# LETTER

# An ultrafast rechargeable aluminium-ion battery

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The development of new rechargeable battery systems could fuel various energy applications, from personal electronics to grid storage<sup>1,2</sup>. Rechargeable aluminium-based batteries offer the possibilities of low cost and low flammability, together with three-electron-redox properties leading to high capacity<sup>3</sup>. However, research efforts over the past 30 years have encountered numerous problems, such as cathode material disintegration<sup>4</sup>, low cell discharge voltage (about 0.55 volts; ref. 5), capacitive behaviour without discharge voltage plateaus (1.1-0.2 volts<sup>6</sup> or 1.8-0.8 volts<sup>7</sup>) and insufficient cycle life (less than 100 cycles) with rapid capacity decay (by 26-85 per cent over 100 cycles)<sup>4-7</sup>. Here we present a rechargeable aluminium battery with high-rate capability that uses an aluminium metal anode and a three-dimensional graphitic-foam cathode. The battery operates through the electrochemical deposition and dissolution of aluminium at the anode, and intercalation/de-intercalation of chloroaluminate anions in the graphite, using a non-flammable ionic liquid electrolyte. The cell exhibits well-defined discharge voltage plateaus near 2 volts, a specific capacity of about 70 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> and a Coulombic efficiency of approximately 98 per cent. The cathode was found to enable fast anion diffusion and intercalation, affording charging times of around one minute with a current density of  $\sim$ 4,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (equivalent to  $\sim$ 3,000 W kg<sup>-1</sup>), and to withstand more than 7,500 cycles without capacity decay.

Owing to the low-cost, low-flammability and three-electron redox properties of aluminium (Al), rechargeable Al-based batteries could in principle offer cost-effectiveness, high capacity and safety, which would lead to a substantial advance in energy storage technology<sup>3,8</sup>. However, research into rechargeable Al batteries over the past 30 years has failed to compete with research in other battery systems. This has been due to problems such as cathode material disintegration<sup>4</sup>, low cell discharge voltage (~0.55 V; ref. 5), capacitive behaviour without discharge voltage plateaus (1.1–0.2 V, or 1.8–0.8 V; refs 6 and 7, respectively), and insufficient cycle life (<100 cycles) with rapid capacity decay (by 26–85% over 100 cycles)<sup>4–7</sup>. Here we report novel graphitic cathode materials that afford unprecedented discharge voltage profiles, cycling stabilities and rate capabilities for Al batteries.

We constructed Al/graphite cells (see diagram in Fig. 1a) in Swagelok or pouch cells, using an aluminium foil (thickness ~15–250 µm) anode, a graphitic cathode, and an ionic liquid electrolyte made from vacuum dried AlCl<sub>3</sub>/1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([EMIm]Cl; see Methods, residual water ~500 p.p.m.). The cathode was made from either pyrolytic graphite (PG) foil (~17 µm) or a three-dimensional graphitic foam<sup>9,10</sup>. Both the PG foil and the graphitic-foam materials exhibited typical graphite structure, with a sharp (002) X-ray diffraction (XRD) graphite peak at  $2\theta \approx 26.55^{\circ}$  (*d* spacing, 3.35 Å; Extended Data Fig. 1). The cell was first optimized in a Swagelok cell operating at 25 °C with a PG foil cathode. The optimal ratio of AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl was found to be ~1.3–1.5 (Extended Data Fig. 2a), affording a specific discharging capacity of 60–66 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> (based on graphitic cathode mass) with a Coulombic efficiency of 95–98%. Raman spectroscopy revealed that with an AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl ratio of ~1.3, both AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> and Al<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>7</sub><sup>-</sup> anions were present (Extended Data Fig. 2b) at a ratio [AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>]/[Al<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>7</sub><sup>-</sup>]  $\approx 2.33$ 



Figure 1 | Rechargeable Al/graphite cell. a, Schematic drawing of the Al/ graphite cell during discharge, using the optimal composition of the AlCl<sub>3</sub>/ [EMIm]Cl ionic liquid electrolyte. On the anode side, metallic Al and AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> were transformed into Al<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>7</sub><sup>-</sup> during discharging, and the reverse reaction took place during charging. On the cathode side, predominantly AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> was intercalated and de-intercalated between graphite layers during charge and discharge reactions, respectively. **b**, Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of an Al/pyrolytic graphite (PG) Swagelok cell at a current density of  $66 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ . Inset, charge and discharge cycles. **c**, Long-term stability test of an Al/PG cell at  $66 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$ .

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The Al/PG cell exhibited clear discharge voltage plateaus in the ranges 2.25-2.0 V and 1.9-1.5 V (Fig. 1b). The relatively high discharge voltage plateaus are unprecedented among all past Al-ion charge-storage systems4-7. Similar cell operation was observed with the amount of electrolyte lowered to  $\sim$  0.02 ml per mg of cathode material (Extended Data Fig. 4). Charge-discharge cycling at a current density of 66 mA  $g^{-1}$  (1 C charging rate) demonstrated the high stability of the Al/PG cell, which nearly perfectly maintained its specific capacity over >200 cycles with a 98.1  $\pm$  0.4% Coulombic efficiency (Fig. 1c). This was consistent with the high reversibility of Al dissolution/deposition, with Coulombic efficiencies of 98.6-99.8% in ionic liquid electrolytes<sup>12-15</sup>. No dendrite formation was observed on the Al electrode after cycling (Extended Data Fig. 5). To maintain a Coulombic efficiency >96%, the cut-off voltage of the Al/PG cell (that is, the voltage at which charging was stopped) was set at 2.45 V, above which reduced efficiencies were observed (see Extended Data Fig. 6a), probably due to side reactions (especially above  $\sim$  2.6 V) involving the electrolyte, as probed by cyclic voltammetry with a glassy carbon electrode against Al (Extended Data Fig. 6b).

We observed lowered Coulombic efficiency and cycling stability of the Al/graphite cell when using electrolytes with higher water contents, up to  $\sim$ 7,500 p.p.m. (Extended data Fig. 6c, d), accompanied by obvious H<sub>2</sub> gas evolution measured by gas chromatography (Extended Data Fig. 6e). This suggested side reactions triggered by the presence of residual water in the electrolyte, with H<sub>2</sub> evolution under reducing potential on the Al side during charging. Further lowering the water content of the ionic liquid electrolyte could be important when maximizing the Coulombic efficiency of the Al/graphite cells.

The Al/PG cell showed limited rate capability with much lower specific capacity when charged and discharged at a rate higher than 1 C (Extended Data Fig. 7). It was determined that cathode reactions in the Al/PG cell involve intercalation and de-intercalation of relatively large chloroaluminate  $(Al_xCl_y)$  anions in the graphite (see below for XRD evidence of intercalation), and the rate capability is limited by slow diffusion of anions through the graphitic layers<sup>16</sup>. When PG was replaced by natural graphite, intercalation was evident during charging owing to dramatic expansion (~50-fold) of the cathode into loosely stacked flakes visible to the naked eye (Extended Data Fig. 8a). In contrast, expansion of PG foil upon charging the Al/PG cell was not observable by eye (Extended Data Fig. 8b), despite the similar specific charging capacity of the two materials (Extended Data Fig. 8c). This superior structural integrity of PG over natural graphite during charging was attributed to the existence of covalent bonding between adjacent graphene sheets in PG<sup>17</sup>, which was not present in natural graphite. Using PG, which has an open, three-dimensionally-bound graphitic structure, we prevented excessive electrode expansion that would lead to electrode disintegration, while maintaining the efficient anion intercalation necessary for high performance.

Because high-rate and high-power batteries are highly desirable for applications such as electrical grid storage, the next step in the investigation was to develop a cathode material that would have reduced energetic barriers to intercalation during charging<sup>16</sup>. We investigated a flexible graphitic foam (Fig. 2a), which was made on a nickel foam template by chemical vapour deposition<sup>9,10</sup> (see Methods), as a possible material for



**Figure 2** | **An ultrafast and stable rechargeable Al/graphite cell. a**, A scanning electron microscopy image showing a graphitic foam with an open frame structure; scale bar, 300 μm. Inset, photograph of graphitic foam; scale bar, 1 cm. **b**, Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of an Al/graphitic-foam pouch cell at

a current density of 4,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>. **c**, Long-term stability test of an Al/graphitic-foam pouch cell over 7,500 charging and discharging cycles at a current density of 4,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>. **d**, An Al/graphitic-foam pouch cell charging at 5,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup> and discharging at current densities ranging from 100 to 5,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>.

ultrafast Al batteries. The graphite whiskers in the foam were 100  $\mu m$  in width (Fig. 2a), with large spaces in between, which greatly decreased the diffusion length for the intercalating electrolyte anions and facilitated more rapid battery operation.

Remarkably, the Al/graphitic-foam cell (in a pouch cell configuration) could be charged and discharged at a current density up to 5,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, about 75 times higher (that is, at a 75 C rate, <1 min charge/discharge time) than the Al/PG cell while maintaining a similar voltage profile and discharge capacity (~60 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>) (Figs 1b and 2b). An impressive cycling stability with ~100% capacity retention was observed over 7,500 cycles with a Coulombic efficiency of 97  $\pm$  2.3% (Fig. 2c). This is the first time an ultrafast Al-ion battery has been constructed with stability over thousands of cycles. The Al/graphitic-foam cell retained similar capacity and excellent cycling stability over a range of charge-discharge rates (1,000–6,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>) with 85–99% Coulombic efficiency (Extended Data Fig. 9a). It was also found that this cell could be rapidly charged (at 5,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, in ~1 min) and gradually discharged (down to 100 mA g<sup>-1</sup>, Fig. 2d and Extended Data Fig. 9b) over ~34 min while maintaining a high capacity (~60 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>). Such a rapid charging/variable discharging rate could be appealing in many real-world applications.

We propose that simplified Al/graphite cell redox reactions during charging and discharging can be written as:

$$4\mathrm{Al}_{2}\mathrm{Cl}_{7}^{-} + 3\mathrm{e}^{-} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Al} + 7\mathrm{Al}\mathrm{Cl}_{4}^{-} \tag{1}$$

$$C_n + AlCl_4^- \rightleftharpoons C_n[AlCl_4] + e^-$$
(2)

where *n* is the molar ratio of carbon atoms to intercalated anions in the graphite. The balanced  $AlCl_4^-$  and  $Al_2Cl_7^-$  concentrations in the electrolyte allowed for an optimal charging capacity at the cathode, with abundant  $AlCl_4^-$  for charging/intercalation in graphite (equation (2)), and sufficient  $Al_2Cl_7^-$  concentration for charging/electrodeposition at the anode (equation (1).

*Ex situ* XRD measurement of graphite foil (Fig. 3a) confirmed graphite intercalation/de-intercalation by chloroaluminate anions during charging/discharging. The sharp pristine graphite foil (002) peak at  $2\theta = 26.55^{\circ}$  (*d* spacing = 3.35 Å) (Fig. 3a) vanished on charging to a specific capacity of ~30 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>, while two new peaks appeared at ~28.25° ( $d \approx 3.15$  Å) and ~23.56° ( $d \approx 3.77$  Å) (Fig. 3a), with peak intensities further increasing on fully charging to ~62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>. The doublet XRD peak suggested highly strained graphene stacks formed on anion intercalation<sup>18</sup>. Analysis of the peak separation (see Methods) suggested a stage 4 graphite intercalation compound with an intercalant gallery height (spacing between adjacent graphitic host layers) of



**Figure 3** | **Al/graphite cell reaction mechanisms. a**, *Ex situ* X-ray diffraction patterns of PG in various charging and discharging states through the second cycle. **b**, *In situ* Raman spectra recorded for the PG cathode through a charge–discharge cycle, showing chloroaluminate anion intercalation/ de-intercalation into graphite. **c**, After calcination of a fully charged (62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>) PG electrode at 850 °C in air, the sample completely transformed into a white foam made of aluminium oxide. Scale bar, 1 cm.

~5.7 Å, indicating that the AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> anions (size ~5.28 Å; ref. 19) were intercalated between graphene layers in a distorted state. Full discharging led to the recovery of the graphite peak but with a broad shoulder (Fig. 3a), probably caused by irreversible changes in the stacking between the graphene layers or a small amount of trapped species.

In situ Raman spectroscopy was also performed to probe chloroaluminate anion intercalation/de-intercalation from graphite during cell charge/discharge (Fig. 3b). The graphite G band ( $\sim$ 1,584 cm<sup>-1</sup>) diminished and split into a doublet  $(1,587 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ for the } E_{2g2}(i) \text{ mode}$ and  $\sim 1,608 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $E_{2g2}(b)$  mode) upon anion intercalation (Fig. 3b)<sup>20</sup>, and then evolved into a sharp new peak ( $\sim$ 1,636 cm<sup>-1</sup>, the G2 band of the  $E_{2g2}(b)$  mode, spectrum 2.41 V, Fig. 3b) once fully charged. The spectral changes were then reversed upon discharging (Fig. 3b), as the typical graphite Raman G band (1584 cm<sup>-1</sup>) was recovered when fully discharged (spectrum 0.03 V, Fig. 3b). Similar Raman spectra and XRD data were obtained with a graphitic-foam cathode (Extended Data Fig. 10a, b). Interestingly, calcination of a fully charged PG foil at 850 °C in air (Fig. 3c) yielded a white aluminium oxide foam (Extended Data Fig. 10c), confirming the intercalation of chloroaluminate anions into the carbon network, which had been evidently removed oxidatively.

Lastly, X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) and Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) were performed to probe the chemical nature of the intercalated species in our graphitic cathodes (see Methods for details). To minimize the amount of trapped electrolyte, graphitic foam was used and the electrode was thoroughly washed with anhydrous methanol. XPS revealed that upon charging pristine graphite, the 284.8 eV C 1s peak developed a shoulder at higher energy (~285.9 eV, Fig. 4a), confirming electrochemical oxidation of graphitic carbon by intercalation of  $AlCl_4^-$  anions (equation (2)). Chloroaluminate intercalation was evident from the appearance of Al 2*p* neaks (Fig. 4b, c). Upon



Figure 4 | Chemical probing of a graphitic cathode by XPS and AES. a, XPS data of the C 1s peak of a graphitic-foam electrode: pristine, fully charged and fully discharged. **b**, **c**, XPS data of Al 2p and Cl 2p peaks observed with a graphitic-foam electrode: pristine, fully charged and fully discharged. **d**–g, AES mapping images for C, Al and Cl (**d**, **f**), and the AES spectrum of the boxed regions (**e**, **g**) obtained with a fully charged graphitic-foam sample (**d**, **e**) and a fully discharged graphitic-foam sample (**f**, **g**). Scale bars: **d**, 25 µm; **f**, 10 µm.



discharging, the C 1s XPS spectrum of the cathode reverted to that of the pristine graphite due to anion de-intercalation and carbon reduction (Fig. 4a). Also, a substantial reduction in the Al 2*p* and Cl 2*p* signals was recorded over the graphite sample (see Fig. 4b, c). The remaining Al and Cl signals observed were attributed to trapped/adsorbed species in the graphite sample, which was probed by XPS over a large area. Furthermore, high spatial resolution AES elemental mapping of a single graphite whisker in the fully charged graphitic foam clearly revealed Al and Cl Auger signals uniformly distributed over the whisker (Fig. 4d, e), again confirming chloroaluminate anion intercalation. When fully discharged, AES mapping revealed anion de-intercalation from graphite with much lower Al and Cl Auger signals observed (Fig. 4f, g). These spectroscopic results clearly revealed chloroaluminate ion intercalation/de-intercalation in the graphite redox reactions involved in our rechargeable Al cell.

The Al battery pouch cell is mechanically bendable and foldable (Supplementary Video 1) owing to the flexibility of the electrode and separator materials. Further, we drilled through Al battery pouch cells during battery operation and observed no safety hazard, owing to the lack of flammability of the ionic liquid electrolyte in air (see Supplementary Video 2).

We have developed a new Al-ion battery using novel graphitic cathode materials with a stable cycling life up to 7,500 charge/discharge cycles without decay at ultrahigh current densities. The present Al/graphite battery can afford an energy density of ~40 W h kg<sup>-1</sup> (comparable to lead–acid and Ni–MH batteries, with room for improvement by optimizing the graphitic electrodes and by developing other novel cathode materials) and a high power density, up to 3,000 W kg<sup>-1</sup> (similar to supercapacitors). We note that the energy/power densities were calculated on the basis of the measured ~65 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> cathode capacity and the mass of active materials in electrodes and electrolyte. Such rechargeable Al ion batteries have the potential to be cost effective and safe, and to have high power density.

**Online Content** Methods, along with any additional Extended Data display items and Source Data, are available in the online version of the paper; references unique to these sections appear only in the online paper.

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Supplementary Information is available in the online version of the paper.

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Author Contributions M.-C.L., M.G., B.L. and Y.W. contributed equally to this work. M.-C.L. and H.D. conceived the idea for the project. B.L. prepared the graphitic foam. M.-C.L., M.G., B.L., Y.W., D.-Y.W., M.A. and M. Guan performed electrochemical experiments. M.-C.L., C.C. and J.Y conducted *in situ* Raman spectroscopy measurements. M.-C.L., M.G., B.L. and Y.W. performed *ex situ* X-ray diffraction measurements. M.-C.L., B.L. and Y.W. performed X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and Auger electron spectroscopy measurements. M.-C.L., M.G., B.L., Y.W., D.-Y.W., M.A., B.-J.H. and H.D. discussed the results, analysed the data and drafted the manuscript.

Author Information Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints. The authors declare no competing financial interests. Readers are welcome to comment on the online version of the paper. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to H.D. (hdai@stanford.edu).

#### **METHODS**

Preparation of ionic liquid electrolytes. A room temperature ionic liquid electrolyte was made by mixing 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([EMIm]Cl, 97%, Acros Chemicals) and anhydrous aluminium chloride (AlCl<sub>3</sub>, 99.999%, Sigma Aldrich). [EMIm]Cl was baked at 130 °C under vacuum for 16-32 h to remove residual water. ([EMIm]Al<sub>x</sub>Cl<sub>y</sub>) ionic liquid electrolytes were prepared in an argonatmosphere glove box (both [EMIm]Cl and AlCl3 are highly hygroscopic) by mixing anhydrous AlCl3 with [EMIm]Cl, and the resulting light-yellow, transparent liquid was stirred at room temperature for 10 min. The mole ratio of AlCl<sub>3</sub> to [EMIm]Cl was varied from 1.1 to 1.8. The water content of the ionic liquid was determined (500-700 p.p.m.) using a coulometric Karl Fischer titrator, DL 39 (Mettler Toledo). The predominant anions in basic melts (AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl mole ratio <1) are Cl<sup>-</sup> and  $AlCl_4^-$ , while in acidic melts ( $AlCl_3/[EMIm]Cl$  mole ratio >1) chloroaluminate anions such as Al<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>7</sub>, Al<sub>3</sub>Cl<sub>10</sub>, and Al<sub>4</sub>Cl<sub>13</sub> are formed<sup>11</sup>. The ratio of anions to cations in the AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl electrolyte was determined using a glass fibre filter paper (Whatman GF/D) loaded with a 4-8 µm Au-coated SiO<sub>2</sub> beads<sup>21</sup> in a cuvette cell (0.35 ml, Starna Cells) with random orientation quartz windows. Then, in the glove box, the cuvette cell was filled with AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole). Raman spectra (200-650 cm<sup>-1</sup>) were obtained using a 785-nm laser with 2 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution. Raman data were collected from the surface of the Au-coated SiO<sub>2</sub> bead so as to benefit from surface enhanced Raman<sup>21,22</sup> (Extended Data Fig. 2b).

Preparation of graphitic foam. Nickel (Ni) foams (Alantum Advanced Technology Materials, Shenyang, China), were used as 3D scaffold templates for the CVD growth of graphitic foam, following the process reported previously<sup>9,10</sup>. The Ni foams were heated to 1,000 °C in a horizontal tube furnace (Lindberg Blue M, TF55030C) under Ar (500 standard cubic centimetres per minute or s.c.c.m.) and H<sub>2</sub> (200 s.c.c.m.) and annealed for 10 min to clean their surfaces and to eliminate a thin surface oxide layer. Then, methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) was introduced into the reaction tube at ambient pressure at a flow rate of 10 s.c.c.m., corresponding to a concentration of 1.4 vol.% in the total gas flow. After 10 min of reaction gas mixture flow, the samples were rapidly cooled to room temperature at a rate of 300 °C min<sup>-</sup> under Ar (500 s.c.c.m.) and H<sub>2</sub> (200 s.c.c.m.). The Ni foams covered with graphite were drop-coated with a poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) solution (4.5% in ethyl acetate), and then baked at 110 °C for 0.5 h. The PMMA/graphene/Ni foam structure was obtained after solidification. Afterwards, these samples were put into a 3 M HCl solution for 3 h to completely dissolve the Ni foam to obtain the PMMA/graphite at 80 °C. Finally, the pure graphitic foam was obtained by removing PMMA in hot acetone at 55 °C and annealing in NH<sub>3</sub> (80 s.c.c.m.) at 600 °C for 2 h, and then annealing in air at 450 °C for 2 h. The microstructure of the graphitic foam was examined by SEM analysis using a FEI XL30 Sirion scanning electron microscope (Fig. 2a in the main text).

**Preparation of glassy carbon.** Glassy carbon (GC) was used as the current collector in the Swagelok-type cell. 72 g phenol (Sigma-Aldrich) and 4.5 ml ammonium hydroxide (30%, Fisher Scientific) were dissolved in 100 ml formaldehyde solution (37%, Fisher Scientific) under reflux while stirring rapidly. The solution was stirred at 90 °C until the solution turned a milk-white colour. Rotary evaporation was used to remove the water and get the phenolic resin. The phenolic resin was solidified at 100 °C in a mould (1/2-inch glass tube), and then carbonized at 850 °C under an Ar atmosphere for four hours to obtain the GC rod. The resulting GC rod contributed negligible capacity to the cathode (Extended Data Fig. 6b).

Electrochemical measurements. Prior to assembling the Al/graphite cell in the glove box, all components were heated under vacuum at 60 °C for more than 12 h to remove residual water. All electrochemical tests were performed at  $25 \pm 1$  °C. A Swagelok-type cell (1/2 inch diameter) was constructed using a  $\sim$ 4 mg PG foil (0.017 mm, Suzhou Dasen Electronics Materials) cathode and a 90 mg Al foil (0.25 mm, Alfa Aesar) anode. A 1/2 inch GC rod (10 mm) was used as the current collector for the PG cathode, and a 1/2 inch graphite rod (10 mm) was used for the Al anode. Six layers of 1/2 inch glass fibre filter paper (Whatman 934-AH) were placed between the anode and cathode. Then,  ${\sim}1.0\,{\rm ml}$  of ionic liquid electrolyte (prepared with AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl mole ratios of 1.1, 1.3, 1.5 and 1.8) was injected and the cell sealed. The Al/PG cell was then charged (to 2.45 V) and discharged (to 0.01 V) at a current density of 66 mA  $g^{-1}$  with a MTI battery analyser (BST8-WA) to identify the ideal AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl mole ratio (Extended Data Fig. 2a). To investigate the Coulombic efficiency of the Al/PG cell in AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl  $\approx$  1.3 (by mole) electrolyte, the cell was charged to 2.45, 2.50, 2.55 and 2.60 V, respectively, and discharged to 0.4 V at a current density of 66 mA  $g^{-1}$  (Extended Data Fig. 6a). For long-term cycling stability tests, an Al/PG cell using electrolyte AlCl<sub>3</sub>/ [EMIm]Cl≈1.3 by mole was charged/discharged at a current density of  $66 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1b, c in the main text). To study the rate capability of the Al/ PG cell, the current densities were varied from 66 to 264 mA  $g^{-1}$  (Extended Data Fig. 7). Note that we lowered the electrolyte amount to  $\sim 0.02 \text{ ml}$  per mg of cathode material and observed similar cell operation (Extended Data Fig. 4). Further decrease in the electrolyte ratio is possible through battery engineering.

PG foil was synthesized by pyrolysis of polyimide at high temperature, in which some covalent bonding is inevitably generated due to imperfections. Natural graphite foil was produced by compressing expanded graphite flakes, leading to stacking of natural graphite flakes by Van der Waals bonding between them. Similar battery characteristics were observed with PG and graphite foil electrodes, indicating that the battery behaviour was derived from the graphite property of the electrodes (Extended Data Fig. 8c). However, since the natural graphite foils are synthesized by compressing expanded natural graphite powders without the covalent linkage between them, these foils suffered from drastic electrode expansion obvious to the naked eye, whereas pyrolytic graphite foils showed no obvious electrode expansion due to covalency (Extended Data Fig. 8a, b).

Pouch cells were assembled in the glove box using a graphitic-foam (~3 mg) cathode and an Al foil (~70 mg) anode, which were separated by two layers of glass fibre filter paper to prevent shorting. Polymer (0.1 mm × 4 mm × 5 mm) coated Ni foils (0.09 mm × 3 mm × 60 mm in size; MTI corporation) were used as current collectors for both anode and cathode. The electrolyte (~2 ml prepared using AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 by mole) was injected and the cell was closed using a heat sealer. The cell was removed from the glove box for long-term cycling stability tests, in which the cell was charged/discharged at a current density of 4,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2b, c). To determine the rate capability and fast-charge/slow-discharge behaviours of the Al/graphitic-foam cell, various current densities from 100 to 5,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup> were used (Extended Data Fig. 9 and Fig. 2d). The pouch cell was charged to 2.42 V and discharged to a cut-off voltage of 0.5 V to prevent the dissolution reaction of Ni foil in the ionic liquid electrolyte.

Cyclic voltammetry measurements were performed using a potentiostat/galvanostat model CHI 760D (CH Instruments) in either three-electrode or two-electrode mode. The working electrode was an Al foil or a PG foil, the auxiliary electrode consisted of an Al foil, and an Al foil was used as the reference electrode. Copper tape (3M) was attached to these electrodes as the current collector. The copper tape was covered by poly-tetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) tape to prevent contact with the ionic liquid electrolyte and the part of the copper tape covered by PTFE was not immersed in the ionic liquid electrolyte. This prevented corrosion of the copper tape during cyclic voltammetry measurements. All three electrodes were placed in a plastic (1.5 ml) cuvette cell (containing electrolyte AlCl<sub>3</sub>/ [EMIm]Cl= 1.3 by mole) in the glove box, and then sealed with a rubber cap using a clamp. The scanning voltage range was set from -1.0 to 1.0 V (versus Al) for Al foil and 0 to 2.5 V (versus Al) for graphitic material, and the scan rate was 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> (Extended Data Fig. 10d). To investigate the working voltage range of the electrolyte without involving cathode intercalation, two-electrode measurement was performed by using a GC rod cathode against an Al anode in a Swagelok cell in AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl (~1.3 by mole) electrolyte. The scanning voltage range was set from 0 to 2.9 V at a scan rate of 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> (Extended Data Fig. 6b).

We investigated the Al ion cell operation mechanism and electrode reactions in the ionic liquid electrolyte, using the optimal mole ratio of  $AlCl_3/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3$ . Using CV (Extended Data Fig. 10d), a reduction wave from -1.0 to -0.08 V (versus Al) and an oxidation wave from -0.08 to 0.80 V (versus Al) for the anode were observed (Extended Data Fig. 10d, left plot), corresponding to Al reduction/elec-trodeposition and oxidation/dissolution<sup>13,15,23-25</sup> during charging and discharging, respectively. This was consistent with Al redox electrochemistry in chloroaluminate ionic liquids<sup>13,15,23-25</sup> via equation (1) in the main text, and consistent with our Raman measurements, which showed both AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> and Al<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>7</sub><sup>-</sup> in the electrolyte (Extended Data Fig. 2b). On the graphitic cathode side, an oxidation wave of 1.83 to 2.50 V (versus Al) and a reduction wave of 1.16 to 2.36 V (versus Al) were observed (Extended Data Fig. 10d, right plot) and attributed to graphite oxidation and reduction through intercalation and de-intercalation of anions (predominantly AlCl<sub>4</sub> due to its smaller size), respectively. The oxidation voltage range of 1.83 to 2.50 V (versus Al, Extended Data Fig. 10d, right plot) was close to the anodic voltage range (1.8 to 2.2 V versus Al) of a previously reported dual-graphite cell $^{26}$  attributed to AlCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> intercalation in graphite. The reduction wave range of 1.16 to 2.36 V (versus Al) was assigned to the  $\mathrm{AlCl}_4^-$  de-intercalation  $^{26}$  . The nature of the shoulder in the reduction curve of graphite ranging from 2.36 to 1.9 V (Extended Data Fig. 10d, right plot) and a higher discharge plateau (2.25 to 2.0 V) of an Al/PG cell upon charging (Fig. 1b in the main text) remained unclear, but could be due to different stages of anion-graphite intercalation<sup>27</sup>.

**XRD** and Raman studies of graphite cathodes during charge and discharge. For *ex situ* X-ray diffraction (XRD) study, an Al/ PG cell (in a Swagelok configuration) was charged and discharged at a constant current density of 66 mA  $g^{-1}$ . The reactions were stopped after 30 mA h  $g^{-1}$  charged, fully charged (62 mA h  $g^{-1}$ ) and 40 mA h  $g^{-1}$  discharged after charge/discharge capacities were in a stable state. Fully charged (62 mA h  $g^{-1}$ ) graphitic foam was also prepared. After either the charge or the discharge reaction, the graphitic cathode was removed from the cell in the glove box. To avoid reaction between the cathode and air/moisture in the ambient atmosphere, the cathode was placed onto a glass slide and then wrapped in a Scotch tape. The wrapped samples were immediately removed from the glove box for *ex situ* XRD measurements, which were performed on a PANalytical X'Pert instrument (Fig. 3a in the main text and Extended Data Fig. 10b).

The periodic repeat distance ( $I_{\rm C}$ ), the intercalant gallery height ( $d_i$ ) and the gallery expansion ( $\Delta d$ )<sup>28,29</sup> can be calculated using

$$U_{\rm C} = (d_{\rm i} + 3.35 \,\text{\AA}) \times (n - 1) = (\Delta d + 3.35 \,\text{\AA}) \times n = l \times d_{\rm obs}$$
(3)

where *l* is the index of (00*l*) planes oriented in the stacking direction and  $d_{obs}$  is the observed value of the spacing between two adjacent planes<sup>18,28,29</sup>. The *d* spacing of graphite is 3.35 Å. During the charging/anion-intercalation process, the graphite (002) peak completely vanished and two new peaks arose. The intensity pattern is commonly found for a stage *n* graphite intercalation compound (GIC), where the most dominant peak is the (00n + 1) and the second most dominant peak is the  $(00n + 2)^{18,28,29}$ . Based on our experimental data, by increasing the charging state from 48–60% charged (30 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>) to the fully charged state (62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>), the distance between the (00n + 1) and (00n + 2) peaks gradually increased, as more Al<sub>x</sub>Cl<sub>y</sub><sup>-</sup> anions intercalated. The *d* spacing values of (00n + 1) and (00n + 2) peaks (that is,  $d_{(n+1)}$  and  $d_{(n+2)}$ , respectively) were calculated from XRD data (for example, Fig. 3a). By determining the ratio of the  $d_{(n+2)}/d_{(n+1)}$  peak position and correlating these to the ratios of stage pure GICs (that is, ideal cases), the most dominant stage phase of the observed GIC can be assigned<sup>28,29</sup>. After assigning the (00*l*) indices, we calculated the intercalant gallery height ( $d_i$ ) through equation (3).

For simultaneous *in situ* Raman and galvanostatic charge/discharge reaction measurements, a cuvette cell (0.35 ml, Starna Cells) with random orientation quartz windows was used. An aluminium foil and a graphitic material (PG or graphitic foam) were used as the anode and cathode, respectively. The electrolyte was mixed AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole). The electrochemical cell was assembled in the glove box following the process mentioned above. Raman spectra were obtained (1,500–1,700 cm<sup>-1</sup>) using a HeNe laser (633 nm) with 2 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution. The spectral data were collected after a few successive charge/discharge scans between 2.45 and 0.01 V at a current density of 66 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (PG) (Fig. 3b in the main text) or 1,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup> (graphitic foam) (Extended Data Fig. 10a).

**XPS and AES measurements.** Al/graphitic-foam cells were fully charged/discharged at a current density of 4,000 mA g<sup>-1</sup>. Then, the Al/graphitic-foam cells were transferred to the glove box for preparation for XPS and AES analysis. Fully charged/

discharged graphitic foams were collected from the pouch cell and washed with anhydrous methanol to remove the residual  $AlCl_3/EMIC$  ionic liquid electrolyte. The as-rinsed graphitic foams were attached to a Si wafer and baked at 90 °C for 10 min to remove residual methanol. The samples were sealed in a plastic pouch to avoid contamination by reaction with moisture and oxygen before XPS and AES characterization. Auger electron spectra were taken by a PHI 700 Scanning Auger Nanoprobe operating at 10 kV and 10 nA. XPS spectra were collected on a PHI VersaProbe Scanning XPS Microprobe (Fig. 4 in the main text).

**TGA measurements.** Fully charged PG cathodes were washed with methanol for 24 h to remove the residual AlCl<sub>3</sub>/EMIC ionic liquid electrolyte. The as-washed PG samples were calcined at 850 °C for 3 h in air. The as-calcined samples (white foam) were collected, weighed, and analysed by SEM-EDX to study the chemical composition (Extended Data Fig. 10c). SEM and SEM-EDX analyses were performed using an FEI XL30 Sirion scanning electron microscope.

Sample size. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size.

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Extended Data Figure 1 | X-ray diffraction patterns of graphitic cathode materials. The natural graphite, pyrolytic graphite (PG) and graphitic foam exhibited typical graphite structure, with a sharp (002) X-ray diffraction (XRD) graphite peak at  $2\theta \approx 26.55^{\circ}$  (*d* spacing = 3.35 Å).





Extended Data Figure 2 | Determination of the optimal mole ratio of AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl ionic liquid electrolyte. a, Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of Al/PG cells at a current density of  $66 \text{ mA g}^{-1}$  in various mole ratios (1.1, 1.3, 1.5 and 1.8) of AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl ionic liquid electrolytes

in a Swagelok-type cell. The Coulombic efficiencies of the cells are shown in parentheses. **b**, Raman spectrum of the ionic liquid electrolyte with a mole ratio of AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3.

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Extended Data Figure 3 | Calculated discharging capacities of Al/graphite cells with different masses of graphitic materials. a, Natural graphite foils of  $50 \,\mu\text{m}$  and  $130 \,\mu\text{m}$  thickness; b, PG and graphitic foam. These data suggest

that the entire graphitic material (natural graphite, PG and graphitic foam) participated in the cell cathode reaction.



**Extended Data Figure 4** | **Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of an Al/PG cell.** The cell was constructed with one layer of glass fibre separator and 0.08 ml of ionic liquid electrolyte, suggesting that the minimum amount of electrolyte could be 0.02 ml per mg of PG. This electrochemical study was performed in an ionic liquid electrolyte of composition AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole) at a current density of 66 mA g<sup>-1</sup> in a Swagelok-type cell.



Extended Data Figure 5 | Surface observations of an Al anode. a, b, SEM images of the Al anode obtained from two Al/PG cells after 20 (a) and 100 (b) cycles, respectively, and indicate no dendrite formation over these cycles. Scale bars, 10 µm.



**ionic liquid electrolyte. a**, Galvanostatic curves of Al/PG cells with different cut-off charge voltages obtained at 66 mA  $g^{-1}$  in a Swagelok-type cell. **b**, Cyclic voltammetry curve of a Al/glassy carbon (GC) cell at 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in a Swagelok-type cell. **c**, **d**, Stability test of Al/natural graphite pouch cell at 66 mA  $g^{-1}$  in electrolytes containing water at 7,500–10,000 p.p.m. (**c**) and 500–700 p.p.m. (**d**). The Coulombic efficiencies are respectively 95.2% and

98.6%, and the discharge capacities are respectively 54.9 and 61.8 mA h g $^{-1}$  at the 15 cycle. **e**, Gas chromatography spectrum of gaseous samples withdrawn from Al/graphite cells after 30 cycles using electrolyte with 7,500–10,000 p.p.m. H<sub>2</sub>O content. The peak found in the retention time at  $\sim$ 0.5 min corresponds to hydrogen gas and matches the retention time of pure hydrogen gas used for calibration.

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**Extended Data Figure 7** | **Rate capability of an Al/PG cell. a**, Capacity retention of an Al/PG cell cycled at various current densities, showing good cycling stability at different charge–discharge current densities. **b**, Coulombic efficiency versus current density data of Al/PG cells, indicating the Coulombic

efficiency is ~95–97% at current densities of 66–132 mA g<sup>-1</sup>. Error bars, standard deviation from the Coulombic efficiency for each current density. All electrochemical studies were performed in an ionic liquid electrolyte of composition AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole) in a Swagelok-type cell.





**Extended Data Figure 8 Advantages of PG as the cathode for an Al/graphite cell. a, b**, Right: photographs of natural graphite (**a**) and pyrolytic graphite (PG; **b**) before and after being fully charged in an AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole) ionic liquid electrolyte. Scale bars, 1 cm. Left: the schematic plots indicate the chemical bonds between the graphene sheets of natural graphite (Vander Waals bonding) and of PG (covalent bonding). **c**, Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of an Al/PG cell (at 66 mA g<sup>-1</sup>) and an Al/natural graphite cell (at 33 mA g<sup>-1</sup>) in an ionic liquid electrolyte of composition AlCl<sub>3</sub>/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3 (by mole) in a Swagelok-type cell.



**Extended Data Figure 9 Rate capability of an Al/graphitic-foam cell. a**, Capacity retention of an Al/graphitic-foam cell cycled at various current densities, showing cycling stability at different charge–discharge current densities. All electrochemical studies were performed in an

 $\rm AlCl_3/[EMIm]Cl = 1.3$  (by mole) ionic liquid electrolyte in a pouch cell. **b**, Galvanostatic charge and discharge curves of Al/graphitic-foam cells charging at 5,000 mA g $^{-1}$  and discharging at various current densities ranging from 100 to 5,000 mA g $^{-1}$ . Same electrolyte and cell type as **a**.



**Extended Data Figure 10** | **Reaction mechanism of graphitic cathodes. a**, *In situ* Raman spectra recorded for the graphitic-foam cathode through a charge/discharge cycle showing chloroaluminate anion intercalation/de-intercalation into graphite. **b**, *Ex situ* XRD patterns of the pristine and fully

charged (62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>) graphitic foam. c, EDS spectrum of as-calcined fully charged (62 mA h g<sup>-1</sup>) PG at 850 °C in air. d, Cyclic voltammetry curves of Al foil and PG at a scan rate of 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> against an Al reference electrode.