

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com



Polymer 46 (2005) 8113-8118

polymer

www.elsevier.com/locate/polymer

Ionic conductivity studies of poly(ethylene oxide)–lithium salt electrolytes in high-pressure carbon dioxide

Yoichi Tominaga, Shingo Hirahara, Shigeo Asai, Masao Sumita*

Department of Chemistry and Materials Science, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Ookayama, Tokyo 152-8552, Japan

Received 7 February 2005; received in revised form 5 May 2005; accepted 22 May 2005 Available online 15 June 2005

Abstract

We have measured ionic conductivity of PEO–LiX [anion $X = N(CF_3SO_2)_2$ (TFSI), ClO₄, CF₃SO₃, BF₄, NO₃, and CH₃SO₃] polymer electrolytes in CO₂ at pressures varied from 0.1 to 20 MPa. From the temperature dependence in supercritical CO₂, a large increase in the conductivity for PEO–LiBF₄ and LiCF₃SO₃ electrolytes has been observed. Permeation of the CO₂ molecules gave rise to the plasticization for crystal domains in the electrolytes, which is related to the reduction in transition point of the Arrhenius plot corresponding to the melting of crystal PEO. Relation between the conductivity and CO₂ reduced density revealed that the electrolytes containing fluorinated anions such as 'CO₂-philic' BF₄ and CF₃SO₃ increase in the conductivity with increasing the density. This indicates that the salt dissociation was promoted by the CO₂ permeation and the Lewis acid–base interactions between fluorinated anions and CO₂ molecules. © 2005 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Poly(ethylene oxide); Carbon dioxide; Ionic conductivity

1. Introduction

Ion-conductive polymer electrolytes have been increasingly proposing as solid-state alternatives to liquid electrolytes in electrochemical device applications such as polymer batteries [1-4], since ionic conduction in poly(ethylene oxide) (PEO)-alkali metal salt mixtures was first reported by Wright [5]. However, these materials suffer from a lower conductivity in the solid-state than most liquid, gel, and ceramic electrolytes. Since, ions are transported via the segmental motion of ether chains, fast migration of ions in polymer can be realized by increasing the local chain mobility. The localized structure that is central to ionic conduction is believed to involve cationanion or cation-dipole interactions [6]. Unfortunately, the ionic interaction sometimes inhibits migration of ions because of their strong cohesion, which increases the glass transition temperature T_{g} . For fast migration of ions, a technique is needed to modify the localized polar structure containing ions.

Recently, we have reported that processing into highpressure CO_2 , especially in the supercritical CO_2 (sc CO_2), is effective in improving the conductivity of polymer electrolytes in the solid state, since there is a large increase in the room temperature conductivity of PEO [7,8] and poly[oligo(oxyethylene glycol)methacrylate] (PMEO) [9, 10] containing $LiCF_3SO_3$ with CO_2 as a processing solvent. In these works, two effects of scCO₂ processing were expected; one is plasticization of amorphous domains, where ionic conduction occurs, and the other is dissociation of ionic species such as the aggregator and crystalline complex, which is largely responsible for increase in T_{g} . Certainly the CO_2 is known to be a good solvent for polymer synthesis and processing [11,12]. During the polymer processing, the solubility of CO₂ in many polymers is substantial and can lead to a dramatic decrease in T_g , namely plasticization [13,14]. On the other hand, it has been reported that the CO₂ molecules can permeate into polymers, especially in the amorphous region, and have specific interactions with some polymers, which possess electron-donating groups such as carbonyl groups [15]. In our previous work, it is considered that the CO₂ molecules act as a promoter for the dissociation of aggregated ions in PEO, improving the conductivity according to the Lewis acid-base interactions [8]. For understanding above

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 3 5734 2431; fax: +81 3 5734 2876. *E-mail address:* msumita@o.cc.titech.ac.jp (M. Sumita).

^{0032-3861/\$ -} see front matter © 2005 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.polymer.2005.05.091

behavior, it is necessary to measure direct influence on the ion transport properties in high-pressure CO_2 .

We have already measured the conductivity in PEO- and PMEO-LiCF₃SO₃ electrolytes in CO₂ [16]. A large increase in the conductivity under the high-pressure conditions has been demonstrated for both PEO and PMEO electrolytes. However, it is known that the conductivity of simple polyether electrolytes usually decreases with increasing pressure in high-pressure inert gas such as N₂ or Ar [17–21]. Therefore, measurements in CO₂ are of interest as an 'activated solvent' system for polyether electrolytes compared with the inert gases. In this paper, the isobaric conductivity of PEO electrolytes containing lithium salts, LiN(SO₂CF₃)₂, LiCF₃SO₃, LiClO₄, LiBF₄, LiNO₃, and LiCH₃SO₃, have been measured in CO₂ has been evaluated as a function of CO₂ reduced densities.

2. Experimental section

An electrolyte film was prepared from PEO ($M_{\rm w} = 5 \times$ 10⁵, Wako Chemical Co.) and lithium salt. The salts used in this study are LiX [anion X; TFSI (bis-(trifluoromethane sulfonyl)imide, 3M Co.), BF₄ (ACROS Organics Co.), NO₃, ClO₄ (Kanto Chemical Co.), CF₃SO₃ (Aldrich Co.), and CH₃SO₃]. The salt, LiCH₃SO₃, was prepared from neutralization of LiOH (0.1 mol, Fluka Co.) and CH₃SO₃H (0.12 mol, Kanto Chemical Co.) in distilled water, following it was washed by excess acetone for three times and dried in vacuo at 100 °C for 24 h (yield: 76.8%). The PEO and salt were dissolved in excess acetone (special grade, Kanto Chemical Co.) and mixed at 60 °C for 24 h. The ratio of Li ion concentration to oxyethylene (OE) unit in PEO was arranged to be 10 mol% ($[Li^+]/[OE] = 1/10$). The intermediate gel-like solution was then slowly dried at 60 °C. The resulting solid product (PEO₁₀LiX) was compression-molded for 10 min into a film approximately 1.0 mm-thick at 80 °C under a pressure of 19.6 MPa, and then dried in vacuo at room temperature for 24 h.

The DSC measurement for $PEO_{10}LiX$ was carried out using a Shimadzu Co. system consisting of a DSC-50 and TA-50WS under dry N₂. The temperature was increased from -100 to 200 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min.

The experimental apparatus for impedance measurement used in this study is the same as that in our previous report [16]. The supercritical CO₂ extraction system (JASCO Co.) consists of a delivery pump (SCF-Get), an automatic backpressure regulator (SCF-Bpg), and a heater. A high-pressure original reactor (max. 30 MPa, 200 °C) was constructed from a retainer and a vessel (50 ml) with a poly(ether ether ketone) (PEEK) seal. Carbon dioxide was pumped into the reactor from a gas cylinder (99.95%, Showa Tansan Co). The reactor has six access ports on the surface of the retainer, and threaded fixtures on the flat surfaces. A sheathed thermocouple (1.6 mm-diameter)

made from Inconel was introduced into the reactor. SUS tubes were used for the inflow and outflow of liquid CO₂. Pt wire (0.4 mm-diameter) insulated by a PEEK tube was fixed on the side of a SUS plate ($15 \times 15 \text{ mm}^2$, 0.5 mm-thick) for use as electrodes. A Teflon[®] plate (1.0 mm-thick) was used as a spacer between two SUS electrodes. The sample was sandwiched between the SUS electrodes with a spacer, and the cell surface was insulated by polyimide tape. The cell was dried at 100 °C for 12 h, and was cooled down to room temperature in vacuo for at least 24 h before measurement. The ionic conductivity was measured by the complex impedance method using a Solartron 1260 Impedance Analyzer (Schlumberger) in the frequency range 100-20 MHz. The cell was loaded in the reactor, which was filled with neat CO₂ and vented to atmospheric pressure three times. The CO₂ pressure was then increased up to each measurement pressure, and maintained with a flow rate of 1 ml/min. After the pressure stabilized, the reactor was heated slowly from room temperature to 100 °C. The temperature was held constant, every 10 °C interval for at least 20 min, following which the impedance measurement was carried out. The conductivity under N2 was also measured using the same system in a SUS box filled with dry N₂. The temperature was increased from 30 to 100 °C at a heating rate of 2.0 °C/min using a temperature controller (KP-1000, CHINO Co).



Fig. 1. DSC curves of neat PEO and PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes.

-2.8

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 shows various DSC curves of neat PEO and PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes. The DSC data of all samples are summarized in Table 1. A strong endothermic peak at 67 °C corresponding to the melting of crystal PEO $T_{\rm m}$, was clearly observed in neat PEO. There is no glass transition in the neat PEO because of its high crystallinity. On the other hand, the $T_{\rm m}$ and heat of fusion ΔH , which is in proportion to crystallinity, decreases as the Li salts are added to the PEO as a result of the change of local structure caused by the iondipole interactions between the Li cation and the oxygens of ether chains in amorphous regions which inhibits the crystallization. In particular, PEO-LiTFSI electrolyte is almost amorphous state with a glass transition temperature $T_{\rm g}$, at -49 °C. The LiTFSI is well known as highly soluble salt, which has been widely applied for electrolytes, because the anion charge is delocalized by the strong electronwithdrawing effect of trifluoromethyl groups [22]. Moreover, the dissolved anion acts as a plasticizer in PEO [22]. A weak endothermic peak, which is attributed to the disordered nature of the crystal PEO domains, was confirmed in PEO-LiClO₄ and LiCF₃SO₃ electrolytes. The PEO-LiCF₃SO₃ possesses another broad endothermic peak at 152 °C ($\Delta H = 51$ J/g) corresponding to the presence of crystalline complex domains [23]. From the Table 1, it seems that the $T_{\rm m}$ and ΔH decreases with increasing dissociation degree of Li salts, namely, decreasing the lattice energy.

Fig. 2 shows elapsed time dependence of ionic conductivity for PEO₁₀LiCF₃SO₃ at 90 °C in supercritical CO₂. This figure reveals that the conductivity at both 10 and 20 MPa gradually increase with increasing the time, and then reach to constant value at approximately 60 min. This means that the CO₂ molecules gradually permeated into the sample and were saturated. It has been reported that the permeation and swelling give rise to the relaxation of polymer chains mainly in the amorphous region, which is related to the decrease in T_g and in the amount of crystalline domains [13,14]. In addition, the sample at 20 MPa exhibits slightly higher conductivity. This is probably due to the difference in density of CO₂ that was pressurized at 10 and 20 MPa.

Temperature dependences of ionic conductivity for all $PEO_{10}LiX$ electrolytes in N₂ and CO₂ are shown in Figs. 3–

Table 1

Glass transition temperature (T_g) , melting point $(T_m$, peak top), and heat of fusion (ΔH) for PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes from DSC measurement

Sample	$T_{\rm g}$ (°C)	$T_{\rm m}$ (°C)	ΔH (J/g)
Neat PEO	_	67	153
X=TFSI	-49	36	22
ClO ₄	-38	59	80
CF ₃ SO ₃	_	66	81
BF ₄	_	64	130
NO ₃	-	64	138

-3.0 -3.2 -3.4 -3.6

Fig. 2. Elapsed time dependence of ionic conductivity for PEO₁₀LiCF₃SO₃ at 90 °C in CO₂ pressurized at (\bigcirc) 10 MPa and (\bigcirc) 20 MPa.

5. In the N₂ condition, the ion-conductive behavior of these PEO-based electrolytes can clearly be compared. Transition points of PEO–LiBF₄, LiCF₃SO₃, LiNO₃, and LiCH₃SO₃ electrolytes at approximately 60 °C are due to the melting of crystal PEO corresponding to the strong endothermic peak as seen in Fig. 1. The LiCH₃SO₃ electrolyte shows the lowest conductivities in all samples because of the low solubility of added salt. On the other hand, the LiTFSI electrolyte shows quite high conductivities and has no transition at entire measurement temperature. This indicates that the solubility of LiTFSI is certainly high and the anion may possess a plasticizing effect on PEO. Fig. 4 shows the temperature dependence of the conductivity in CO₂ at 0.1 MPa. In the experiment of Fig. 4, CO₂ is completely gas



Fig. 3. Temperature dependence of ionic conductivity for PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes [X; (\bullet) TFSI, (\bigtriangledown) ClO₄, (\blacktriangle) CF₃SO₃, (\blacksquare) BF₄, (\diamond) NO₃, and (\triangle) CH₃SO₃] in N₂.



Fig. 4. Temperature dependence of ionic conductivity for $PEO_{10}LiX$ electrolytes in CO_2 at 0.1 MPa. Symbols are the same as those in Fig. 3.

state at 0.1 MPa and at the measurement temperature between 30 and 100 °C. Variations in the conductivity are quite similar to that in the inert N₂ gas as seen in Fig. 3. Therefore, we can say that there is no plasticizing effect of CO_2 on the samples at the atmospheric pressure. The PEO– LiTFSI and LiClO₄ electrolytes exhibit relatively high conductivity without large decrease in the conductivity at low temperature corresponding to the melting of crystal PEO. The Arrhenius plot of the LiTFSI electrolyte is convex throughout the entire temperature range, and exhibits similar behavior to other amorphous-type polyether electrolytes. On the other hand, the conductivity of other electrolytes is low at room temperature as compared with



Fig. 5. Temperature dependence of ionic conductivity for $PEO_{10}LiX$ electrolytes in CO₂ at 20 MPa. Symbols are the same as those in Fig. 3.

the PEO-LiTFSI. The PEO-LiCF₃SO₃ electrolyte shows low conductivity at room temperature because of the presence of crystalline complex domains. The data below 60 °C for LiCH₃SO₃ electrolyte was impossible to measure because of its extremely low conductivity. Fig. 5 also shows the temperature dependence of the conductivity in CO2 at 20 MPa. The conduction behavior at 20 MPa is clearly different with the data in Fig. 4. In this condition, CO₂ can easily permeate into the samples because it is near-critical or supercritical fluid with highly densities as compared with the gas state. The transition points of PEO-LiBF₄, LiCF₃₋ SO₃, LiNO₃, and LiCH₃SO₃ electrolytes corresponding to the melting of crystal PEO shift apparently to lower temperatures. The slope of the Arrhenius plots, showing the apparent activation energy, is also lowered by the pressurization. These indicate that the permeation of CO₂ molecules gave rise to the plasticization for crystalline PEO domains. The conductivity of PEO-LiBF₄ and LiCF₃SO₃ electrolytes markedly increases at entire measurement temperature, whereas the electrolytes generally exhibits negative pressure dependence of the conductivity in inert gas such as N_2 or Ar [17–21]. This means that CO_2 molecules that permeated into the PEO electrolytes are quite effective for enhancement in the conductivity. However, it seems that there is almost no difference in the conductivity of PEO-LiTFSI, LiClO₄, and LiNO₃ electrolytes between at 0.1 and at 20 MPa. It is considered that there may be some dependence of anion or salt species on the conductivity in high-pressure CO₂.

Supercritical CO_2 is highly compressible and the density can be tuned over a wide range by varying pressure. The tunable property gives rise to the solvation for small molecules (or swelling for polymers), namely solute– solvent clustering [12], which is defined as a local solvent density. This means that CO_2 acts as 'active solvent' and the property may be exploited in the plasticization of polymers or in the dissociation of salts by pressure control. Here, we



Fig. 6. Variation in density (ρ) of pure CO₂ at 90 °C. The symbol (\bigcirc) emphatically indicates the data that were used in Figs. 7 and 8.

show typical variation in density of pure $CO_2(\rho)$ at 90 °C in Fig. 6. Pressure dependence of the density as a line has been calculated by Lee and Kesler method which developed a modified Benedict-Webb-Rubin (BWR) equation within the context of Pitzer's three-parameter correlation [24]. Below the critical pressure P_c , CO₂ density as the gas state is very low, to be less than 0.1 g/cm³. At the near-critical or supercritical region, the density increases exponentially with increasing the pressure, and is more than 0.5 g/cm^3 at 20 MPa. Fig. 7 shows variation in the conductivities of PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes at 90 °C as a function of CO₂ reduced densities ($\rho_r = \rho / \rho_c$, where ρ_c is the critical density, 0.468 g/ml [25]). This figure reveals that the ionic conduction in PEO is strongly affected by the change of CO₂ density. Moreover, difference in the conduction behavior between these electrolytes based on the anion species was clearly confirmed. In the near-critical or supercritical region, the PEO-LiCF₃SO₃ and LiBF₄ electrolytes exhibit sinusoidal increase in the conductivity with increasing the density, whereas the conductivity of PEO-LiTFSI and LiClO₄ electrolytes is practically invariable. However, PEO-LiNO₃ electrolyte only exhibits negative dependence of the conductivity in the high-density region. These results indicate that the salt species influence on ionconductive behavior of the electrolytes in CO₂, i.e. the anion which possesses highly electronegative atoms such as fluorine may be related to the enhancement in CO_2 solubility. Probably, dissociated anions such as BF4 and CF₃SO₃ easily form solute-solvent clusters with CO₂ molecules which permeated into the sample. The conductivity of PEO-LiTFSI electrolyte is almost the constant at high pressures, in spite that the salt possesses six fluorine atoms in anion. Effect of CO2 on the conductivity is small at the high-density region, because the salt is basically high dissociable salt in PEO. In addition, rapid increases in the



Fig. 7. Ionic conductivities of $PEO_{10}LiX$ electrolytes at 90 °C as a function of CO_2 reduced densities. Symbols are the same as those in Fig. 3.

conductivity in the low-density region between 0 and 0.4 have been observed for all electrolytes. This characteristic pattern is a reflection of the specific solute–solvent interactions occurring in the two density regions; one is the low-density region 0–0.5 and the other is the near-critical or supercritical region 0.5–1.5 showing a plateau-like response [12]. In Fig. 7, only LiNO₃ electrolyte shows negative dependence of the conductivity in the subcritical and supercritical regions, whereas it has positive dependence in the low-density regions. This is probably due to the CO₂-phobic nature of added LiNO₃.

Numerous experimental investigations, which focus on the interactions between CO₂ and organic molecules or polymers under high-pressures, have been reported [15,26-28]. For example, Abbott et al. have studied on the electrochemical properties of ammonium-type electrolytes in CO₂ and concluded that the solubility is further increased by halogenation of the organic group [26]. Fedkiw et al. have reported that ionic conductivity of alkali metal trifluoroacetate salts in CO₂ is much higher than that of the acetates [27]. They discuss on the results that the interaction between the quadrupole moment of CO2 and the dipoles of CF₃ group makes the salt more CO₂-philic [28], leading to an increase in the solubility. Therefore, we prepared LiCH₃SO₃ as a simple salt model to compare with the LiCF₃SO₃ system. Fig. 8 compares the conductivity of PEO10LiCH3SO3 and LiCF3SO3 electrolytes at 90 °C as a function of CO₂ reduced densities. This reveals that the conductivity of PEO-LiCH₃SO₃ electrolyte sinusoidal decreases with increasing the density as same as the LiNO₃ system in Fig. 7. Generally, the salts, LiCH₃SO₃ and LiNO₃, possess relatively high lattice energy; therefore, it is basically hard to dissolve into high molecular weight polyethers and to exhibit relatively good conductivity. These salts are considered to form mainly aggregate ions in



Fig. 8. Ionic conductivities of (\bullet) PEO₁₀LiCF₃SO₃ and (\bigcirc) PEO₁₀. LiCH₃SO₃ electrolytes at 90 °C as a function of CO₂ reduced densities.

polyethers, which are related to the inhibition of local segmental motion and give rise to the increase in T_g . On the other hand, the conductivity of PEO–LiCF₃SO₃ electrolyte increases with increasing the density, whereas it contains highly crystalline complex domains, which inhibit the migration of carrier ions. In the LiCF₃SO₃ system, dissociation of aggregate anions or the complex domains to smaller ions may be caused through the permeation of CO₂. We believe that this is based on the Lewis acid–base interactions between CO₂ molecules and fluorine atoms (or CF₃ groups), leading to the CO₂-philic nature. The existence of CO₂–anion interactions in PEO gives rise to the increase in carrier ions, following enhancement in the conductivity.

4. Conclusions

Ionic conductivity of PEO-based polymer electrolytes containing LiX (X=TFSI, ClO₄, CF₃SO₃, BF₄, NO₃, and CH_3SO_3) has been measured in CO_2 at pressures up to 20 MPa. Apparent difference in the conductivity for PEO₁₀LiX electrolytes between at atmospheric and at high pressures was found. Temperature dependence of the conductivity in CO₂ at the atmospheric pressure showed quite similar behavior to that in N2 gas. The Arrhenius plots at 20 MPa revealed a large increase in the conductivity for PEO-LiBF₄ and LiCF₃SO₃ electrolytes and a reduction in the transition point corresponding to the melting of crystal PEO. Permeation of CO₂ molecules into PEO gave rise to the plasticization for the crystal domains. Relation between the conductivity and CO2 reduced density indicated that the electrolytes containing fluorinated anions such as BF4 and CF₃SO₃ increase in the conductivity with increasing the density. Probably, dissociation of the salt was promoted by the permeation of CO_2 molecules. This indicates that these anions are basically CO2-philic. In the pressurized CO2 conditions, the anions may interact preferentially with the CO_2 molecules rather than the oxyethylene chains, which are based on the Lewis acid-base nature.

Acknowledgements

One of the authors (Y.T.) acknowledges the financial support for young scientist from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sport, and Technology, Japan (No. 16750184). This study has been partially supported by The 21st Century

COE program 'Creation of Molecular Diversity and Development of Functionalities' at Tokyo Institute of Technology.

References

- Armand MB, Chabagno JM, Duclot MT. In: Vashishta P, Mundy JN, Shennoy GK, editors. Fast ion transport in solids. Amsterdam: North Holland; 1979. p. 131–6.
- [2] Scrosati B, Schalkwijk W, editors. Advances in lithium-ion batteries. New York: Plenum; 2002.
- [3] Gray FM, editor. Solid polymer electrolytes. New York: VCH; 1991.
- [4] Bruce PG, editor. Solid state electrochemistry. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 1995.
- [5] Wright PV. Br Polym J 1975;7:319.
- [6] Ratner MA, Shriver DF. Chem Rev 1988;88:109.
- [7] Tominaga Y, Izumi Y, Kwak GH, Asai S, Sumita M. Mater Lett 2002; 57:777.
- [8] Tominaga Y, Izumi Y, Kwak GH, Asai S, Sumita M. Macromolecules 2003;36:8766.
- [9] Kwak GH, Tominaga Y, Asai S, Sumita M. Electrochim Acta 2003; 48:1991.
- [10] Kwak GH, Tominaga Y, Asai S, Sumita M. Electrochim Acta 2003; 48:4069.
- [11] Cooper AI. J Mater Chem 2000;10:207.
- [12] Sun YP, editor. Supercritical fluid technology in materials science and engineering. New York: Marcel Dekker; 2002.
- [13] Condo PD, Paul DR. Macromolecules 1994;27:365.
- [14] Handa YP, Zhang Z. Macromolecules 1997;30:8505.
- [15] Kazarian SG, Vincent MF, Bright FV, Liotta CL, Eckert CA. J Am Chem Soc 1996;118:1729.
- [16] Tominaga Y, Kwak GH, Hirahara S, Asai S, Sumita M. Polymer 2003;44:4769.
- [17] Fontanella JJ, Wintersgill MC, Calame JP, Pursel FP, Figueroa DR. Solid State Ionics 1983;9/10:1139.
- [18] Fontanella JJ, Wintersgill MC, Smith MK, Semancik J, Andeen CG. J Appl Phys 1986;60:2665.
- [19] Bridges C, Chadwick AV. Solid State Ionics 1988;28-30:965.
- [20] Fontanella JJ. J Chem Phys 1999;111:7103.
- [21] Bendler JT, Fontanella JJ, Shlesinger MF, Wintersgill MC. Electrochim Acta 2001;46:1615.
- [22] Armand M, Gorecki W, Andreani R. Proceedings of ISPE-2. London: Elsevier; 1990 p. 31.
- [23] Lightfoot P, Mehta MA, Bruce PG. Science 1993;262:883.
- [24] Reid RC, Prausnitz JM, Poling BE, editors. The properties of gases and liquids. 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 1987. p. 47.
- [25] Lide DR, editor. Handbook of chemistry and physics. 81st ed. New York: CRC Press, p. 6–51.
- [26] Abbott AP, Harper JC. J Chem Soc: Faraday Trans 1996;92:3895.
- [27] Jun J, Fedkiw PS. J Electroanal Chem 2001;515:113.
- [28] Dardin A, DeSimone JM, Samulski ET. J Phys Chem B 1998;102: 1775.