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Exploring Zinc Vanadate/Cobalt Oxide (Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO) Nano Hybrid Composites as Supercapacitors for Sustainable Energy Storage Applications

M. Gowtham ^a, Chandrasekar Sivakumar ^b, Narendhar Chandrasekar ^c, S. Balachandran ^d, N. Senthil Kumar ^{a, *}

- ^a PG and Research and Department of Physics, Kongunadu Arts and Science College, Coimbatore 641029, Tamil Nadu, India
- ^b Department of Physics, National Chung Hsing University, Taichung 40227, Taiwan
- ^c Department of Bio Nano Technology, Gachon University, 1342, Seongnam-Daero, Sujeong-Gu, Seongnam 13120, Gyeonggi, Republic of Korea
- ^d Department of Physiology, Saveetha Dental College and Hospital, Saveetha Institute of Medical and Technical Science, Saveetha University, Chennai 600077, Tamil Nadu, India
- * Corresponding Author Email: <u>kumarsrkvphy@gmail.com</u>
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Abstract: A hybrid nanocomposite of zinc vanadate/cobalt oxide $(Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO \text{ at ratios of 90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 20/80) was obtained using a simple co-precipitation technique, then calcinated for 4 hrs at 400°C. The surface morphological, vibrational, and structural characteristics of the synthesized hybrid nanocomposites were examined. According to the structural study, orthorhombic <math>Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ and cubic crystal systems of CoO with space groups Fm-3m were formed. The functional groups of Zinc Vanadate/Cobalt Oxide were examined using FTIR spectroscopy. A scanning electron microscopy (SEM) study reveals the nanosheets structures with the size of 200 nm. The chemical composition and formation of the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ composites were confirmed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The electrochemical performance of the hybrid nanocomposites was assessed through CV, GCD and impedance analysis. Among the nanocomposites, $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO 80/20$ exhibited a high specific capacitance value of 564.36 Fg⁻¹ and retaining 97% of their total capacitance even after 3000 cycles.

Keywords: Zinc Vanadate, Cobalt Oxide, Supercapacitor, Energy storage applications

1. Introduction

Electrochemical reaction-based energy storage technologies have gained popularity due to their exceptional performance. Among these technologies, supercapacitors (SC) stand out as one of the most practical solutions for vehicles and as significant contributors to efficient power devices [1]. In comparison to traditional batteries and capacitors, supercapacitors provide higher power densities, improved rate capacities and better cycle stability [2, 3]. Pseudocapacitors and electric double-layer capacitors (EDLCs) are the two primary types of energy storage devices, which enhance the redox process by facilitating charge transfer across electrode and electrolyte interfaces the [4-7]. Supercapacitors, employ a range of electrode materials including carbon-based materials, conducting polymers, graphene, carbon spheres, and carbon nanotubes, alongside transition metal oxides such as ZnO, RuO₂, NiO, MnO₂, Co₃O₄, CuO, and Fe₂O₃ [8, 9]. However, the practical use of transition metal oxides (TMOs) is hindered by their relatively low specific capacitance. Of

particular interest are mixed transition metal oxides, or MTMOs, which have emerged as promising low-cost materials for supercapacitors (SCs). MTMOs enable various redox reactions owing to the coexistence of two distinct metal species within a single crystal structure [10]. Similar to single TMOs, functional MTMOs can provide enhanced specific capacitance due to their broader potential window and increased number of electroactive sites [11-12].

Numerous nanostructures of vanadium oxide, including nanowires, nanobelts, and nanorods, have been investigated for potential application as electrode materials [13]. Vanadium oxide can be used as a metal cation to increase electrochemical productivity. In addition, they provide a host of benefits, including low cost, high operating stability, ease of setup, and environmental friendliness [14]. Their higher ionic conductivity and rapid proton mobility contribute to their lower internal resistance, rendering them desirable candidates [15]. Already the electrochemical behavior of a vanadium based-based mixed metal oxide compounds were investigated using the hydrothermal method, revealing its high reversibility and an energy storage capacity [16-19].

Furthermore, a simple co-precipitation technique was employed to fabricate zinc vanadate nanoparticles, after being calcined at 600°C, it exhibited a specific capacitance of 312 F/g. [20]. It is surprising to discover that increasing the electrolyte operating voltage can elevate the overall functioning potential of the supercapacitor.

On the other hand, Liu et al. [21] recognized Co_3O_4 and CoO_x as potential electrode materials for supercapacitors owing to their intercalative pseudocapacitance characteristics. Lin et al. [22] achieved a maximum capacitance of 291 F/g by calcining CoOx xerogel at 150°C. Wang et al. [23] reported a single electrode capacitance of approximately 280 F/g for the Co(OH)₂ electrode, while Srinivasan and Weidner [24] observed capacitor-like behavior in the Co₃O₄ film used as a positive electrode. In supercapacitors Cobalt oxide electrodes have demonstrated excellent long-term performance, efficiency, and corrosion stability [25]. Consequently, the development of affordable, highly specialized surface area electroactive materials capable of undergoing reversible redox reactions remains a focal point of investigation for electrochemists.

Therefore, in view of the above facts, we opted to synthesize $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$.CoO using this method and investigated how varying scan speeds impacted the material's electrochemical performance. Additionally, we conducted a 3000-cycle stability analysis to assess its suitability for supercapacitor applications. Our findings indicate that the co-precipitation procedure provides a rapid and cost-effective means of producing consistent $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$.CoO nanocomposites.

2. Experimental section

To produce Zn₃(VO₄)₂.CoO nanocomposites, a co-precipitation method was employed. In a standard synthesis procedure, 0.089 mole of ammonium metavanadate (NH₄VO₃) and 0.40 mole of zinc acetate dihydrate Zn(CH₃CO₂)₂·2H₂O were separately dissolved in deionized water, labeled as solutions (1) and (2), respectively. These prepared solutions (1) and (2) were then combined and stirred continuously. To prepare a third solution, 0.44 moles of cobalt (II) acetate were dissolved in deionized water and constantly agitated (3). Upon adding the previously combined solutions (1) and (2) to solution (3), After adding ammonia solution to adjust the pH to 9, the mixture was continuously agitated at 80°C for six hours. The mixture was then left undisturbed overnight at room temperature to mature. The same process was repeated to create two

composites with varying molar ratios of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, & 20/80). Centrifugation aided in separating the yellow precipitate formed from the remaining solution. The resulting powders were retained for further investigation and analysis after being dried at 60°C and then calcined at 400°C for four hours.

2.1 Electrode Preparation and Evolution

First, the Indium tin oxide (ITO) was cleaned using deionized water and subjected to ethanol sonication. Then ITO plates were left to air-dry naturally before being coated with Zinc vanadate copper oxide composites at a concentration of 7mg. The modified ITO plates were then baked overnight at 65°C to ensure thorough drying. Experimental procedures involved conducting electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, both differential pulse voltammetry, and cyclic voltammetry using a standard three-electrode cell configuration. This configuration consisted of an Ag/AgCl reference electrode, a platinum wire auxiliary electrode, and a 1 M KOH electrolyte solution. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy employed an open circuit potential, a frequency range of 10⁵-0.01 Hz, and an AC voltage amplitude of 5 mV. Galvanostatic charge/discharge tests were carried out using a Metrohm electrochemical workstation equipped with potentiostat-galvanostat capability, with current densities ranging from -0.1 to 0.5 V.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1 Structural and Morphological Analysis

Using XRD spectrum analysis, the structural properties of mixed phases of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) were investigated (Figure 1. (ad)). With Zn occupying tetrahedral sites and V filling octahedral sites in the (Zn₈), zinc vanadate demonstrates orthorhombic spinel properties [26, 27]. Remarkably, the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites exhibits highly intense diffraction peaks, indicating that the samples are crystalline in nature. Also, Zn₃(VO₄)₂ exhibits distinct and well-defined diffraction peaks at 20 values of 24.41°, 29.17°, 33.15°, 43.58°, and 57.70° positioned and indexed as (200), (002), (022), (400), and (162) planes which match with the JCPDS no. 34–0378. While, diffraction peaks of cobalt oxide are observable at 20 values of 42.61°, 61.84°, 74.10°, and 78.00°, corresponding to the (200), (220), (311), and (222) planes which match with the JCPDS no. 01-075-0418. As no impurities were detected, the zinc vanadate cobalt oxide composite exhibits exceptional purity. By applying the Debye-Scherrer formula, the crystallite sizes of zinc vanadate and cobalt oxide were determined. The resulting sizes were 134.26 nm and 45.47 nm, respectively (Table-1).



Figure 1. XRD spectrum of composites a) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{90/10}$ b) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{80/20}$, c) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{50/50}$, and d) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{20/80}$

Table 1. To the structural parameters of the calculate studied $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{(90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20)}$ nanocomposites samples

	Bragg	FWHM	(I \	h k l /alue) Ə	"D" Cructallita Siza	"δ" diclocation X1014	"ε" strain X104	d spacing
S.No.	θ (deg)	(deg)	h	k	I	(nm)	(lines/ meter2)	(lin ⁻² met ⁻⁴)	(nm)
	21.41	0.1695	2	0	0	49.86	4.02	7.27	4.15
	29.17	0.111	0	0	2	77.30	1.67	4.69	3.06
	33.153	0.0775	0	2	2	111.80	0.80	3.24	2.70
$Zn_3(VO_4)_2$	57.705	0.1575	1	6	2	60.20	2.76	6.02	1.60
	42.612	0.1695	2	0	0	52.59	3.62	6.89	2.12
	61.841	0.111	2	2	0	87.21	1.31	4.15	1.50
CoO	74.105	0.0775	3	1	1	134.26	0.55	2.70	1.28

SEM examinations were conducted at various magnifications to analyze the structural morphology of the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) composites, as depicted in Figure 2(a–d). SEM images vividly illustrate the flake-shaped morphology. The structure of interwoven growth in all directions is essential for the formation of the nano sheets.

EDS analysis of the prepared $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) is depicted in Figure 3, along with the elemental mapping spectrum (a–d).The EDS spectra of the prepared samples demonstrating

that the produced nanocomposites solely contain components associated with Zn, V, Co, and O. Figure 3 illustrates the atomic and weight percentages of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$, as well as the K ratio. The equal distribution of all four elements is discernible through mapping.

 $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) composites exhibit distinctive features in their FTIR spectra (Figure-4). An evident absorption peak corresponding to water molecules and hydroxyl groups is noted in the wavenumber region of 3,600 to 3,000 cm⁻¹.



Figure 2. SEM images of the composites a) Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO _{90/10} b) Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO _{80/20}, c) Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO _{50/50}, and d) Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO _{20/80}



Figure 3. EDS Images of the Composites a) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{90/10}$ b) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{80/20}$, c) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{50/50}$, and d) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{20/80}$



Figure 4. Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectra of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites

At 930 cm⁻¹, the vibrations of VO₄³⁻ and the V-O-Zn band manifest as peaks. Stretching modes of vanadate (V-O) are detected in the range of 925 to 935 cm⁻¹. The stretching vibrations of metal group V-O-V in the tetrahedral vibration of VO₄ are responsible for bands spanning from 650 to 780 cm⁻¹. Furthermore, the Zn-O, Zn-O-V, and Zn-O-Zn type extended modes of bonds are linked to the vibration band in the 770–650 cm⁻¹ range. These modes originate from V = O linkages that are shared by the corner atoms of the tetrahedral structure (VO₄). Notable maxima of absorption at 567 and 661 cm⁻¹ are observed in the cobalt oxide FTIR spectra.

The absorption band at 567 cm⁻¹ represents the Co–O stretching vibration mode, while the absorption band at 661 cm⁻¹ represents the O–Co–O bond bridging vibration [28, 29]. The FTIR spectrum's lack of additional peaks suggests the exceedingly pure nature of the treated material. However, peaks observed in the visible spectrum indicate that the chemical composition consists solely of metal oxide vanadate, a finding precisely confirmed by XRD analysis.

Figure 5(a) displays Zn, V, O, and Co, covering the entire analysis range. Peaks for Zn 2p3, Zn 2p1, V 2p3, V 2p, and Co 2p1 are observed at 1021.8, 1045.02, 517.3, 524.5, 530.1, 530.4, 780.1, and 796.2 eV, respectively. The core level spectra of the Zn 2p region in Figure 5(b) display two distinct peaks representing Zn $2p_{1/2}$ and Zn $2p_{3/2}$ of Zn²⁺ at 1045.02 eV and 1021.85 eV, respectively [30]. In Figure 5(c), the deconvoluted peaks of O 1s at 530.1 eV indicate lattice oxygen, while the peak at 531.4 eV is associated with absorbed oxygen species such as OH and H₂O on the surface of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO. The V 2p XPS spectra in Figure 5(b) reveal distinctive peaks in two sections-2p_{3/2} at 517.3 eV and 2p1/2 at 524.5 eV-with a spin-orbit splitting of 7.2 eV between them, indicating the presence of the V⁵⁺ state [31]. Deconvolution of the V 2p XPS peaks has facilitated a comprehensive analysis of vanadium oxidation states. The peak at 515.9 eV is attributed to the partial ionic reduction from +5 to +4 during the hydrothermal process [32]. An additional peak at 524.8 eV is assigned to V³⁺. The broadening of the V2p_{3/2} peak suggests a combination of V^{3+} and V^{5+} ion oxidation states [33]. Figure 5(d) presents a comparison of the cobalt 2p regions for various cobalt oxides. The measured cobalt binding energies for 2p1/2 and 2p3/2 were 795.7 eV and 779.8 eV, respectively. Additionally, two higher binding energies for CoO 2p, 780.5 and 796.6 eV, were identified.

3.2 Electrochemical analysis

The electrochemical performance of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ composite materials (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) was evaluated using electrochemical impedance spectroscopy, charge-discharge analysis, and cyclic voltammetry. Cyclic voltammograms (CV) of the pure zinc vanadate electrode at scan rates ranging from 5 to 100 mV/s within the potential window of -1 to 1 V are depicted in Figure 6(a–e).



Figure 5. Xps Spectra of a) Zn 2p; b) V 2p; c) O1s; d) Co 2p energy regions; e) A wide range scan spectrum of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO _{20/80} composites

The cyclic voltammogram (CV) curves of the composite electrodes (80/20, 90/10, 50/50, and 80/20) comprising bare $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ are depicted in Figure 6a. These curves, exhibiting a rectangular shape with humps, indicate a combination of EDLC and Faradaic redox processes contributing to the capacitive responses [34-39]. Moreover, the evolution of the curve pattern along with increasing sweep rate underscores the significant role played by the hybrid nanocomposites in the electrode. Despite surface oxidation (Figure 6), the redox peaks in the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ composite electrode exhibits a broader CV curve area and more prominent anodic and cathodic peaks compared to the bare $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ electrode.

The significant loop area observed on the CV curve of zinc vanadate composites confirms their enhanced capacity for charge storage. This improvement is attributed to the synergistic impact of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/COO$, which enhanced the composite's specific surface area and accelerates the transit of electrolyte ions, thereby exposing more electroactive sites to the KOH electrolyte. Wei et al. [40] reported similar behavior in electrodes exhibiting synergistic effects. $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/COO$ composites, responsible for enhancing the materials' wettability and introducing pseudocapacitance, are attributed to this phenomenon. [41].

Moreover, the distinct redox peaks provide evidence of the Faradic charge transfer experienced by the active material [42]. This indicates that, albeit subtly, K⁺ ions are reversibly intercalated or deintercalated in the solid phase of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ composites. Even at rapid scan rates of 20–100 mV/s, the redox peaks of the zinc vanadate composites remained easily discernible.

In this scenario, the ability of the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ electrode to store charge stems from its interaction with protons or cations. Mobility of alkali cations in the electrolytes is crucial. Hydrated alkali K+ cations migrate from the KOH solution to the surface of the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ electrode during negative potential scanning. They are absorbed onto the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ surface upon arrival. Conversely, during the reverse scan, alkaline ions move back towards the electrolyte after desorption from the electrode [43].

Due to the extended sheet-like shape of the hybrid nanocomposite and the presence of active redox sites on the surface of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO, there is a significant increase in electrolyte ion and electron accessibility. Redox reactions predominantly occur near these active areas. The movement of electrons and ions is facilitated by the grafted hybrid nanocomposite of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_1$ contrasting with the bulkier $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ electrode (Fig. 6a). Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO nanocomposites enhances its conductivity and facilitates easy ion transit paths across the electrode. It's interesting to note that $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ surfaces can increase the concentration of nano-sized voids and vacancies [44]. As a result, ions are able to access potentially larger active sites, as seen by the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ composite's CV curves.

In Figure 6a, the cathodic peak at -0.45 V is prominently visible and corresponds to the reduction of Zn²⁺ to metallic Zn. Additionally, the anodic signal at 0.5 V illustrates the oxidation of V2+ to V3+ and its subsequent interaction with Zn oxide to produce Zn²⁺ [45]. As voltage sweep rates increase from 5 to 100 mV/s, the anodic and cathodic peaks of Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO progressively shift towards positive and negative potentials, as depicted in Figure 6b. This phenomenon is attributed to the constant polarization effect observed in the Zn₃(VO₄)₂ combination (Figure 6c). Furthermore, it is indicated that K⁺ ions exhibit limited effectiveness in intercalating the inner areas of the electrode's active zinc vanadate at higher current scan rates [46]. In these circumstances, the K⁺ ions lack adequate time to permeate the extensive surface area of the active $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ electrode material.

Consequently, with increasing scan rates, the redox peak intensifies [47]. Interestingly, the desolvation process is facilitated by the lower density of charge K⁺ alkali ions, resulting in a slight deviation from ideal capacitive behavior in the CV curves of both electrodes.

Conversely, the unsynchronized movement of K⁺ ions with current rates significantly reduces the specific capacitance of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ at higher current rates [47]. The kinetic reversibility of Faradic redox reactions is indicated by the linear and symmetrical structure of the redox peaks [47, 48]. Furthermore, a slight fluctuation observed in the rectangular background of the CV curves suggests pseudocapacitive interactions between $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ and the electrolyte.

The capacitance retention capacity of these materials was examined through 3000 cyclic voltammetry (CV) cycles at a scan rate of 100 mV/s, as depicted in Figures 7(a-d).

The findings are summarized as follows: The specific capacitance (Csc) standards for $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, & 80/20) electrodes were determined using equation (1).

$$Csc = \frac{Q}{m\Delta v}$$
 (1)

The mass of the electro-active material (m), the potential window (Δv), and the cathodic/anodic charges (Q) on each scan all contribute to the specific capacitance (Csc).



Figure 6. CV graphs of Zinc vanadate Cobalt oxide composites a) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{90/10} b) Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{80/20}$, c) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{50/50}$, and d) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{20/80}$



Figure 7. 3000 cycle of CV curve composites a) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{90/10}$ b) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{80/20}$, c) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{50/50}$, and d) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{20/80}$

Table 2. Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites specific capacitance value and percentage of retention

S.No	Percentage of nanocomposites (%)	Specific capacitance value (F g ⁻¹)	Percentage of retention (%)
1	Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /CoO 90/10	153.86	95
2	Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /CoO 80/20	234.30	95
3	Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /CoO 50/50	549.23	97
4	Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /CoO 20/80	564.36	97



Figure 8. Specific capacitance Vs Cycle number retention graph

Table 2 summarizes the individual capacitance values and retention percentages of the manufactured samples after 3000 cycles. In Figure 8, the specific capacitance of the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 20/80) electrodes is illustrated. The Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO 90/10 composite displayed a specific capacitance value of 153.86 F/g with a retention rate of 95%. Similarly, the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO 80/20 composite exhibited a specific capacitance value of 234.30 F/g with 95% retention. Demonstrating a specific capacitance value of 549.23 F/g with 97% retention, the Zn₃(VO₄)₂ 50/50 composite proved notable. Particularly noteworthy was the Zn₃(VO₄)₂ 20/80 composite, which achieved the highest specific capacitance value of 564.36 F/g with a retention rate of 97%, surpassing all other experiments. Figure 9 and Table 3 exhibits an comparative specific capacitance analysis.

Utilizing the appropriate chronopotentiometry technique, cycle testing at a constant current density allows for the investigation of specific capacitance and supercapacitive behavior in electrochemical storage devices. In Figure 10(a-d), the galvanostatic charge-discharge (GCD) curves of $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ nanoparticles,

covering potentials from 0 to 1 V and current densities ranging from 5 presented. to 1 A/g, are Chronopotentiometry is a technique that allows for the quantitative exploration of the anticipated supercapacitive characteristics of an electrode material by comparing cyclic voltammetry (CV) data. The nonlinear discharge zone on the graph reflects the material's supercapacitive properties.

It was noted that there exists an inverse correlation between specific capacitance levels and current density. Elevated current densities during the redox process may lead to a reduction in electroactive material and an elevation in voltage drop, which could explain this phenomenon [57, 58]. The highest capacitance values were achieved at lower currents because ions could easily flow between the electrode surface and the active sites of the electrolyte. The characteristics necessary for a pseudocapacitive-type material are demonstrated by the inverse relationship between specific capacitance and current density [60, 61].

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Table 3. Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /0	CoO comparison of synthe	esis, electrode subs	strate, specific cap	acitance value, ar	nd electrolyte
Material	Synthesis method	Electrode coating substrate	Specific capacitance value	Electrolyte	Reference
Zn ₃ (VO ₄) ₂ /CoO composites	Co-precipitation method	ITO plate	564.36 Fg ⁻¹	КОН	Present work
Zinc vanadate	Co-precipitation method	nickel foil	312 Fg⁻¹	КОН	[20]
Zinc vanadate &N- MWNCT)	Hydrothermal method	Graphite Sheet	403 F g ⁻¹	K ₂ SO ₄	[18]
Zinc vanadate	Hydrothermal method	Graphite Sheet	383 F g ⁻¹	КОН	[48]
Zinc Vanadate	Hydrothermal method	Graphite Sheet	213 F g ⁻¹	K ₂ SO ₄ , Na ₂ SO ₄ and KOH	[49]
Zinc Vanadate	Hydrothermal method	Ni-foam	427.7 F g⁻¹	КОН	[50]
Zinc Vanadate	Hydrothermal method	Ni-foam	302 F g ⁻¹	КОН	[51]
Zinc Vanadate	Co-precipitation method	nickel foil	471 F g ⁻¹	КОН	[52]
Zinc Vanadate	Hydrothermal method	Ni-foam	395 Fg⁻¹	K ₂ SO ₄	[53]
α-Zinc Vanadate	Hydrothermal method	stainless steel	44.8 F g ⁻¹	KCI	[54]
Zn ₃ V ₂ O ₈ - Ag@ C Composite	Rotational Chemical Bath Deposition	Metal substrate	380 F g⁻¹	КОН	[19]
Cobalt Oxide	SILAR method	copper substrates	165 F g⁻¹	КОН	[55]
Cobalt Oxide	Chemical synthesis	copper substrate	118 F g⁻¹	КОН	[56]
Cobalt Oxide	Hydrothermal method	Ni foam	278 F g⁻¹	КОН	[57]
Co ₂ O ₃	Electrodeposition method	NiO substrate	345 F g⁻¹	КОН	[58]
rGO-cobalt oxide	Chemical synthesis	rGO nanosheets	276.1 F g⁻¹	КОН	[59]





Figure 10. GCD curves of composites a) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{90/10}$ b) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{80/20}$, c) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{50/50}$, and d) $Zn_3(VO_4)_2/CoO_{20/80}$





Electrochemical impedance measurements were conducted in the frequency range of 1 Hz to 100 kHz to explore the conductive and capacitive properties of the $Zn_3(VO_4)_2$ (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 80/20) materials in their assembled state.

The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) patterns can be represented by a matching circuit, as depicted in the inset of Figure 11. These graphs can be divided into three sections: a linear segment in the low-frequency domain, correlating with the presence of electrolyte ions in the active material and the Warburg resistance, and a semicircular portion in the highfrequency range, representing the frequency-dependent diffusion of electrolyte ions [62]. The impedance curve of the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites is depicted in Figure 11. showing a distorted semicircle in the high-frequency range and a linear trend in the low-frequency region. The equivalent series resistance (Rs), parallel resistance (Rp) of the electrode, and capacitance of the solid electrolyte interphase layer (CPE) are determined by the point where the semicircle intersects the real axis at high frequency. The diameter of the semicircle indicates the charge transfer resistance (Rct) of the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites and the interface with the KOH electrolyte, while ionic diffusion is depicted by the vertical line in the low-frequency region (Warburg diffusion resistance).

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, a simple co-precipitation technique was employed successfully to produce a hybrid nanocomposite of zinc vanadate/cobalt oxide (Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO) at various ratios (90/10, 80/20, 50/50, and 20/80), followed by calcination at 400°C for four hours. Structural analysis revealed the formation of orthorhombic Zn₃(VO₄)₂ and cubic crystal systems of CoO with space groups Fm-3m, respectively. The presence of functional groups corresponding to confirmed by FTIR Zn₃(VO₄)₂ and CoO was spectroscopy. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) investigations indicated formation of flake like nanosheets morphology. The surface chemistry of the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO composites was examined utilizing X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Further. electrochemical performances such cyclic as voltammetry, charge-discharge analysis, and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. After 3000 cycles, the Zn₃(VO₄)₂/CoO 80/20 nanocomposites exhibited a specific capacitance value of 564.36 F/g and a retention rate of 97%. These results suggest potential applications for the synthesized composites in sustainable energy storage and upcoming energy storage systems.

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Authors Contribution Statement

M. Gowtham: Conceptualization, data curation, investigation, methodology, formal analysis, writingoriginal draft; Chandrasekar Sivakumar: formal analysis, writing-review and editing; Narendhar Chandrasekar: formal analysis, and writing-review; S. Balachandran: formal analysis, writing-review and editing; N. Senthilkumar: Conceptualization, Supervision, investigation, writing-original draft and editing. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Competing Interests

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