. 140, Copyright 2016 American Chemical Society).



of binders to be stable, as reported by Ding *et al.*<sup>143</sup> Graphene nanoplatelets were dispersed in water with carboxymethyl cellulose to improve colloidal stability. Octanol (2 wt%) was then added to suspension to crosslink the nanoplatelets through capillary bridges. The storage modulus and the yield stress of the suspension increased of almost two orders of magnitude after the addition of octanol, indicating the formation of a strong and reversible network with favourable printability (Fig. 14a). Interestingly, the pastes containing octanol did not show a preferential orientation of platelets after extrusion, as revealed by X-ray tomography. Possibly, this is caused by the strong capillary bridges which reform after extrusion, causing a rotation of graphene platelets, thus destroying the order induced by the shear velocity. After heat treatment, the printed structures present high electrical conductivity ( $23.7 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ ), promising for electronic applications.

The main advantage of capillary ink lies in the small amount of binder required, usually an organic solvent that can be easily removed through a heat treatment at temperatures lower than  $350 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . So far, this technique has only been explored for a very limited range of materials, although it holds potential for printed energy devices as it reduces possible contaminations which act as electrically insulating components.

**Other ink formulations.** The 3D printing of liquid metals, such as gallium alloys, has been recently explored for the fabrication of electronic devices. Although gallium alloys are low-viscosity liquids, when they are exposed to air a thin surface layer of oxide is formed, inducing a yield-stress behaviour. The moderate storage modulus and yield stress of pure Galinstan can be significantly improved by adding nickel particles and sonicating the suspension, as demonstrated by Daalkhajav *et al.*<sup>144</sup> (Fig. 14b). The sonication process promoted the oxidation of Galinstan and the dispersion of the oxide layer into the bulk of the material, thus increasing the yield stress up to  $\sim 500 \text{ Pa}$  and the storage modulus to  $\sim 15 \text{ kPa}$ . The printed structure obtained from the Ni–Galinstan pastes presented a conductivity of  $3.93 \times 10^4 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$ , showing that the sonication process did not have any relevant effect on the electrical properties of the material.

Other formulations used for energy devices include inks based on reactive precursors. For example, reactive inks were formulated by Chen *et al.*<sup>54</sup> to realize  $\text{TiO}_2$  structures with controlled mesoporosity and high specific surface area (up to  $259 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) for artificial photosynthesis. A sol–gel precursor solution made of titanium diisopropoxide bis(acetylacetonate) (TIA) and dodecyl benzenesulfonic acid (DBSA) was concentrated by solvent evaporation to obtain a rheological behaviour suitable for printing (yield stress  $\sim 500 \text{ Pa}$  and storage modulus  $\sim 10^4 \text{ Pa}$ ).  $\text{SiO}_2$  particles were then added to the ink in small amounts as templating agent to increase porosity, without altering the printability of the paste. The inks were printed through  $30 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  nozzles and annealed to convert the sol–gel precursor to anatase. Porous scaffolds were ultimately obtained after etching  $\text{SiO}_2$  in KOH. The scaffolds were then functionalized with Au and  $\text{RuO}_2$  to enable  $\text{CO}_2$  electroreduction. These functionalized scaffolds were able to enhance  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction more efficiently than powder catalysts in terms of reaction yield over time.<sup>54</sup>

Inks based on reactive precursors were also developed by Walker *et al.*<sup>145</sup> to fabricate conductive struts for electronics on flexible substrates, without the need of high-temperature post-processing to remove binders or convert the reactive precursors. The ink was formulated *via* a modified Tollens' process, which consisted in the dissolution of silver acetate in formic acid and ammonium hydroxide to reduce the silver ions and form silver particles. The silver particles were removed by sedimentation, whereas the supernatant, consisting of diammine-silver cations ( $\text{Ag}(\text{NH}_3)_2^+$ ), acetate anions ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-$ ) and formate anions ( $\text{HCOO}^-$ ) was used as reactive ink. During the drying process the ammonia ligands evaporate and silver ions are reduced to metallic silver. Although the absence of silver particles in the ink allowed to extrude it through ultrafine nozzle ( $100 \text{ nm}$  in diameter), there was significant spreading after deposition and the final strut width was around  $5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ , which was over an order of magnitude larger than the nozzle diameter. Interestingly, the printed struts showed a very high conductivity when compared to nanoparticle inks, equal to  $10^4 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$  after drying at  $23 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and to  $6.25 \times 10^5 \text{ S cm}^{-1}$  after drying at  $90 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

The use of reactive inks can facilitate extrusion, avoiding clogging caused by particles in the ink. However, shape retention after post-treatments might be a challenge, especially for three-dimensional structures with thickness of several millimetres.

## Multimaterial fabrication of all-printed devices

Direct ink writing allows the deposition of different materials during the same printing process, making it possible to fabricate multimaterial systems and gradient architectures.<sup>146,147</sup> In particular, a single printing nozzle can be alternatively fed from different ink reservoirs to extrude filaments with different composition. Otherwise, a printing head with multiple nozzle can also be used.<sup>148</sup> The deposition of multiple materials in a single process is fundamental to fabricate all-printed energy devices, which rely on multiple functional components to operate.<sup>39</sup> Batteries and supercapacitors usually consist of a positive and a negative electrode, a current collector, an electrolyte and a protective case. As different rheological requirements and functional criteria should be met by the inks for the current collector, electrolyte and packaging when compared to the functional electrodes, we dedicate a separate section to those. Here we will discuss the designs of inks for these components and their integration into all-printed devices.

### Printed current collectors

The role of the current collector is to gather the charges generated by the active material and convey them to the external circuit.<sup>39</sup> Current collectors should present good electrical conductivity, high contact area with the electrodes and small contact resistance in order to promote charge transfer. Additionally, the current collector should also be stable in the electrolyte within the widest potential window possible. To this end, metallic current collectors are generally used in energy devices. Metallic structures can be printed *via* DIW using dispersions of micro- or nanoparticles,







Fig. 16 Comparison between the self-supporting and conformal inks formulated by McOwen *et al.*<sup>90</sup> (adapted with permission from ref. 90, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons).

is possible to fabricate a polymeric separator *via* DIW and then soak it with a liquid electrolyte, as demonstrated by Blake *et al.*<sup>151</sup> A phase inversion method was used to prepare the porous separators: PVDF was dissolved in a mixture of NMP (good solvent) and glycerol (weak nonsolvent).  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  nanoparticles were then added to the mixture to control the pore size and increase the diffusion tortuosity to limit dendrite growth. The slurry could be directly printed onto a  $\text{LiFePO}_4$  electrode to obtain a porous separator, that was subsequently soaked with liquid electrolyte ( $\text{LiPF}_6$  in a mixture of ethylene carbonate and diethyl carbonate). The printing process promoted the diffusion of the electrolyte into the pore of the electrodes, improving interfacial contact.

### Printed packaging

The cell packaging can also be realized through 3D printing, although very few studies have presented full cell cases printed with DIW. The packaging should be electrochemically inert, prevent the permeation of oxygen and moisture into the device and avoid leakage of the electrolyte.<sup>13</sup> Materials like ceramics (fumed silica) and curable polymers (epoxy resin) have been used to formulate inks for the cell packaging.<sup>152</sup> The packaging is usually fabricated by printing a conformal case around the electrodes and sealing it with a top layer after electrolyte casting. Generally, the complete case assembly is done once the device performance has already been optimized.

One of the challenges of packaging fabrication *via* DIW is to obtain devices with miniaturized footprint area, which requires printing the case as close to the electrodes as possible. The printed layers should perfectly merge and form a compact structure, to prevent electrolyte leakage and moisture penetration.

### All-printed batteries

The possibility to integrate DIW into the fabrication of packaged batteries was demonstrated for the first time by Lewis' group.<sup>53</sup> In this study, water-based inks containing nanoparticles of active materials (LFP and LTO), cellulose binders and humectants (ethylene glycol and glycerol) were used to print Li-ion batteries. The miniaturized electrodes were deposited onto gold current collectors obtained with lithography and e-beam deposition (Fig. 17a). The electrodes were then packaged with laser-cut polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) and sealed with PDMS. Finally, the liquid electrolyte was cast inside the PMMA case and the device was sealed with a glass cover. The polymeric case presented lateral dimensions that were significantly higher than the footprint of the electrodes ( $2.1 \text{ mm} \times 2.1 \text{ mm}$  vs.  $960 \mu\text{m} \times 800 \mu\text{m}$ ). While the electrode elements were realized *via* 3D printing, the full cell assembly required lithographic patterning, casting of the electrolyte and manual sealing of the packaging.

A step closer to all-printed Li-ion batteries was made by Fu *et al.*,<sup>92</sup> who formulated LTO and LFP inks based on graphene oxide for the electrodes and a PVDF-*co*-HFP ink containing  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  particles for the electrolyte. The electrolyte viscosity and yield stress were adjusted to be significantly lower than the electrode inks, to promote wetting and filling of the pores during the printing process. Using GO instead of polymeric binders increased the conductivity of the electrodes and ensured slower water evaporation from the inks, as a result of the hydrophilicity of GO sheets. However, the battery casing was not realized through DIW and the cell had to be manually packaged using PDMS films in an Ar-filled glovebox.

A fully-printed Li-ion battery was presented in 2018 by Lewis' group.<sup>152</sup> Four different inks were formulated for the anode,



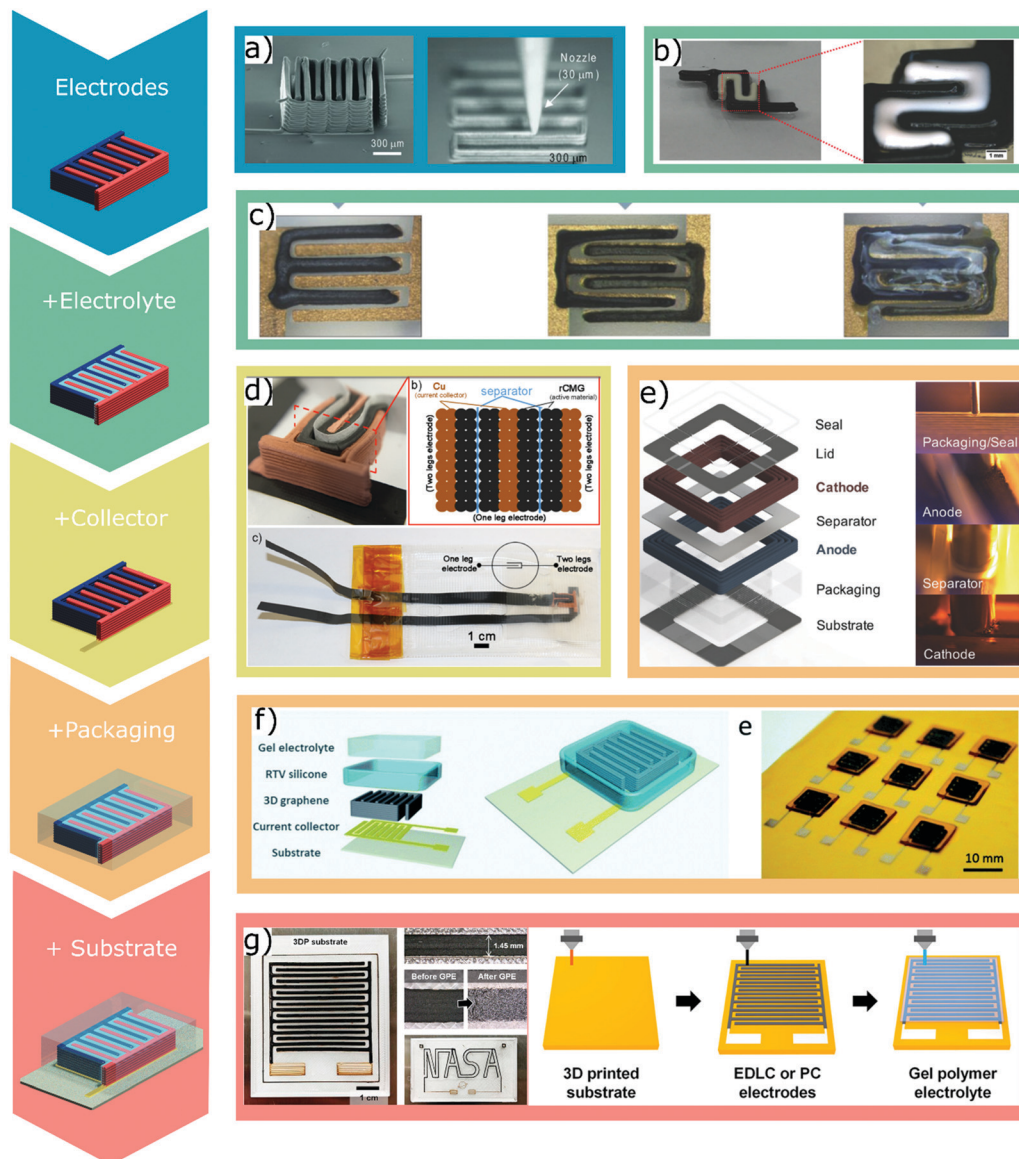


Fig. 17 3D printed components of batteries and supercapacitors fabricated via DIW: (a) printed electrodes (adapted with permission from ref. 53, Copyright 2013 John Wiley and Sons); (b and c) printed electrodes and electrolyte (adapted with permission from ref. 97, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons, and ref. 153, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons); (d) printed electrodes and current collector (adapted with permission from ref. 75, Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society); (e and f) printed electrodes, electrolyte, current collector and packaging (adapted with permission from ref. 152, Copyright 2018 John Wiley and Sons, and ref. 109, Published by The Royal Society of Chemistry); (g) all-printed device (adapted with permission from ref. 155, Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society).

cathode, separator and packaging (Fig. 17e). The electrode slurries were based on LFP, LTO and carbon black dispersed in an organic electrolyte (LiTFSI in PC) with PVP as a stabilizer. The same organic electrolyte was used for the separator ink, with the addition of  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , a photocurable polymer and a photo initiator. In contrast, the packaging ink contained a mixture of  $\text{SiO}_2$  and an UV-curable epoxy. The four inks were used to print a stacked battery presenting thick electrodes ( $\sim 1$  mm in thickness), which was finally capped with a layer of laser-cut glassy carbon as the current collector. Notably, the addition of a conductive filler in the electrodes (carbon black) was necessary to promote electric transport in thick structures and avoid the

transport limitation presented by their previous battery,<sup>53</sup> resulting in superior performance.

Other full batteries obtained through DIW were recently reported by Cheng *et al.*<sup>97</sup> and Park *et al.*<sup>132</sup> The former printed LFP and LTO interdigitated electrodes using an ink based on PVDF and carbon black (Fig. 17b). A solid electrolyte ink was then deposited between the electrodes, and carbon paste was applied to realize the current collector. Finally, the device was sealed with PDMS gel. In contrast, Park *et al.*<sup>132</sup> used inks based on carboxymethyl cellulose and silver nanowires loaded with particles of active material (LFP and LTO, respectively) to print the electrodes of Li-ion batteries. The electrolyte ink was based on  $\text{LiClO}_4$ , polyethylene oxide and  $\text{TiO}_2$  filler.











