

Principles and practices of electrochemical impedance

Jun Huang

Institute of Theoretical Chemistry, Ulm University

Outline of the whole course

Lecture 1: mathematical and physical basis

Lecture 2: principles and practices

Lecture 3: electrochemical interfaces

Lecture 4: porous electrodes

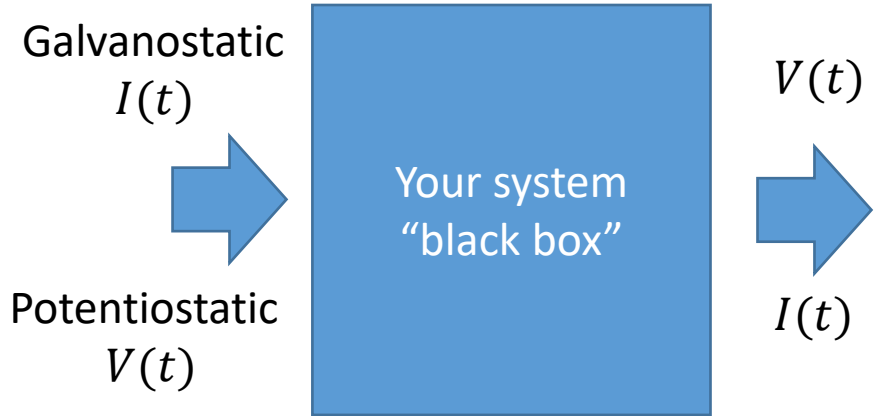
Lecture 5: model implementation in Matlab – interfaces

Lecture 6: model implementation in Matlab – porous electrodes

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

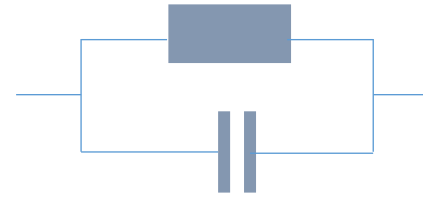
What is EIS?



Definition

$$Z(\omega) = \frac{\mathcal{F}(V(t))}{\mathcal{F}(I(t))}$$

\mathcal{F} represents Fourier transform



Time domain,

$$I(t) = \frac{V(t)}{R} + C \frac{dV(t)}{dt}$$

Applying Fourier transform

$$\mathcal{F}(I(t)) = \frac{\mathcal{F}(V(t))}{R} + C\mathcal{F}\left(\frac{dV(t)}{dt}\right)$$

$$\mathcal{F}(I(t)) = \frac{\mathcal{F}(V(t))}{R} + j\omega C\mathcal{F}(V(t))$$

Differential eq.

↓ Fourier transform

Algebra eq.

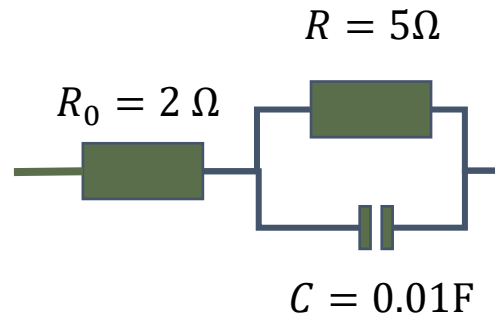
$$f^{(n)} \rightarrow (j\omega)^n F(f)$$

Frequency domain

$$Z(\omega) = \frac{\mathcal{F}(V(t))}{\mathcal{F}(I(t))} = \frac{R}{1 + j\omega RC}$$

$\tau = RC$, the time constant of this circuit

Representation of EIS



$$Z(\omega) = R_0 + \frac{R}{1 + j\omega RC}$$

$$Z(\omega) = R_0 + \frac{R}{1 + \omega R^2 C^2} - j \frac{\omega R^2 C}{1 + \omega R^2 C^2}$$

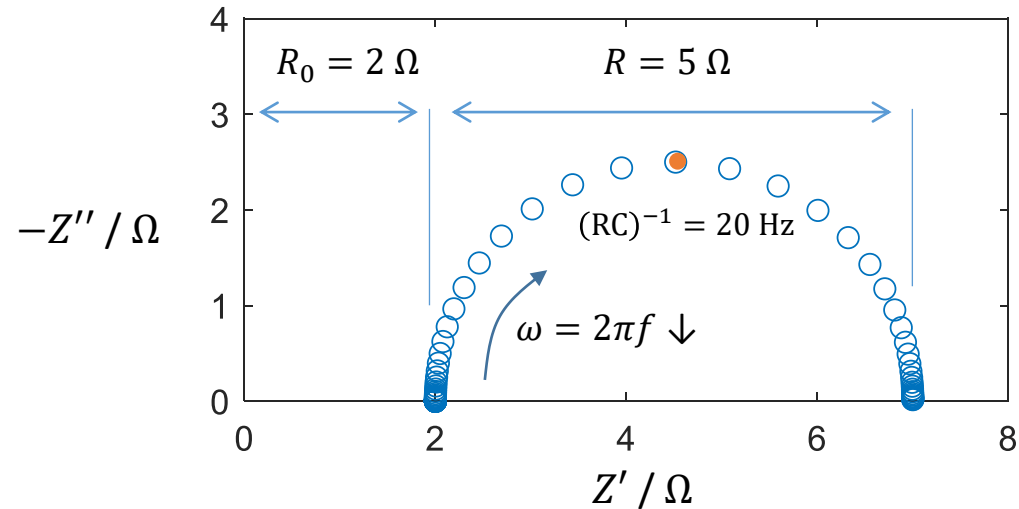
The real part of impedance

$$Z'(\omega) = R_0 + R \frac{1}{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}$$

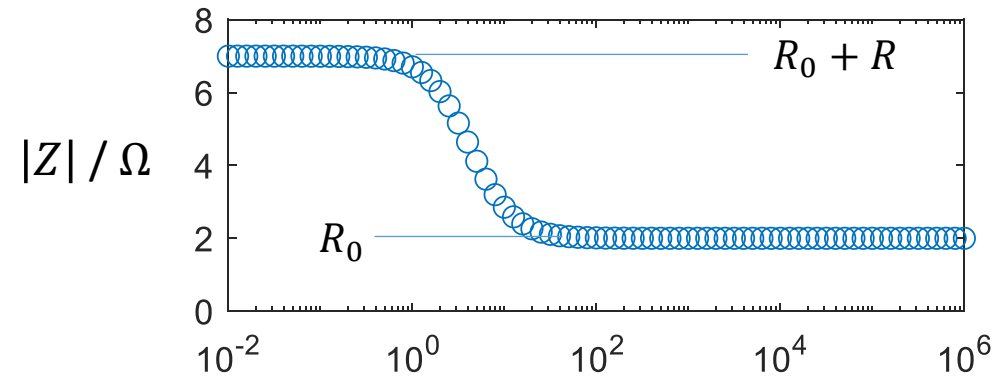
The imaginary part of impedance

$$Z''(\omega) = -R \frac{\omega\tau}{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}$$

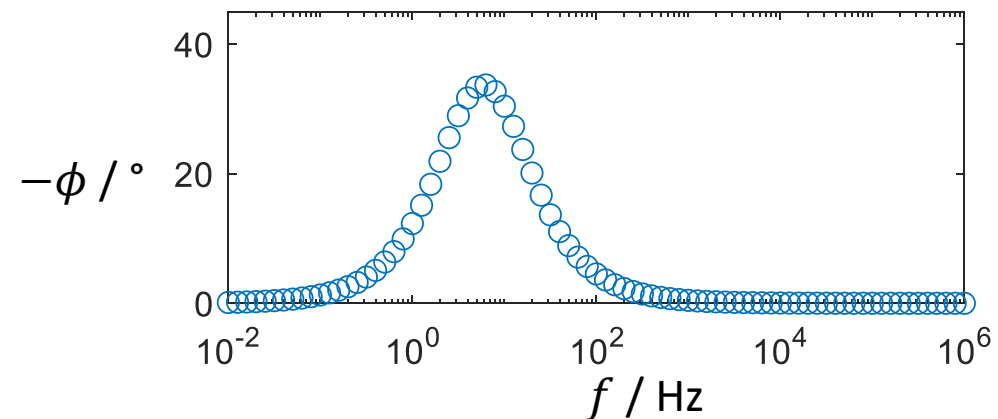
$\tau = RC$ is the time constant



Nyquist plot



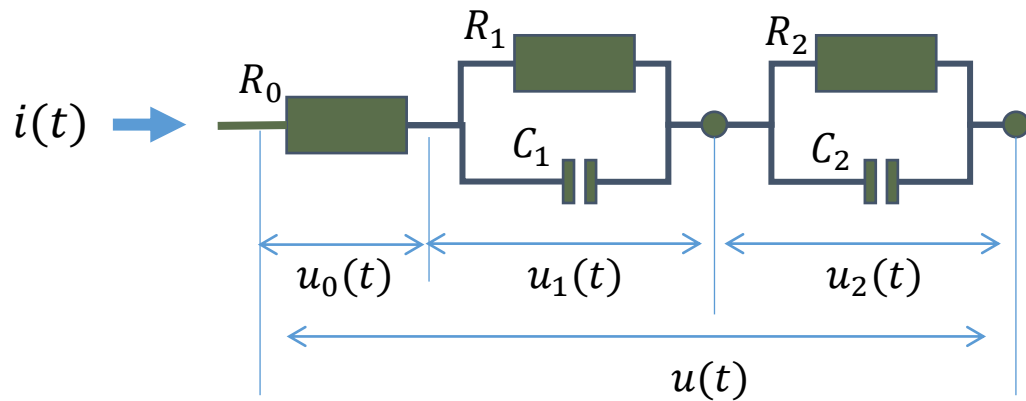
Bode plots



Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

Why do we need EIS? A new look at this question using a simple electric circuit model.



$$u(t) = u_0 + u_1 + u_2 \text{ and}$$

$$i(t) = \frac{u_0}{R_0} = \frac{u_1}{R_1} + C_1 \frac{du_1}{dt} = \frac{u_2}{R_2} + C_2 \frac{du_2}{dt} \rightarrow$$

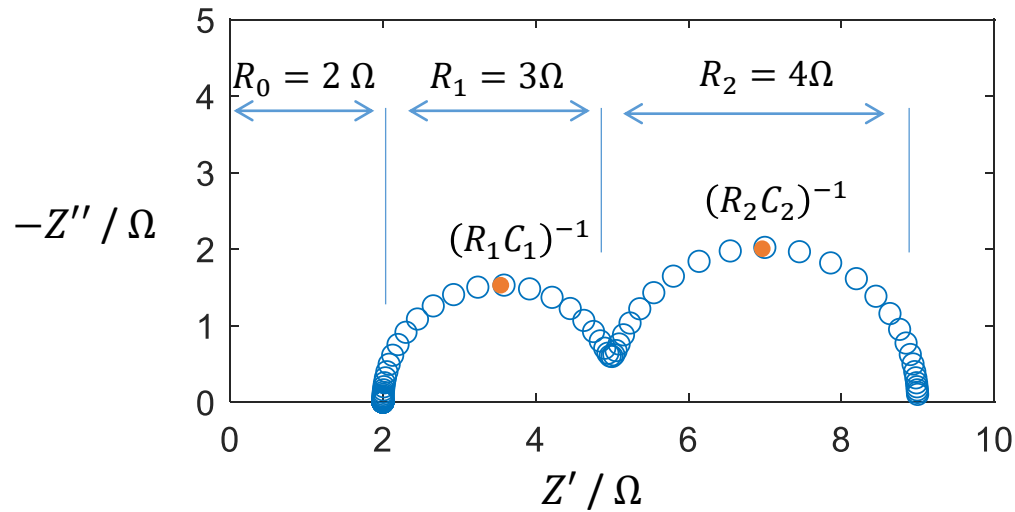
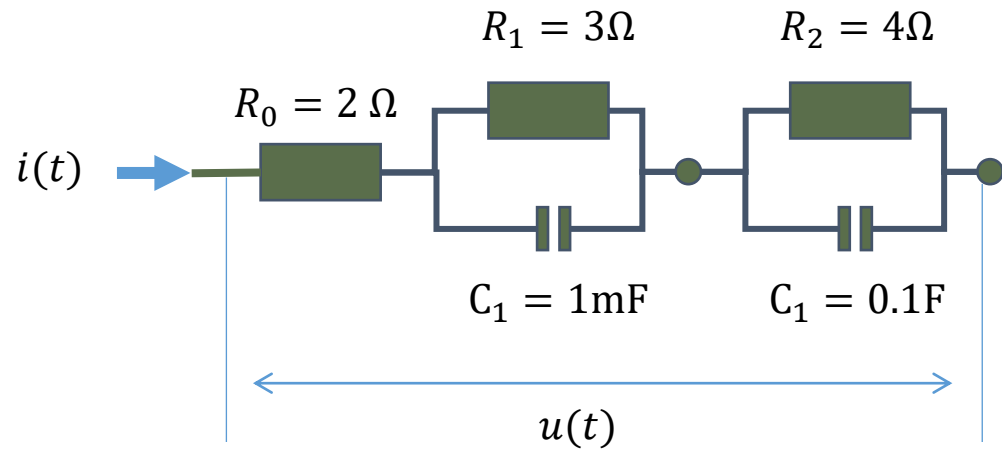
$$u_2 = u - R_0 \left(\frac{u_1}{R_1} + C_1 \frac{du_1}{dt} \right) - u_1 = u - \frac{R_0 + R_1}{R_1} u_1 - R_0 C_1 \frac{du_1}{dt} \rightarrow$$

$$\left(\frac{R_0 + R_1 + R_2}{R_1 R_2} \right) u_1 + \left(C_1 + C_2 \frac{R_0 + R_1}{R_1} \right) \frac{du_1}{dt} + R_0 C_1 C_2 \frac{d^2 u_1}{dt^2} = \frac{u}{R_2} + C_2 \frac{du}{dt},$$

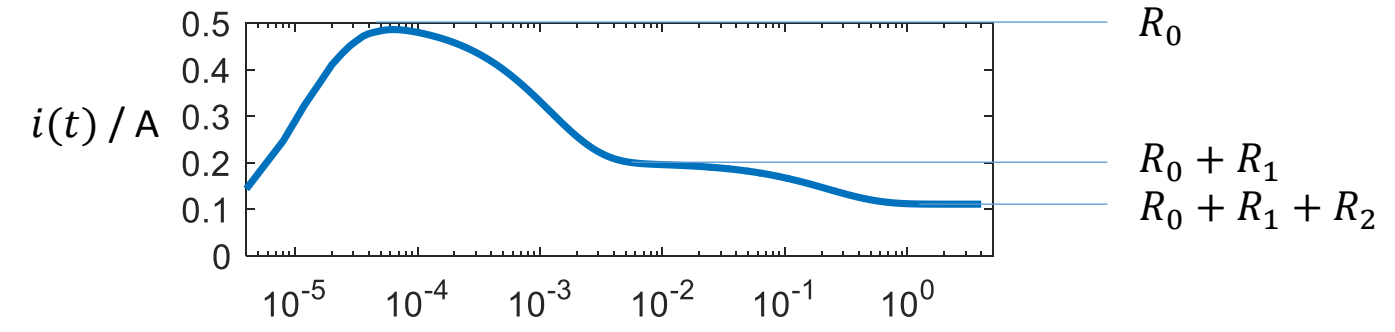
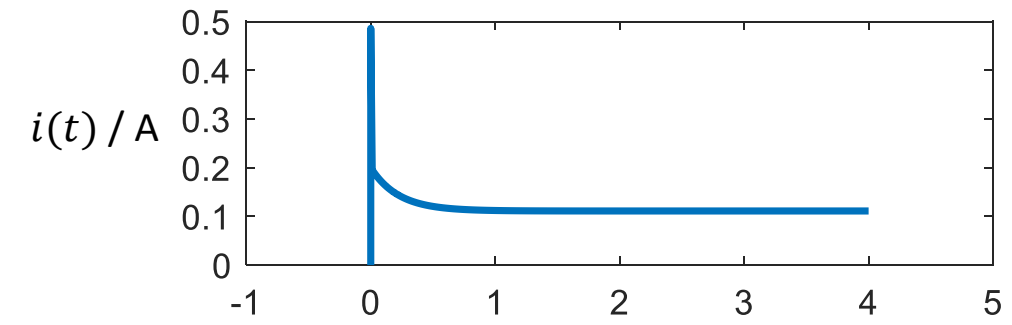
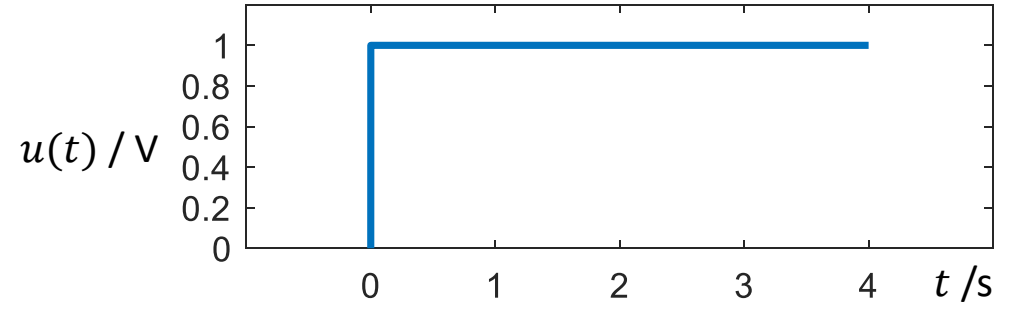
which is a 2nd order ODE.

Boundary conditions ($u_1 = 0, \frac{du_1}{dt} = 0$) @ $t=0$.

Why do we need EIS?



$$u(t) = 1 - \exp(-at), \alpha = 8.2 \times 10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$$



Advantages of EIS: Increased sensitivity and reliability

High S/N ratio

Improves information content and frequency range by repeated sampling

Wide frequency range

Better decoupling of physical phenomena

Self-consistency check

Takes advantage of relationship between real and imaginary impedance to check consistency

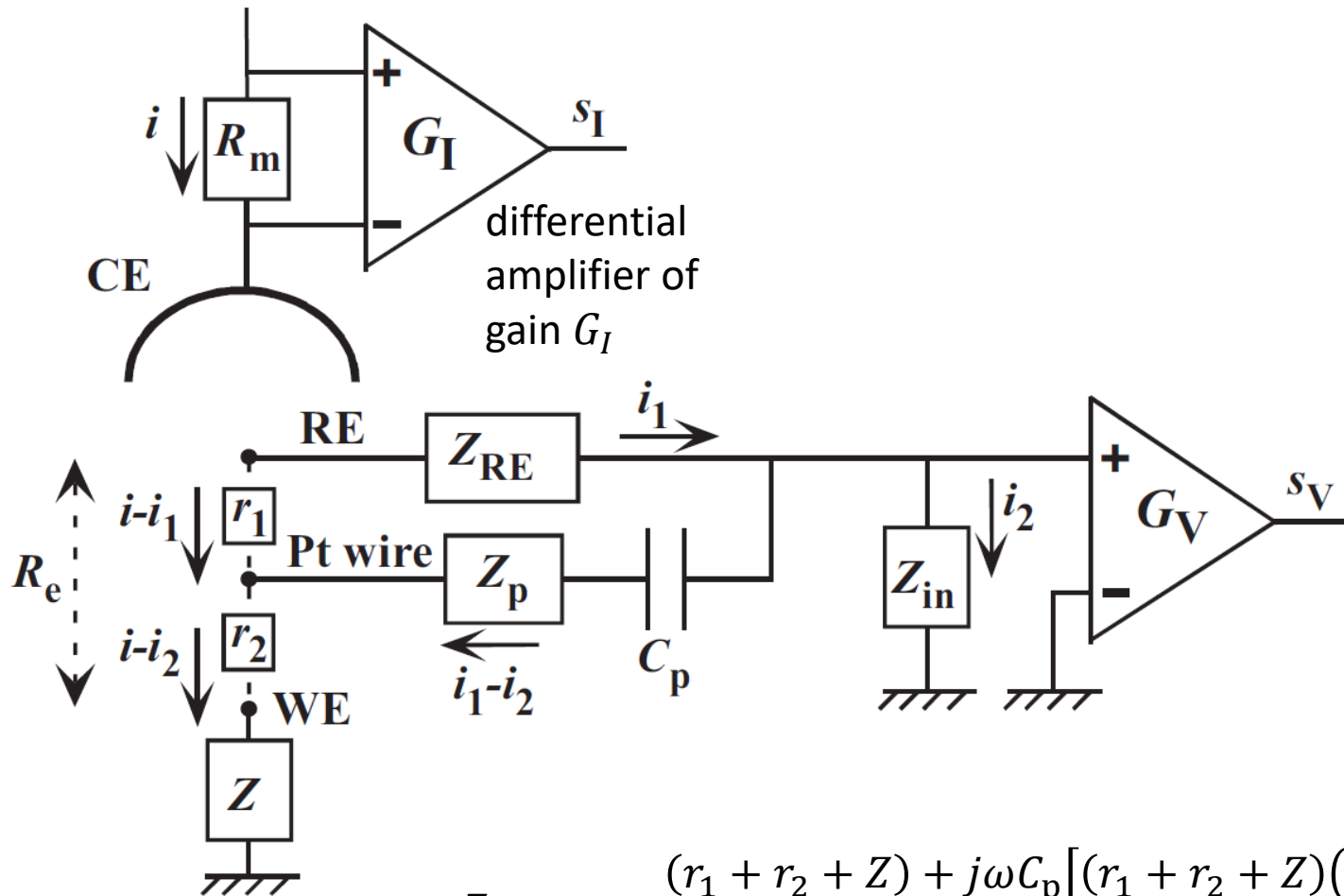
Easy to implement and process

Modern hardware and software

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

A holistic model of the measurement setup



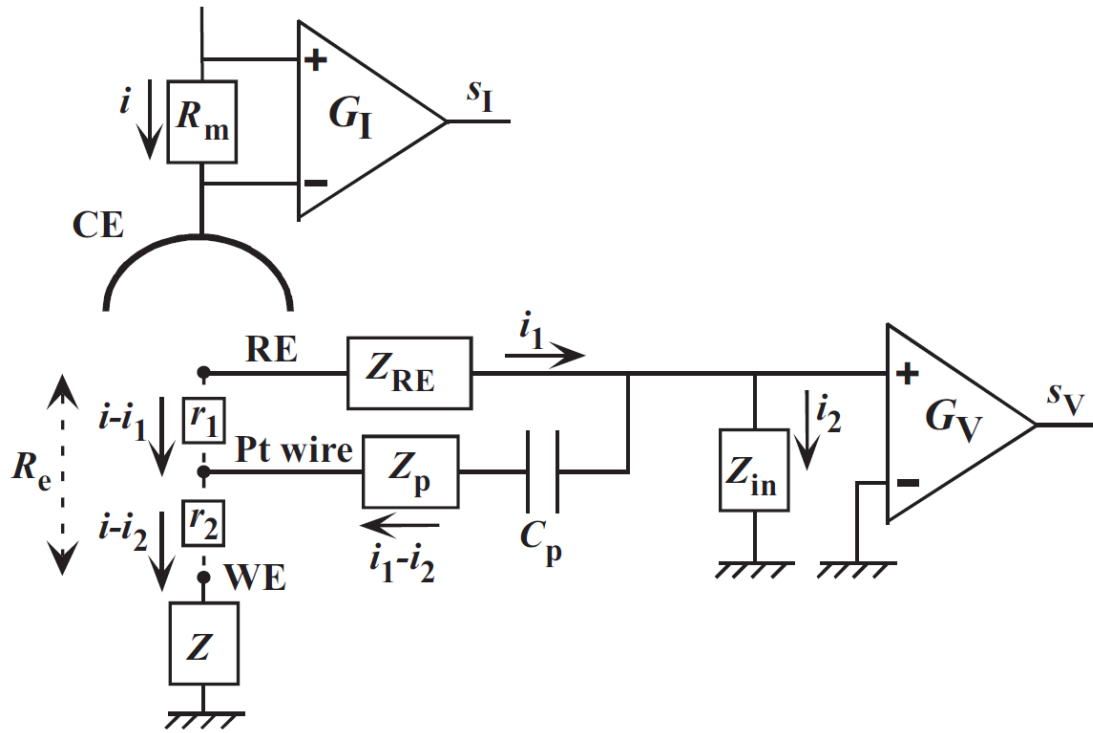
Z_{in} : input impedance of the amplifier and the impedance of the cable connected to the RE.

$$Z_{in} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_{in}} + j\omega C_{in}} \approx \frac{1}{j\omega C_{in}}, R_{in} \gg 10^{12} \Omega$$

C_{in} is the sum of the input capacitance of the amplifier and of the RE cable capacitance, which has to be taken into account especially when a grounded coaxial cable is used to minimize interference of the mains.

$$Z_{meas} = \frac{(r_1 + r_2 + Z) + j\omega C_p [(r_1 + r_2 + Z)(r_1 + Z_{RE} + Z_p) - r_1(r_1 + Z_{RE})]}{\left(1 + \frac{(r_2 + Z)}{Z_{in}}\right) \left(1 + j\omega C_p (r_1 + Z_{RE} + Z_p)\right) + \frac{(r_1 + Z_{RE})}{Z_{in}} (1 + j\omega C_p Z_p)}$$

A holistic model of the measurement setup



Single reference electrode ($C_p = 0, r_1 = 0$)

$$Z_{\text{meas}} = \frac{(r_2 + Z)Z_{\text{in}}}{r_2 + Z + Z_{\text{RE}} + Z_{\text{in}}}$$

If $Z_{\text{in}} = \frac{1}{j\omega C_{\text{in}}}$, we have

$$Z_{\text{meas}} = \frac{r_2 + Z}{1 + j\omega C_{\text{in}}(r_2 + Z + Z_{\text{RE}})}$$

If we assume, $Z_{\text{RE}} \gg r_2 + Z$, we have

$$Z_{\text{meas}} = \frac{r_2 + Z}{1 + j\omega C_{\text{in}}Z_{\text{RE}}}$$

This means that the RE resistance and the stray capacitance results in an extra semicircle, usually in the high frequency range.

At very low frequency, $Z_{\text{meas}} = r_2 + Z$, as we expect.

The full model

$$Z_{\text{meas}} = \frac{(r_1 + r_2 + Z) + j\omega C_p [(r_1 + r_2 + Z)(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}} + Z_p) - r_1(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}})]}{\left(1 + \frac{(r_2 + Z)}{Z_{\text{in}}}\right) \left(1 + j\omega C_p (r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}} + Z_p)\right) + \frac{(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}})}{Z_{\text{in}}} (1 + j\omega C_p Z_p)}$$

The influence of a dual RE

$$Z_{\text{meas}} = \frac{(r_1 + r_2 + Z) + j\omega C_p[(r_1 + r_2 + Z)(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}} + Z_p) - r_1(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}})]}{\left(1 + \frac{(r_2 + Z)}{Z_{\text{in}}}\right) \left(1 + j\omega C_p(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}} + Z_p)\right) + \frac{(r_1 + Z_{\text{RE}})}{Z_{\text{in}}} (1 + j\omega C_p Z_p)}$$

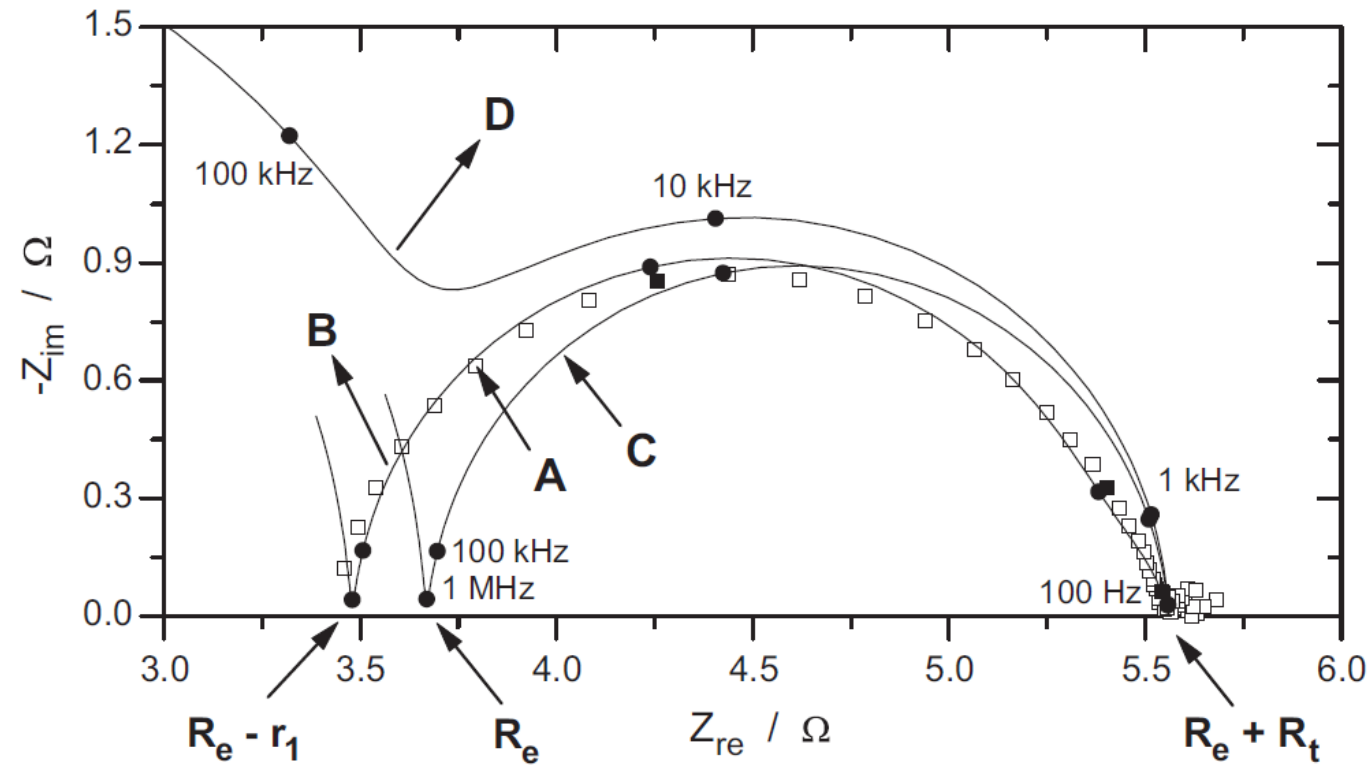
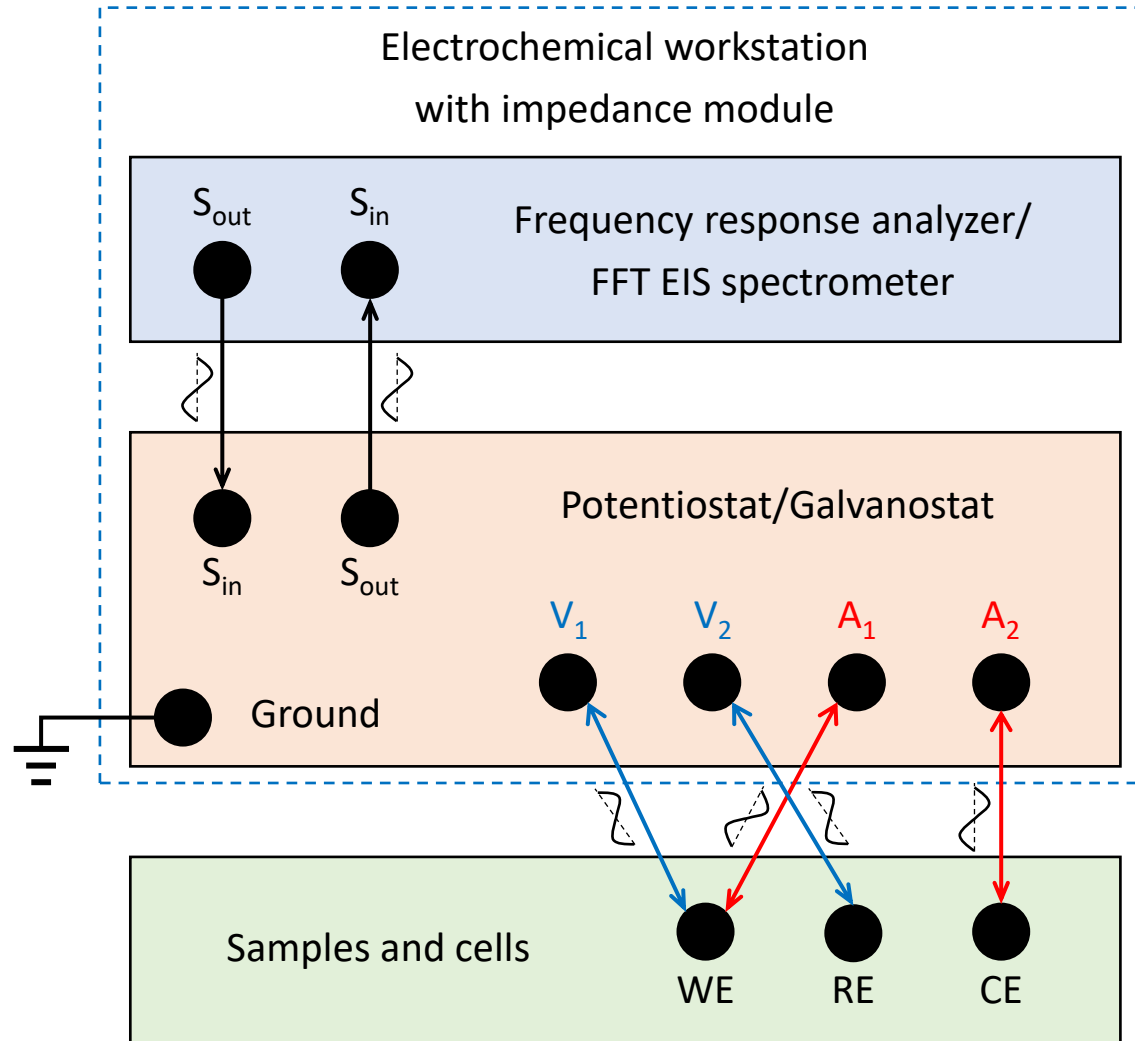


Fig. 5. EIS Nyquist diagrams of H_2 evolution on a Pt disk electrode in 1 M H_2SO_4 under current control (-100 mA/cm^2): (A) measured with a dual RE ($C_p = 0.47 \mu\text{F}$), (B) fitted from Eq. (11) and $R_e = 3.69 \Omega$, $R_{t1} = 1.87 \Omega$, $\alpha_1 = 0.969$, $Q_1 = 14.8 \mu\text{F s}^{\alpha_1-1}$, $r_1 = 0.19 \Omega$, (C) simulated with Eq. (11) with the same parameters except $r_1 = 0$, and (D) simulated with Eq. (11) with the same parameters and no Pt wire ($C_p = 0$, $r_1 = 0$).

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

Setup of EIS measurement: overview



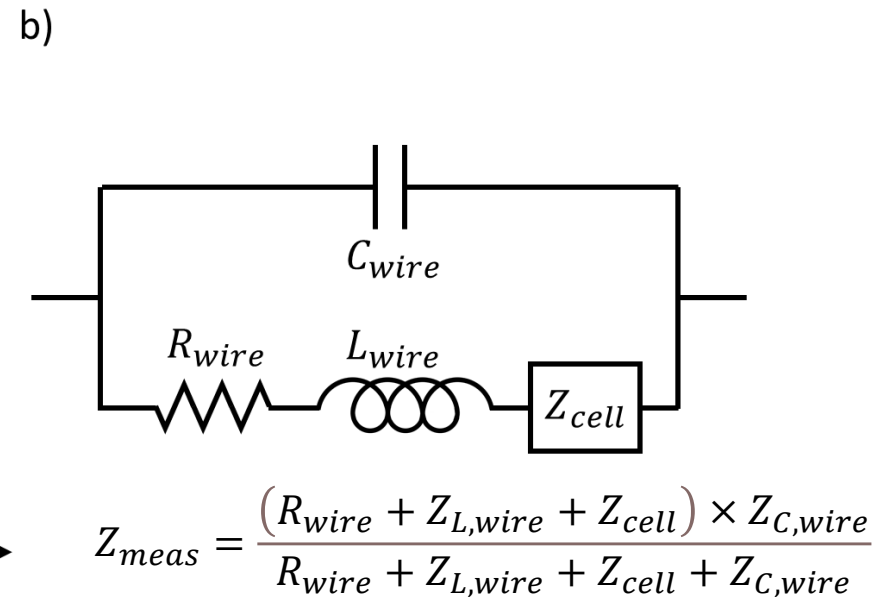
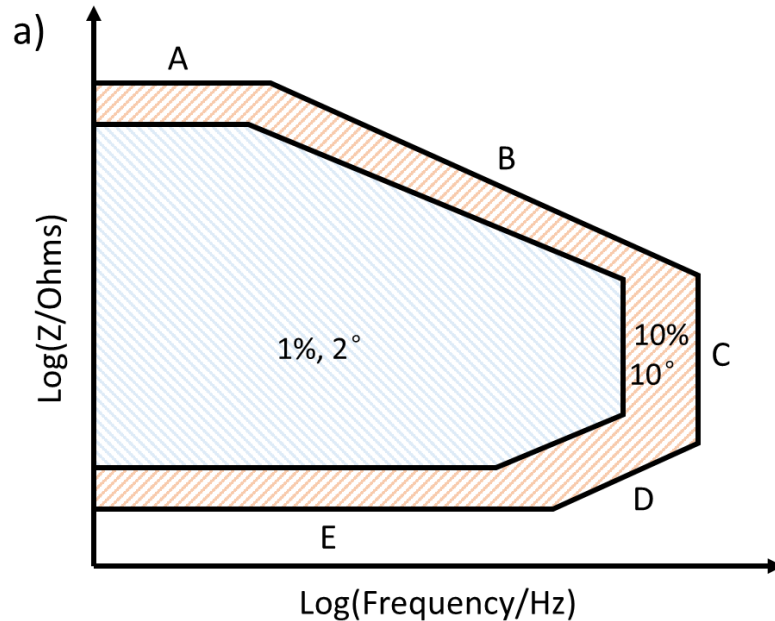
A recent tutorial on EIS measurement and data analysis

Wang, S., Zhang, J., Gharbi, O. et al.
Nat Rev Methods Primers 1, 41 (2021)

Lift the lid on potentiostat

Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys., Alex W. Colburn, Katherine J. Levey, Danny O'Hare and Julie V. Macpherson
2021,23, 8100-8117

Instrumentation: accuracy contour map



- Limit A: the maximum measurable impedance, limited by current accuracy
- Limit C: the maximum measurable frequency, related to the bandwidth of the instrument.
- Limit E: the lowest measurable impedance, limited by current range
- Limit B: the capacitive limit, related to the stray capacitor
- Limit D: the inductive limit, related to the stray inductor

An example of accuracy contour map

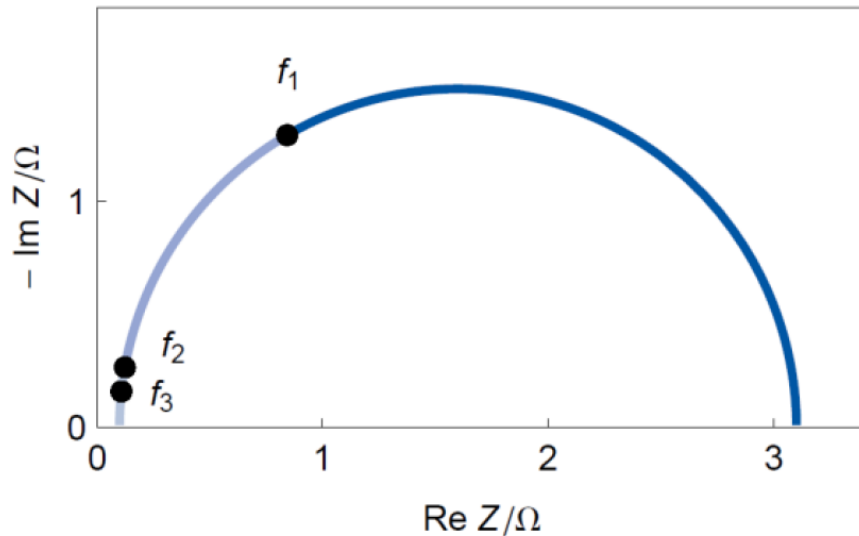
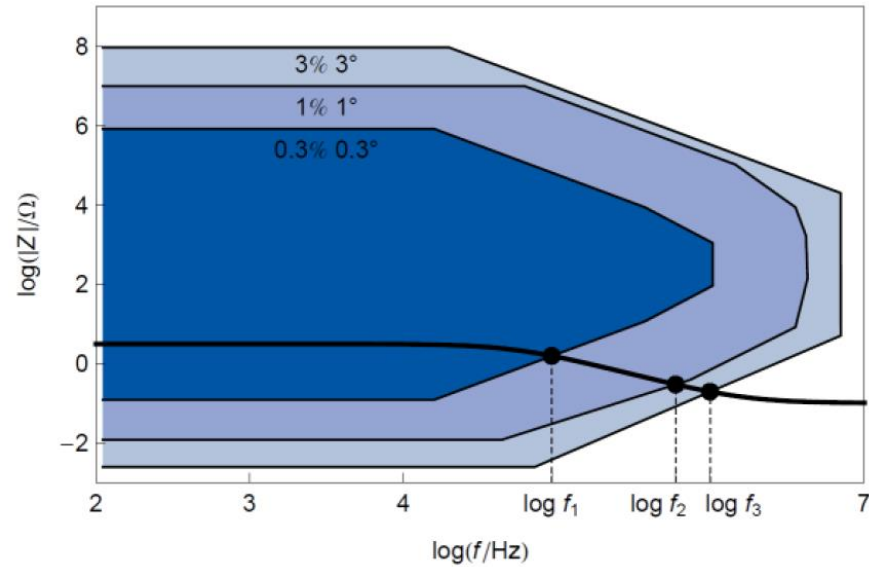


Table I: Impedance measurement accuracy as a function of the frequency. $R_1 = 0.1 \Omega$, $R_2 = 3 \Omega$ and $C_2 = 10^{-6} \text{ F}$.

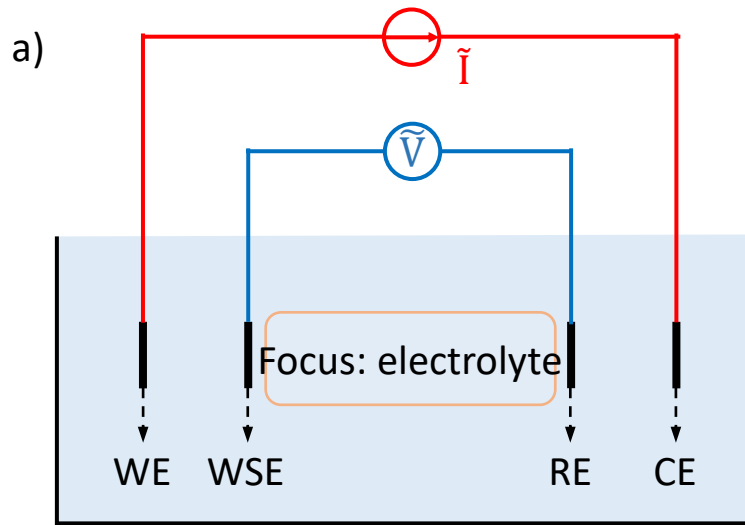
Frequency	Impedance modulus	Impedance phase
$f < f_1$	$\Delta Z / Z < 0.3 \%$	$\phi_Z < 0.3^\circ$
$f_1 < f < f_2$	$0.3 \% < \Delta Z / Z < 1 \%$	$0.3^\circ < \Delta\phi_Z < 1^\circ$
$f_2 < f < f_3$	$1 \% < \Delta Z / Z < 3 \%$	$1^\circ < \Delta\phi_Z / ^\circ < 3^\circ$
$f > f_4$	$\Delta Z / Z > 3 \%$	$\phi_Z > 3^\circ$

<https://www.biologic.net/documents/eis-contour-plot-electrochemistry-application-note-54/>

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

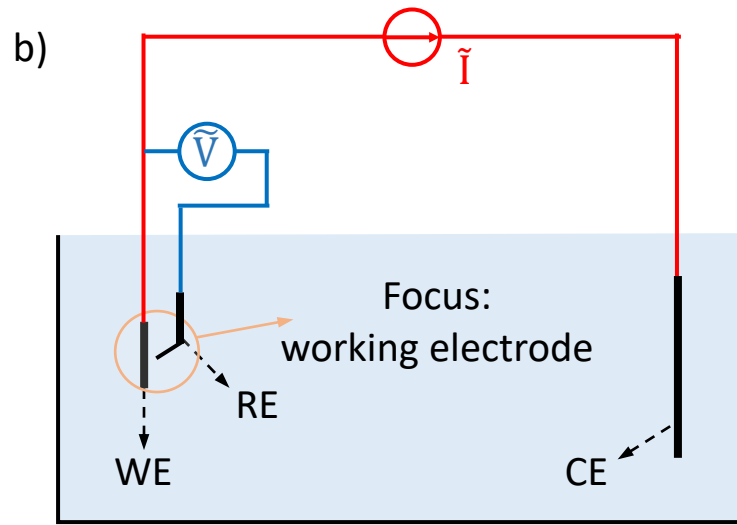
Setup of EIS measurement: test samples and cells



Four-electrode setup

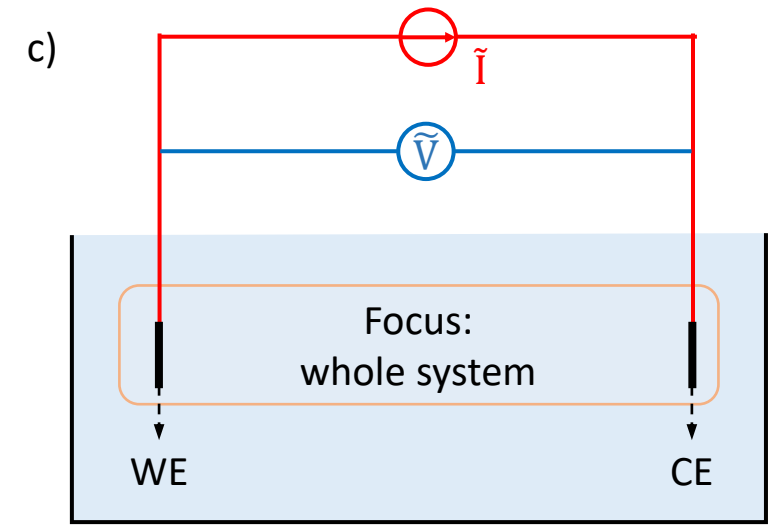
characterization of

- electrolyte conductivity
- a free-standing film
- embedded rebar in concrete
- the interface between two immiscible electrolyte solutions.



Three-electrode setup

- enables study of the working electrode response independent of the processes taking place at the counter-electrode
- sometimes, dual REs are needed.



Two-electrode setup

- when it is inconvenient to introduce a reference electrode (like LIB),
- when different electrodes have distinct signature,
- when the impedance of one electrode is negligibly small (like anode in PEFC fuel cell under pure H₂ supply, or an electrode with much larger size).

Basics of a potentiostat

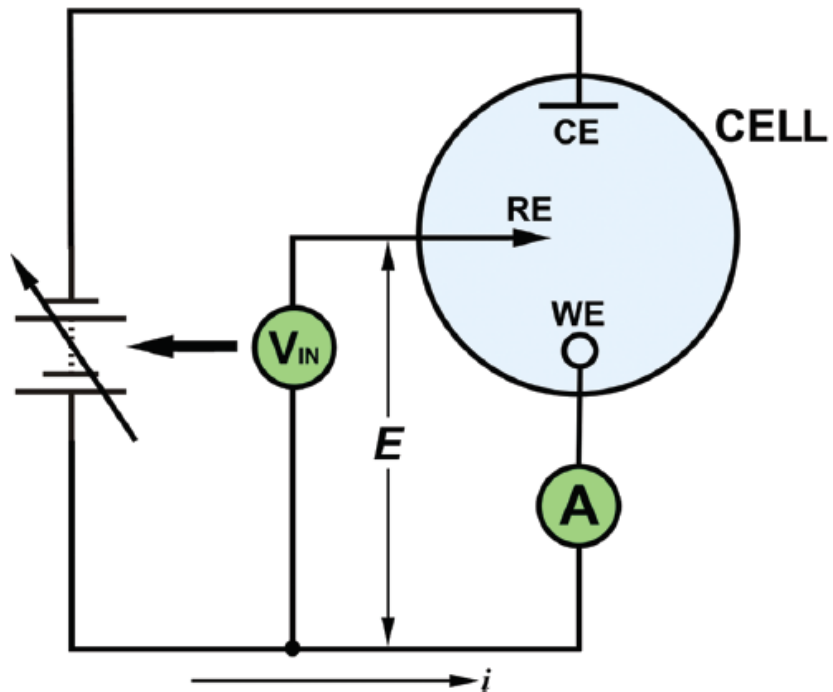
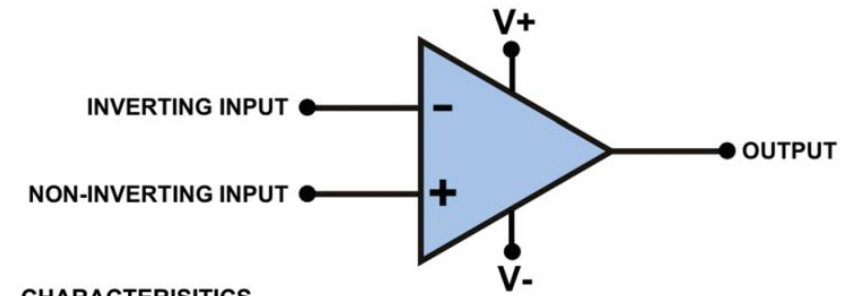
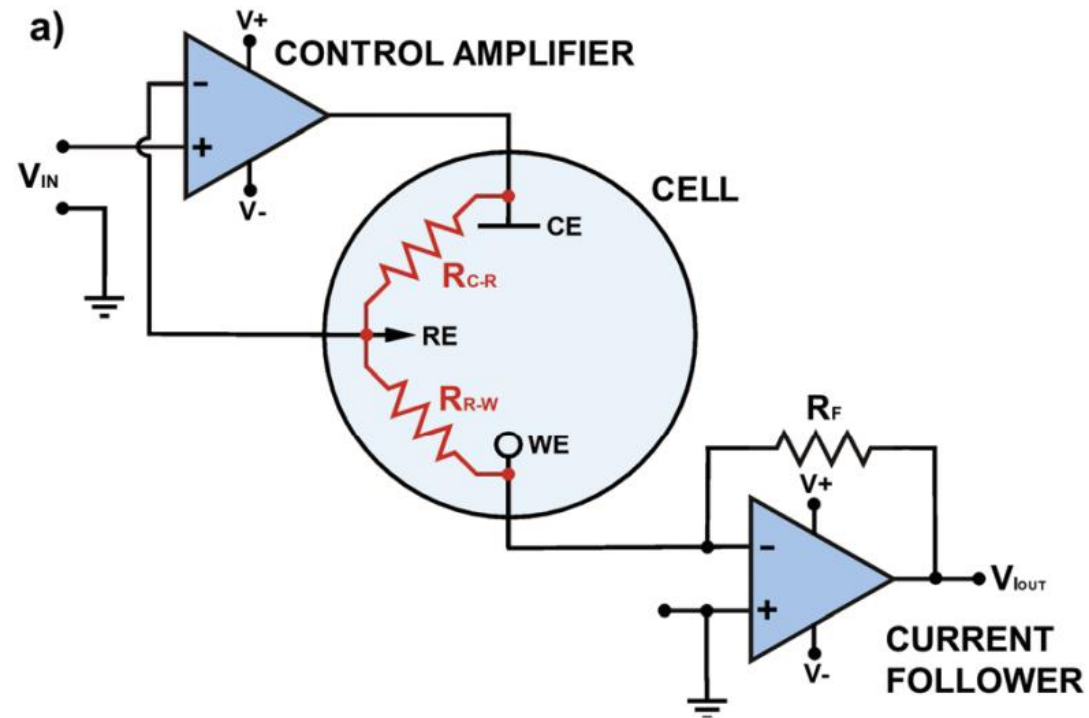


Fig. 1 Schematic of a typical three electrode electrochemical set-up with the appropriate symbols used for WE (O), RE (arrow) and CE (⊥) Current flows between CE and WE whilst E is controlled between WE and RE.



CHARACTERISTICS

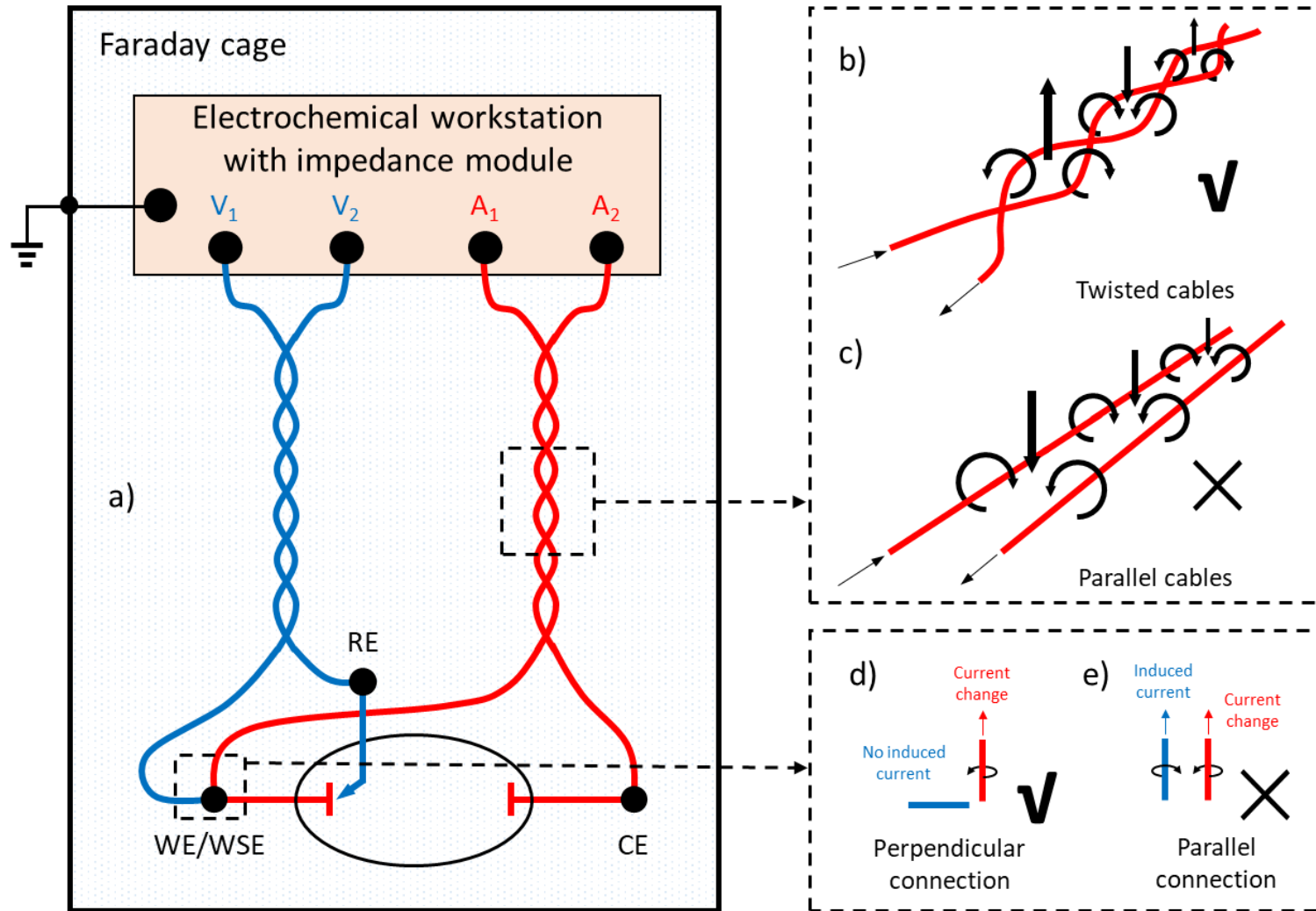
- Two very high resistance voltage inputs $> 10^{12} \Omega$
- One very low resistance voltage output $< 100 \Omega$
- Very high amplification gain – typically 10^6



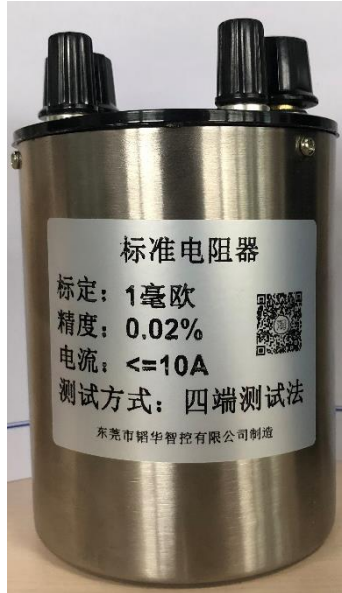
Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

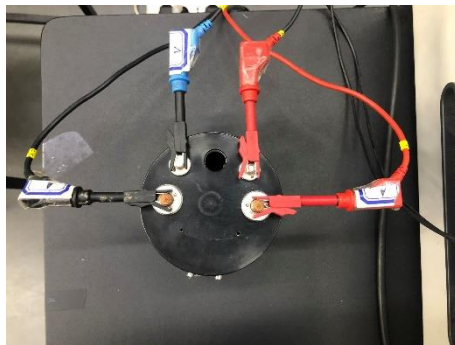
Wire connection



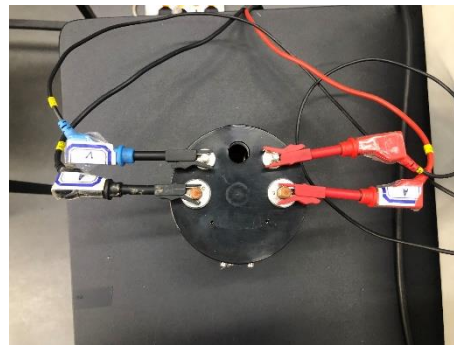
Wire connection: an example



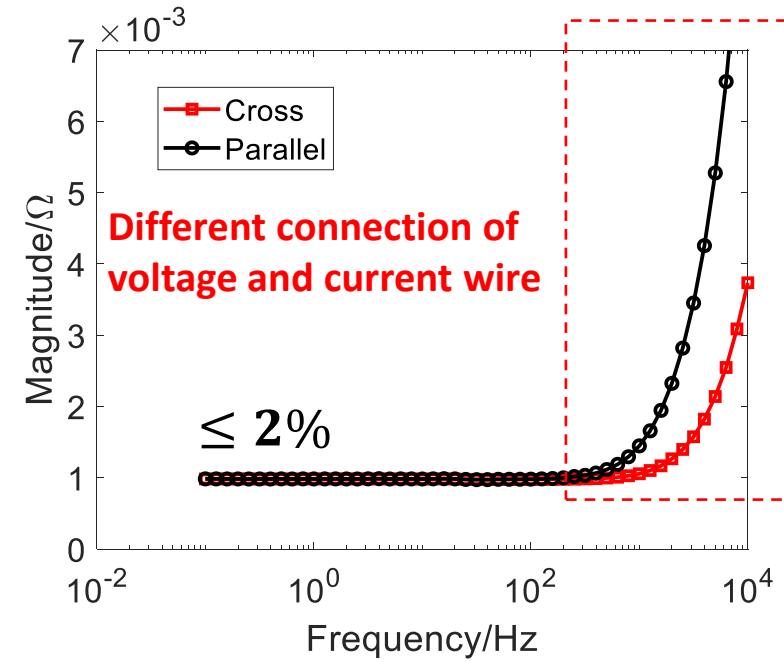
1. Resistance: $1\text{m}\Omega$
2. Current: $\leq 10\text{A}$
3. Four-terminal measurement principle
4. Accuracy: 0.2%



Cross



Parallel



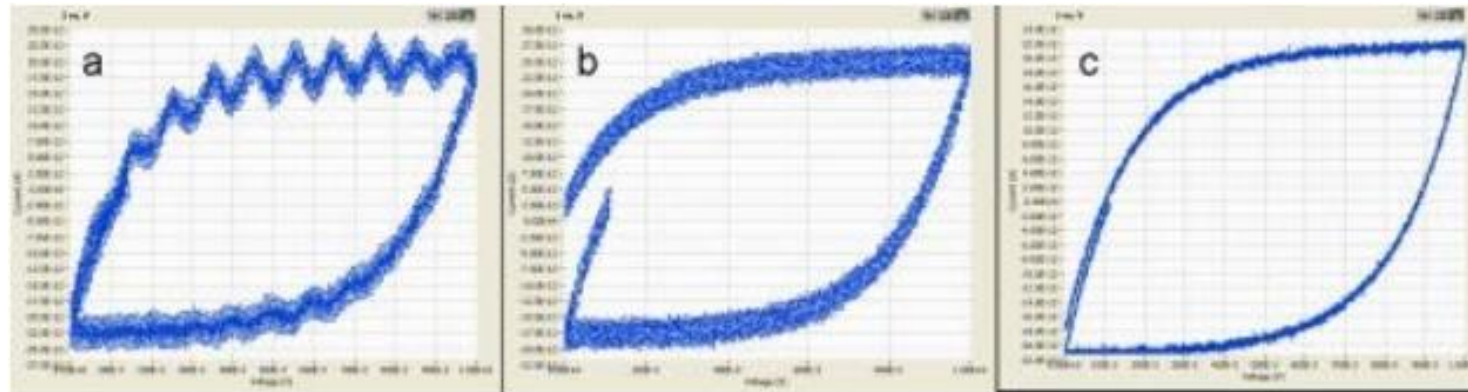
- Room Temperature
- Current amplitude: 0.5A
- Freq. range: 10kHz-0.1Hz
- Instrument: Autolab
- Wiring and connection: Cross & Parallel

Shielding with Faraday cage

Object: RC dummy cell

Test: Cyclic voltammograms

- 0–1 V
- 0.5 V/s
- 1 kHz acquisition frequency



No shielding

Shielded but not grounded
with potential stat

Shielded and grounded
with potential stat

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

Three principles in EIS measurement

Causality

- Signal-to-noise ratio
- Instrument artifacts at high freq.

• Linearity

- Low amplitude perturbation
- Depends on polarization curve for system under study
- Determine experimentally

• Stationarity

- Non-stationary behavior at low freq.
- Start from high f
 - Soon to see the result
 - Get more information while the system is stable

$$\chi(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(\tau) e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau$$

↓ Causality

$$\chi(\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} G(\tau) e^{i\omega\tau} d\tau$$

$$j = j_0 \left[\exp\left(\frac{\alpha F\eta}{RT}\right) - \exp\left(-\frac{(1-\alpha)F\eta}{RT}\right) \right]$$
$$\rightarrow j = j_0 \frac{F\eta}{RT} \rightarrow R_{ct} = \frac{RT}{Fj_0}$$

How to improve Signal-to-Noise ratio

- Check current and voltage range
- Increase the integration time/cycles
- Adjust signal amplitude
- Introduce a delay time

To avoid this undesired error caused by the transient, it is better to introduce a delay of one or two cycles between the change of frequency and impedance measurement.

- Ignore the first frequency measured

The impedance measured at the first frequency of measurement is often corrupted by a startup transient. The best option is to ignore the first measured frequency when regressing models to the data.

- Avoid external electric fields
use of a Faraday cage

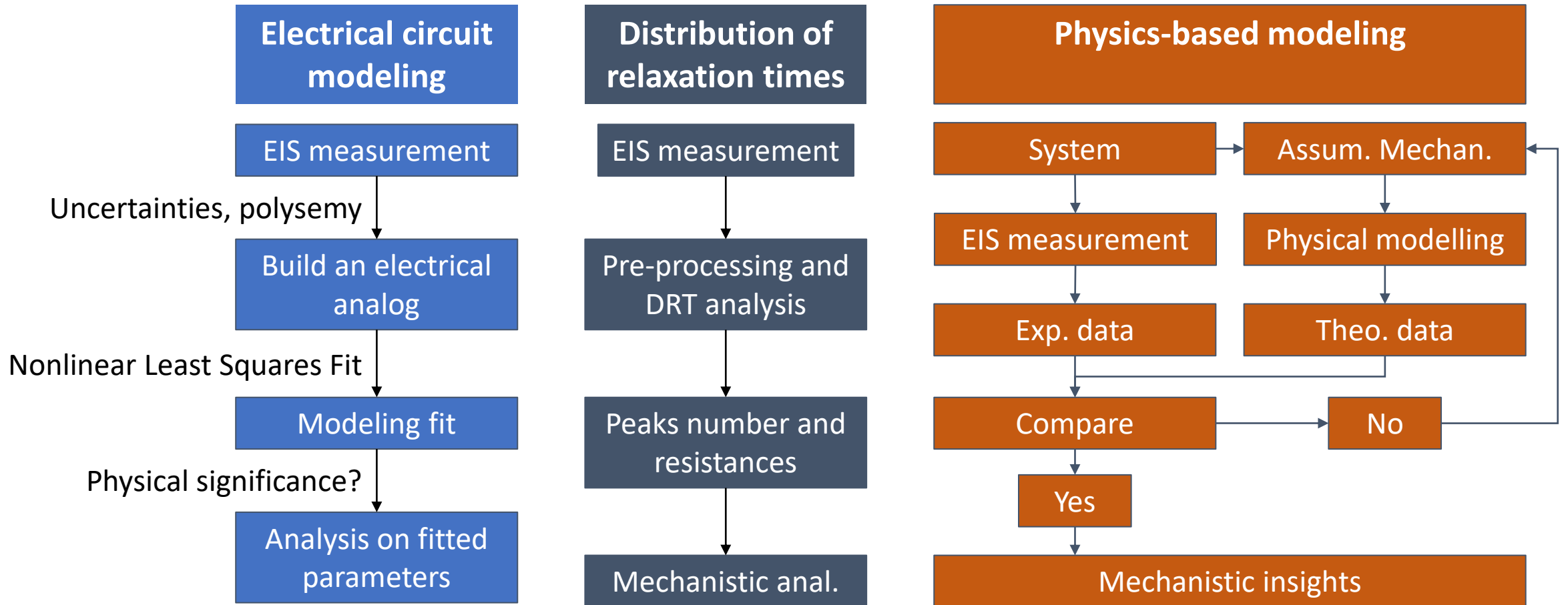
Considerations in EIS measurement

- Modulation mode: GEIS vs PEIS
- Perturbation amplitude (balance between linearity and N/S ratio)
 - PEIS mode: 5~15 mV
 - GEIS mode: to be determined case by case
- Frequency range
 - 1 mHz~100 kHz
 - 7~10 points per decade
 - Starts from the high frequency limit, sweeping towards the low frequency limit
- Integration time/cycles
 - At least 3 times
- Environmental control
 - Temperature: thermal bath
 - Electric-magnetic noise: faraday cage
 - Mechanical vibration: anti-vibration table

Outline of today's lecture

- Principles
 - Definition
 - Advantages
 - Systematic view
- Practices
 - Devices
 - Cells
 - Cables
 - Parameters
 - Data handling

Three methods for data analysis



“This is seldom, if ever, the case, and while the analog may produce plots that are impressive in their fit to the experimental data, **they do little to advance the science.**” D.D. Macdonald

Nonlinear least square fitting

Model fitting is usually conducted using the nonlinear least-squares solver, 'lsqnonlin', in Matlab. The algorithm is to minimize the following function,

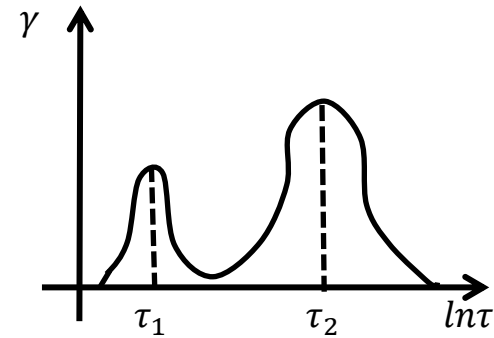
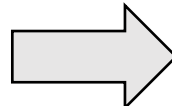
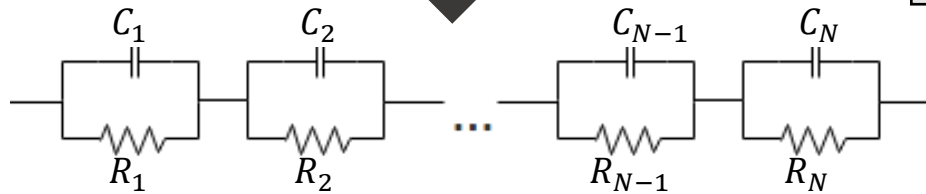
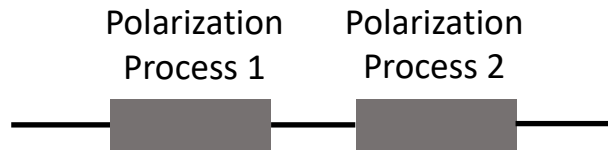
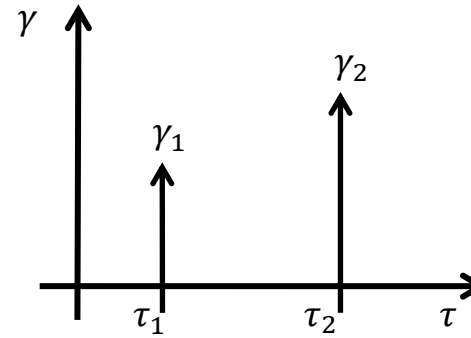
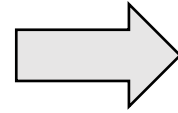
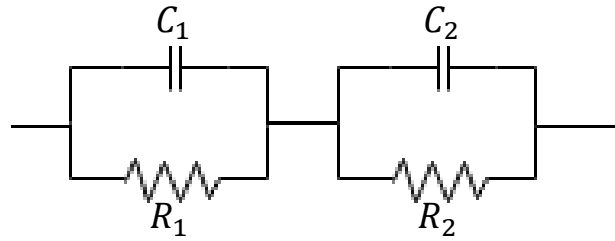
$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \left(w_r \left(\text{Re}(Z(\omega_i, \mathbf{x})) - \text{Re}(Z_{mea}(\omega_i)) \right)^2 + w_i \left(\text{Im}(Z(\omega_i, \mathbf{x})) - \text{Im}(Z_{mea}(\omega_i)) \right)^2 \right)$$

by finding an optimal \mathbf{x} , which is a vector consisting of model parameters, where $Z(\omega_i, \mathbf{x})$ is simulated impedance and $Z_{mea}(\omega_i)$ is the measured impedance, Re and Im denote the real and imaginary part of the impedance, respectively.

w_r and w_i are weighting coefficients

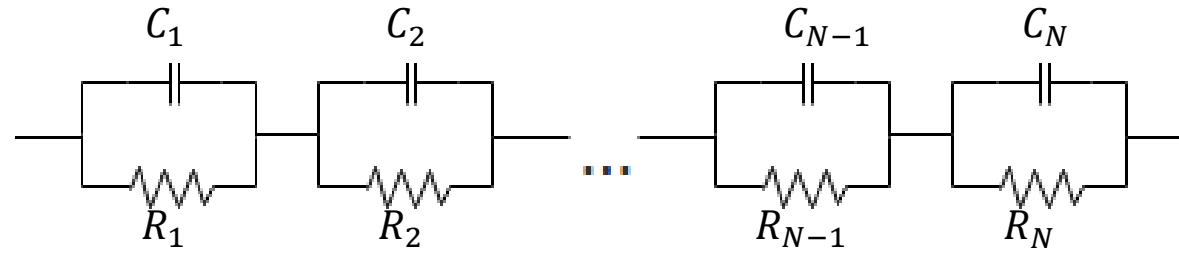
See more information on <https://www.mathworks.com/help/optim/ug/lsqnonlin.html>

Distribution of relaxation times (DRT)



Illig, J., et al. Separation of Charge Transfer and Contact Resistance in LiFePO₄ Cathodes by Impedance Modeling.

Basics of DRT



$$Z_p(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{R_k}{1 + j\omega\tau_k} = R_p \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\gamma_k}{1 + j\omega\tau_k} \quad \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow Z_p(\omega) = R_p \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{1 + j\omega\tau} d\tau \quad \int_0^{\infty} \gamma(\tau) d\tau = 1$$

Basics of DRT

DRT expression

$$Z(\omega) = R_{pol} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{1 + j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

$$\gamma(\tau) \geq 0, \quad \int_0^{\infty} \gamma(\tau) d\tau = 1$$

Transformed into
an optimization problem

$$\min_{\bar{\gamma}} \{ \|H\bar{\gamma} - \bar{Z}\|^2 \}$$

Numerical integration

$$Z'(\omega) = R_{pol} \int_0^{\infty} \gamma(\tau) h'(\omega, \tau) d\tau$$

$$\approx R_{pol} \sum_{j=1}^M a_j \gamma(\tau_j) h'(\omega, \tau_j)$$

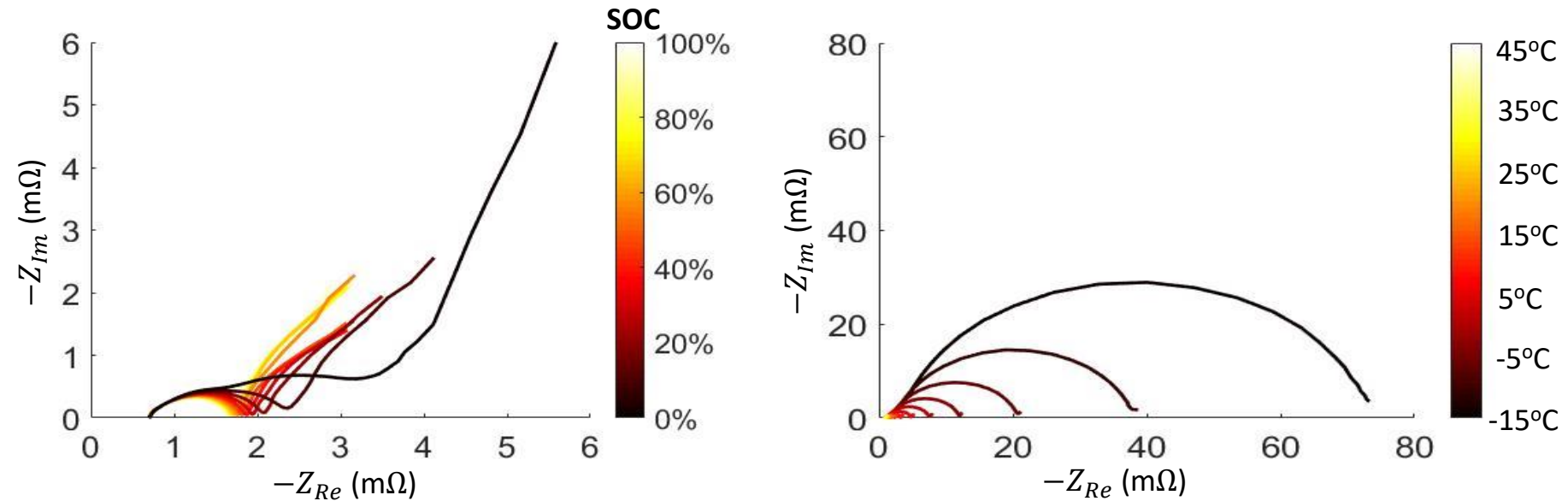
$$Z''(\omega) = R_{pol} \int_0^{\infty} \gamma(\tau) h''(\omega, \tau) d\tau$$

$$\approx R_{pol} \sum_{j=1}^M a_j \gamma(\tau_j) h''(\omega, \tau_j)$$

$$h'(\omega, \tau) = \frac{1}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$$

$$h''(\omega, \tau) = \frac{-j\omega\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}$$

An example of DRT application



The EIS data of NCM cells

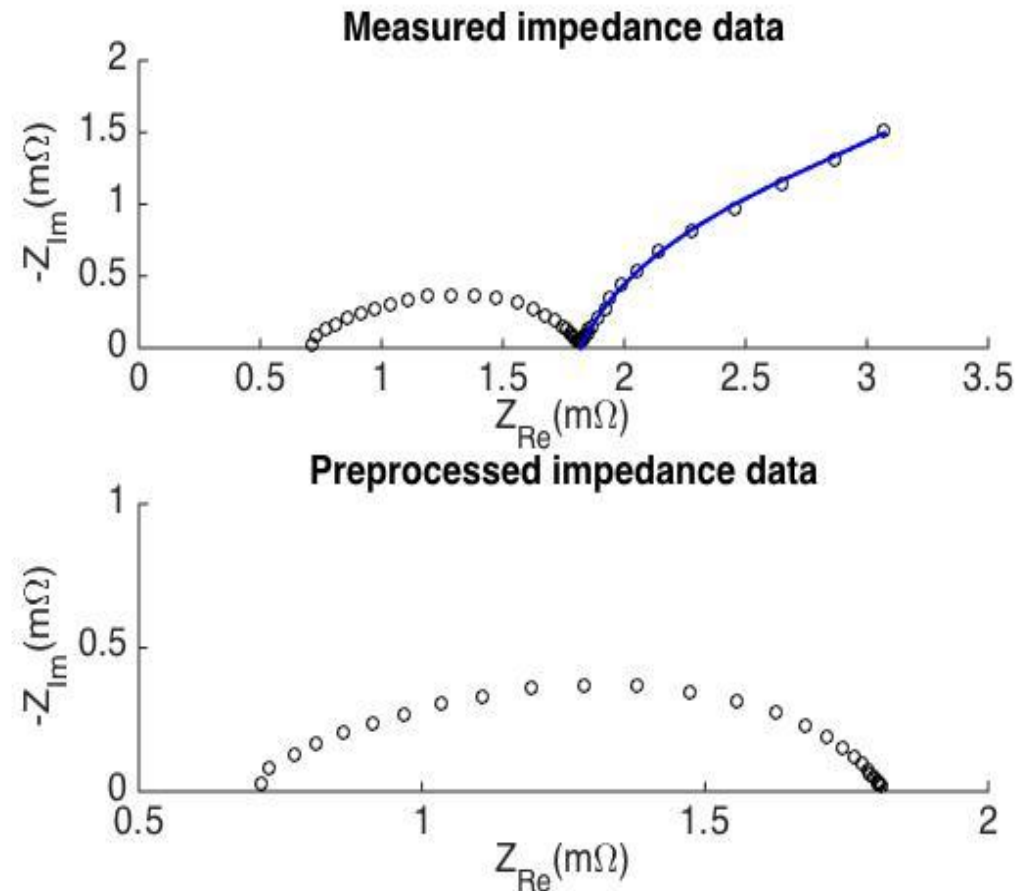
Zhou, X., Huang, J., Pan, Z., & Ouyang, M. (2019). Journal of Power Sources, 426, 216-222.

An example of DRT application

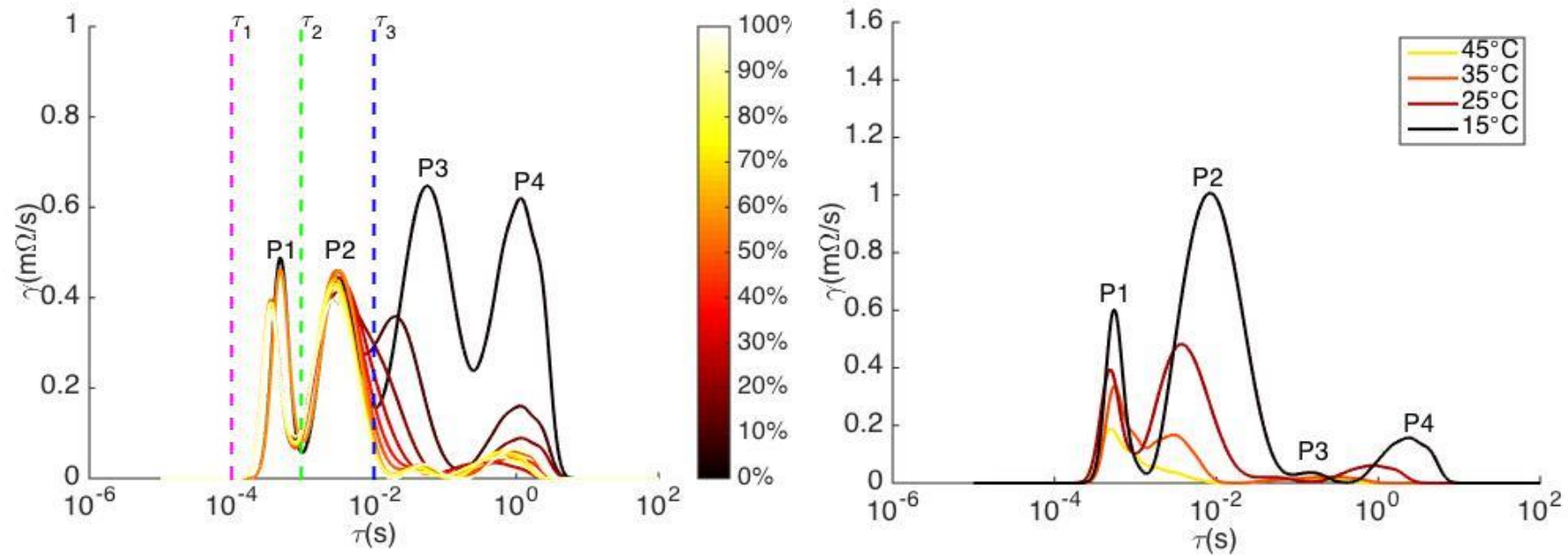
Preprocessing for the DRT analysis

Subtract the low-frequency diffusion impedance

$$Z(f) = R_o + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\gamma(\tau)}{1 + j2\pi f\tau} d\tau + Z_{diff}(f)$$



An example of DRT application



Zhou, X., Huang, J., Pan, Z., & Ouyang, M. (2019). Journal of Power Sources, 426, 216-222.

An example of DRT application

