

Preparation of Proton-Conducting Solid Electrolyte Membrane Based on Carboxymethyl Chitosan Complexed with Ammonium Acetate

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ABSTRACT. This research aims to prepare the proton-conducting solid electrolyte membrane based on carboxymethyl chitosan (CMCh) complexed with ammonium acetate ($\text{CH}_3\text{COONH}_4$). The membranes were prepared by using casting solution technique where the various weight percentages of ammonium acetate mixed to CMCh for obtaining optimum condition based on ionic conductivity analysis. Some characterizations were conducted to analysis the functional groups (involving complexation studies), ionic conductivities, mechanical properties, crystallinities, and thermal analysis by using FTIR, EIS, tensile tester, XRD, and TGA. The results showed that the optimum proton conductivity was obtained at the addition of 40% (w/w) $\text{CH}_3\text{COONH}_4$ salt as high as 1.39×10^{-4} S/cm and a tensile strength of 9.06 MPa. Based on the results, it can be concluded that the optimum condition of the membrane shows good characteristics to be applied as a proton conducting solid electrolyte.

Keywords: Ammonium acetate, carboxymethyl chitosan, polymer electrolyte, proton conductivity, proton-conducting membrane.

INTRODUCTION

The availability decrement of fossil fuels and the environmental problems they impact have driven the development of energy storage and conversion technologies such as supercapacitors, fuel cells, and electrochemical double-layer capacitors (EDLC) (Boopathi et al., 2017; Dannoun et al., 2022; Nayla & Radiman, 2023; Sihombing et al., 2023). Currently, many technological developments require energy storage devices such as rechargeable batteries as a source of energy (Ahmed & Abdullah, 2020).

Lithium-ion batteries are the most popular energy storage devices today due to their advantages, including relatively high energy density and long life cycle than other types of batteries (Han et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2022). However, the electrolyte source derived from lithium salts is costly, causing research to shift to the search for electrolyte sources from cheaper salts such as sodium salts, potassium salts, and ammonium salts (proton conductors) (Aziz et al., 2021; Chandra et al., 2016; Martinez-Cisneros et al., 2023; Nuryanto et al., 2013; Tahir et al., 2022). When compared to other

ions, protons (H^+ ions) are the smallest ions and are therefore preferred to replace lithium ions, as they offer greater energy density (Alias et al., 2017; Heidari et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022; J.-L. Yang et al., 2022)

Based on the previous explanation, proton batteries are a candidate for replacing lithium-ion batteries. In proton batteries, the electrolyte source comes from salts that can dissociate protons, especially from ammonium salts such as ammonium tetrafluoroborate, ammonium iodide, ammonium hexafluorophosphate, ammonium fluoride and ammonium acetate (Abdullah et al., 2021; Aziz et al., 2020; Hadi et al., 2022; Lakshmi et al., 2021).

The electrolyte is one of the crucial components in lithium-ion batteries. Generally, the rechargeable batteries' electrolyte still uses liquid (Septiana et al., 2019). Using liquid electrolytes provides advantages in high ion conductivity but poor safety aspects. Liquid electrolytes are flammable because the solvent used has a low boiling point, corrosive, not environmentally friendly, and others (Huy et al., 2021; Jian et al., 2022; Pratiwi, 2018; Varzi et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2019).

Using solid electrolytes to replace liquid electrolytes in rechargeable batteries, including proton batteries, offers advantages, excellent mechanical stability and thermal (Yusof et al., 2014). Solid electrolytes have at least two main components: polymer and electrolyte (salt). The choice of polymer type largely determines the performance of the solid electrolyte. Some common synthetic polymers that are widely used as the main matrix of solid electrolytes include polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polyethylene oxide (PEO), polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA) (Babiker et al., 2023; Hosseinioun & Paillard, 2020; Manoharan et al., 2021; Putri et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2021). However, the impact of using these polymers on the environment by industrial-scale fabrication processes and using synthetic polymers must be minimized.

Biopolymers can be used as an alternative to synthetic polymers as solid electrolyte polymer hosts because they have advantages over synthetic polymers, such as offering many polar functional groups such as -O-, -OH, -C=O, -NH₂, and others as transit sites for migrating ions. These functional groups can easily interact to form van der Waals, Coulomb, and hydrogen bond interactions that cannot be found in a single synthetic polymer (Francis et al., 2020; Lizundia & Kundu, 2021; Schlemmer et al., 2021).

Carboxymethyl chitosan is a chitosan-derived compound produced by substituting carboxymethyl groups on amine and hydroxyl groups (Miao et al., 2008; Suseno et al., 2017). Successful research reported that using carboxymethyl chitosan as a solid electrolyte membrane is a complex supercapacitor of potassium tetraborate and potassium carbonate (Cai et al., 2023). Carboxymethyl chitosan has advantages in terms of conductivity compared to the original compound (chitosan). Based on previous research, chitosan has a conductivity value of 2.93×10^{-9} S/cm lower than carboxymethyl chitosan, which is 2.20×10^{-7} S/cm (Shamsudin et al., 2020).

To increase the conductivity value of carboxymethyl chitosan, modification is carried out by doping ammonium acetate salt as a proton source (H⁺) (Alias et al., 2017). It is known that ammonium salts can increase proton conductivity in carboxymethyl cellulose polymer electrolytes (Brza et al., 2020). Ammonium acetate is a plasticizer because it can increase amorphous properties and reduce the glass transition temperature in solid electrolytes (Pahune, 2011). Based on this background, this research was conducted to make a carboxymethyl chitosan solid electrolyte membrane complexed with ammonium acetate salt. The proton-conducting solid electrolyte membrane in this study was characterized using Fourier Transform Infra-Red (FTIR), Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS), tensile tester, X-ray Diffraction (XRD), and Thermogravimetry Analysis (TGA).

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Materials and Instruments

The chemicals used were carboxymethyl chitosan (commercial), ammonium acetate (Loba-Chemie, p.a), methanol (Merck, p.a), and aquades. The instruments used were FTIR (Thermoscientific, type Nicolet IS5), Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS, HIOKI, type 3532-50 LCR HiTESTER), tensile tester (AGS-X) and Thermogravimetry Analysis (TGA, SETARAM Thermal Analyzer Labsys Evo S60).

Preparation CMCh + AmAc salt-based Solid Electrolyte Membrane

The CMCh-based solid electrolyte membranes doped with AmAc salt were prepared using a casting solution technique. CMCh and AmAc salt were dissolved in aquades. The mixture was stirred for 24 h to obtain a homogenous solution. The solutions were poured onto the petri dish and vaped at 60°C in the oven for 24 h. The solid electrolyte membranes were prepared by comparing between CMCh and AmAc as follows, i.e. (100:0), (90:10), (80:20), (70:30), (60:40), (50:50) %w/w.

Characterizations

All of them were characterized using Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR), Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS), tensile tester, X-ray Diffraction (XRD), and Thermogravimetry Analysis (TGA).

Molecular Structure Elucidation

Molecular structure analysis was conducted by using Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR, JEOL) with a frequency of 500 MHz.

Functional Groups Analysis

Functional groups were characterized for membrane materials (carboxymethyl chitosan and ammonium acetate) and solid electrolyte membranes using Thermo Scientific type FTIR. The solid electrolyte membrane characterization was carried out using Fourier Transform Infra-Red Attenuated Total Reflection (FTIR-ATR) with a wave number range of 500-4000 cm⁻¹ (Hadi, Aziz, Brza et al., 2022; Singh et al., 2020).

Percentage of Free Ions and Contact Ions

The FTIR deconvolution carried out the determination of the percentage of free ions. The calculation uses the following equation (Mejenom et al., 2018):

$$\text{Free ions(\%)} = \frac{A_f}{A_f + A_c} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Contact ion(\%)} = 100 - \text{free ions} \quad (2)$$

Where A_f is the area under the peak for free ions, and A_c is the area under the peak for contact ions.

Ion Transport Parameters

Ion transport analysis includes density (η), ionic mobility (μ), and diffusion coefficient (D). The calculation uses the following equation (Abdalrahman et al., 2022):

$$\eta = \frac{M \times N_A \times \text{free ions}(\%)}{V_{total}} \quad (4)$$

$$\mu = \frac{\sigma}{\eta e} \quad (5)$$

$$D = \left(\frac{kT\mu}{e} \right) \quad (6)$$

Where M is moles of salt used, N_A is Avogadro number ($6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$), V_{total} is total volume of solvent used for solid electrolyte membrane preparation, σ is proton conductivity of solid electrolyte membrane, e is electric charge ($1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$), k is Boltzman constant ($1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ JK}^{-1}$) and T is absolute temperature (273 K).

Force Constant

The force constant (k) can be calculated using Hooke's law through the following equation (Akhtar et al., 2019; Hazaana et al., 2023):

$$v = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}} \text{ N/cm} \quad (7)$$

$$k = 4\pi^2 c^2 v^2 \mu \quad (8)$$

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 \times m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (9)$$

where v is wavenumber (cm^{-1}), c is the velocity of light ($2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$), k is force constant (N/cm), μ is reduced mass, and $\pi = 3,14$.

Absorption Bandwidth and Transmittance Intensity

Widening of the absorption band and the length of transmittance intensity in IR spectra can be calculated with the following equation (Hafiza & Isa, 2017):

$$\text{Bandwidth (cm}^{-1}\text{)} = B_t - B_0 \quad (10)$$

$$T\% = T_{\text{baseline}} - T_{\text{puncak}} \quad (11)$$

where B_t is the final baseline, and B_0 is the initial baseline.

Proton Conductivities Analysis

Proton conductivity measurements of each sample were carried out using electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS, HIOKI, type 3532-50 LCR HiTESTER) in the frequency range 42 Hz-1 MHz at room temperature. The samples were sandwiched with stainless steel electrodes connected to the LCR tester (Hemalatha et al., 2021; Mahalakshmi et al., 2019; Rahamathullah et al., 2020). Rahamathullah et al (2020) mentioned that the calculation of bulk proton conductivity could be done with the following equation (Rahamathullah et al., 2020):

$$\sigma = \frac{t}{R_b \times A} \quad (12)$$

Where σ is bulk proton conductivity (S/cm), t is the thickness (cm), A is the surface area of the electrode contact area with the membrane (cm^2), and R_b is bulk resistance (ohm).

Alfannakh and Ibrahim (2022) suggest that EIS test results can be utilized to calculate proton conductivity using Jonscher's Power Law equation, which can be done using OriginLab software (Alfannakh & Ibrahim, 2022).

$$\sigma_{AC} = \sigma_{DC} + A\omega^n \quad (13)$$

where σ_{AC} is AC proton conductivity (S/cm), σ_{DC} is DC proton conductivity (S/cm), A is frequency-dependent constant (S.cm^{n+1}), ω is the angular frequency (rad/s) and n is Power Law exponent ($0 \leq n \leq 1$).

Degree of Crystallinity

The results of characterization with XRD are in the form of diffractograms that can be used to calculate the degree of crystallinity. Ahmed and Abdullah (2020) mentioned that the calculation of the degree of crystallinity can be done by the deconvolution method using OriginLab software (Ahmed & Abdullah, 2020; Zainuddin et al., 2020). The calculation of the degree of crystallinity uses the following equation:

$$(X_c) (\%) = \frac{C_a}{C_a + A_a} \times 100 \quad (14)$$

where X_c is the degree of crystallinity, A_c is the crystal area, and A_a is the amorphous area.

Mechanical Properties Analysis

The mechanical strength of pure CMCh and ammonium acetate complexed CMCh solid electrolyte membrane was measured using a tensile tester using the ASTM d 882 method. The solid electrolyte membranes were cut into rectangular shapes with a size of 5 cm \times 1 cm. Then, the solid electrolyte membrane was tested with a gauge length of 2 cm, a load cell of 10 N, and a test speed of 10 mm/min (Sudiarti et al., 2017; Triandini, 2018).

Crystallinities Analysis

Crystallinity analysis of the solid electrolyte membrane was performed using X-ray diffraction (XRD). The radiation beam was Cu K α at 2 θ with a range of 5 to 80 $^\circ$ (Ahmed & Abdullah, 2020; Zainuddin et al., 2020).

Thermal Analysis

Thermal stability characterization of solid electrolyte membranes was performed using thermogravimetric analysis (TGA SETARAM Thermal analyzer Labsys Evo S60). The samples were heated from 25 $^\circ\text{C}$ to 600 $^\circ\text{C}$ at a rate of 10 $^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ under argon gas flow (Samsudin et al., 2014; Triandini, 2018; H. Yang et al., 2019).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Functional Group Analysis of Chitosan and Carboxymethyl Chitosan

Carboxymethyl chitosan is divided into several types based on its substitution, including O-carboxymethyl chitosan (O-CM-chitosan), N-carboxymethyl chitosan (N-CM-chitosan), N, O-carboxymethyl chitosan (N, O-CM-chitosan), and N,N-carboxymethyl chitosan (N,N-CM-chitosan) (Ellina et al., 2021). To determine the type and validation of the structure, functional group analysis was carried out with FTIR-KBr, which can be seen in Figure 1.

The chitosan used as a comparison material is a commercial chitosan. The presence of amine groups in chitosan can be detected from the broadened peak

at 3450 cm^{-1} , which is the stretching vibration of -OH and -NH₂ groups with overlapping wavenumbers (Bukzem et al., 2016). Peaks of -CH- stretching and bending vibrations were observed at wave numbers 2920 and 1383 cm^{-1} (Bukzem et al., 2016; Lei et al., 2020). Meanwhile, the wave number 1639 cm^{-1} shows C=O vibrations and 1604 cm^{-1} is a deformed N-H vibration (Lusiana et al., 2014; Müller et al., 2015). However, the presence of N-H vibrations in chitosan has a small intensity, indicating that the amount of amide in chitosan is small.

The peak of C-N and C-H bending vibrations was observed at 1383 cm^{-1} (Morandim-Giannetti et al., 2019; Tzaneva et al., 2017). The ether group (-C-O-C-) vibration connecting the glycosidic ring of chitosan was observed at 1154 cm^{-1} (Pineda et al., 2014; Vaghani et al., 2012). The peak of C-O stretching vibrations originating from within the pyranose ring was observed at 1074 cm^{-1} (Katugampola et al., 2014), while the wave number 556 cm^{-1} showed N-H wagging vibrations (Pineda et al., 2014).

The structure of chitosan and carboxymethyl chitosan differs significantly due to the carboxyl group, resulting in a new peak at 1412 cm^{-1} displaying C-O-H vibrations (Putra et al., 2016; Tzaneva et al., 2017). Two firm peaks at 1600 cm^{-1} and 1412 cm^{-1} indicate carboxymethylation, similar to Palaniselvam et al.'s research (Palaniselvam et al., 2023).

Band broadening was determined using equation 10. The results can be seen in **Figure 2**. The band widening at wavenumber 3435 cm^{-1} initially amounted to 725.253 cm^{-1} in the chitosan sample and widened to 763.646 cm^{-1} in the carboxymethyl chitosan sample. Kurniasih et al. (2012) reported

band widening in the -OH and -NH vibrational regions, indicating that carboxymethyl is substituted in both groups (Kurniasih et al., 2012). Band widening was also observed at a wave number of 1600 cm^{-1} initially at 251.564 cm^{-1} in the chitosan sample and widened to 323.888 cm^{-1} in the carboxymethyl chitosan sample with a change in the wavenumber, indicating that carboxymethyl is substituted in the N-H group (Doshi et al., 2017; Lusiana et al., 2014). Based on the results, it can be concluded that the type of carboxymethyl chitosan used in this study is N,O-Carboxymethyl chitosan. The structure can be seen in **Figure 2**.

Functional group analysis on the pure CMCh membrane and AmAc-complexed CMCh membrane was performed using FTIR ATR. Comparison of IR spectra of pure CMCh membrane and CMCh-AmAc membrane (**Figure 3**) revealed the following and summarised in Table 1. No new peaks were formed in the IR spectrum of the AmAc-complexed CMCh membrane, indicating that no new bonds were formed between CMCh and the AmAc salt. However, based on observations, there is a shift in wave numbers towards lower O-H and N-H stretching vibrations from pure CMCh membrane (3369 cm^{-1}) to (3325 cm^{-1}) when AmAc salt is added. The wave number shift also occurs in C=O vibrations from 1583 cm^{-1} in pure CMCh membrane samples to 1579 cm^{-1} when CMCh membranes were added with salt. In C-O-H stretching vibrations, there was also a shift in wavenumber from 1412 cm^{-1} to 1408 cm^{-1} . A wavenumber shift indicates the interaction of complex formation between the host polymer and AmAc salt (Singh et al., 2020).

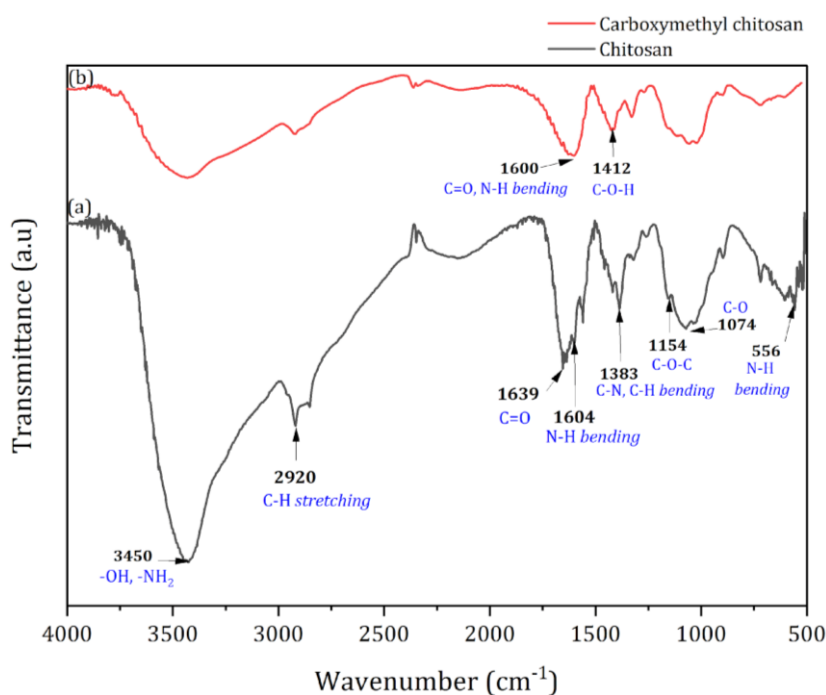


Figure 1. IR spectra of (a) Chitosan and (b) Carboxymethyl Chitosan

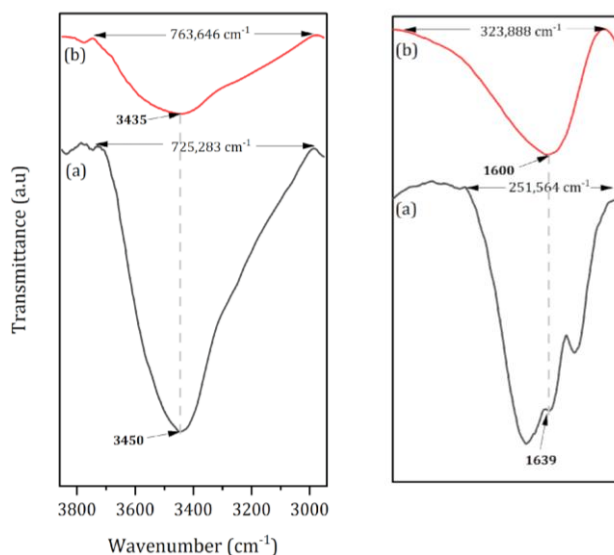


Figure 2. Band Widening in FTIR Analysis of (a) Chitosan and (b) Carboxymethyl Chitosan

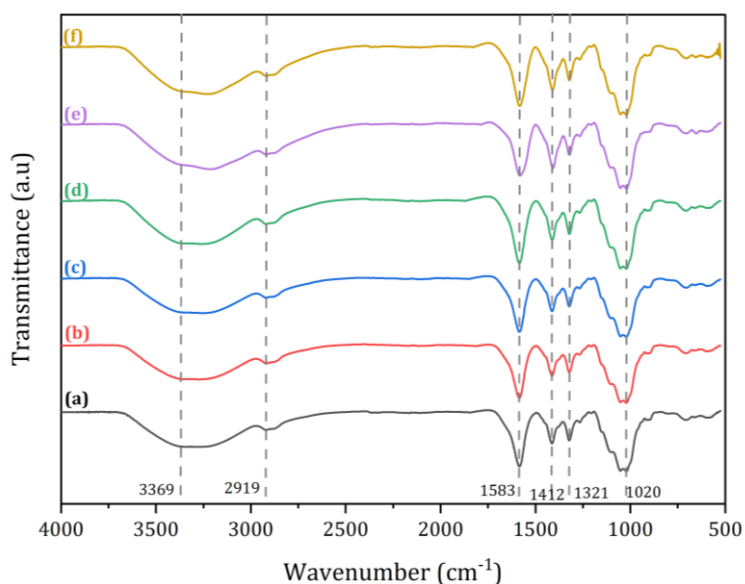


Figure 3. IR Spectra Solid Electrolyte Membranes of (a) CMCh, (b) CMCh-AmAc (90-10), (c) CMCh-AmAc (80-20), (d) CMCh-AmAc (70-30), (e) CMCh-AmAc (60-40) and (f) CMCh-AmAc (50-50)

Table 1. FTIR Analysis of AmAc-Complexed CMCh Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Functional group	Wavenumber (cm ⁻¹)					
	CMCh	CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	CMCh-AmAc (50-50)
O-H and N-H stretching	3369	3350	3325	3254	3213	3224
C-H ulur	2919	2921	2919	2919	2920	2919
C=O (asam karboksilat)	1583	1583	1583	1583	1579	1581
C-O-H dan N-H bending	1412	1412	1412	1411	1408	1410
C-N stretching	1321	1321	1321	1321	1321	1321
C-O-C (ether)	1020	1020	1020	1020	1019	1019

The C-O-C vibration (1020 cm^{-1}) did not experience a wavenumber shifting. This indicates that the C-O group on the host polymer provides weak Van der Waals interactions with H^+ from the AmAc salt deprotonation process. On the other hand, there is a strong interaction between H^+ from the AmAc salt and the O-H, N-H, and C-O-H functional groups on the CMCh host polymer. These conditions are desirable because these functional groups provide good conducting properties (Rasali et al., 2020; Saadiah et al., 2020).

Complexation formation was also observed in the wavenumber interval of $1500\text{-}1700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ which shows C=O vibrations. In these vibrations, the wavenumber shift did not occur significantly. However, there is a change in intensity **Figure 4**. The change in intensity indicates that there is an interaction between CMCh (oxygen atoms in the carboxyl group) and ammonium

ions (free protons) (R et al., 2022; Rasali et al., 2020). Transmittance intensity was calculated with Eq. 11 to determine the effect of salt addition and summarized in **Table 2**; the transmittance intensity changes irregularly. This shows that the transmittance intensity cannot be a reference for the amount of salt in the polymer matrix. This phenomenon is likely due to the membrane's inhomogeneity and thickness, which cannot be controlled in this study. The salt complexation in the electrolyte polymer matrix is also indicated by band broadening; it can be quantified using equation 10. The results of the band widening calculation have been summarized in Table 2, where the widening occurred from 214 to 226 cm^{-1} . According to Gedam & Bhoga (2010), band broadening correlates with adding salt and can form complexes that cause inter-polymer interactions to weaken (Gedam & Bhoga, 2010).

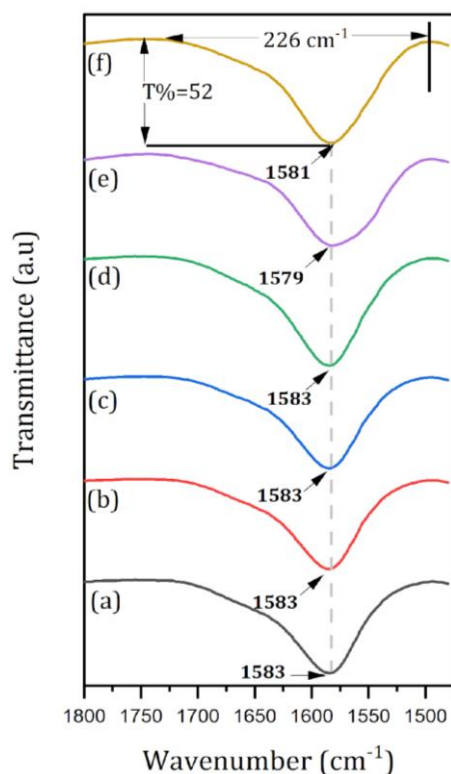


Figure 4. Transmittance Intensity and Band Widening in FTIR Analysis of Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Table 2. Analysis of transmittance intensity and absorption band broadening of AmAc-complexed CMCh solid electrolyte membrane

Sample	T%	1700-1500 cm^{-1}
		Absorption Band Broadening (cm^{-1})
CMCh	47	209
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	45	214
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	46	216
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	54	221
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	46	225
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)	52	226

The wavenumber shifting and intensity change can be related to the force constant with Eq. 7-9. The force constant is calculated on the C=O vibration and tabulated in **Table 2**. Based on these data, the CMCh-AmAc (60-40) sample has the smallest force constant value compared to other samples at 100.6 N/cm. As salt is added, the force constant value decreases, indicating that the bond strength decreases. It also shows that the complexation between the polymer and salt increases (Hazaana et al., 2023; Ramalingam et al., 2011).

Molecular Structure Analysis of Carboxymethyl Chitosan

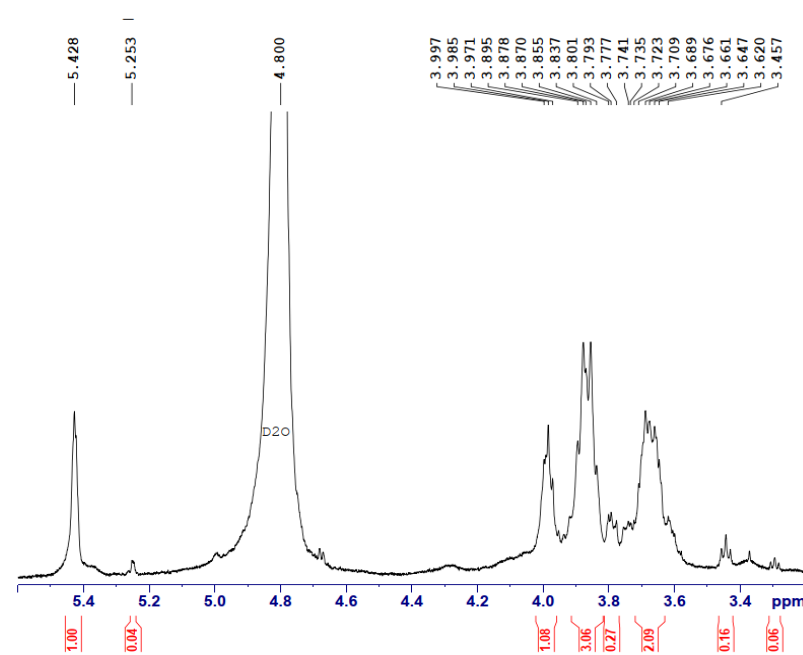
The molecular structure of carboxymethyl chitosan was analyzed using $^1\text{H-NMR}$ and $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$ (**Figure 5**). The $^1\text{H-NMR}$ spectrum showed a chemical shift at 3.457 ppm, indicating two hydrogens from the carboxymethyl group bound to the nitrogen group (Palaniselvam et al., 2023). Chemical shifts between 3.777 to 3.997 ppm indicate that carboxymethylation occurs in the hydroxyl groups at C-3 and C-6. While carboxymethylation that occurs in the primary amine group shifts at 3.457 ppm (Baari et al., 2021; Kono & Kato, 2021). The signal at 3.77 to 3.997 ppm is a characteristic that indicates that the type of

carboxymethyl chitosan substitution is N,O-carboxymethyl chitosan (Jaidee et al., 2012). This $^1\text{H-NMR}$ spectrum does not give rise to peaks at 1 to 2 ppm indicating the presence of methyl protons in the acetyl group. This phenomenon indicates that the presence of amide is very little in carboxymethyl chitosan so it does not give rise to chemical shifts in $^1\text{H-NMR}$ (Baari et al., 2021).

Figure 5b is the $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$ spectrum of carboxymethyl chitosan. At 72.69 to 76.67 ppm, it shows a methylene carbon group. The O-C-O ring carbon with the numerical C-1 appears at 95.76 to 99.72 ppm. At 71.15 to 71.72 ppm, it shows carbon binding with hydroxyl groups. While carbon binding to the amino group C-N appears in the area of 60.40 to 69.31 ppm (Baari et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2019). Based on the peaks that appear in the $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$ spectrum indicate that the type of carboxymethyl chitosan substitution is N,O-Carboxymethyl chitosan. This became validation data from the initial analysis using FTIR. However, the $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$ spectrum did not show peaks at 170 to 180 ppm, indicating the presence of hydroxyl and amino groups in the carboxymethyl group. This may occur due to the poor solubility factor of N, O-carboxymethyl chitosan with D_2O (Baari et al., 2021).

Table 3. Force Constant of AmAc-Complexed CMCh Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Sample	Functional Group	Vibration Frequency (cm^{-1})	Force Constant (N/cm)
CMCh		1583	101.1
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	C=O	1583	101.1
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)		1583	101.1
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)		1583	101.1
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)		1579	100.6
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)		1581	100.8



(a)

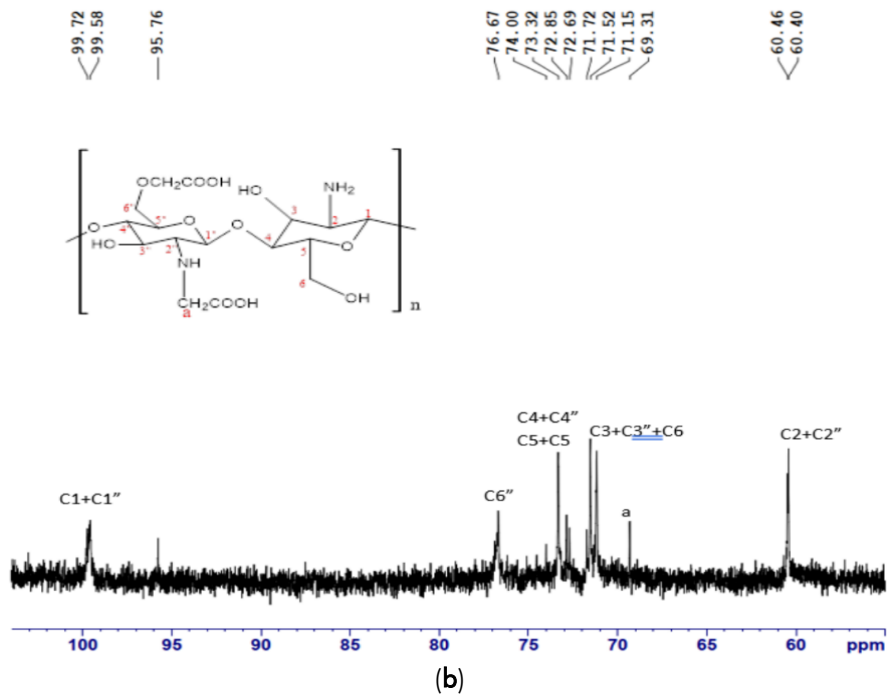


Figure 5. NMR Spectra Carboxymethyl Chitosan (a) ^1H -NMR (b) ^{13}C -NMR

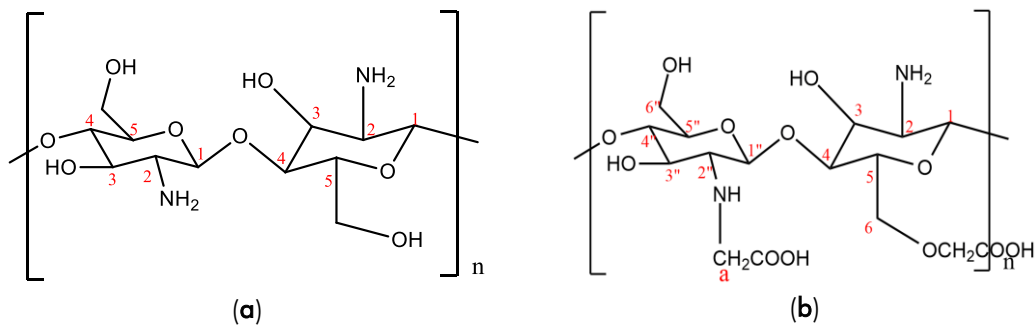


Figure 6. Structure (a) chitosan dan (b) N,O-carboxymethyl chitosan

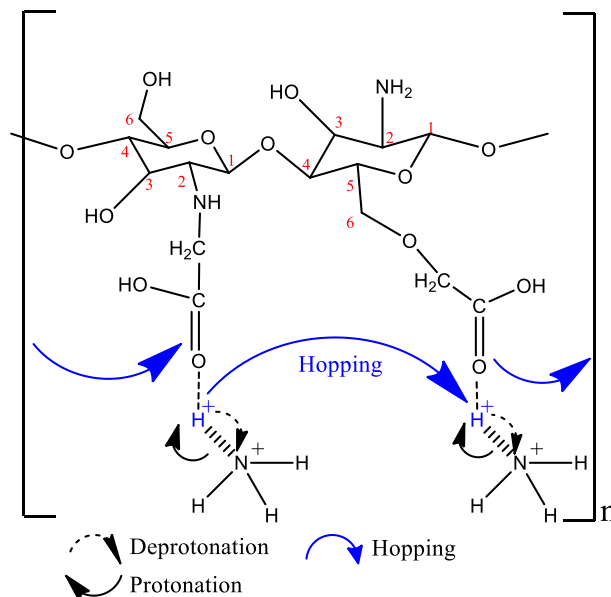


Figure 7. Proposed Mechanism of Proton Hopping on Carboxymethyl Chitosan

Proton transfer in solid electrolyte polymers typically involves proton jumping. Carboxymethyl chitosan, with its polar groups with free electrons, is a transit place for protons before jumping between polar groups. The host polymer's ammonium acetate salt dissociates into ammonium and acetate ions, releasing one hydrogen bond. Protons interact with polar groups on carboxymethyl chitosan, causing movement in the polymer chain. This mechanism is illustrated in **Figure 7**.

Proton Conductivity Analysis

The ion conductivity of the AmAc-complexed CMCh solid electrolyte membrane can be determined by EIS analysis at room temperature. The measurement results with EIS produce a conductance vs frequency graph shown in **Figure 8** and are then processed to obtain DC conductivity using Jonscher's power law equation (Equation 13).

The fitting results (**Table 4**) show that the pure CMCh solid electrolyte membrane has the lowest

conductivity value of 1.40×10^{-8} S/cm. However, salt in the CMCh solid electrolyte polymer membrane can increase proton conductivity. The presence of 40% AmAc salt produces the optimum proton conductivity of 7.83×10^{-5} S/cm. Fauzan et al (2020) stated that adding salt to solid electrolyte membranes can increase ion conductivity (Fauzan et al., 2020). This statement aligns with research by Martinez-Cineros et al. (2023). Proton conductivity increases due to amorphous increment as complexation between salt and host polymer consequence. This property facilitates ion mobilization and the movement of polymer chains (Martinez-Cisneros et al., 2023). However, the proton conductivity of the CMCh-AmAc (50-50) variant decreased due to agglomeration, so proton mobility was impaired. Salt concentrations that are too high can also cause ions with polymer chains to have a too tight distance, so ions experience association back into neutral ions (Fauzan et al., 2020).

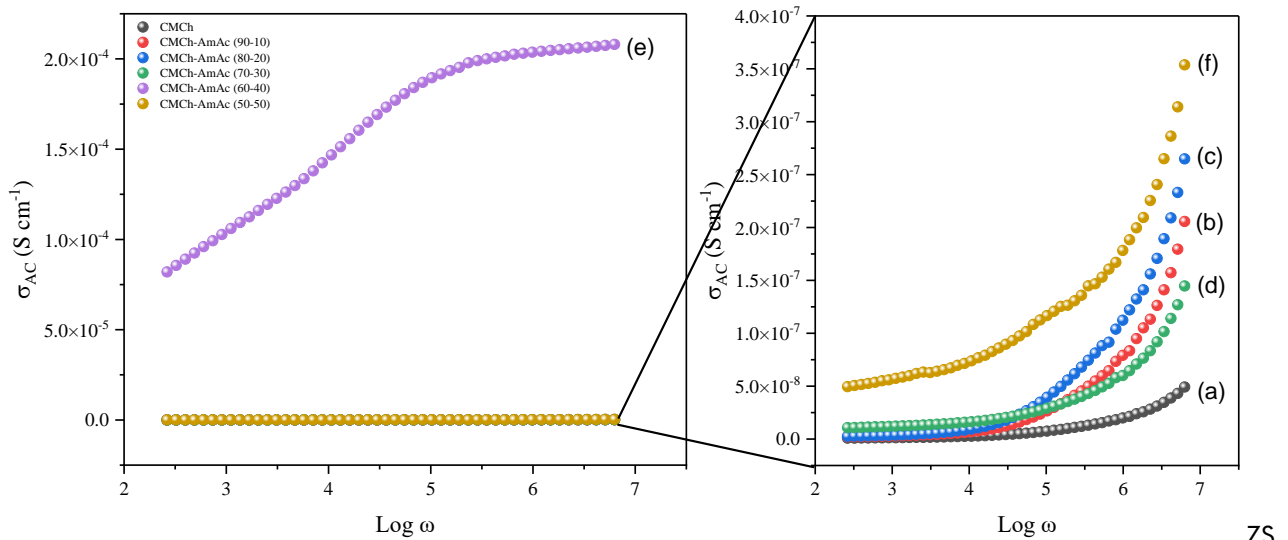


Figure 8. Conductance vs Frequency Curve

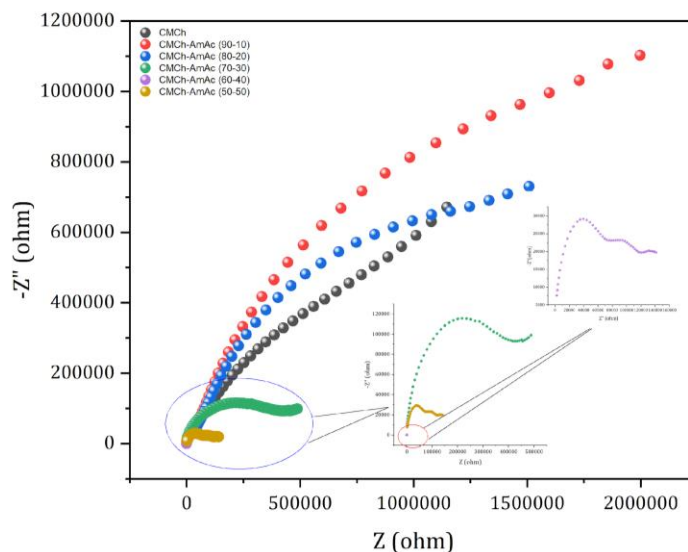


Figure 9. Cole-Cole Curve of CMCh-AmAc Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Table 4. Proton Conductivity of AmAc-Complexed CMCh Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Sample	t (cm)	A (cm ²)	R_{bulk} (ohm)	σ_{DC} (S/cm)	σ_{DC} Proton Bulk (S/cm)
CMCh	0.001	0.785	1.72×10^3	1.40×10^{-8}	7.41×10^{-7}
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	0.004	0.785	2.03×10^3	3.34×10^{-8}	2.51×10^{-6}
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	0.005	0.785	2.63×10^3	2.06×10^{-8}	2.42×10^{-6}
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	0.005	0.785	1.90×10^3	4.44×10^{-8}	3.36×10^{-6}
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	0.006	0.785	5.50×10^1	7.83×10^{-5}	1.39×10^{-4}
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)	0.001	0.785	2.42×10^3	1.06×10^{-7}	5.26×10^{-7}

Table 5. Free Ions and Contact Ion of AmAc-Complexed CMCh Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Sample	1500-1700 cm ⁻¹	
	Free Ions (%)	Contact Ion (%)
CMCh	59.869	40.131
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	60.080	39.920
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	60.048	39.952
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	62.297	37.703
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	65.195	34.805
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)	63.236	36.764

Measurements with EIS can also produce bulk proton conductivity values using bulk resistance values (Equation 12) obtained from the cole-cole plot shown in **Figure 9**. The highest bulk proton conductivity occurs in the CMCh sample with 40% (w/w) salt addition, which is 1.39×10^{-4} S/cm (summarized in **Table 4**). The phenomenon shows that decreasing bulk resistance causes bulk proton conductivity to increase; this is to the research of Ghani et al (2019). Imperiyka et al. (2013) reported that the decrease in bulk resistance when salt is added is due to the increase of amorphous regions in the solid electrolyte polymer, which facilitates the movement of ions in the polymer faster (Imperiyka et al., 2013).

Percentage of Free Ions and Contact Ions

The dissociation of ammonium acetate salt into cations and anions occurs due to interactions with polar groups on carboxymethyl chitosan. The CMCh sample has smaller free ions due to not adding ammonium acetate salt, while the CMCh-AmAc (60-40) variant has the highest free ion value shown in **Table 5**.

In the CMCh-AmAc (50-50) variant, the free ion is slightly decreased compared to the CMCh-AmAc (60-40) variant. The decrement is occurred due to the electrostatic forces so that cations-anions experience association. This phenomenon can be seen from contact ions increment. The ion -pair inhibit the proton to move (Aziz et al., 2020).

Ion Transport Parameters

Table 6 shows that density (η) increases with salt concentration, indicating increased ions in the

polymer matrix. The optimum ion mobilization (μ) and diffusion coefficient (D) values are found in solid electrolyte membranes with 40% salt concentration, indicating ion mobility and diffusion coefficient contribute to conductivity. However, an increased acetate salt concentration (50% w/w) increases density, causing high energy required for ion migration due to proton density.

Mechanical Properties Analysis

The study analysis the mechanical properties of solid electrolyte membranes, revealing that salt addition decreases tensile strength and elastic modulus, indicating increased flexibility shown in **Table 7**. The CMCh-AmAc membrane's mechanical properties, influenced by segmental motion, impact conductivity.

Adding 40% (w/w) AmAc salt to electrolyte membranes increases flexibility, segmental motion, and conductivity. However, this also decreases the tensile strength value. Research by Klongkan and Phumcusak (2015) and Wang et al. (2020) shows that salt concentration decreases the tensile strength value (Klongkan & Pumchusak, 2015; Wang et al., 2020). Yulianti et al. (2013) also found that salt reduces the strength of intermolecular forces, affecting the membrane's properties from rigid to flexible. The material's crystallinity also influences these changes (Yulianti et al., 2013). However, when adding 50% AmAc salt, there was an increase in the elastic modulus value (Summarized in **Table 7**). This is due to the re-association to form ammonium acetate salt so that the polymer matrix interaction is strong again.

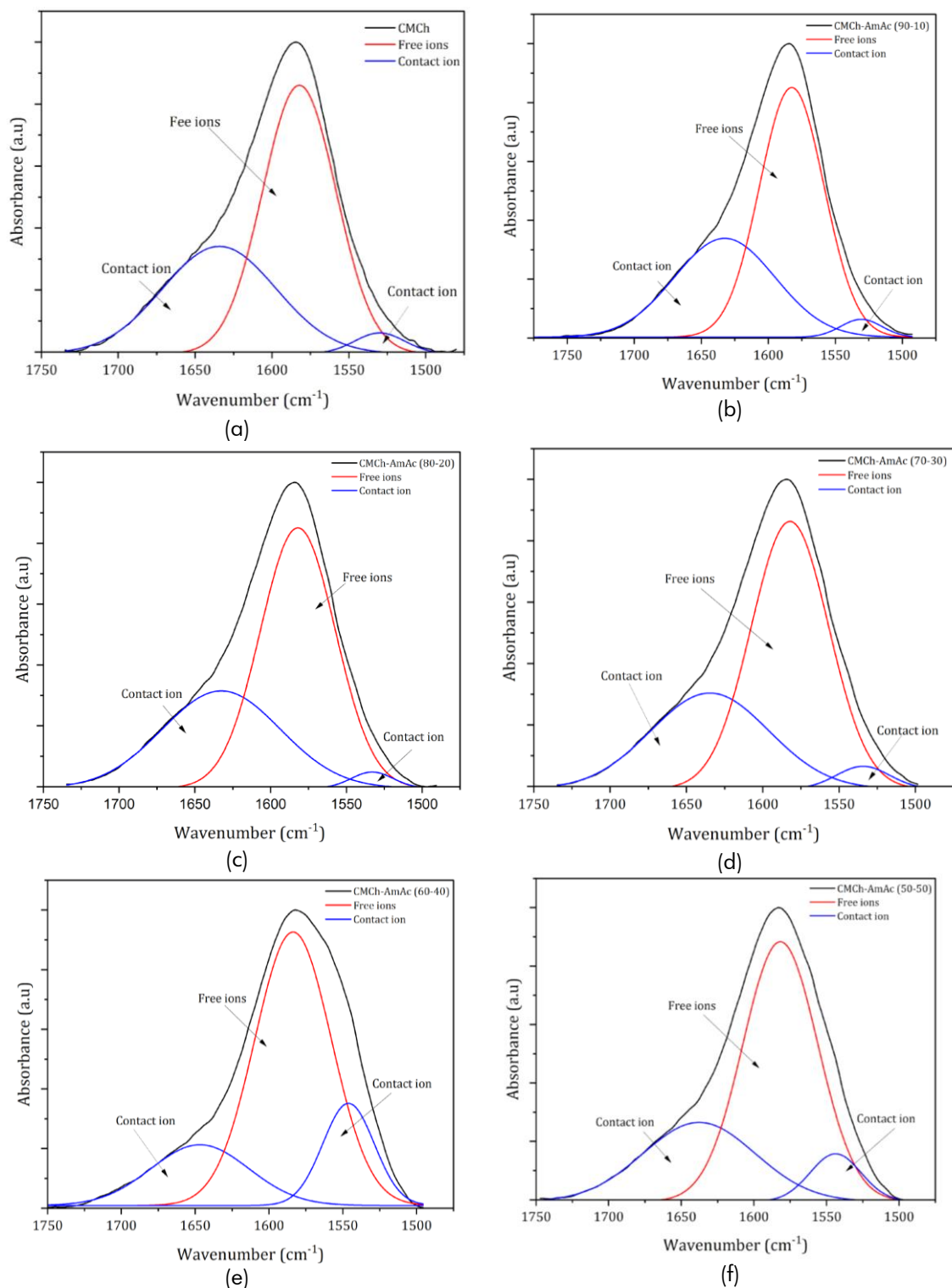


Figure 10. FTIR Deconvolution Curve of Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Table 6. Ion Transport Parameter of AmAc-Complexed CMCh Solid Electrolyte Membrane

Sample	η (cm ⁻³)	μ (cm ⁻² mL ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	D (cm ² s ⁻¹)
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	1.173×10^{21}	1.337×10^{-8}	3.148×10^{-10}
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	2.345×10^{21}	6.462×10^{-9}	1.522×10^{-10}
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	3.649×10^{21}	5.750×10^{-9}	1.354×10^{-10}
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	5.092×10^{21}	1.707×10^{-7}	4.020×10^{-09}
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)	6.173×10^{21}	5.324×10^{-10}	1.254×10^{-11}

Table 7. Ion transport parameter of AmAc-complexed CMCh solid electrolyte membrane

Sample	Tensile Strength (MPa)	Elongation Break (%)	Elastisitas Modulus (MPa)
CMCh	86.90	7.61	4020
CMCh-AmAc (90-10)	66.65	3.03	3030
CMCh-AmAc (80-20)	64.42	4.04	3860
CMCh-AmAc (70-30)	56.13	7.27	2390
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	9.06	41.73	50
CMCh-AmAc (50-50)	64.59	6.91	2070

Crystallinity Analysis

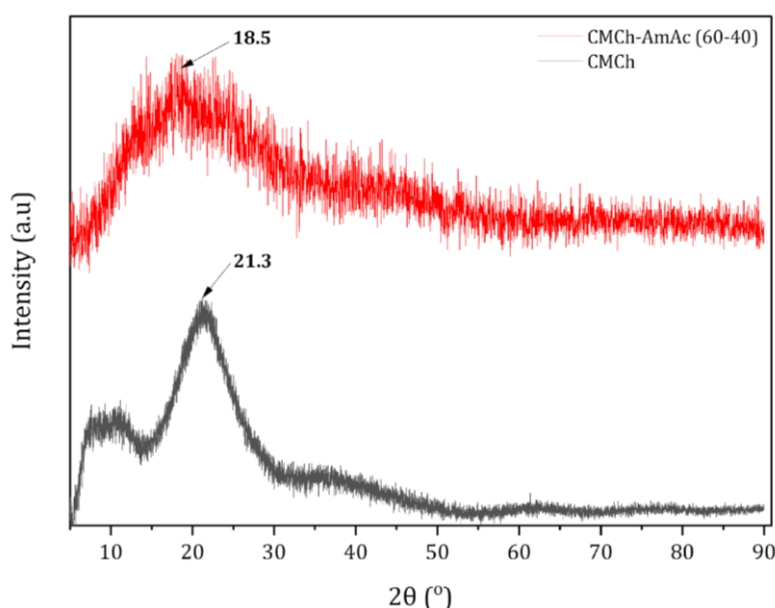
X-ray diffraction studies were conducted to investigate the changes in semicrystalline properties of pure CMCh membrane and CMCh-AmAc (60-40) membrane. Sari et al (2016) suggested that the diffraction peak of CMCh is at $2\theta = 19^\circ$ (Sari et al. 2016). Previous research also showed that the CMCh diffraction peaks were at $2\theta = 9, 20, 34, 35,$ and 45° . In this study, the diffraction peak of the CMCh membrane is located at 21.3° , while the diffraction peak of the CMCh-AmAc (60-40) membrane has a peak shift at 18.5° , depicted in **Figure 11**. According to Kumar et al (2017), the shift in the diffractogram peak can occur due to the interaction between the polymer and salt (Kumar et al., 2017). The addition of salt also causes a widening of the diffraction peak and a decrease in intensity, indicating an increase in the amorphous region due to the CMCh host polymer complexing with AmAc.

Adding salt can reduce the degree of crystallinity, which is determined using the deconvolution method and calculated by Equation 14. This is due to structural changes and hydrogen interactions (Wakrim et al., 2023). AmAc salts can form intermolecular coordination in the crystalline area, resulting in more flexible chains. Amorphous areas are preferred in solid electrolyte membrane manufacturing due to their

ability to facilitate ion transport and reduce energy barriers for segmental movement (Pandi et al., 2016); (Du et al., 2009; Gedam & Bhoga, 2010; Singh et al., 2020).

Thermal Analysis

The thermal stability of solid electrolyte membranes is crucial for proton battery safety, as it prevents short circuits between the anode and cathode. At 100°C , CMCh and CMCh-AmAc (60-40) membranes evaporated with weight losses of 15.95% and 6.69%, respectively. Adding salt decreases weight degradation due to its hydrophilic properties (Noor et al., 2010). CMCh membranes doped with AmAc salt have lower thermal stability than pure CMCh. The decrease in thermal stability is due to the formation of an amorphous phase between AmAc salt and CMCh polymer cations, which weakens intermolecular interactions (Genier et al., 2019; Jumaah et al., 2015). The DTG curve shows that CMCh membranes show maximum weight loss at 272.29°C (**Table 8, Figure 12**), indicating side chain degradation, while CMCh-AmAc (60-40) membranes show structural decomposition. The CMCh membrane has a higher maximum degradation temperature than the CMCh-AmAc (60-40) product, indicating that adding salt can reduce thermal stability.

**Figure 11.** Diffractogram XRD Solid Electrolyte Membrane

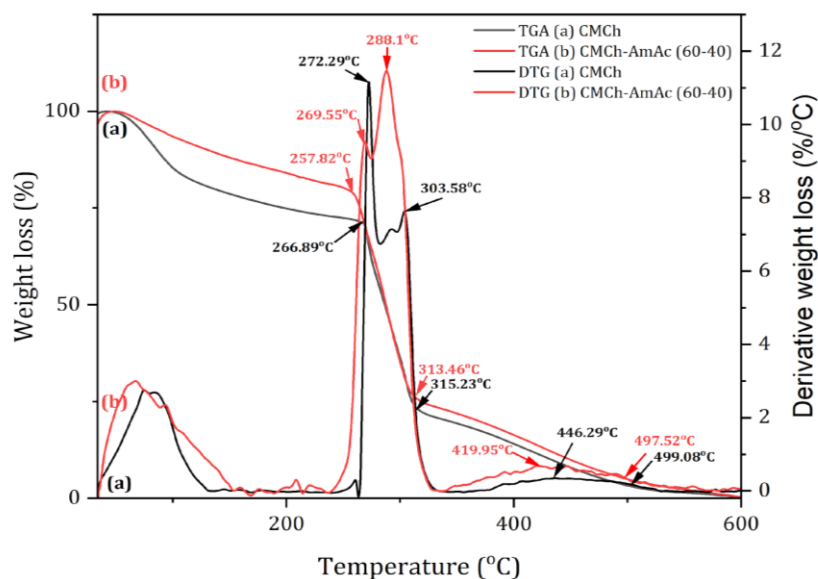


Figure 12. TGA and DTG (a) CMCh (b) CMCh-AmAc (60-40)

Table 8. Thermal analysis of AmAc-complexed CMCh solid electrolyte membrane

Sample	T _{onset} (°C)	T _{offset} (°C)	T _{max 1} (°C)	T _{max 2} (°C)
CMCh	266.89	315.23	272.29	303.58
CMCh-AmAc (60-40)	257.82	313.46	269.55	288.1

CONCLUSIONS

The carboxymethyl chitosan-based solid electrolyte membrane complexed with ammonium acetate was successfully prepared using the pour-molding method with variations in the composition of ammonium acetate salts of 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, and 50% (w/w). Based on the research results for all compositions, the solid electrolyte membrane with the best condition is CMCh complexed with AmAc as much as 40% (w/w) and characterized by the highest ionic conductivity value of 1.39×10^{-4} S/cm. However, adding salt decreased the degree of crystallinity, mechanical properties, and thermal stability.

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