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► **To cite this version:**

Botayna Bounor, Bouchra Asbani, Camille Douard, Frédéric Favier, Thierry Brousse, et al.. On chip MnO₂-based 3D micro-supercapacitors with ultra-high areal energy density. *Energy Storage Materials*, 2021, 38, pp.520-527. 10.1016/j.ensm.2021.03.034 . hal-03253618

HAL Id: hal-03253618

<https://hal.umontpellier.fr/hal-03253618>

Submitted on 30 Jun 2021

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On chip MnO₂-based 3D micro-supercapacitors with ultra-high areal energy density

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Abstract

In the near future, Internet of Things will be widely deployed all over the connected world. Powering will be crucial for miniaturized electronic devices requiring fast charging, high energy density and long term-durability. 3D micro-supercapacitors are an attractive energy storage solution at the millimeter scale to power miniaturized IoT devices exhibiting small form factor packaging issues. However, there are nowadays not any microdevices on the shelves that could fulfill both energy and mass production requirements. Here, we demonstrate the collective fabrication of 3D micro-supercapacitors (MSCs) integrated on silicon wafer and using MnO₂ as the active electrode material and 5M aqueous LiNO₃ as the electrolyte. 0.05 – 0.1 mWh cm⁻² energy densities reached by the fabricated 3D MSCs are remarkable, exceeding those of state-of-the-art micro-supercapacitors, competing those of hybrid microdevices and approaching the performance of lithium micro-batteries. Without sacrificing the power performance (> 1 mW cm⁻²), the 3D MSCs demonstrate a very good cycling behavior over 10 000 cycles (~ 15 % loss).

Introduction

Autonomy is a key parameter to power nomadic Internet of Things (IoT) devices [1]. Energy storage systems able to deliver significant energy densities at high charge / discharge rates remain sought for the next generation of IoT networks for health, environmental or industrial monitoring, drug delivery (*in vivo* application), transportation, wearable personal electronics, and smart buildings [2]. Micro-supercapacitors (MSCs) [3–5] are widely investigated for such purpose. However, limited footprint surface of MSCs is required since advanced small form factor packaging methods such as 3D System-in-Package (3D SiP) technology integrate many electronic functions including the miniaturized energy harvesting and storage sources. This, in turn, limits the amount of active material and the stored energy.

Among all the materials considered for MSC electrodes, different forms of carbon have been envisioned. They store charges in the double layer at the electrode / electrolyte interface via the electrosorption of ions in the pores: the corresponding energy density is limited but the fast electrostatic storage process leads to high power microdevices [3,5]. Alternatively, pseudocapacitive materials can be used as electrodes for MSCs. For this class of electroactive compounds, the charge storage mechanism involves fast and reversible redox reactions occurring at the surface and subsurface of the material [6–9] thus conferring to the electrode a capacitive-like signature. Pseudocapacitive electrodes can exhibit greater capacitances than nanoporous carbon electrodes owing to the charge transfer that occur at the surface of the electrodes, while keeping fast charge / discharge rates thanks to these surface redox reactions.

Numerous pseudocapacitive materials such as 2D Transition Metal Carbides (MXene) [10–12], Transition Metal Nitrides (TMN: Mo_xN , $\text{VN}\dots$) [9,13–16], or

Transition Metal Oxides (TMO: RuO₂, MnO₂, T-Nb₂O₅) [17–21] have been investigated for on chip micro-supercapacitors. The most straightforward solution to improve the energy performance of miniaturized electrochemical capacitors deals with the deposition of thick electrodes using these pseudocapacitive materials [2]. Micro-supercapacitors with 200 μm-thick activated carbon [22] electrodes or 16 μm-thick pseudocapacitive vanadium nitride [16] films successfully demonstrated high energy density performance while keeping high the power density. A hybrid miniaturized device (footprint surface = 0.714 cm²) was recently published by O. Schmidt *et al* [23]. A capacitive electrode (carbon nanotube) and a faradic one (Cu_{0.56}Co_{2.44}O₄@MnO₂) were combined in an interdigitated configuration based on Ti/Au current collectors. A PVA / KOH gel electrolyte packages the miniaturized device which deliver a very high energy density (0.18 mWh.cm⁻²) owing to very thick bulk electrodes made from slurry (~ 0.4 mm-thick).

Another attractive solution to significantly enhance the energy density of MSCs while keeping low the thickness of TMO electrode is to increase the electrode surface. To limit the detrimental effect of enlarged electrode surfaces on the device footprint, 3D electrodes have become an attractive opportunity. They allow to maximize the surface contact between the electrode material and the electrolyte thanks to the increase of the area enhancement factor (AEF) of a 3D scaffold. Indeed, thin film deposition on high AEF 3D scaffolds increases the mass loading of active material, thus allowing to reach remarkable areal capacitance values [7,8,24–26]. Nevertheless, the proposed technology used to fabricate the 3D scaffold must also be compatible with semiconductor fabrication processes to favor a rapid scale-up of the technology towards pilot production line for mass production. Collective fabrication methods [3,8,9,24,27,28] aiming at producing numerous robust 3D

scaffolds with the same AEF per silicon wafer and no variation of the geometrical parameters have to be selected to improve the technological readiness level of this technology.

Here, we demonstrate the collective fabrication of high performance on chip 3D micro-supercapacitors using processes fully compatible with those currently used in microelectronics. Parallel plate or interdigitated configurations were achieved, using MnO_2 thin film as active material. In order to evaluate the performance of the fabricated 3D MSCs, 5M LiNO_3 aqueous electrolyte has been used although the final goal is to implement gel-type or solid-state electrolytes in our miniaturized electrochemical capacitors. LiNO_3 was chosen because of its higher solubility limit at room temperature thus higher ionic conductivity compared to sulfate based lithium or sodium salts, its wider operating temperature range and an increase in the capacitance of MnO_2 with this electrolyte compared to Na_2SO_4 [29,30]. Energy densities reached by the fabricated 3D MSCs ($0.05 - 0.1 \text{ mWh cm}^{-2}$) are remarkable, exceeding those of state-of-the-art micro-supercapacitors ($\sim 0.001 - 0.03 \text{ mWh cm}^{-2}$) and competing that of the Zn-ion microdevice [31]. 3D MSCs (1V cell voltage) demonstrate a very good cycling behavior over 10 000 cycles ($\sim 15\%$ loss). Additionally, the low thickness of the MnO_2 films ($< 1 \mu\text{m}$) facilitates not only the rapid diffusion of ions but also fast electron transport in the electrode. The areal capacitance ($\sim 1.5 \text{ F cm}^{-2}$) of the fabricated 3D electrodes competes with that of classical bulk EC electrodes thanks to the conformal deposition of MnO_2 films on 3D scaffolds exhibiting high area enhancement factor (AEF). We show in the present paper, how the tuning of the MSC configuration, the thickness of the electrode material and the AEF of the 3D scaffold allow to reach more than 0.1 mWh cm^{-2}

energy density without sacrificing neither the power density ($> 1 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) nor the cycling performance ($>10\ 000$ cycles).

Methods

Fabrication of the 3D electrodes. The technological process, illustrated in **figure S1** and allowing the fabrication of the 3D electrodes, is compatible with the microfabrication methods available in the semiconductor industry. Spin coating of a photoresist (SPR 220) is achieved on a (100) 3" silicon wafer. A photolithography step is then applied to define the pattern. The silicon wafer is processed to fabricate the 3D scaffold. The silicon microtubes are fabricated using the Bosch dry etching process. The opened structure of these microtubes allows the deposition of active material both in the outside surface of the tubes but also in the inside surface. Subsequently, high aspect ratio Si microtubes are obtained and the etched depth is tuned with the number of Bosch cycles.

From the geometric dimensions of the silicon microtubes scaffold (**figure 1A**), the area enhancement factor (AEF) of the template can be calculated using the following formula (1):

$$AEF = 1 + \frac{(P_{IN} \times d_{IN} + P_{OUT} \times d_{OUT})}{pitch^2} \quad (1)$$

where P_{IN} is the inner perimeter of the square shape silicon microtubes ($4 \times 3 \mu\text{m}$), P_{OUT} is the outer perimeter of the microtube ($4 \times 6 \mu\text{m}$), d_{OUT} is the etched depth of the electrode and $d_{IN} = \frac{d_{OUT}}{2}$ (internal depth of the Si microtube). The structure pitch (pitch parameter = $9 \mu\text{m}$) corresponds to the sum of the spacing between microtubes and the outer diameter of the Si microtube.

An Al_2O_3 layer (50 nm-thick) and a Pt film (50 nm-thick) are then conformally deposited by Atomic Layer Deposition to fabricate a 3D metallic current collector. On the one hand, the Al_2O_3 layer acts as insulating film allowing the fabrication of

numerous MSCs on a single silicon wafer without any electrical contact between those microdevices. This layer also prevents the chemical etching or dissolution of the silicon wafer regarding the aqueous solution used for electrochemical operation. On the other hand, Pt layer is considered as an efficient metallic current collector for the MSCs.

The Al₂O₃ layer was deposited by ALD using a Beneq TFS200 reactor which is a hot wall, flow through type reaction chamber operating in thermal ALD mode. The deposition temperature range was set to 300 °C. A Trimethylaluminium (TMA) served as the precursor and H₂O as the reactant (second precursor) to achieve the deposition of step conformal Al₂O₃ layer (50 nm-thick) on 3D scaffold. A platinum current collector (thickness: 50 nm) was also deposited by ALD using the same Beneq TFS200 tool. The precursors used for the deposition of platinum films by ALD were Trimethyl(methylCyclopentadienyl)Platinum (MeCpPtMe₃) and H₂O. The two self-limiting surface reactions that define Pt ALD growth are :

1. MeCpPtMe₃ adsorption

2. MeCpPtMe₃ ads + H₂O → Pt + CO_{2(g)} + H_{2(g)}+CH_{4(g)}

The platinum precursor canister was heated at 54 °C while the substrate holder was kept at 300 °C.

The first reaction step consists of the introduction of MeCpPtMe₃ in the reaction chamber till the surface saturation. The chamber is then purged of reactant with 300 sccm nitrogen flow for 1 second, before the introduction of the second reactant, H₂O. This second reactant oxidizes the adsorbed (MeCpPtMe₃), leaving Pt on the substrate surface. After a new 2 seconds of nitrogen purge, the first step starts a new ALD cycle again. The growth rate for Pt ALD was 0.6 Å per ALD cycle.

In a final step, nanostructured manganese dioxide (MnO_2) films (several hundredth nanometer thick) are deposited by a pulsed electrodeposition method at 1.15 V vs Ag/AgCl for 100 ms and at open circuit voltage (OCV) for 1 s from a 0.1 M MnSO_4 / 0.1 M H_2SO_4 solution based on the optimized parameter published recently [8].

A parallel plate configuration consists in assembling two 3D electrodes in face-to-face topology where the distance between the two electrodes is fixed to 15 mm.

Fabrication of the 3D interdigitated MSCs. The fabrication of 3D interdigitated MSCs is described below. The technological process (6 steps) of the MSC at the wafer level combines a top-down approach to fabricate the 3D interdigitated current collector with the bottom-up selective electroplating of MnO_2 thin films. The first stage of this process deals with the fabrication of the 3D microstructures, following a part of the process described in the previous section. Each finger of the MSC, based on an array of silicon microtubes, is separated by a silicon microribbon. A photolithography step is optimized to tune the transverse dimensions of the 3D scaffold (inner diameter = 3 μm , outer diameter = 6 μm , spacing = 3 μm) while the etching time defines the depth of the 3D scaffold[24,27]. Once the photoresist is removed from the top of the microstructures, the 2nd and 3rd step of this process are respectively the conformal deposition of an insulator layer and a current collector. 50 nm-thick insulating layer (Al_2O_3 – 1st layer) is deposited by ALD to isolate each MSC on the 3-inch silicon wafer. 50 nm-thick platinum layer (ALD - 2nd layer) acts as the current collector and the seed layer for MnO_2 electroplating deposition: this thickness is sufficient to have a continuous and highly conductive deposit. The 3D platinum layer has to be patterned (step 4) and etched (step 5). High viscosity thick photoresist is spin-coated on the 3D wafer to protect the 3D array and will be used as the etching mask of the Pt thin film.

By photolithography, a 15 μm wide spacing is opened in the photoresist on the top of the microribbon. A dry etching process (Inductively Coupled Plasma / Reactive Ion Etching) based on chlorine / argon mixture gas is used to etch the Pt (50 nm-thick) on the top of the microribbon selectively to the deposited photoresist. Once the photoresist removes from this scaffold, MnO_2 thin film is electroplated on the Si / Al_2O_3 / Pt interdigitated electrode to maximize the electrode capacitance while keeping high the power capabilities (step 6). This nanostructured MnO_2 film is deposited by pulsed electrodeposition technique with the same deposition parameters as mentioned in the previous section.

Morphological and structural analyses. The top surface and cross-section analyses of the 3D MSCs were carried out by using a ZEISS ULTRA 55 Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM). To identify the crystalline structure of the as-deposited MnO_2 thin film on Si / Al_2O_3 / Pt substrate, Raman analyses were performed with a Labram HORIBA instrument operated at $\lambda = 471$ nm UV light. There were coupled with Transmission Electron Microscopy Observations and Electron Diffraction.

Electrochemical analysis. For the testing of the 3D electrode in three electrode cell configuration, a platinum wire and an Ag/AgCl electrode were used as the counter electrode (CE) and the reference (REF) electrode, respectively. The silicon substrate with the electrode on the top was inserted in a flat cell (Bio-logic) consisting of two pieces of PTFE. The bottom part was the support for the sample and the second part was located on the top of the electrode with a gasket limiting the electrode surface to be investigated (0.45 cm^2). The two pieces were assembled with screws and a 5mm platinum coated part of the silicon substrate, not in contact with the electrolyte, served as the current collector for the working electrode. Above the electrode, a cavity was filled with the electrolyte and specific spaces were available for the

insertion of the reference and counter electrodes. The electrochemical analysis was achieved using a VMP3 potentiostat / galvanostat from Bio-Logic. Cyclic Voltamperometry (CV), Galvanostatic Charge and Discharge Cycling of the 3D electrodes and the 3D MSC were performed in 5M LiNO₃ aqueous electrolyte in a 1 V potential window.

To evaluate the electrochemical performance of the 3D MSCs in parallel plates configuration, two 3D MnO₂ electrodes were considered as working and counter electrodes and assembled face to face using homemade flat cell filled with 5M LiNO₃ aqueous electrolyte. In order to follow the electrochemical window in which each electrode was operated, the MSCs were immersed in a beaker containing the electrolyte and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode located on the top of the device allowed to control the evolution of each electrode potential. For 3D interdigitated electrodes MSCs, 100 μ L of 5M LiNO₃ aqueous electrolyte were deposited to cover the MSCs which was inserted in a sealed box to prevent fast water evaporation.

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy at the rest potential of the MSC (frequency range: 1 MHz – 20 mHz, signal amplitude = \pm 25 mV) was used to evaluate the equivalent series resistance, the charge transfer resistance and to confirm the capacitive behavior of the 3D MSC.

The specific capacitance (C, mF.cm⁻²), energy density (E, μ Wh.cm⁻²), and power density (P, mW.cm⁻²) were evaluated according to the equations (2), (3) and (4):

$$C = \frac{\int Idt}{A\Delta V} \quad (2)$$

$$E = \frac{c(\Delta V)^2}{2} \quad (3)$$

$$P = 3600 \frac{E}{\Delta t} \quad (4)$$

where I is the constant charge / discharge current (mA), Δt is the charge/ discharge time, A represents the footprint area of the interdigitated MSC (16 mm^2) and ΔV is the cell voltage of the MSC (V). The cycling tests were conducted using galvanostatic charge-discharge measurements at selected current densities.

Results and discussion

Tuning the areal capacitances of pseudocapacitive electrodes with the depth of the 3D scaffold and MnO₂ thickness. The restricted available space for energy harvesting and storage sources in IoT miniaturized devices strongly limits the energy performance of micro-supercapacitors. The footprint surface of the MSC is about several tens of millimeter square. Taking into account the limited surface, the performance of the 3D MSC could be increased by one to three orders of magnitude as compared to the planar technology [7,8,24–26].

Therefore, the 3D MSC, either in parallel or interdigitated configuration, has to be carefully designed (**figure 1A**). In particular, the evolution of the surface capacitances should be investigated with respect to the depth of the 3D scaffold and the thickness of the nanostructured MnO₂ films. It is worth pointing out that the surface capacitance (per footprint area) of the MSC is about two times greater for the parallel plate design as compared to the interdigitated topology.

The fabrication process of the 3D MnO₂ electrodes is described in the method section and is shown in **Figure S1**. This process allows to fabricate 3D MnO₂-based electrodes with very high areal capacitance values. A conformal electrodeposition of manganese dioxide film is achieved on 3D platinum-coated silicon scaffold. The films present a homogeneous aspect along the tubes with needles shape grains several tens of nanometers long (**Figures S2 and S3**). The thicknesses of the electrodeposited MnO₂ films were measured according to the top view (SEM images, **Figures S2 and S3**) of the bare microtubes and the same 3D scaffold after deposition. A structural analysis is carried out to identify the as-deposited MnO₂ polymorph. Raman Spectroscopy is a powerful tool to study the structure of MnO₂ materials thanks to its high sensitivity to amorphous and short-range order

components. Figure S4 shows the Raman spectrum of the resulting MnO₂ film. Three main features are observed at 650, 575 and 510 cm⁻¹ (ν_1 , ν_2 , and ν_3 respectively) and a small contribution at $\nu_4 = 386$ cm⁻¹. A small feature also appears at a wavenumber of ~ 730 cm⁻¹. According to numerous authors [29–31], these Raman characteristic bands can be assigned to a manganese oxide polymorph exhibiting a birnessite-type structure. Its layered structure is able to accommodate various types of cations in its interlayer spacing, making birnessite MnO₂ an attractive a pseudocapacitive material widely studied for electrochemical capacitor applications [18,32,33]. However, X-ray diffraction analysis did not show the presence of a crystalline phase, and electron diffraction only depicted rings instead of spots. Thus, it can be indicated that the deposited MnO₂ films are amorphous or poorly crystallized precursors of birnessite-type MnO₂. Furthermore, the average Mn oxidation state is close to 3.7, indicative of the presence of Mn(IV) and Mn(III) together with intercalated cations in the layered structure. This is in good agreement with our structural/microstructural investigations performed in our previous study [8, 23 and 40].

The **figure 1B-E** summarizes the evolution of the surface capacitance vs the depth of the 3D scaffold and the thickness of the MnO₂ film.

In the first part of this study, the thickness of the electrodeposited MnO₂ film was set to 200 nm. Three 3D scaffolds showing three different etched depths (45, 56 and 125 μm) were coated with a 200 nm-thick MnO₂ film. The corresponding Area Enhancement Factors [27] (AEF - see methods section) are 17, 22 and 47 respectively. The cyclic voltammograms in 5M LiNO₃ at 20 mV s⁻¹ are shown in **figure 1B**. A strong enhancement of the areal capacitance was observed, moving from 75 to 185 mF cm⁻² for 45 and 125 μm -depth, respectively, while keeping the

MnO₂ film thickness at 200 nm. The footprint surface of the 3D electrode is about 16 mm² (4 mm x 4 mm) while the specific surface of the deepest electrode is approximately 7.5 cm² (AEF = 47). As such, an enhancement of the surface capacitance was demonstrated thanks to the conformal deposition of MnO₂ film on 3D scaffolds.

The second part of the study deals with the evolution of the electrode performance with the thickness of the MnO₂ film, using a constant AEF (the etched depth) for the 3D scaffold. The results are summarized in **figure 1C-E**. Here, the geometrical dimension of the silicon microtubes were kept the same (outer diameter = 6 μm / inner diameter = 3 μm / spacing = 3 μm / depth = 99 μm / footprint surface = 16 mm²). The corresponding AEF is 38. The same anodic pulsed electrodeposition method was used to deposit nanostructured MnO₂ films on the 3D scaffold. As depicted in **figure S2A**, optimized deposition parameters led to conformal MnO₂ films: the thickness of the MnO₂ film is uniform from the top to the bottom of the 3D microtubes scaffold. Several film thicknesses from 180 to 1240 nm (**figure S2A**) were deposited. Not surprisingly, the areal capacitances proportionally increase from 0.3 to 1.7 F cm⁻² (measured at a scan rate of 2 mV s⁻¹) with the thickness of the MnO₂ film, (**figure 1C-D**). Nevertheless, when the sweep rate was increased up to 100 mV s⁻¹, the areal capacitance of thicker electrodes faded down more quickly than the thinner ones (**figure 1D**). A drop of about 50 % of the initial capacitance of the 1240 nm-thick MnO₂ 3D electrode was observed when the scan rate was increased from 2 to 100 mV s⁻¹. In comparison, that of thinner electrodes (180 nm) was maintained using similar electrochemical testing conditions. While the improvement of the capacitance is confirmed by increasing the thickness of MnO₂ films, this experiment also shows how the power capability of the electrode is impacted at high sweep rate for thicker

MnO₂ layer. This limit points out that the trade-off between optimum energy and power densities can be achieved by tuning the thickness of the electroactive material on the 3D scaffold.

To further investigate these behaviors, advanced electrochemical data processing such as proposed by Trasatti and co-workers [37] on RuO₂ pseudocapacitive thin film electrode was achieved. In this approach, the total capacity ($Q_{\text{total-surface}}$) of a pseudocapacitive material is said to arise from two main contributions. The first contribution originates from the sub-surface ($Q_{\text{inner-surface}}$) while the second one comes from the surface ($Q_{\text{outer-surface}}$) considering the adsorption of electrolytic species at surface redox sites as well as the diffusion towards “bulk” sites. On one hand, the areal capacity (Q^*) (in C cm⁻²) is plotted vs of $v^{-1/2}$ for each MnO₂ thickness (180, 410, 600 and 1240 nm) (**figure S2B**). Extrapolating these plots at high scan rates ($1/v^{1/2} \rightarrow 0$) leads to the outer contribution of the capacity, $Q_{\text{outer-surface}}$. On the other hand, the reverse areal capacity ($1/Q^*$ in C⁻¹ cm²) is plotted vs of the sweep rate ($v^{1/2}$). When $v \rightarrow 0$, the capacity value corresponds to the total capacity $Q_{\text{total-surface}}$ of each 3D MnO₂ electrode (**figure S2C**). Based on these data processing, $Q_{\text{outer-surface}}$ and $Q_{\text{total-surface}}$ are plotted vs the thickness of the electrodeposited MnO₂ films (**figure 1E**). The total capacity of electrodes increase with the MnO₂-film thickness up to 600 nm while the $Q_{\text{outer-surface}}$ value tends to stabilize when the MnO₂ film is thicker than 400 nm. For thicknesses above 500-600 nm (**figure 1E**), the outer-surface capacity reaches a maximum threshold as all the Mn^{4+/3+} sites available at the surface of the MnO₂ deposit have been involved in a redox charge/discharge process. The total capacity is then led by the $Q_{\text{inner-surface}}$ capacity, as sub-surface Mn^{4+/3+} redox centers are involved. The total capacity of the 1240 nm-thick 3D MnO₂ electrode, extracted from the Trasatti data processing method, is greater than 2 C cm⁻². The

corresponding total capacitance value is 2 F cm^{-2} , with regard to the 1 V wide potential window. From the CV plots, the areal capacitance is evaluated close to 1.7 F cm^{-2} for this 3D electrode, meaning that a large part of the nanostructured MnO_2 film is actually electrochemically active. This is not the case for MSCs [25,26] based on thick RuO_2 electrodes where a large amount of active material does not interact with the liquid electrolyte nor contributes to the charge storage. Nevertheless, a significant decrease of the areal capacitance was observed at high sweep rate for thicker MnO_2 layers. Based on these conclusions, a MnO_2 thickness was selected between 450 and 600 nm for further investigations.

Performance of the 3D MSC based on 3D electrodes in parallel plate configuration. Once the electrode performance regarding the depth of the 3D scaffold and the thickness of the MnO_2 films is assessed, the next main issue arises from the integration of such a 3D electrode as a part of a miniaturized electrochemical capacitor. To reach this goal, two symmetrical electrodes were fabricated on two distinct silicon wafers. Assembled in a parallel plate configuration, the resulting two-terminal 3D MSC was tested in 5M LiNO_3 aqueous electrolyte in a face-to-face cell configuration. The depth of the 3D scaffold was approximately 164 μm , i.e. \sim half of the thickness of the silicon wafer, while the other geometrical dimensions (inner and outer diameters, spacing) were kept as previously defined. This 3D scaffold, exhibiting an AEF close to 65, was then coated with a 50 nm-thick platinum layer deposited by Atomic Layer Deposition method followed by a 450 nm-thick nanostructured MnO_2 films deposited by the pulsed electroplating technique (**figure S4**). The electrochemical performance of this MSC (footprint surface = 4 mm x 4 mm) is shown in **figure 2**. The evolution of the surface capacitances (**figure 2B**),

deduced from the cyclic voltammetry (CV in **figure 2A**) analysis, is depicted at various sweep rates from 2 to 100 mV s⁻¹. The CVs exhibit quasi-rectangular shapes typically observed for electrochemical capacitors based on pseudocapacitive materials [38–40]. The maximum cell voltage is 1V and the areal capacitance of each electrode is 1.5 F cm⁻². This surface capacitance is one of the highest reported value for 3D pseudocapacitive electrodes from microfabrication technique, exceeding state of the art values [2,7,41]. The areal capacitance of the 3D MSC is 0.75 F cm⁻² at 2 mV s⁻¹ (**figure 2A-B**), half of the electrode capacitance in parallel plate configuration. At 100 mV s⁻¹, the cell capacitance remains above 0.45 F cm⁻² which is more than half the initial capacitance. Galvanostatic Charge and Discharge curves are shown in **figure 2C** between 0 and 1 V at 0.3 mA cm⁻² applied current density. Again, the plots exhibit a triangular shape, as expected for (pseudo)capacitive material. It was checked by using an Ag/AgCl reference electrode that each 3D electrode was operated in its safe potential window as can be seen from figure 2C. This is the guarantee for long term cycling ability. When the current density is increased up to 12.5 mA cm⁻², the time constant is decreased down to ~ 25 s (**figure 2D**). Overall measured capacitances perfectly fit those extracted from CV experiments. From these GCD measurements, the energy density of the MSC was evaluated vs of the current densities (**figure 2E**). The areal energy densities range from 0.1 to 0.045 mWh cm⁻² when the current densities are increased from 0.3 up to 12.5 mA cm⁻². The corresponding power densities are 0.16 and 7.1 mW cm⁻², respectively. Since this technology is able to reach high energy density thresholds, it is critical to demonstrate the long term cycling of such fabricated 3D microdevices. The capacitance retention vs of the number of cycles operated in 5M LiNO₃ at 20 mV s⁻¹ is depicted in **figure 2F**. After a drop of the initial capacitance (~ 15 % loss) during

the first thousand cycles, the 3D MSC exhibits a stable behavior where approximately 82 % of the initial capacitance is retained after 10 000 cycles.

Electrochemical performance of the 3D interdigitated MSC. To improve the compactness / miniaturization of the 3D MSCs, an attractive solution consists in designing 3D interdigitated MSC as depicted in **figure 1A**. This interdigitated topology allows optimizing the compactness of the microdevices but at the cost of a loss in areal energy density (see method section). For a similar footprint surface, the areal capacitance of interdigitated MSC is half that of a MSC in parallel plate configuration since the two interdigitated electrodes are in a same plane. In that configuration, the surface of each electrode corresponds approximately to half of the footprint surface of the microdevice.

The design of the 3D MSC is shown in **figure 3** where the top surface and SEM cross-sections analyses are also reported. The 3D MSC (footprint area = 1.8 mm x 2 mm, **figure 3A**) consists in two interdigitated 3D platinum based current collectors coated with MnO₂ films (**figure 3B-D**). Each finger of the current collector integrates an array of 3D silicon microtubes to improve the AEF and specific surface of the electrodes. The fabrication process is described in the methods section. According to the geometrical parameters of the 3D scaffold (outer diameter = 6 μm / inner diameter = 3 μm / spacing = 3 μm / etched depth = 125 μm), the corresponding area enhancement factor is 47. Regarding the footprint surface of the 3D MSC (1.8 mm x 2 mm), the developed surface is 1.7 cm² (47 x 3.6 mm²). A nanostructured MnO₂ film (580 nm-thick) is then electrodeposited on these two interdigitated 3D current collectors (**figure 3E-F**).

Electrochemical performance of the fabricated 3D interdigitated MSC is reported in **figure 4**. To check the interdigitated electrodes are not short-circuited,

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy analysis was performed on the 3D MSC in 5M LiNO₃. The Nyquist plot of the 3D MSC is shown in **figure 4A-B**. This plot shows the expected profile for an electrochemical capacitor based on pseudocapacitive material with a semicircle at high frequency that reflects the charge transfer process and a near vertical straight line in the low-frequency region characteristic of the capacitive behavior of the microdevice. From this plot, the time constant of the MSC was evaluated at the knee frequency (time constant ~ 17 s ($f_0 = 0.058$ Hz)). The equivalent series resistance (ESR) and the charge transfer resistance (R_{CT}) from the Nyquist plot are 1.5 and 6 $\Omega \text{ cm}^2$, respectively (**figure 4B**). These values are of the same order as those of obtained for other 3D MSCs [8,26].

Galvanostatic Charge Discharge (GCD) cycling plots are shown in **figure 4C** at various current densities, from 0.9 up to 15.6 mA cm^{-2} . These plots illustrate the evolution of the voltage profile of the 3D MSC between 0 and 1 V. The triangular shape of the GCD plots corresponds to the expected behavior of a MSC based on a (pseudo)capacitive material. As expected, the energy density is greater when the current density is decreased. No significant ohmic drop is observed on these GCD plots, as expected from the EIS analyses, validating the targeted film thickness and the depth of the 3D scaffold. The areal capacitance of the 3D interdigitated MSC is 0.39 F cm^{-2} at 0.9 mA cm^{-2} . Taking into account a 1 V-cell voltage, the corresponding energy and power densities are close to 0.06 mWh cm^{-2} and 0.2 mW cm^{-2} , respectively. At higher current density, the maximum power density reaches 10 mW cm^{-2} while maintaining a good energy density of 20 $\mu\text{Wh cm}^{-2}$. This value, obtained at high power density, corresponds to what was obtained at lower power density by past state of the art MSCs [8,24,42], demonstrating a significant improvement of the technology. The cycling behavior of the 3D MSCs is shown in **figure 4D** where the

3D interdigitated microdevice retains 84 % of its initial capacitance after 10 000 cycles.

The performance of the two 3D MSCs are finally compared with the state of the art MSCs tested in aqueous and organic electrolytes. The results are displayed in **figure 5** where an area normalized Ragone plot of the microdevices summarize the overall performance. Whatever the configuration (parallel plate or interdigitated designs), the maximum energy density of our 3D MSCs is superior to 0.05 mWh cm^{-2} . To the author knowledge, the performance reached by the presently fabricated 3D MSCs lie among the best energy / power trade-off values of the state of the art microdevices tested in liquid electrolytes.

To reach these remarkable energy densities for compact microdevices (footprint area $< 4 \text{ mm}^2$), many technological issues were addressed in the frame of this study. On one hand, the thickness of the nanostructured MnO_2 film is kept below 600 nm allowing to maintain a large amount of electroactive material in contact with the aqueous electrolyte and simultaneously with the 3D current collector. This is not the case for microdevices based on thick electrodes where ion and electron transport limitations occur within the electrode, giving rise to high energy density but limited rate capabilities [26,31]. Herein, the high rate capability of the 3D MSCs is demonstrated: from the Nyquist plot, a time constant close to 17 s is measured which is a typical value for EC based on pseudocapacitive material. Additionally, the conformal electrodeposition of MnO_2 films on the 3D silicon microtubes scaffold with high AEF allows maximizing the interaction between the active material and the aqueous electrolyte. On the other hand, the capacitance retention is demonstrated to be greater than 82 % over 10 000 cycles, showing the long-term durability of the microdevices and validating the enhanced robustness of the technological process.

Many recent papers do not show long term cycling and high rate capability while claiming that prepared MSCs are power microdevices with long serving life [25,26]. Finally, the fabrication process reported here is compatible with the fabrication methods issued from the semiconductor/microelectronic industry, favoring rapid scale up of the technology for mass production and shortening the time to market. Further investigations are ongoing to package the fabricated 3D microdevices with solid-state electrolytes [26,43].

Conclusion

In summary, we demonstrated the fabrication of compact 3D micro-supercapacitors (footprint area $< 16 \text{ mm}^2$) combining thickness limited nanostructured MnO_2 films ($< 600 \text{ nm}$) with robust 3D silicon scaffold exhibiting high area enhancement factor ($\times 65$). The 3D strategy proposed here offers large specific surface, fast electron transport and rapid ion diffusion from the electrolyte to the redox active material. The fine tuning of 3D design and the film thickness allowed to maximize the cell capacitance ($> 0.7 \text{ F cm}^{-2}$) and the energy density ($0.05 - 1 \text{ mWh cm}^{-2}$) while keeping high the power density ($> 1 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$) and the cycling life ($> 82 \%$ of the initial capacitance after 10 000 cycles). This study gives new opportunities for designing efficient miniaturized energy storage devices and opens the road for powering the next generation of Internet of Things microdevices with robust and compact 3D micro-supercapacitors.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The raw/processed data required to reproduce these findings cannot be shared at this time as the data also forms part of an ongoing study.

COMPETING INTERESTS.

The authors declare no competing interests.

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List of the figures and figures captions

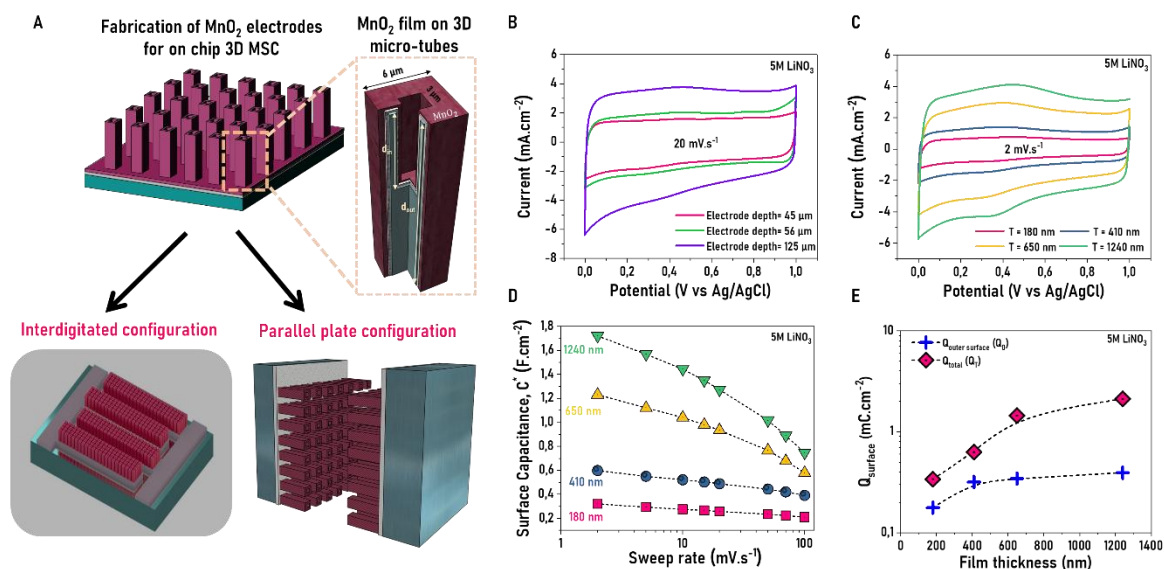


Fig. 1 | A. Overview of the strategy used to produce high performance on chip micro-supercapacitors: the interdigitated and parallel plate configurations of 3D MSC based on Si microtubes scaffold are illustrated. A zoom of an individual microtube coated with Pt / MnO₂ thin films is presented. **B.** CV at 20 mV s⁻¹ in 5M LiNO₃ aqueous electrolyte of three different 3D electrodes vsvs the etched depth. For each depth (45, 56 and 125 μm respectively), the electrode was coated with 200 nm-thick MnO₂ film. **C.** CV of 3D electrodes vsvs of the film thickness. For each MnO₂ thickness, the geometrical parameters of the Si microtubes scaffold are fixed (outer diameter = 6 μm, inner diameter = 3 μm, depth = 100 μm). **D.** Evolution of the areal capacitance vs the film thickness at different sweep rates from 2 to 100 mV s⁻¹. **E.** Evolution of the outer-surface (Q_O) and total-surface capacity (Q_T) values vs the MnO₂ film thickness.

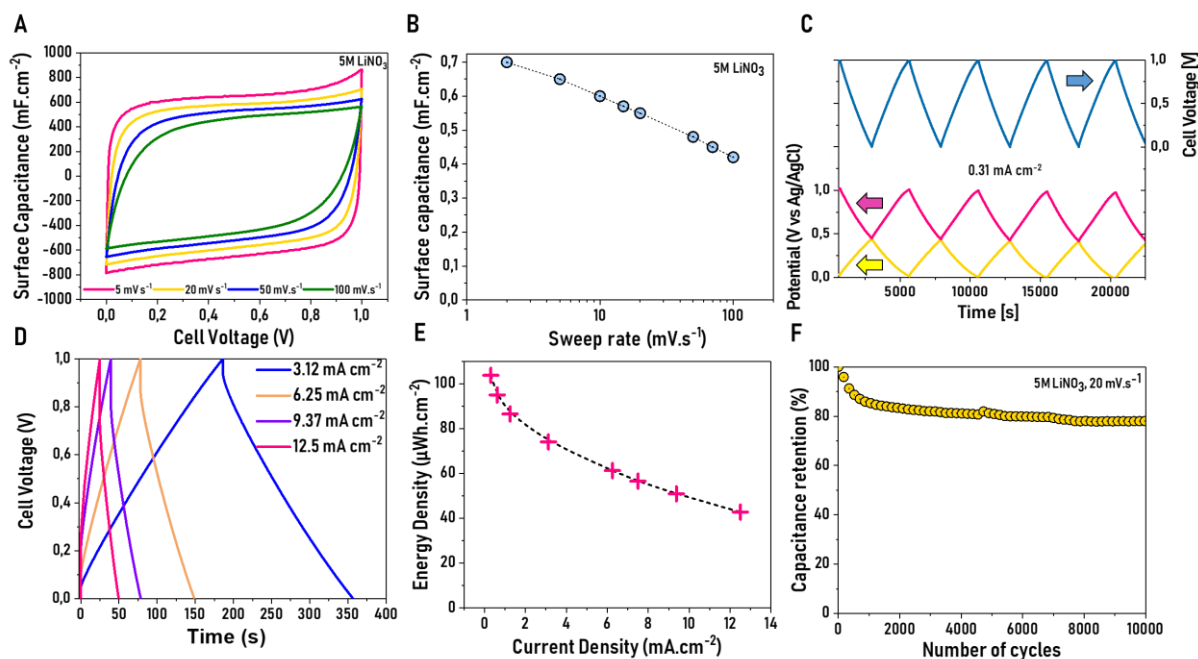


Fig. 2 | A. Cyclic voltammetry of a 3D MSC in parallel plate configuration measured in 5M LiNO₃ vs of the sweep rate. For this MSC, a surface enhancement factor of 65 is evaluated while the MnO₂ film thickness is kept constant to 450 nm. **B.** Evolution of the surface capacitance of the MSC vs the sweep rate. **C.** Galvanostatic charge and discharge (GCD) profile of the MSC (cell voltage = 1 V) at 0.31 mA cm⁻² current density. The potential of each electrode (pink and yellow curves) and the cell voltage (blue curve) are illustrated on this plot. **D.** GCD plots vs of the current densities (3.12, 6.25, 9.37 and 12.5 mA cm⁻² respectively). **E.** Areal Energy density of the MSC vs of the current density. **F.** Evolution of the capacitance retention vs of the number of cycles at 20 mV s⁻¹.

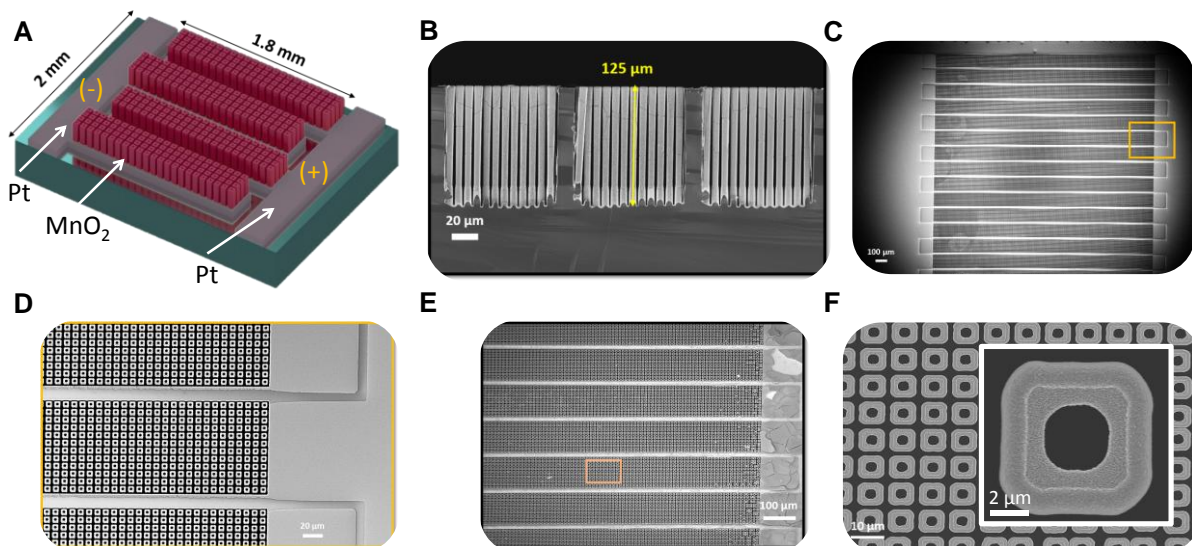


Fig. 3 | 3D interdigitated MSC. A. Sketch up of the 3D interdigitated MSC. **B.** SEM cross-section analyses of the MSC highlighting the etched depth of the silicon microtubes scaffold (125 μm). Top view SEM images of the 3D MSC before (**C-D**) and after deposition of the MnO₂ film (**E-F**).

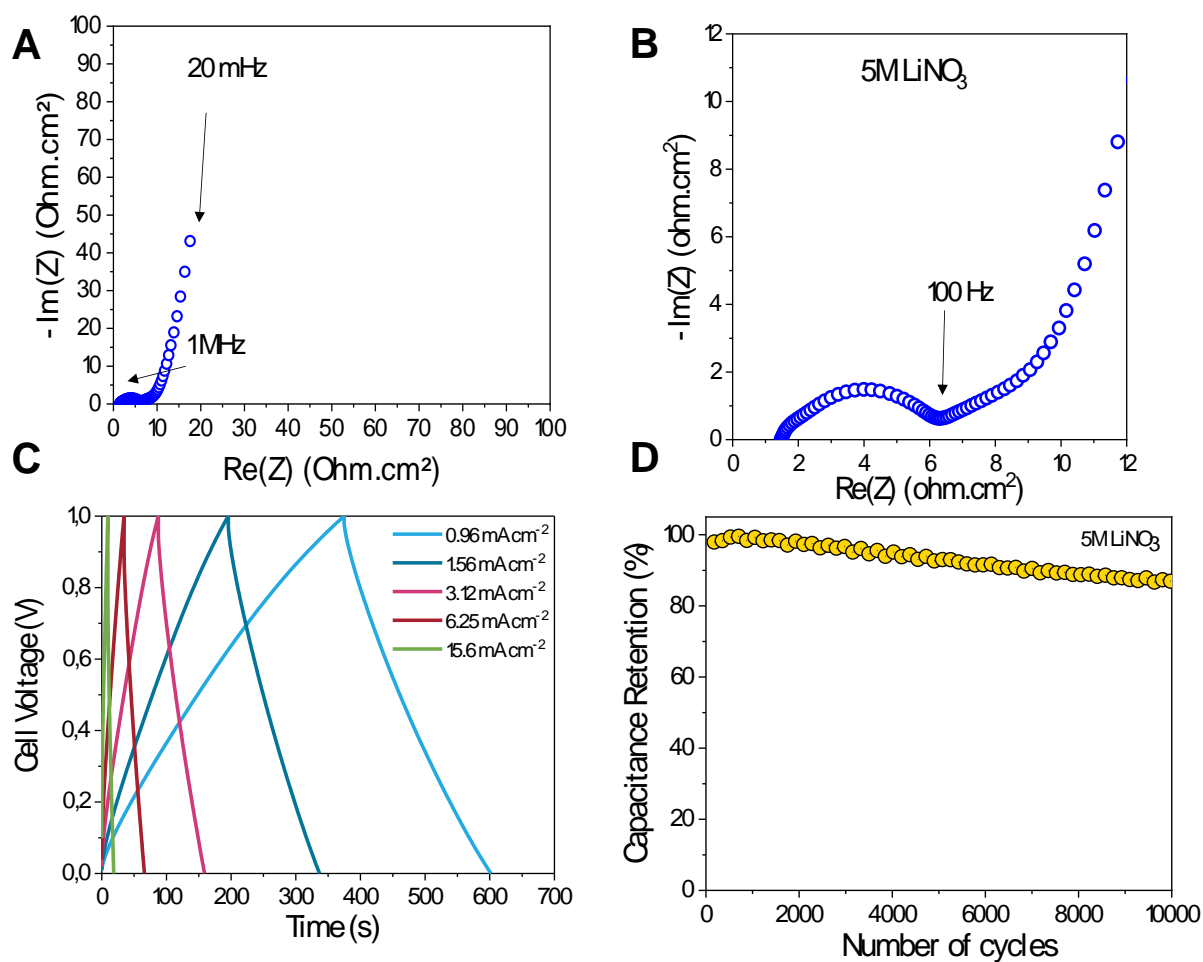


Fig. 4 | Performance of the interdigitated MSC. **A-B.** Nyquist plots of the MSC based on interdigitated topology tested in 5M LiNO₃. **C.** GCD profile of the MSC at different current densities. **D.** Evolution the capacitance retention vs the number of cycles at 3.1 mA cm⁻².

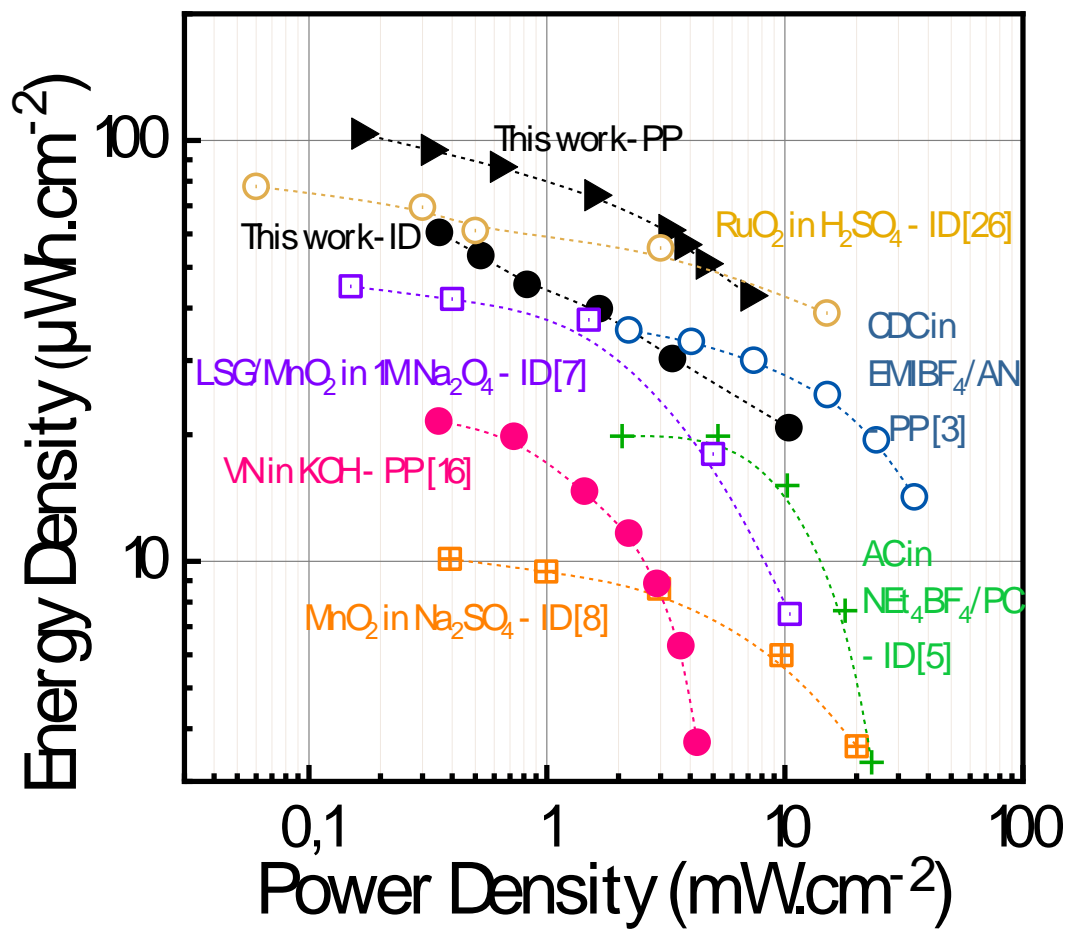


Fig. 5 | Ragone plot comparing the energy and power density per footprint area of the 3D MSCs based on parallel plate or interdigitated topologies vs the state-of-the-art MSCs.

Supplementary information

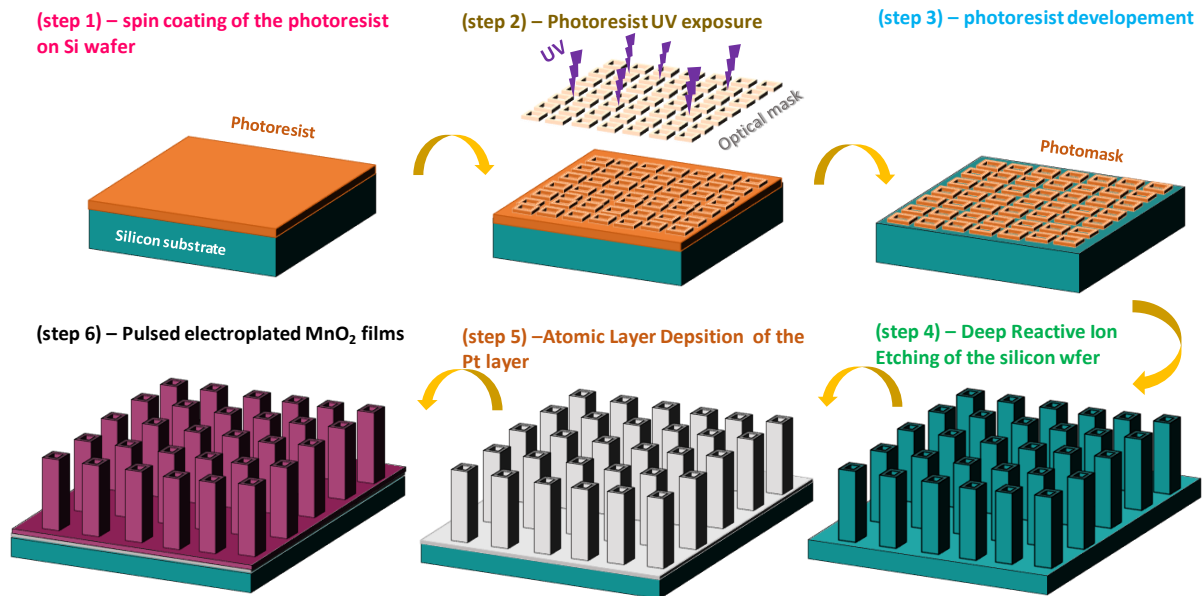


Fig. S1 | Overview of the technological fabrication process (6 steps) used to prepare the 3D electrodes of the micro-supercapacitor.

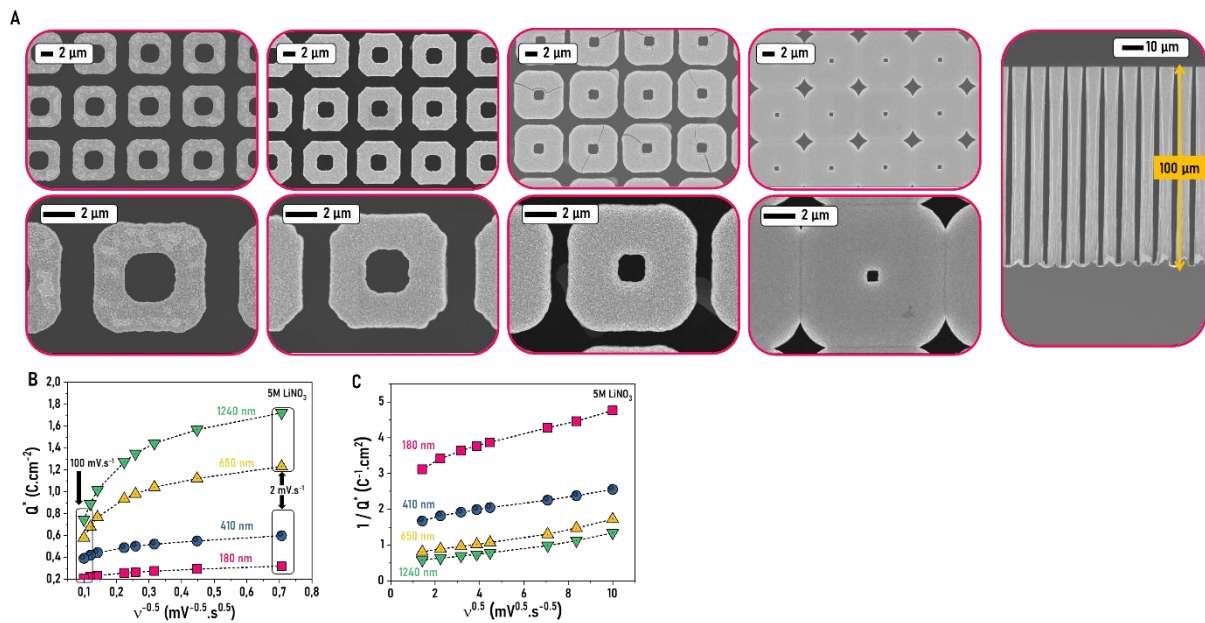


Fig. S2 | A. SEM images of thick MnO_2 film deposited on 3D silicon microtubes scaffold, from 180 nm-thick up to 1240 nm-thick (top view and cross section images).

B. Evolution of the Q_{surface} vs $v^{-0.5}$. **C.** Evolution of the $1 / Q_{\text{surface}}$ vs $v^{0.5}$.

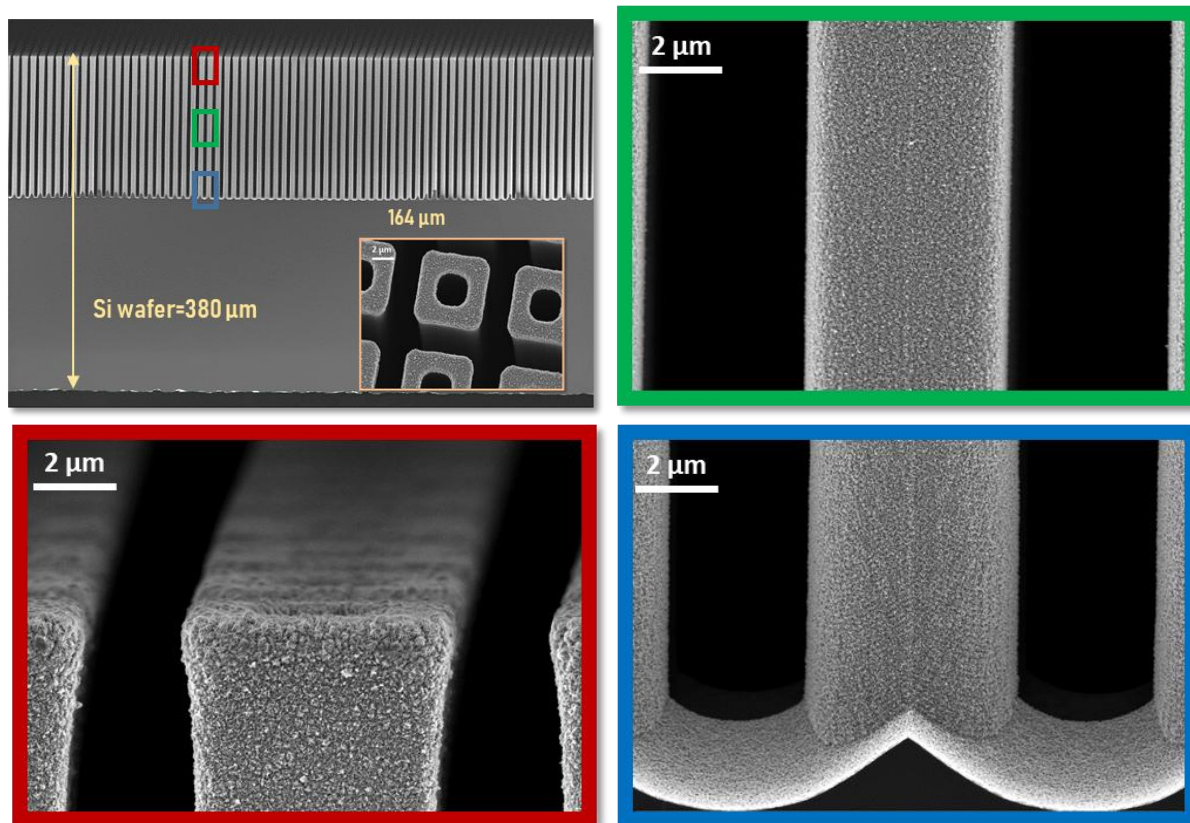


Fig. S3 | SEM images of MnO_2 film (450 nm-thick) deposited on 3D silicon microtubes scaffold (164 μm -depth / AEF = 65). The illustration of the conformal deposited Pt / MnO_2 stacked layers on one Si microtubes, from the top to the bottom is reported.

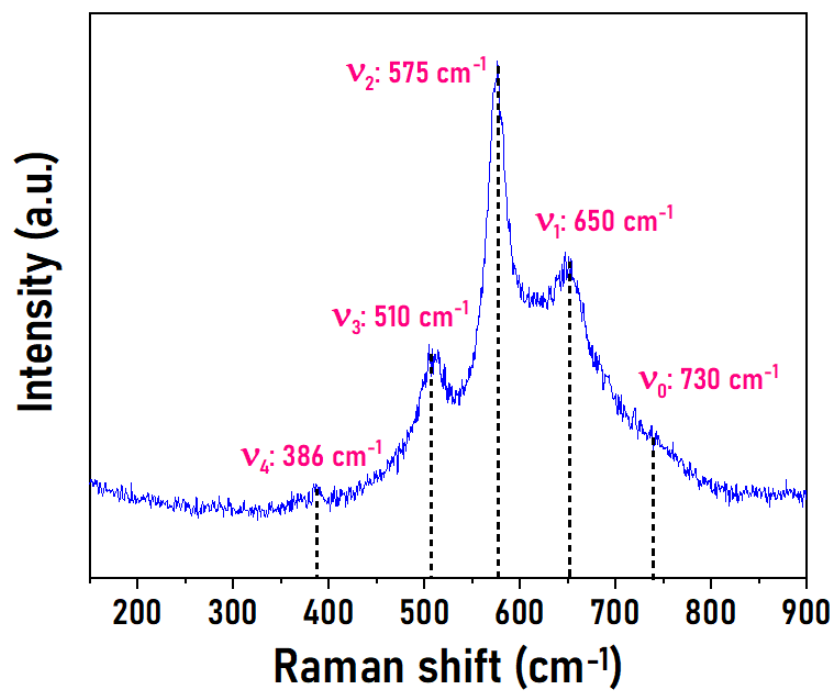


Fig. S4 | Raman spectroscopy analysis of the electrodeposited MnO₂ films on Si / Al₂O₃ / Pt substrate.