

Perspective

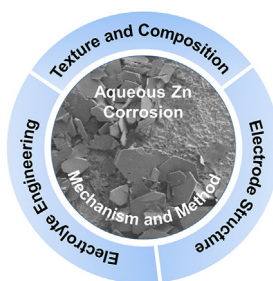
Anode corrosion in aqueous Zn metal batteries

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HIGHLIGHTS

- The development of aqueous Zn batteries, from the first voltaic pile to very recent sustainable Zn batteries, is summarized.
- The corrosion mechanisms of aqueous Zn anodes in both alkaline and neutral electrolytes are discussed.
- Potential future research directions are proposed for next-generation aqueous Zn anode materials.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Given their low cost and intrinsic safety, aqueous Zn metal batteries (AZMBs) are drawing increasing attention in the field of smart grids and large-scale energy storage. However, the Zn metal anode in aqueous electrolyte suffers from a critical issue, corrosion, which must be fully addressed before the practical implementation of AZMBs. In this perspective, the mechanisms of aqueous Zn metal anode corrosion in both alkaline and neutral electrolytes are compared and discussed. The methods for studying the corrosion processes and the strategies for Zn corrosion protection in AZMBs are also summarized. Finally, some expectations about potential research directions for making corrosion-resistant AZMBs a commercial reality are provided.

1. Introduction

With the rapid growth of global economies, energy demands worldwide are becoming much more pressing, stimulating a burgeoning research interest in grid energy storage technologies [1–6]. A number of advantages make aqueous batteries employing Zn metal anodes highly promising for large-scale energy storage, including 1) high theoretical capacities of 820 mAh g⁻¹ and 5854 mAh cm⁻³ for metallic Zn [7]; 2) the low electrode potential of Zn²⁺/Zn⁰ (−0.76 V vs. reversible hydrogen

electrode) [8]; and 3) the low cost and high safety of both metallic Zn and aqueous electrolytes [9].

The AZMB is not a fresh concept; it is, in fact, a century-old technology [10–12]. The first aqueous Zn battery, the voltaic pile, was invented by A. Volta in 1799 (Fig. 1a) [13], and T. A. Edison developed an alkaline Ni–Zn battery system in 1901 [14]. However, alkaline Zn batteries generally suffer from Zn dendrite issues at the anode, leading to short battery life span [15,16]. To tackle these issues in alkaline Zn chemistry, Yamamoto and co-workers investigated Zn battery systems with mild aqueous ZnSO₄

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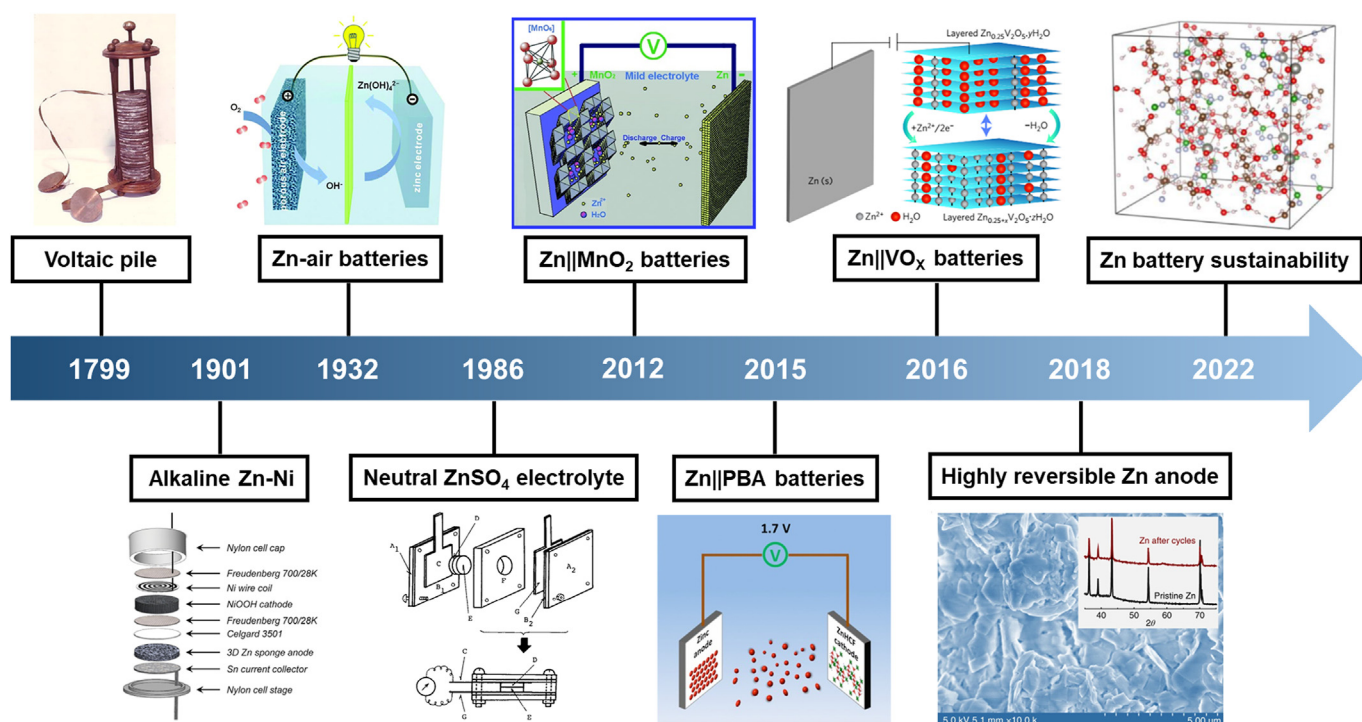


Fig. 1. A timeline demonstrating the development of AZMBs. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [13], copyright 2011 Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [23], copyright 2017 American Association for the Advancement of Science. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [24], copyright 2014 Royal Society of Chemistry. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [17], copyright 1986 Elsevier. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [25], copyright 2012 Wiley-VCH. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [20], copyright 2015 Wiley-VCH. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [26], copyright 2016 Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [21], copyright 2018 Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [22], copyright 2022 Springer Nature.

electrolyte, which yielded improved reversibility in aqueous Zn anodes and batteries [17]. Since then, extensive efforts have been devoted to developing novel Zn battery systems with neutral/mild acidic electrolytes, such as Zn||MnO₂ [18], Zn||VO_x [19], and Zn||Prussian blue analogues (PBAs) batteries [20]. Notably, Wang et al., in 2018 proposed a highly reversible Zn electrode using concentrated electrolyte [21]. Yang et al. very recently have designed a non-flammable Zn(BF₄)₂/ethylene glycol hydrous-organic electrolyte for sustainable Zn batteries [22], attracting much research interest to the field of aqueous Zn anodes. Yet despite these exciting achievements, designing and fabricating high-performance Zn anodes for practical AZMBs remains a great challenge.

Due to the high chemical activity and low electrochemical potential of metallic Zn, corrosion is spontaneous in an aqueous Zn system [27–31], as exemplified by the chemical Zn oxidation [32] and electrochemical hydrogen evolution side-reactions [33]. In alkaline Zn chemistry, the corrosion of aqueous Zn anodes produces amphoteric ZnO and hydrogen gas [34]. On the other hand, Zn corrosion in neutral/mild acidic electrolytes results in insoluble Zn(OH)₂/zinc hydroxide sulfate (ZHS) as well as hydrogen bubbles [35]. These facts are of vital importance for anode performance optimization and require particular attention. In this perspective, the chemical and electrochemical corrosion phenomena and mechanisms of aqueous Zn anodes are clarified. The methods for understanding Zn corrosion in AZMBs are introduced, and the current strategies for corrosion protection are also discussed. Finally, the challenges and potential future research directions in the field of next-generation AZMB anodes are presented. We hope this perspective will draw special attention to anode corrosion in AZMBs and facilitate the practical development of AZMBs with long shelf life and cycle life.

2. Corrosion mechanisms of aqueous Zn anodes

Zn corrosion in aqueous batteries is generally divided into two classes: one is chemical oxidation corrosion [36,37], which takes place at the

Zn surface accessible to the aqueous electrolyte, whether or not the AZMB is in a resting or cycling state; the other is electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion [38,39], whereby protons or water molecules accept electrons on the anode surface and are then reduced to hydrogen during metallic Zn plating or battery charging. For AZMBs in a resting state, chemical oxidation corrosion dominates, since electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion cannot be triggered at this stage. When the batteries are electrochemically cycled, electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion dominates due to the significantly inhibited chemical oxidation of Zn by repeated Zn plating/stripping reactions.

The corrosion mechanism of aqueous Zn anodes varies according to the pH of the electrolyte. In an alkaline electrolyte (e.g., KOH solution), Zn metal is oxidized by OH[−] to produce Zn(OH)₄^{2−}, which is ultimately converted to ZnO (i.e., $\text{Zn} + 4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{Zn(OH)}_4^{2-} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{ZnO} + 2\text{OH}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{e}^-$) [40]. The as-formed ZnO is generally a dense oxide layer that can isolate the metallic Zn and aqueous electrolyte and prevent further Zn oxidation, resulting in passivation rather than continuous corrosion (Fig. 2a) [41]. Moreover, ZnO is a typical amphoteric oxide that dissolves in alkaline electrolytes, so Zn corrosion is not a major issue in alkaline Zn batteries.

However, in neutral/mild acidic electrolytes such as ZnSO₄ solution, Zn metal reacts with H₂O and ZnSO₄ to form ZHS (i.e., $3\text{Zn} + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{ZnSO}_4 \rightarrow \text{Zn}_4(\text{OH})_6\text{SO}_4 + 3\text{H}_2$, Fig. 2b) [42]. Unlike ZnO, the as-produced ZHS is generally a loose and porous layer that is unable to isolate metallic Zn and aqueous electrolyte, leading to continuous Zn corrosion until the active Zn or electrolyte is exhausted [43].

In terms of electrochemical corrosion via hydrogen evolution, protons are adsorbed on the Zn anode and reduced to hydrogen in mildly acidic electrolytes (i.e., $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$) [44]. In neutral or alkaline electrolytes, water molecules accept electrons on the Zn anode and are reduced to hydrogen (i.e., $2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + 2\text{OH}^-$) [45]. The overpotential of electrochemical hydrogen evolution for Zn anodes in mildly acidic electrolytes is much lower than in alkaline conditions (Fig. 2c) [46],

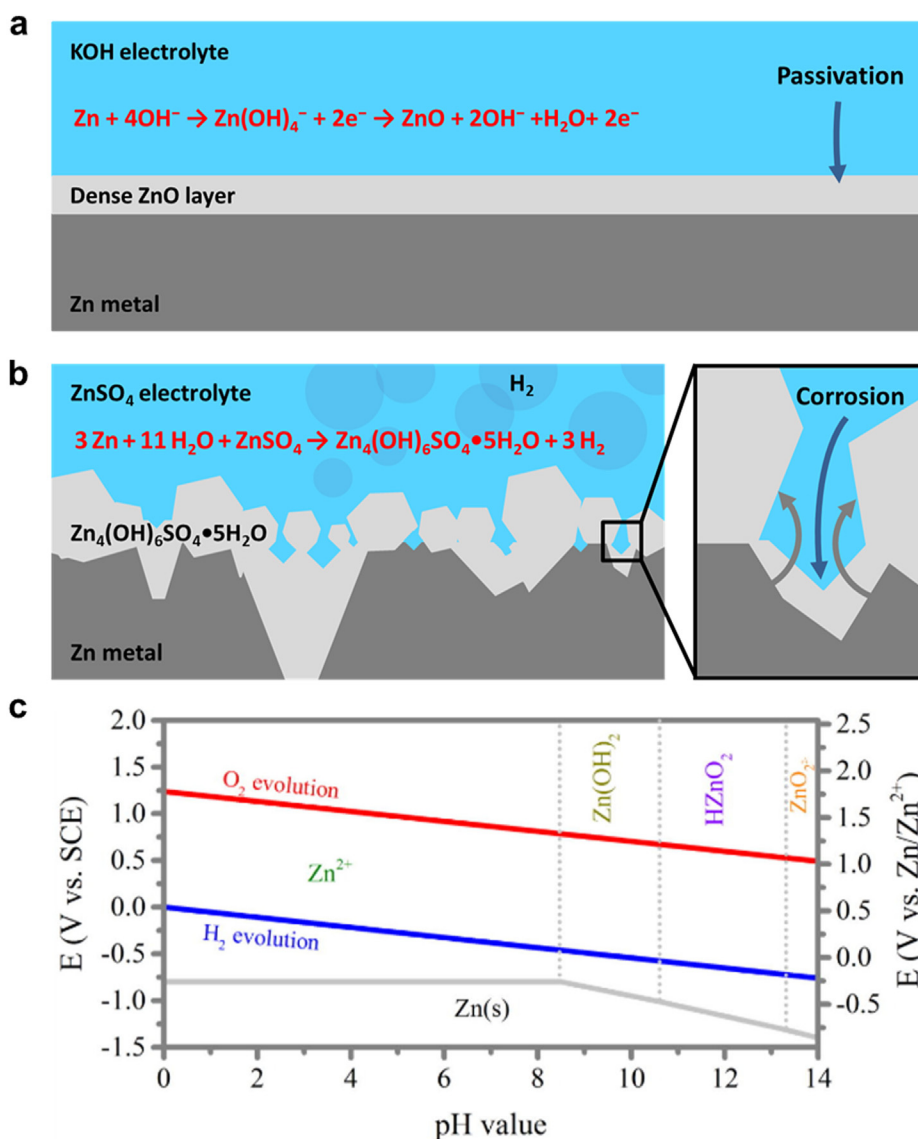


Fig. 2. A schematic showing the chemical oxidation of Zn metal anodes in batteries employing (a) alkaline electrolyte (e.g., KOH) and (b) neutral electrolyte (e.g., ZnSO₄). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [36], copyright 2020 Elsevier. (c) Pourbaix diagram of the Zn/H₂O system. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [46], copyright 1974 Wiley-VCH.

which suggests severe electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion of the Zn anode will occur in mildly acidic electrolytes such as those based on ZnSO₄.

Metallic Zn powders and foils have been widely investigated and adopted as aqueous battery anode materials. Given that Zn powders have a higher specific surface area than Zn foils, the corrosion of Zn powder anodes is more severe in aqueous electrolytes, presenting a major obstacle to the practical application of Zn powder anodes in commercial aqueous batteries [47]. It should also be noted that electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion of Zn increases the pH of the micro-environment around the Zn surface [48], promoting the chemical oxidation corrosion of metallic Zn. Thus, both types of corrosion should be analyzed and prevented to achieve corrosion-proof Zn anodes.

3. Methods for Zn corrosion analysis

The black box nature of AZMBs makes it difficult to monitor the Zn corrosion processes inside these sealed systems [49,50]. So far, several methods have been established to analyze Zn corrosion behavior based on two-electrode cells or three-electrode systems; these include

electrochemical methods like linear polarization, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), Coulombic efficiency (CE), voltage profiles, and non-electrochemical methods like optical microscopy (OM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), *in situ* battery-gas chromatography-mass analysis, etc.

3.1. Electrochemical methods

Linear polarization is one of the most common and reliable methods for investigating Zn corrosion in aqueous electrolytes, as it provides an opportunity to study the corrosion potential (E_{corr}) and corrosion current density (I_{corr}) [51,52]. Fig. 3a demonstrates using linear polarization to analyze the chemical oxidation corrosion of bare Zn and polyamide (PA)-coated Zn with a low scan rate of 1 mV s⁻¹ [53]. The E_{corr} located in the open circuit for PA-coated Zn was 20 mV higher than bare Zn, while the I_{corr} obtained by Tafel fitting indicated a lower corrosion rate for PA-coated Zn than bare Zn, suggesting the coated Zn had enhanced chemical corrosion resistance. Fig. 3b presents the use of linear polarization to study the electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion of an

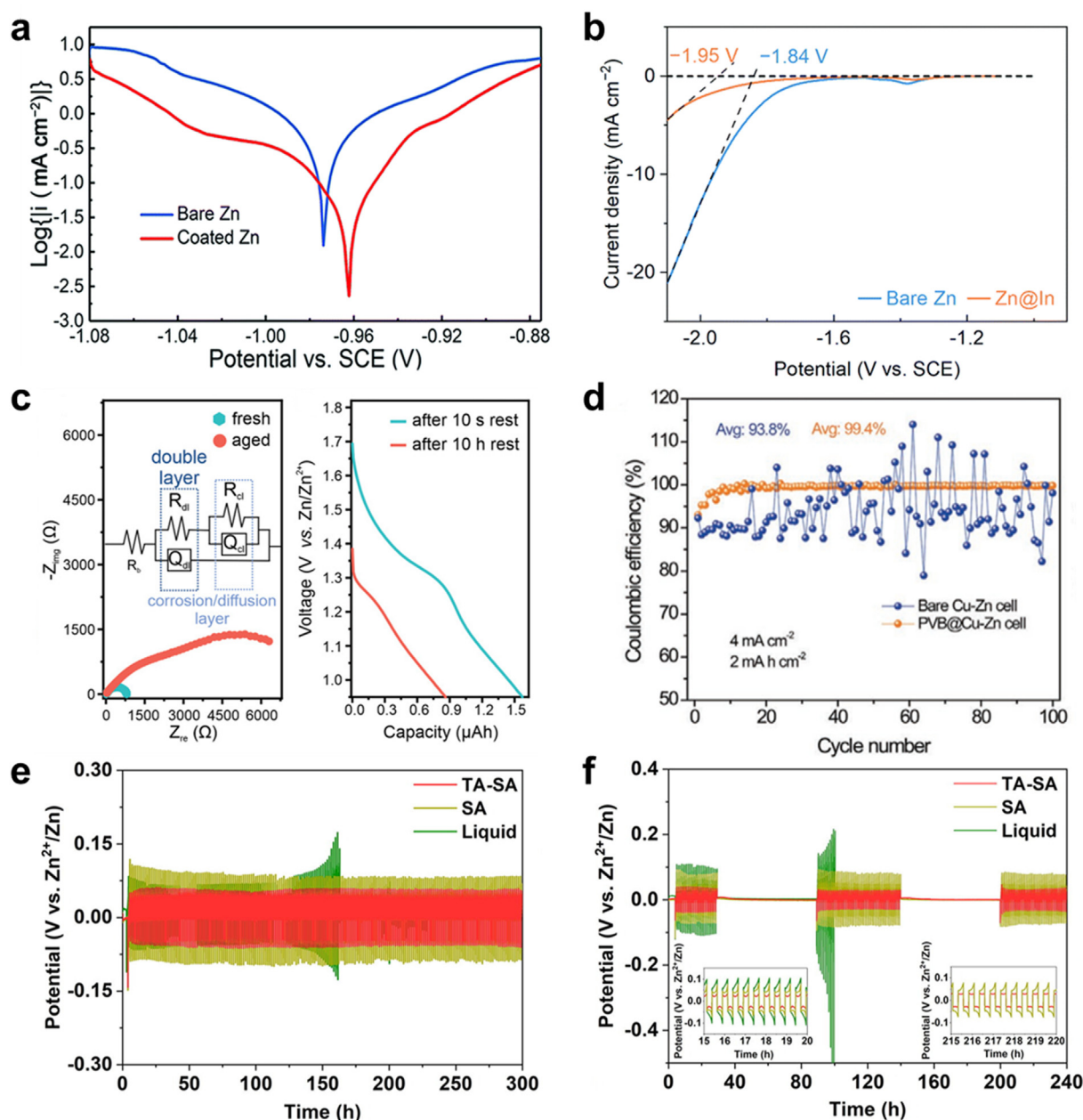


Fig. 3. Linear polarization analysis of (a) chemical corrosion of bare Zn and PA-coated Zn in ZnSO_4 electrolyte, and (b) electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion of bare Zn anode and Zn@In electrode in 1 M Na_2SO_4 . Reproduced with permission from Ref. [53], copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [54], copyright 2022 Royal Society of Chemistry. (c) Nyquist plots of fresh and aged Zn electrodes in ZnSO_4 electrolyte (left), and the galvanostatic discharge curves of Zn|| MnO_2 batteries after 10 s/10 h of rest (right). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [55], copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH. (d) CEs of bare Cu||Zn and PVB@Cu||Zn half-cells at 4 mA cm^{-2} . Reproduced with permission from Ref. [56], copyright 2020 Wiley-VCH. Voltage profiles of Zn||Zn symmetric cells with (e) continuous cycling at 1.13 mA cm^{-2} and (f) cycling at 1.13 mA cm^{-2} for 30 h combined with resting for 60 h. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [57], copyright 2022 Elsevier.

In-modified Zn (Zn@In) electrode with a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} [54]. The Zn@In electrode showed a higher hydrogen evolution onset potential of -1.95 V than for bare Zn (-1.84 V), suggesting the suppression of electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion.

Aqueous Zn corrosion produces non-conductive $\text{ZnO/Zn(OH)}_2/\text{ZHS}$ and hydrogen bubbles. This should reduce the electroconductivity and increase the charge transfer resistance of Zn anodes, which can be monitored by EIS. As shown in Fig. 3c, an aged aqueous Zn anode showed greater charge transfer resistance than a fresh one [55]. Accordingly, AZMBs after 10 h of rest showed significantly lower capacity than after 10 s of rest, suggesting active Zn metal was consumed due to undesirable corrosion. This was also evaluated using the CE of Zn||Cu half cells. As

indicated in Fig. 3d, a poly(vinyl butyral)-coated Zn electrode (PVB@Zn) showed an enhanced CE of 99.4%, higher than that of bare Zn (93.8%) [56].

The voltage profile of Zn||Zn symmetrical cells can also help in the analysis of Zn corrosion in AZMBs. Non-conductive corrosion products lead to polarization and increased overpotential, as shown in Fig. 3e, where a Zn electrode in liquid ZnSO_4 electrolyte showed a rise in voltage oscillations after 120 h of continuous cycling, while a Zn electrode modified with tannic acid (TA) and sodium alginate (SA) inhibited corrosion and exhibited stable cycling performance [57]. Note that dynamic measurement combining resting and electrochemical cycling should be more effective for evaluating the corrosion of aqueous Zn

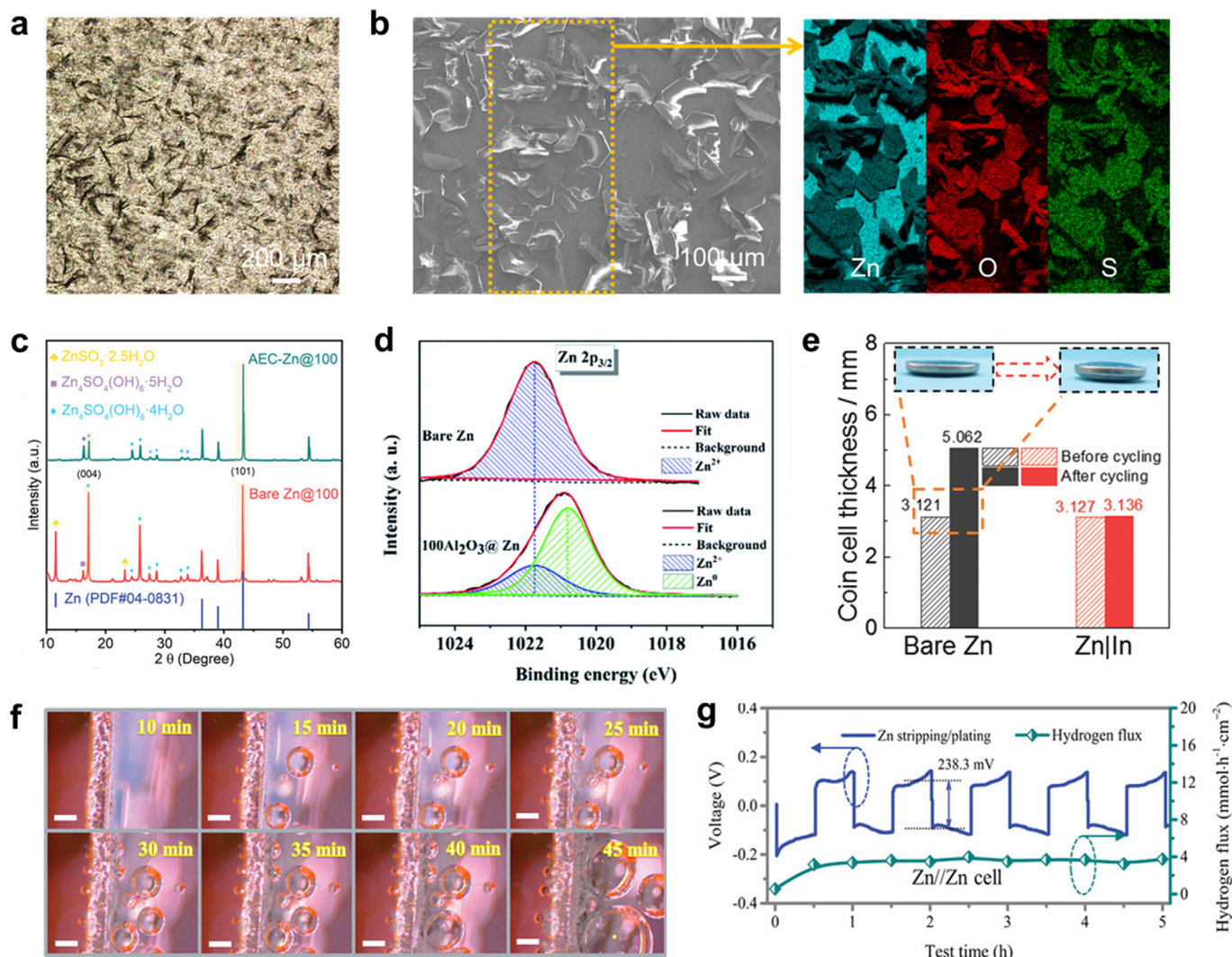


Fig. 4. (a) OM image, (b) SEM and EDS elemental mapping results for a Zn electrode after resting in ZnSO_4 electrolyte for 7 days. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [43], copyright 2022 Elsevier. (c) XRD patterns of Zn and anti-corrosion elastic constraint (AEC)-Zn electrodes after 100 electrochemical cycles at 0.667 mA cm^{-2} and $0.667 \text{ mAh cm}^{-2}$. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [58], copyright 2020 Wiley-VCH. (d) Zn 2p XPS analysis of bare Zn and $100\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3@\text{Zn}$ electrodes after cycling in $\text{Zn}(\text{SO}_3\text{CF}_3)_2$ aqueous electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [59], copyright 2020 Royal Society of Chemistry. (e) The thicknesses of Zn||Zn and Zn||In||Zn||Zn symmetric cells before and after cycling in ZnSO_4 electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [60], copyright 2020 Wiley-VCH. (f) *In situ* OM images and (g) *in situ* monitoring of hydrogen evolution during Zn plating at 10 mA cm^{-2} in ZnSO_4 electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [61], copyright 2020 Wiley-VCH.

anodes. As shown in Fig. 3f, a Zn anode in liquid ZnSO_4 electrolyte showed a sudden voltage fluctuation after 50 h of cycling (1.13 mA cm^{-2} and 0.28 mAh cm^{-2} for each cycle) and 60 h of resting [57], suggesting severe chemical corrosion reactions took place on the Zn electrode during resting.

3.2. Non-electrochemical methods

Zn corrosion products such as $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$ and ZHS are typical layered compounds with a sheet-like morphology, which can be observed directly under an OM. Sun et al. showed a number of sheet-like corrosion products with a size of $\sim 200 \mu\text{m}$ by using OM to examine a Zn electrode that had rested in ZnSO_4 electrolyte for 7 days (Fig. 4a) [43]. SEM combined with EDS mapping can also identify these corrosion products on a Zn surface, providing clear elemental distributions (e.g., ZHS on Zn, as shown in Fig. 4b) [43]. Compared with EDS, XRD is a more powerful way to confirm the crystal structure of these corrosion products. The diffraction peaks of corrosion products like ZnO , $\text{Zn}(\text{OH})_2$, and ZHS are generally located in the 2-theta range of $10\text{--}30^\circ$ (Fig. 4c) [58]. XPS can

further help to analyze the surface oxidation state of a Zn anode after corrosion reactions; a lower $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}^0$ ratio based on XPS analysis suggested a suppressed corrosion rate for a $100\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3@\text{Zn}$ electrode (i.e., Zn metal coated with Al_2O_3 applied using 100 atomic layer deposition cycles) (Fig. 4d) [59].

Swelling is often observed in rested or electrochemically cycled coin cell AZMBs due to hydrogen evolution during corrosion side-reactions. The thickness of a coin cell, which can be measured with a vernier caliper, is a good indicator for evaluating the corrosion reactions in AZMBs. Kang et al. found that the thickness of a Zn||Zn symmetrical cell increased from 3.12 mm to 5.06 mm after electrochemical cycling at 0.2 mA cm^{-2} (Fig. 4e) [60]. The gas bubbles generated during electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion can be observed using *in situ* OM. Zhi et al. exhibited hydrogen evolution bubbles generated on bare Zn electrode in ZnSO_4 electrolyte at 10 mA cm^{-2} for 10 min (Fig. 4f) [61]. To accurately quantify the hydrogen evolution rate in AZMBs, Zhi et al. developed an *in situ* battery-gas chromatography-mass analysis method. The hydrogen evolution flux for a Zn||Zn symmetrical cell cycling in ZnSO_4 electrolyte at 10 mA cm^{-2} was determined to be $4 \text{ mmol h}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$

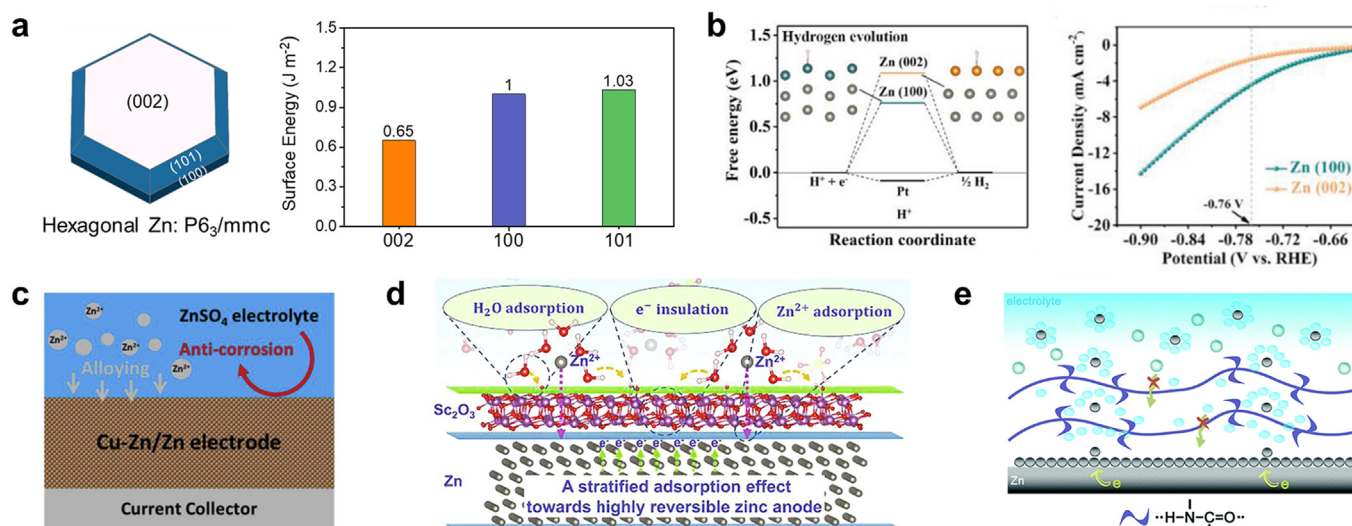


Fig. 5. (a) Surface energies for the three main planes of hexagonal Zn metal. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [43], copyright 2020 Elsevier. (b) The proton adsorption energies and linear polarization curves for electrochemical hydrogen evolution on Zn (002) and Zn (100). Reproduced with permission from Ref. [63], copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH. Schematic illustration of (c) CuZn alloy, (d) Sc₂O₃-coated Zn, and (e) PA-coated Zn electrodes with anti-corrosion capability and improved reversibility. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [36], copyright 2020 Elsevier. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [76], copyright 2021 Elsevier. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [53], copyright 2019 Royal Society of Chemistry.

(Fig. 4g) [61]. To monitor the surface corrosion/passivation and hydrogen evolution processes at the Zn/electrolyte interface, Li and co-workers developed a real-time “3 M” system based on OM, atomic force microscopy, and an electrochemical quartz crystal microbalance to capture chemical/morphological information from a corroded Zn anode in 1 M ZnSO₄ electrolyte. This revealed that direct contact between Zn and the electrolyte led to the formation of ZHS by-products and poor interfacial properties for aqueous Zn anodes [62].

4. Strategies for Zn corrosion protection

To prevent Zn corrosion in aqueous electrolytes and improve the reversibility of Zn anodes, plenty of strategies for Zn corrosion protection have been proposed, including texture and composition optimization, electrode structure design, and electrolyte engineering. The key to Zn corrosion protection lies in stabilizing the interface between Zn metal and aqueous electrolyte, which will be discussed in detail in this part.

4.1. Texture and composition optimization

Zn metal is a hexagonal crystal with *P6₃/mmc* symmetry. The three main crystal planes of metallic Zn are (002), (100), and (101), among which (002) is the most thermodynamically stable, with the lowest surface energy of 0.65 J m⁻² [43]. Therefore, a Zn metal electrode with (002)-dominated facets should be the most chemically resistant (Fig. 5a). Moreover, the H adsorption free energy on Zn (002) is higher than on the other planes, endowing a (002)-Zn electrode with excellent anti-electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion capability, as demonstrated by the hydrogen evolution linear polarization curves of Zn(100) and Zn(002) electrodes at 1 mV s⁻¹ (Fig. 5b) [63]. Therefore, regulation of the crystal planes of a metallic Zn electrode is an effective way to achieve Zn corrosion protection, and to date, several kinds of (002)-dominated Zn electrodes have been developed to achieve highly reversible Zn anodes [64–66].

With respect to composition optimization, composite electrodes with organic/inorganic functional coatings are one of the most important stabilization strategies for aqueous Zn anodes. Carbon materials such as graphene and carbon nanotubes are typical inorganic functional materials used for the surface protection of aqueous Zn anodes and the realization of corrosion-resistant performance [67,68]. A surface carbon

Table 1

Summary of the anti-corrosion and electrochemical performances of aqueous Zn anodes with texture/composition optimization.

Texture/composition	<i>I</i> _{corr}	<i>E</i> _{corr}	Overpotential at 1 mA cm ⁻²
Zn(002) [63]	6186.8 μA cm ⁻²	−1.029 V	71 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)
Cu–Zn/Zn [36]	6.03 μA cm ⁻²	−0.964 V	24 mV (0.5 mAh cm ⁻²)
Zn/Cu [67]	250 μA cm ⁻²	\	20 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)
Zn@LDH [77]	235 μA cm ⁻²	−1.015 V	38 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)
Zn@ZnSe [78]	1690 μA cm ⁻²	\	28 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)
MMT–Zn [79]	0.389 μA cm ⁻²	−0.743 V	50 mV (0.25 mAh cm ⁻²)
Zn@ZnF ₂ [80]	280 μA cm ⁻²	−1.014 V	36 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)
PA–Zn [53]	312.1 μA cm ⁻²	−0.963 V	\

layer isolates the active Zn and the aqueous electrolyte, thereby suppressing corrosion side-reactions. Moreover, the high electronic conductivity of carbon materials endows a carbon/Zn composite electrode with improved ion transfer kinetics and lower charge transfer resistance, which are beneficial qualities for achieving highly reversible Zn anodes.

Alloying Zn with a chemically stable and zincophilic metal such as Cu is another strategy for protecting the surfaces of aqueous Zn anodes. The alloyed Cu not only improves the anodes' chemical stability but also promotes electrochemical Zn plating/stripping by forming a CuZn alloy (Fig. 5c) [36]. Cu foam has thus been widely accepted as a good substrate for Zn anode applications [69–71], and many CuZn alloy-based Zn electrodes have been prepared as high-performance Zn anodes [72,73]. Covering Zn anodes with a layer of a Zn²⁺-ion conducting and electrically insulated compound (e.g., ZnS, ZnP, ZnO, Sc₂O₃, layered double hydroxide, etc.) is also beneficial for constructing anti-corrosion Zn electrodes [37,74–80]. Zhou et al. coated a homogeneous Sc₂O₃ layer on a Zn anode to suppress H₂ evolution side-reactions and achieved a high Zn plating/stripping efficiency of ~99.85% (Fig. 5d) [76]. Liang et al. constructed a carbonyl-containing layer on a Zn anode to suppress chemical oxidation corrosion, resulting in an ultralong cycling lifespan of 5000 h at 1 mA cm⁻² and 0.25 mA cm⁻² [81].

Besides inorganic coatings, organics with functional groups such as –NH₂ and –C=O that allow Zn²⁺ transfer have also been selected for Zn surface coating and protection [55,82,83]. Cui et al. employed PA to coat a Zn metal electrode, achieving high corrosion resistance and a reversible

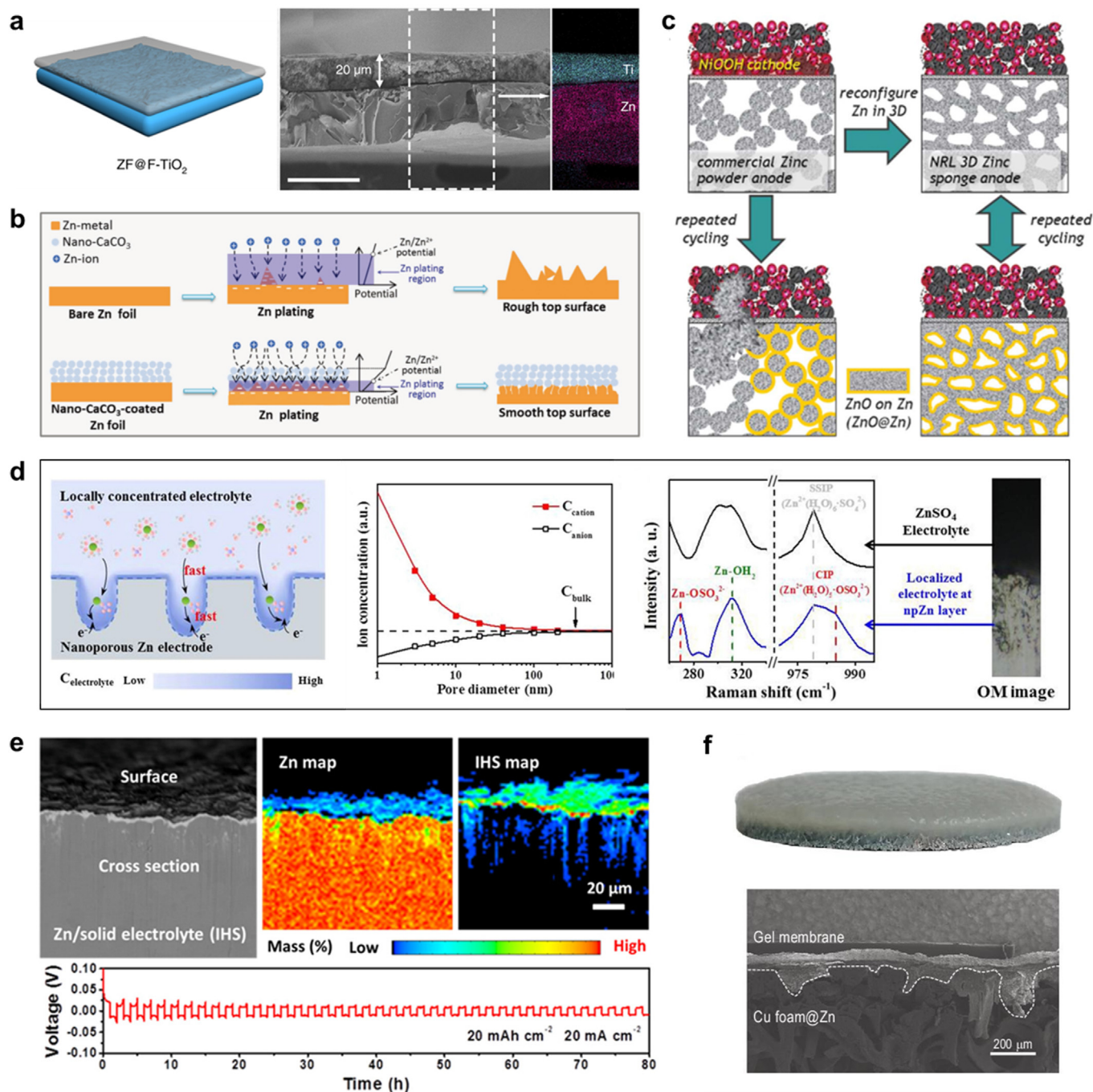


Fig. 6. (a) Schematic illustration as well as SEM and EDS elemental mapping images of a faceted TiO_2 -coated Zn electrode. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [87], copyright 2020 Springer Nature. (b) Schematic illustration of highly-reversible nano CaCO_3 -coated Zn electrode in ZnSO_4 electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [88], copyright 2018 Wiley-VCH. (c) Schematic illustration of 3D Zn sponge electrode in KOH electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [23], copyright 2017 American Association for the Advancement of Science. (d) Schematic illustration, theoretical simulation, and Raman spectra results for localized concentrated electrolyte on 3D porous Zn electrode in ZnSO_4 electrolyte. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [90], copyright 2021 Elsevier. (e) High-precision electron probe microanalysis and voltage profile of 3D interdigitated Zn/IHS electrode. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [91], copyright 2021 American Chemical Society. (f) Schematic and SEM image of 3D gel/Cu foam@Zn electrode. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [71], copyright 2022 Oxford Academic.

PA-coated Zn anode in aqueous batteries (Fig. 5e) [53]. Zhang et al. introduced a layer of sericin molecules on a Zn anode, which exhibited greater overpotential due to reduced electrochemical hydrogen evolution corrosion and had a prolonged cycling lifetime of 4446 h at 1 mA cm^{-2} and 1 mAh cm^{-2} [84].

To compare the effectiveness of the above texture and composition optimization strategies, the anti-corrosion and electrochemical

performances of as-optimized Zn electrodes are summarized in Table 1. Notably, while organic/inorganic coating layers have shown many advantages in suppressing Zn corrosion reactions, the thicknesses of these surface layers are generally very large ($> 1 \mu\text{m}$); this is not conducive to Zn^{2+} -ion transfer during the Zn plating/stripping processes and prevents further performance optimization of aqueous Zn anodes.

Table 2

Summary of the anti-corrosion and electrochemical performances of aqueous Zn anodes with various electrode structures.

Electrode structure	I_{corr}	E_{corr}	Overpotential at 1 mA cm^{-2}
2D $\text{ZnF}_2/\text{Ag@Zn}$ [92]	\	−1.042 V	25 mV (1 mA cm^{-2})
2D DES-Zn [93]	3500 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	−1.021 V	30 mV (0.5 mA cm^{-2})
2D Zn/ex-ZrP [94]	210 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	−1.02 V	\
3D Zn@a-Ag [95]	1.08 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	−1.018 V	\
3D npZn [90]	4000 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	−0.975 V	25 mV (1 mA cm^{-2})
3D Zn/IHS [91]	\	\	10 mV (0.5 mA cm^{-2})
2D ZSM-5@Zn [96]	1300 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2}$	−0.978 V	45 mV (1 mA cm^{-2})

4.2. Electrode structure design

As noted above, a surface protective layer is often employed to suppress Zn corrosion and achieve highly reversible aqueous Zn anodes. The surface protective layer is two-dimensional (2D) in most cases. Polymer electrolytes can serve as a 2D protective layer to stabilize aqueous Zn anodes against corrosion reactions. Kim et al. coated a thin polysiloxane layer (< 500 nm) on Zn as an artificial solid–electrolyte interface to inhibit corrosion reactions and achieve a remarkable cycling stability of 600 h at 20 mA cm^{-2} and 5 mA h cm^{-2} [85]. Compared to a polymer coating, a native passivation layer on a Zn anode reported by Huang et al. showed advantages, including strong adhesion to Zn and high homogeneity, thus enabling a cycle life up to 40 times longer than a bare Zn electrode at 1 mA cm^{-2} and 1 mA h cm^{-2} [86].

Importantly, the facets of coating materials play a vital role in determining the efficiency of a surface protective layer. Wang et al. introduced an oriented TiO_2 protective layer with a (001) facet on a Zn electrode [87], which exhibited good cycling stability for more than 450 h at 1 mA cm^{-2} and 1 mA h cm^{-2} (Fig. 6a). Zn^{2+} -ion flux should also be paid particular attention when designing 2D protective layers. Liang et al. applied a nano- CaCO_3 coating layer to reduce the contact between metallic Zn and aqueous electrolyte, as well as regulate the Zn^{2+} -ion flux [88], thus enabling a highly reversible Zn metal electrode in $\text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{MnSO}_4$ aqueous electrolyte (Fig. 6b).

Notably, the electrochemical surface area of a Zn metal electrode cannot be improved by designing the 2D electrode structure, which is detrimental for achieving high-power AZMB anodes. Hence, designing and fabricating a three-dimensional (3D) Zn electrode is quite necessary [89]. Rolison et al. prepared a 3D zinc sponge anode and achieved high-power alkaline nickel–zinc cells for more than 100 high-rate cycles (Fig. 6c) [23]. However, a 3D Zn electrode with an enlarged surface area experiences an increased corrosion rate. This situation is not so serious in alkaline nickel–zinc cells, since amphoteric ZnO is soluble in alkaline electrolytes. But with a neutral electrolyte, a 3D porous Zn electrode with an enlarged surface area should show poor electrochemical reversibility due to aggravated corrosion side-reactions. To address this issue, Sun et al. regulated the space charge distribution within a 3D Zn electrode with an accurately controlled nanopore structure [90]. They revealed that the cation concentration at the electric double-layer was significantly higher than in the bulk electrolyte for a porous Zn electrode with a nanopore size smaller than 40 nm. Raman studies confirmed there was a lower $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ratio and a higher concentration of Zn^{2+} cations in the nanoporous layer than in the bulk ZnSO_4 electrolyte (Fig. 6d), resulting in suppressed corrosion and enhanced reversibility of the 3D nanoporous Zn anode.

Another way to construct a 3D Zn electrode is to employ a replacement reaction to fabricate an interdigitated metal/solid electrolyte electrode. For example, In metal was deposited along the grain boundary of polycrystalline Zn via a simple replacement reaction. After electrochemical activation, the as-deposited In metal was transformed into indium hydroxide sulfate (IHS) solid electrolyte, enabling a 3D interdigitated Zn/IHS electrode [91]. The interdigitated IHS solid electrolyte not only isolated active Zn with liquid electrolyte, suppressing corrosion side-reactions, but also endowed the Zn electrode with an

enlarged surface area, thus achieving remarkable reversibility in ZnSO_4 electrolyte at 20 mA cm^{-2} and 20 mA h cm^{-2} (Fig. 6e). In addition, Liang and co-workers proposed an integrated “all-in-one” strategy to design a 3D electrode structure by combining a Cu foam@Zn electrode and gel quasi-solid electrolyte [71]. This showed anti-corrosion properties and achieved 60 h of shelving stability and 1200 electrochemical cycles at 1 mA cm^{-2} and 0.48 mA h cm^{-2} (Fig. 6f). Table 2 compares the anti-corrosion and electrochemical performances of Zn electrodes protected using various electrode structural design strategies. Note that the fabrication of 3D electrodes generally involves complicated processes that are hard to control and scale up, which is very detrimental to the practical application of these 3D Zn anodes.

4.3. Electrolyte engineering

Electrolyte engineering is a facile and scalable method for suppressing the corrosion of aqueous Zn anodes by decreasing the content/activity of free water in the electrolyte. It has been found that water molecules are spontaneously absorbed on the surface of metallic Zn [97], triggering corrosion reactions between active Zn and aqueous electrolytes. An electrolyte additive is one of the most typical electrolyte engineering strategies for preventing Zn corrosion [98–104]. For example, ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) additive in aqueous ZnSO_4 electrolyte is absorbed on Zn instead of water (Fig. 7a), thus reducing the corrosion rate and enabling stable electrochemical performance for 5000 h under dynamic measurement combining electrochemical cycling (1 mA cm^{-2} , 0.5 mA h cm^{-2} , 72 h) with resting (24 h) [97].

The corrosion rate of an aqueous Zn electrode can also be reduced by decreasing the free water content in the aqueous electrolyte [44, 105–107]. Tao et al. employed a water/dimethyl sulfoxide hybrid solvent to prepare aqueous electrolyte with reduced free water content, which increased the hydrogen evolution overpotential and enabled highly reversible aqueous batteries (Fig. 7b) [108]. Wang et al. put forward a “water-in-salt” electrolyte strategy (i.e., 1 M $\text{Zn}(\text{TFSI})_2 + 20$ M LiTFSI). The Zn^{2+} -solvation structure was finely regulated (5–20 M, Fig. 7c), thus producing a highly reversible Zn anode with a stable CE of $> 99.7\%$ [21].

In another approach, deep eutectic solvents, which have high solubility for Zn salt and are generally in a liquid state at room temperature, can be used as AZMB electrolytes to inhibit the corrosion of Zn anodes [109]. Chen et al. reported a “water-in-deep eutectic solvent” electrolyte, namely a eutectic mixture of urea, $\text{Zn}(\text{N}(\text{SO}_2\text{CF}_3)_2)_2$, and $\text{LiN}(\text{SO}_2\text{CF}_3)_2$ with 30 mol% H_2O , wherein all the H_2O molecules were H-bonded and coordinated in the internal network of the deep eutectic solvent, resulting in suppressed corrosion reactions and reversible Zn plating/stripping performance [110]. Cui et al. developed a non-aqueous eutectic acetamide-Zn(TFSI) $_2$ electrolyte to construct a stable organic/inorganic hybrid interphase for a reversible Zn electrode with $\sim 100\%$ CE (Fig. 7d) [111].

Table 3 compares the anti-corrosion and electrochemical performances of Zn electrodes in various electrolytes in recent publications. The main limitation upon using these electrolyte engineering strategies in next-generation AZMBs for grid-scale energy storage is that they commonly employ costly salts/additives or toxic organic solvents.

5. Conclusion and outlook

In summary, we have reviewed the corrosion mechanisms of aqueous Zn anodes in both alkaline and neutral batteries, the methods for studying aqueous Zn corrosion, and the surface protection strategies for generating anti-corrosion Zn anodes. Since the performance of practical AZMBs has thus far been limited by issues at the Zn anode, we call for intense research activities on aqueous Zn chemistry, especially the corrosion issue, to achieve the further development of advanced AZMBs. The potential future research challenges and directions we believe to be important for making corrosion-resistant AZMBs a commercial reality are summarized as follows.

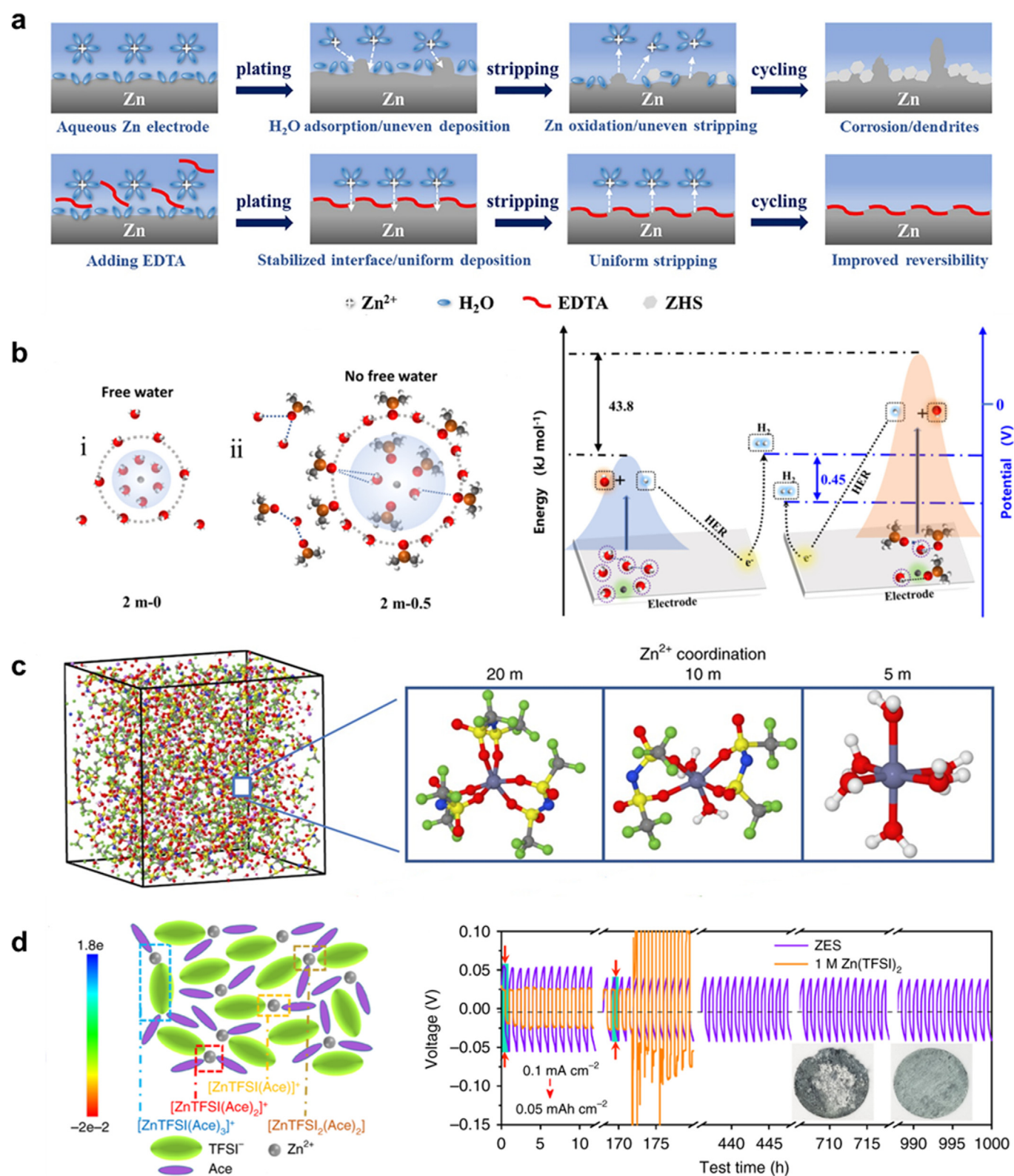


Fig. 7. Schematic illustration of the functionality of (a) EDTA electrolyte additive, (b) water/dimethyl sulfoxide hybrid solvent, (c) high-concentration electrolyte (1 M Zn(TFSI)₂ + 20 M LiTFSI), and (d) Zn(TFSI)₂-based eutectic solvent for anti-corrosion aqueous Zn anodes. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [97], copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [108], copyright 2021 American Chemical Society. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [21], copyright 2018 Springer Nature. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [111], copyright 2022 Springer Nature.

Table 3

Summary of the anti-corrosion and electrochemical performances of aqueous Zn anodes with electrolyte engineering.

Electrolyte	I_{corr}	E_{corr}	Overpotential at 1 mA cm ⁻²	Refs.
Zn (CF ₃ SO ₃) ₂ + Zn(H ₂ PO ₄) ₂	372.6 μA cm ⁻²	-9.045 V	40 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)	[100]
ZnSO ₄ + glucose	590 μA cm ⁻²	\	70 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)	[104]
ZnSO ₄ + EDTA	1180 μA cm ⁻²	-0.989 V	25 mV (0.5 mAh cm ⁻²)	[97]
ZnSO ₄ + La(NO ₃) ₃	6.3 μA cm ⁻²	-0.958 V	45 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)	[112]
Zn(OTf) ₂ in DMF/H ₂ O	410 μA cm ⁻²	-0.975 V	\	[113]
PG + ZnSO ₄	190 μA cm ⁻²	-1.005 V	100 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)	[114]
DPA + ZnSO ₄	22 μA cm ⁻²	\	35 mV (1 mAh cm ⁻²)	[115]

- (1) *In situ* characterization techniques should be developed and utilized to gain a deep understanding of Zn corrosion, especially at the molecular or atomic level, and thereby provide a theoretical basis for Zn corrosion protection.
- (2) Researchers need to optimize the alignment between their methods and improve the overall performance of AZMBs, rather than merely focus on corrosion-resistance performance.
- (3) Anode corrosion behavior and battery performance should be evaluated under limiting conditions such as high (60–90 °C) and sub-zero temperatures, in light of practical application scenarios for AZMBs such as in deserts or extremely cold places.
- (4) The development of modification methods to achieve anti-corrosion Zn anodes that are green, low-cost, and scalable should greatly benefit the practical application of next-generation AZMBs with high energy density and long cycle life.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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