Electrochemically-induced reversible transition from the tunneled to layered polymorphs of manganese dioxide

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Zn-ion batteries are emerging energy storage systems eligible for large-scale applications, such as electric vehicles. These batteries consist of totally environmentally-benign electrode materials and potentially manufactured very economically. Although Zn/α-MnO2 systems produce high energy densities of 225 Wh kg\(^{-1}\), larger than those of conventional Mg-ion batteries, they show significant capacity fading during long-term cycling and suffer from poor performance at high current rates. To solve these problems, the concrete reaction mechanism between α-MnO2 and zinc ions that occur on the cathode must be elucidated. Here, we report the intercalation mechanism of zinc ions into α-MnO2 during discharge, which involves a reversible phase transition of MnO2 from tunneled to layered polymorphs by electrochemical reactions. This transition is initiated by the dissolution of manganese from α-MnO2 during discharge process to form layered Zn-birnessite. The original tunneled structure is recovered by the incorporation of manganese ions back into the layers of Zn-birnessite during charge process.

For thousands of years, manganese oxides with various layered and tunneled structures have been extensively used by mankind. These materials show superb catalytic activities for many chemical processes, such as oxygen reduction reaction in metal-air cells, and function as good oxidants in many organic syntheses. They also act as geochemical scavengers for metals commonly found in soils. Since they are one of the major natural constituents of ocean Mn nodules, bottoms of fresh-water lakes, and river-beds, they are abundant and environmentally benign. Although some types of MnO2 materials (γ-MnO2) are already widely used commercially in alkaline batteries, they are gaining reviving attention as promising electrode materials for Zn-ion batteries, an emerging energy storage system developed for medium- to large-scale applications, such as electric vehicles and load-leveling of intermittent power sources. Recently, as the demand for safe, low cost energy storage systems with high power densities has intensified, a variety of new energy storage systems based on multivalent cation charge carriers, such as Mg\(^{2+}\), Zn\(^{2+}\), and Al\(^{3+}\) ions, have begun to be investigated. Among them, Zn-ion batteries have gained world-wide attention as one of the most viable candidates for replacing conventional Li-ion batteries in the near future. Zn-ion batteries consist of environmentally benign electrode materials, that is, a MnO2 cathode and zinc metal anode, and employ a simple aqueous electrolyte system. Hence, they can potentially be manufactured very economically. Zn-ion batteries can employ many forms of polymorphic MnO2, including α-MnO2, β-MnO2, γ-MnO2, λ-MnO2, and todorokite, to be cathode materials that can incorporate zinc ions into their tunneled structures. Specifically, α-MnO2 can produce large discharge capacities as large as 210 mAh g\(^{-1}\), with a practical discharge potential of 1.3 V at a moderate current rate, leading to an energy density of 225 Wh kg\(^{-1}\) based on the weight of the cathode and anode materials. This is substantially larger than values reported for competing multivalent-ion charge carrier systems, such as Mg-ion batteries, which consist of MoO4 (Chevrel phase) cathodes, Mg metal anodes, and Mg organohaloaluminate salt electrolytes (146 Wh kg\(^{-1}\)). However, Zn/α-MnO2 Zn-ion batteries show significant capacity fading during long-term cycling and also suffer from poor performance at high current rates. To improve their electrochemical performance, it is essential to elucidate a detailed mechanism of the reaction that occurs at their cathodes. Nevertheless, the exact natures of the redox reactions that occur between α-MnO2 and zinc ions in Zn-ion batteries are still far from being clearly understood. However, without significant proof or detail, it has been suggested that intercalation of zinc into the tunnels of α-MnO2 is most likely responsible. Here, we report the mechanism of the intercalation of zinc ions into α-MnO2 (2×2 tunnel structure) cathodes during the discharge-charge reactions of...
Zn-ion batteries. These reactions involve a reversible phase transition of \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\), between tunneled (\(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\)) and layered birnessite-like (\(\delta\)-MnO\(_2\)) polymorphs, induced by electrochemical reactions at the cathode.

The crystal structure of \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) has one-dimensional 2 × 2 tunnels made of corner- and edge-sharing MnO\(_6\) octahedra along the z-axis. The whole structure is stabilized by a small number of cations, such as K\(^{+}\) (cryptomelane) or Ba\(^{2+}\) (hollandite), located at the center of the tunnels\(^{12}\). The incorporation of other alkali, alkali-earth, and some post-transition metals into the tunnels or layers of various MnO\(_2\) polymorphs has been the subject of intense research for the past several decades\(^{14-16}\). Studies on the electrochemical insertion/de-insertion of Li\(^{+}\), Na\(^{+}\), and Mg\(^{2+}\) ions into these structures have examined their possible use as cathode materials for Li-ion, Na-ion, and Mg-ion batteries. For instance, a study of Li intercalation into the tunnels of \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) showed that more than 0.6 Li atoms per manganese atom go into the channels without significant crystallographic change\(^{17}\). In addition, as many as 0.5 Na\(^{+}\) ions per manganese atom have been shown to incorporate into the S-shaped tunnels of Na\(_{0.5}\)MnO\(_2\) with a promising cycle performance\(^{18}\).

However, the insertion mechanism of Zn\(^{2+}\) ions is expected to be different than that of Li\(^{+}\) or Na\(^{+}\) ions because of the much stronger electrostatic interaction between divalent zinc ions and wall structures, as well as the aqueous electrolyte. We examined the characteristics of discharged and charged cathodes containing a tailor-designed \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) nano-rod, using various ex-situ analysis techniques. We have, for the first time, shown that the intercalation of zinc ions into these MnO\(_2\) structures leads to a reversible phase transition, from a tunneled to a layered structure, which involves the dissolution of manganese from the tunnel walls into the electrolyte. We believe that this is a significant finding that can pave the way for drastic improvements in the electrochemical performances of Zn-ion batteries and the accelerated commercialization of this battery system.

**Results**

**Structural and morphological changes of \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) during discharge and charge processes.** The \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) nano-rods were synthesized from KMnO\(_4\) by the known hydrothermal method\(^{19}\). It is well known that MnO\(_2\) with one-dimensional internal tunnels often crystallizes with a wire or rod-like morphology with tunnels running along the wire or rod axis. In this work, \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) nano-rods were used so that any morphological changes could be easily detected following electrochemical reactions. Coin cells containing \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) cathodes, zinc metal anodes, and aqueous 1.0 M ZnSO\(_4\) electrolyte were employed for electrochemical evaluations. Figure 1a exhibits the discharge-charge profile of a zinc/\(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) battery for its first two successive cycles using a slow current rate of C/20 and a cycling capacity retention up to 30 cycles (Figure 1a inset). During the first discharge, a potential plateau near 1.3 V can be clearly seen, suggesting that two phases are involved in the electrochemical reaction\(^{20,21}\). The observed capacity of \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) was approximately 194 mAh g\(^{-1}\) for the first cycle and increased to 205 mAh g\(^{-1}\) for the second. These values are close to those reported in previous papers\(^{2-9}\).

Changes to the crystal structure of the \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) nano-rods following interaction with zinc ions were investigated by analyzing ex-situ X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the electrodes at various charge and discharge stages: original electrode (A), half discharged electrode (B), fully discharged electrode (C), fully charged electrode (D), and fully re- discharged electrode (E), as indicated in Figure 1a.

**Identification of the discharge product.** Since the XRD pattern of the discharged electrode in Figure 1 is not informative in clarifying the discharge product due to the lack of useful reflections, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis, using selected area electron diffraction, was carried out on individual nano-rods. Figure 2a shows an electron diffraction pattern of an original \(\alpha\)-MnO\(_2\) nano-rod prior to electrochemical cycling. The diffraction pattern was indexed to the [-110] zone of a tetragonal lattice in the I4/m space group. The lattice spacing estimated from the electron
diffraction pattern matched the literature value and XRD data well. A bright field TEM image of the discharged nano-rod is shown in Figure 2b. As can be seen, the nano-rod morphology remained intact after full discharge. However, the non-uniform contrast suggests that the observed nano-rod was likely highly strained. The corresponding electron diffraction pattern, shown in Figure 2c, was indexed to the [012] zone of triclinic chalcophanite (ZnMn$_3$O$_7$·3H$_2$O) (space group P-1, lattice parameters from the literature are $a = 7.54$ Å, $b = 7.54$ Å, $c = 8.22$ Å, $\alpha = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 117.2^\circ$, $\gamma = 120^\circ$). In order to ascertain the correct indexing of the diffraction pattern, a simulated kinematic electron diffraction pattern of the [012] zone, produced using WebEMAPS$^{24}$ and the structural parameters provided from the literatures$^{22,23}$, is shown in Figure 2d. Two diffraction vectors, (100) and (-121), are denoted in Figures 2c and 2d to illustrate that the two patterns (experimental and simulated) match each other. The similar analysis for other zones such as [2–10] zone (Figure 2e,f), [310] zone (Figure S3b), [1–40] zone (Figure S3c) for the discharged nano-rod accurately indicates that the structure of discharge product is that of triclinic chalcophanite. The electron diffraction and chemical analysis of the discharged product (Figure S4) suggest that the α-MnO$_2$ nanorods underwent a structural phase transition during discharge to form Zn-birnessite, a triclinic chalcophanite-like layered structure. To further support this, Zn-birnessite was synthesized by ion exchange of Na-birnessite at 160°C, in an aqueous ZnSO$_4$ solution, (see Methods). Its XRD pattern was then compared to that of the discharge product, Figure 3a. The XRD pattern of the discharge product corresponded well to that of the Zn-birnessite. From these observations, it is concluded that the structure of the discharge product is most likely an analogue of mineral chalcophanite (\((\text{Zn, Mn})\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_7\cdot3\text{H}_2\text{O}) with P-1 space group$^{22,23}$). The structure of chalcophanite closely resembles that of layered Na-birnessite (Na$_4$Mn$_{14}$O$_{27}$·9H$_2$O), in which intercalated Zn$^{2+}$ ions sit above and below Mn vacancy sites within the layers and form octahedra by coordinating with three oxygen atoms from water molecules and three oxygen atoms from the Mn vacancy sites, below$^{22,23,25,26}$. In contrast to Na-birnessite, the chalcophanite structure is stable even in the absence of water and has been widely investigated to clarify the structure of the birnessite family. When the number of Zn ions intercalated into layers is not large, Zn ions accommodate tetrahedral coordination with three oxygen atoms, from Mn vacancy sites, and one from a water molecule$^{23,26}$. In chalcophanite, it is known that one in seven Mn sites in a layer is vacant. The space group of chalcophanite was initially thought to be P-1$^{22,23}$ but later, more detailed investigations have reassigned it to R-3$^{27}$. Both structures consist of stacked MnO$_6$ layers with interplanar distances of approximately 7 Å. However, the positions of the Zn ions, water molecules, and Mn vacancies within the layers are slightly different. In the present case, the electrochemically induced phase transition of α-MnO$_2$ to Zn-birnessite, and the persistence of K$^+$ ions from the α-MnO$_2$ phase within the Zn-birnessite layers may slightly distort the structure, making it triclinic. The triclinic version of chalcophanite may also be similar to flanshuite ((Mg, Mn)Mn$_3$O$_7$·9H$_2$O), which is a Mg-intercalated birnessite having in the P-1 space group$^{28}$. To further confirm the discharge product, we investigated the oxidation state of the manganese in the electrode by measuring Mn K-edge X-ray absorption spectra, shown in Figure 3b. At the Mn K-edge, the selection rule for electrical dipolar transitions \((\Delta l = \pm 1)\) requires that a 1s electron jump to an empty 4p orbital \((1s^44p^0 \rightarrow 1s^44p^1)\). The position of the absorption edge is affected by the oxidation state of the central absorbing atom$^{29,30}$. From Figure 3b, the oxidation state of the manganese in the discharged material is estimated to be nearly identical to that of the Zn-birnessite synthesized from Na-birnessite using the hydrothermal method. Therefore, Zn-birnessite is certainly the main discharge product remaining at the electrode.

**Intercalation mechanism of zinc ions into α-MnO$_2$.** From the above observations, the principal discharge product on the electrode is, unequivocally, triclinic Zn-birnessite. But, Mn K-edge absorption spectra, shown in Figure 3b, indicate that the average oxidation state of manganese for the discharged electrode increases, then remains almost unchanged upon further recharging, since the Mn K-edge moves to higher energies as oxidation state increases$^{29,30}$. However, it is not logical for the discharge product to have a higher manganese oxidation state than the original electrode. Therefore, it is reasonable to postulate that some manganese goes into the electrolyte in the form of Mn$^{2+}$ ions, leaving Mn vacancy sites in the electrode. This can occur as the manganese in α-MnO$_2$ is reduced from tetravalent to trivalent, upon electrochemical intercalation of zinc ions, and Mn$^{2+}$ disproportionates into Mn$^{3+}$ and Mn$^{4+}$ according to the following reactions.

\[
\text{Mn}^{4+}(s) + e^- \rightarrow \text{Mn}^{3+}(s) \quad (1)
\]

\[
2\text{Mn}^{3+}(s) \rightarrow \text{Mn}^{4+}(s) + \text{Mn}^{2+}(aq) \quad (2)
\]

The dissolved Mn$^{2+}$ ions accumulate in the electrolyte during discharge. Considering the fact that the solubility of Mn$^{2+}$ ions in water is typically high (for MnSO$_4$, 70 g per 100 mL of water at 7°C), this implies that the mass of the cathode decreases as discharge proceeds and that a substantial number of manganese ions have been dissolved into the electrolyte by the end of the discharge process. It is well known that Mn$^{3+}$ ions, having a high-spin d$^4$ \((t^2g^2e^2)\) electronic configuration in octahedral symmetry, are highly unstable, due to the Jahn-Teller effect, and susceptible to structural transformations$^{30-32}$. This structural instability often triggers a disproportionation reaction, resulting in the dissolution of some manganese and the destruction of the original structure of the host material. To confirm this, the amounts of Mn in the electrolyte at various stages of the charge/discharge cycle were evaluated by analyzing Mn/Zn ratios of the electrolyte, using atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS). As shown in Figure 3c, the amount of Mn increased as the discharge process proceeded, reaching a maximum at the end of the discharge process. Compared to the concentration of zinc ions in the electrolyte (1.0 mol/L), the amount of Mn, following discharge, corresponds to approximately 1/3 of the total manganese in the electrode (see Methods for the calculation). During charging, the Mn concentration of the electrolyte became negligibly small, which means that dissolved Mn$^{2+}$ ions returned to combine with Mn vacancy sites of the layered structure and were oxidized to become Mn$^{3+}$ and Mn$^{4+}$.

\[
\text{Mn}^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow \text{Mn}^{3+}(s) + 2e^- \quad (3)
\]

Therefore, the manganese in the electrode maintains a high oxidation state throughout the entire discharge-charge process, as observed in the Mn K-edge spectra presented in Figure 3b. It is surprising that almost 1/3 of the manganese of the original α-MnO$_2$ structure is dissolved during discharge to become Zn-birnessite, nevertheless it is fully recovered to form the original α-MnO$_2$ structure upon recharging. The α-MnO$_2$ has one-dimensional 2 $\times$ 2 and 1 $\times$ 1 tunnels, comprised of four identical cross-linking double chains of MnO$_6$ octahedra, that extend along the c-axis, the edges of which are connected by corner-sharing MnO$_6$ octahedra, as described in Figure 4. Conversely, Zn-birnessite has a layered structure with an interlayer spacing of approximately 7 Å, which is similar to the size of the tunnels of α-MnO$_2$ (Zn-birnessite with P-1 space group is shown in Figure 4). In fact, the crystal structure of Zn-birnessite would be closely related to that of α-MnO$_2$ if there were bridges connecting adjacent layers in Zn-birnessite. Therefore, noting the similarities of the crystal structures of α-MnO$_2$ and Zn-birnessite, it is reasonable to assume that during discharge the...
Figure 2 | Identification of the discharge product by analysis of selected area electron diffraction patterns. (a) Electron diffraction pattern of the original $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ nanorod, indexed to the [-110] zone of a tetragonal lattice with space group I4/m, (b) a bright field TEM image of the discharged nanorod, (c) its corresponding electron diffraction pattern, indexed to the [012] zone of a triclinic lattice with space group P-1, and (d) a simulated kinematic electron diffraction pattern of the [012] zone produced using WebEMAPS$^4$ and the structural parameters provided in the main text, while (e) and (f) represent those patterns indexed to the [2–10] zone.
MnO$_6$ units of two opposite chains of $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ undergo destructive dissolution and that Mn vacancies form in the upper and underlying layers. Furthermore, during recharging, Mn $^{2+}$ ions intercalate back into the layers and start to form bridges between layers. Transformations of a phyllomanganate such as layered birnessite to other structurally-related polymorphs of MnO$_2$, like buserite and todorokite, have been well documented and typically involve hydrothermal processes at elevated temperatures. It has been reported that chalcophanite also can be prepared from Na-birnessite by ion exchange. However, an electrochemically triggered reversible transformation between these polymorphs has not yet been reported, to the best of our knowledge. To investigate if Zn-birnessite can be prepared by chemical means from $\alpha$-MnO$_2$, 1.0 M ZnSO$_4$ solutions (the same composition as the electrolyte) containing $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ were hydrothermally treated at 160°C for various durations. The results presented in Figure 3d show that the Zn-birnessite phase grows slowly from $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ as the reaction proceeds. Therefore, the structure of Zn-birnessite is closely related to that of $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ and the formation of Zn-birnessite by zinc ion intercalation into $\alpha$-MnO$_2$, and the accompanying Mn dissolution and vacancy formation, is a thermodynamically favorable process.

**Discussion**

Since a lot of manganese from the cathode is dissolved into the electrolyte during discharge, it was important to determine if the dissolved Mn$^{2+}$ ions caused parasitic reactions and to confirm that they returned to the cathode to take part in the charging reaction. For instance, Mn$^{2+}$ ions may be deposited on the anode instead of returning to the cathode during charging, which could give rise to significant capacity fading. However, compositional analysis on the anodes after the 1st and the 10th charge showed no manganese was deposited on the surface (Figure S5). Since the standard electrode potential for the electro-reduction of manganese, Mn$^{2+} + 2e^- \rightarrow$ Mn$^0$, $E^0 = -1.185$ V (vs. NHE), is much lower than that for zinc, Zn$^{2+} + 2e^- \rightarrow$ Zn$^0$, $E^0 = -0.763$ V (vs. NHE) or hydrogen evolution, 2H$^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow$ H$_2$, $E^0 = -0.237$ V (vs. NHE, at pH = 4), it is unlikely that any meaningful amount of manganese is deposited on the zinc anode. The anodic potential sweep curves for the $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ electrode with and without a prior discharge in Figure 5a shows bulky electrolyte decomposition occurs only at those potentials above 2.0 V vs. Zn/ Zn$^{2+}$. Therefore, charging reaction can be best explained by the layered to tunneled transition of MnO$_2$. To further confirm that manganese ions dissolved in the electrolyte participate in the elec-

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**Figure 3** Characterization of the discharge product. (a) Comparison of X-ray diffraction patterns of i) as-prepared $\alpha$-MnO$_2$, ii) hydrothermally prepared Zn-birnessite, and iii) a fully discharged electrode. (b) Mn K-edge X-ray absorption spectra for as-prepared $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ and electrodes at various discharge and charge stages, as indicated in Figure 1a. (b) also include reference spectra for Mn$_2$O$_3$, LiMn$_2$O$_4$, and Zn-birnessite. (c) Mn/Zn mol ratio in the electrolyte (red square), measured by AAS during electrochemical cycling, and the discharge-charge profile (black). (d) X-ray diffraction patterns of i) as-prepared $\alpha$-MnO$_2$, and the product prepared by hydrothermally-treating $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ for ii) 24 h and iii) 72 h.
The chemical reaction during the charge process, a cell containing $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ cathode was first discharged and then dismantled to recover the discharged cathode. The cathode was washed with deionized water and was placed in the fresh coin cell with a fresh electrolyte. Then, the cell was subject to charging process. As it was clear in Figure 5b, the cell could hardly be charged, implying that manganese ions, indeed, diffused back to the cathode to join in the electrochemical reaction for the formation of $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ during charge process. Figure S6 shows charge-discharge profiles at the 1st, the 5th, and the 10th cycles and XRD patterns of fully-discharged and fully-charged electrodes at those cycles. They shows that while Zn-birnessite and $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ still forms at later cycles after discharge and charge process, respectively, amorphous phase grows as cycle proceeds. An excessive structural stress developed by the repeated phase transitions probably caused the gradual destruction of the original structure and the conversion to amorphous phase. The discharge-charge profiles at the various current densities were shown in Figure S7. It shows a discharge capacity of 120 mAh g$^{-1}$ at 1 C rate, which is about 60% of that at C/10. Interestingly, the increase in the overpotential at the high current rates for the discharge process was much larger than that for the charge. This is probably due to the fact that zinc ions intercalates into one-dimensional narrow 2 $\times$ 2 tunnels and Jahn-Teller cation, Mn$^{3+}$, is formed during discharge process, whereas two dimensional channels in the layered Zn-birnessite facilitate the fast diffusion of zinc and manganese ions during charge process.

In conclusion, we have reported the intercalation mechanism of zinc ions into $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ during the discharging and charging in Zn-ion batteries. The mechanism involves a reversible phase transition between tunneled ($\alpha$-MnO$_2$) and layered (Zn-birnessite) MnO$_2$ polymorphs which is induced by electrochemical reactions at the cathode. The formation of unstable Mn$^{3+}$ on the wall of $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ triggers the dissolution of manganese into the electrolyte during discharge. However, manganese ions are reversibly inserted into the layers of Zn-birnessite during charging. Research into other types of tunneled MnO$_2$, such as todorokite and Na$_{0.44}$MnO$_2$, is currently being conducted, the results of which will be reported in our later communications.

**Methods**

Preparation of $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ nano-rod. Crystalline $\alpha$-MnO$_2$ nano-rods were synthesized by a previously reported hydrothermal method$^{19}$. Briefly, KMnO$_4$ (0.1264 g) and NH$_4$Cl (0.0428 g) were mixed together with distilled water (40 mL) until completely dissolved. The solution was then poured into a Teflon-lined container and subjected to heat-treatment at 140°C for 24 h. Next, the product was filtered and washed with plenty of distilled water. Finally, the filtered powder was dried in a vacuum oven at 80°C for 24 h.
Preparation of Zn-birnessite from Na-birnessite. For the synthesis of Na-birnessite, a 1.0 M MnSO₄·H₂O solution (20 mL) was mixed with a 6.0 M NaOH solution (30 mL), to which a mixture of (NH₄)₂SO₄ (3.2 g) and MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.7 g) were slowly added and stirred for 2 h. After filtering, Na-birnessite was dispersed in a 1.0 M ZnSO₄ solution (300 mL) and stirred for 24 h. Finally, Zn-birnessite was obtained by pouring the slurry into a hydrothermal reactor and heat-treating at 160°C for 24 h. After it cooled down, the product was washed thoroughly with plenty of distilled water and dried in a vacuum oven overnight at 80°C.

Preparation of Zn-birnessite from α-MnO₂. The α-MnO₂ nanorods were dispersed in a 1.0 M ZnSO₄ solution (300 mL) and stirred for 24 h. Then the whole mixture was poured into a hydrothermal reactor and heat-treated at 160°C for the desired duration (24 h and 72 h). After cooling, the product was washed thoroughly with plenty of distilled water and dried in a vacuum oven overnight at 80°C.

Electrochemical measurements. For the preparation of the cathode, synthetic α-MnO₂ powder (70 mg) and carbon black (10 mg) were mixed together with a spatula. Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVdF) binder (20 mg) was then added and the whole mixture was ball-milled in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP). The α-MnO₂ slurry was cast onto stainless steel foil (25 μm thickness) at a loading of approximately 5.0 mg cm⁻². The slurry was cast onto stainless steel foil (25 μm thickness), a glass wool separator, and a 1.0 M aqueous zinc sulfate (ZnSO₄) electrolyte. The cell test was carried out with a MACCOR cycler between 0.7–2.0 V at a C/20 rate for the initial 2 cycles, then at a C/5 rate for the remaining cycles (1 C = 210 mA g⁻¹ of α-MnO₂). The performance at various current rates was investigated similarly by cycling at C/20 for the initial 2 cycles, then at the desired current rates (C/10, C/5, C/2, C/1) for 5 cycles.

Characterization. The crystallographic structures were measured by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) using Cu-Kα radiation (λ = 1.5405 Å, Rigaku D/MAX-2500/PC). The morphology of the α-MnO₂ electrodes was observed by high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM, FEI Tecnai G2 operating at 210 kV) and field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Hitachi S-4000). Mn K-edge X-ray absorption spectra were measured in transmission mode at the 10D1 beamline of the Pohang Accelerator Laboratory. Absorption was recorded from 6535–6565 eV at intervals of 0.5 eV. The amount of Zn and Mn dissolved in the ZnSO₄ electrolyte was measured by atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS, Thermo Electron Corporation, SOLAAR M). The cathode containing α-MnO₂ was cycled to the desired state of discharge or charge as indicated in Figure 5c. Then, the cell was taken apart from which a separator containing the electrolyte was recovered. Then, the separator was put into the glass bottle containing deionized water (5.0 mL) and stored for 1 day before AAS analysis.

Calculation of the amount of Mn dissolved during discharge and charge. The amount of electrolyte used for each cell was approximately 85 μL. The molar concentration ratio of Mn in the electrolyte of the discharged cell, as determined by high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM, FEI Tecnai G2 operating at 200 kV) and field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, Hitachi S-4000). Mn K-edge X-ray absorption spectra were measured in transmission mode at the 10D1 beamline of the Pohang Accelerator Laboratory. Absorption was recorded from 6535–6565 eV at intervals of 0.5 eV. The amount of Zn and Mn dissolved in the ZnSO₄ electrolyte was measured by atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS, Thermo Electron Corporation, SOLAAR M). The cathode containing α-MnO₂ was cycled to the desired state of discharge or charge as indicated in Figure 5c. Then, the cell was taken apart from which a separator containing the electrolyte was recovered. Then, the separator was put into the glass bottle containing deionized water (5.0 mL) and stored for 1 day before AAS analysis.

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