

Investigation of Transition Metal-Based Catalysts for Electrochemical Energy Storage and Conversion

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Materials Engineering

Department of Chemical and Materials Engineering

University of Alberta

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Abstract

Electrochemical energy conversion and storage, such as electrocatalytic hydrogen generation, metal-air batteries, and fuel cells, are one of the most efficient and reliable systems for renewable energy storage, which address the intermittency of renewable energy systems. However, the energy conversion efficiency is severely restricted by the oxygen redox catalysis, including the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and oxygen reduction reaction (ORR), because of the sluggish kinetics. To date, state-of-the-art oxygen electrocatalysts are noble-metal-based materials (such as Pt-, Ru- and Ir-), but the limited resources and high cost impede their practical applications. Thus, the development of efficient, durable, and low-cost noble-metal-free oxygen electrocatalysts is significantly important to realize the widespread applications and advance those electrochemical technologies. In this thesis, I aim to develop earth-abundant transition-metal-based catalysts with high electrocatalytic activity and durability and reveal the reaction mechanisms that lead to the enhancement effects of the developed catalysts.

For transition-metal-based layered double hydroxides (LDHs) to become more competitive OER catalysts, substantial progress is required to advance the catalytic activity and durability. I developed a robust electrode composed of Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH heterostructured nanosheets with a porous structure supported on nickel foam (NF) *via* a one-pot solution approach at room temperature in 15 min. The as-prepared Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH/NF catalyst delivers 50, 500, and 1000 mA cm⁻² with an overpotential of only 230, 285 and 303 mV for oxygen evolution reaction, respectively. *In situ* and *ex-situ* analysis reveal that the Ni₃S₂ was *in situ* partially transformed under an electrooxidation environment into NiOOH over an equally important electrically conductive Ni₃S₂ to drive proficient catalysis. This strategy can be extended to fabricate Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrocatalyst for high active hydrogen evolution reaction.

The coupled Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrodes showed a significantly boosted overall water splitting activity with low voltages of 1.47, 1.71 and 1.85 V to deliver high j_s of 10, 100 and 500 mA cm⁻², respectively, far surpassing current commercial requirements (1.8-2.40 V for 200-400 mA cm⁻²).

Apart from boosting the water electrolysis by improving the anodic OER catalytic activity, replacing OER with a more efficient reaction is compelling because the anodic product O₂ is not of high value. I developed the nanowires composed of CoF₂/CoP heterostructure grown on nickel foam as a robust bifunctional electrocatalyst for 5-hydroxymethylfurfural oxidation reaction (HMFOR) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The developed CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits excellent HMFOR activity with a working potential of 1.33 V to deliver 100 mA cm⁻² and a Tafel slope of 21.1 mV dec⁻¹. Meanwhile, the FDCA yield achieved 98.8 % and the faradic efficiency is 98 %. In addition, CoF₂/CoP-2 delivers a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² at an overpotential of 59 mV with a Tafel slope of 59.8 mV dec⁻¹ toward HER. Furthermore, bifunctional CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits excellent full-cell electrocatalytic activity when employing CoF₂/CoP-2 for cathodic H₂ and anodic FDCA production, which only requires the cell voltage of 1.33 V at 10 mA cm⁻², superior to the voltage of 1.54 V at 10 mA cm⁻² for pure water splitting.

The energy conversion efficiency of metal-air batteries and fuel cells is also severely restricted by the kinetically sluggish oxygen catalysis. Highly efficient and low-cost electrocatalysts for cathodic ORR are highly desirable. I demonstrated an effective strategy of Cu-N₄ sites functionalizing atomic Fe clusters on hierarchical porous carbon nanofibers (Fe_x/Cu-N@CNF) for high-performance ORR. Fe_x/Cu-N@CNF exhibits superior catalytic performances with an onset potential (E_{onset}) of 1.03 V, an ultrahigh half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) of 0.944 V, and remarkable durability in alkaline medium, outperforming commercial Pt/C and most recently reported

transition-metal-based catalysts. The theoretical calculations indicate that the single Cu-N₄ sites assist the activation of O₂ to reduce the energy barrier of O₂* protonation and facilitate O-O bond cleavage, boosting the ORR activity. I used Fe_x/Cu-N@CNF as a cathode for zinc-battery application, it achieves an impressive specific capacity (1110.4 mA h g⁻¹ at 100 mA cm⁻²) and long-cycling over 400 h, exceeding those Pt/C-based devices.

Preface

This thesis is an original work conducted by Shuwen Wu and under the supervision of Dr. Zhi Li and Dr. Ken Cadien.

Chapter 1 is the introduction that contains the background knowledge and principles of electrochemical oxygen evolution/ reduction.

Chapter 2 covers the literature survey of electrocatalysts for electrochemical oxygen evolution/ reduction.

Chapter 3 briefly introduces the employed methodologies and characterizations.

Chapter 4 has been published as S. W. Wu, S. Q. Liu, X. H. Tan, W. Y. Zhang, K. Cadien, Z. Li. Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH porous nanosheets with abundant heterointerfaces for high-current water electrolysis. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 2022, 442, 136105. Dr. S.-Q. Liu provided valuable discussion about conceptualization and helped with VHX-700F digital microscopic images. Dr. X.-H. Tan and W.-Y Zhang helped with TEM test and *in situ* Raman. Dr. Z. Li and Dr. K. Cadien provided valuable comments, suggestions, and feedback for manuscript writing and revision.

Chapter 5 has been submitted to Journal as S. W. Wu, S.-Q. Liu, R. F. Feng, K. Cadien, Z. Li. Bifunctional CoF₂/CoP Heterostructured Nanowires for Enhanced Electrooxidation of 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural and Hydrogen Production. Dr. S.-Q. Liu and Dr. R.-F. Feng worked on the synchrotron measurements. Dr. Z. Li and Dr. K. Cadien provided valuable comments, suggestions, and feedback for manuscript writing and revision.

Chapter 6 has been published as S. W. Wu, S. Jiang, S. Q. Liu, X. H. Tan, N. Chen, J.-L. Luo, S. H. Mushrif, K. Cadien, Z. Li. Single Cu–N₄ sites enable atomic Fe clusters with high-performance oxygen reduction reaction. *Energy & environmental science*. Dr. S.-Q. Liu provided valuable discussion about conceptualization and manuscript writing. J. Shang conducted the DFT calculations. Dr. X.-H. Tan helped with TEM test. Dr. N. Chen helped with the synchrotron measurements. Dr. Z. Li, Dr. K. Cadien, Dr. S. H. Mushrif, and Dr. J.-L. Luo provided valuable comments, suggestions, and feedback for manuscript writing and revision.

Chapter 7 includes the summary and prospects.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my gratitude for the help from individuals and organizations throughout my academic journey at U of A. I extend my heartfelt appreciation to my supervisors Dr. Ken Cadien and Dr. Zhi Li for not only their expertise and guidance but also for offering me a great chance of conducting research on one of my most interested topics.

I thank the committee members of my defense examination: Dr. Hyo-Jick Choi, Dr. Shiva Mohajernia, Dr. Jinguang Hu, and Dr. Anthony Yeung, for their valuable time and help. I send my sincere appreciation to Dr. Anastasia Elias for her valuable suggestions and guidance on my candidacy exam.

I am grateful to my peers and colleagues for all their help and collaboration during my research in the lab. My thanks go to Dr. Shaoqing Liu for many great discussions and constructive advice on my research, Dr. Xuehai Tan for taking the time to methodically answer my questions about the electrochemical test, particularly at the beginning of this research. Besides, many thanks go to Dr. Shihong Xu, Dr. Nancy Zhang, Dr. Xuehai Tan, and Dr. Peng Li, for their assistance in the materials characterizations.

I am greatly thankful to my parents for their unconditional love, support, and care in my life. Finally, I would like to thank my gentleman Shaoqing Liu again for the love, encouragement, and support that he gave me during this amazing chapter of my life.

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List of Symbols

j	Current density
η	Overpotential
C_{dl}	Double layer capacitance
R_{ct}	Charge transfer resistance
E_{onset}	Onset potential
$E_{1/2}$	Half-wave potential
j_L	Measured limited current density
j_k	kinetic current density

List of Abbreviations

HER	Hydrogen evolution reaction
OER	Oxygen evolution reaction
ORR	Oxygen reduction reaction
HOR	Hydrogen oxidation reaction
RHE	Reversible hydrogen electrode
SHE	Standard hydrogen potential
ZABs	Zinc-air batteries
PEMFCs	Proton-exchange membrane fuel cells
DFT	Density functional theory
LSV	Linear sweep voltammetry
CV	Cyclic voltammetry
GDL	Gas diffusion layer
RDE	Rotation disk electrode
RRDE	Rotation ring-disk electrode
SACs	Single-atom catalysts
ECSA	Electrochemical surface area
EIS	Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy
XRD	X-ray Diffraction

FESEM	Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy
EDX	Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
STEM	Scanning transmission electron microscopy
XPS	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy
UPS	Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy
FTIR	Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
XANES	X-ray absorption near-edge structure
EXAFS	Extended X-ray adsorption fine structure
BET	Brunauer–Emmett–Teller
HRTEM	High resolution electron transmission electron microscopy
HAADF	High angle annular dark field
FFT	Fast Fourier transformation
DMF	N-dimethylformamide
PAN	Polyacrylonitrile
ICP-OES	Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy
GC	Glassy carbon

Chapter 1. Introduction

The current global capacity for generating electricity is estimated to be around 20 terawatt hours (TW, $\times 10^{12}$ watts).¹ Approximately 68% of electrical energy is produced from fossil fuels such as coal (42%), natural gas (21%), and oil (5%).² However, the combustion of fossil fuels results in air pollution and contributes to the issue of global warming. The environmental concerns over the use of fossil fuels and their resource limitations have aroused great interest in producing electricity from renewable energy sources. Solar and wind energy are among the most abundant and easily accessible sources of energy on earth. The fluctuating nature of these renewable sources poses significant challenges for electric grid operation, as other power facilities (such as power plants) must compensate for the variability. So, there will be a growing need for low-cost electrical energy storage and conversion systems to smooth out the intermittency of renewable energy production.

Electrochemical energy storage and conversion refer to the process of converting electrical energy into chemical energy and then storing it in the electrodes where it can be retrieved and converted back into electrical energy when needed.^{3, 4} This process is essential for many applications, including batteries, fuel cells, and capacitors. Electrochemical energy storage and conversion typically involve the use of a redox reaction, which is a chemical reaction in which one substance is reduced (gains electrons) while another is oxidized (loses electrons). In a battery, for example, the positive and negative electrodes are made of materials that can undergo redox reactions, and the electrolyte facilitates the transfer of ions between the electrodes.^{5, 6} The development of new and improved electrochemical energy storage and conversion systems is particularly important for the transition to a sustainable energy future, as they can enable the integration of renewable energy sources into the electrical grid and help reduce our dependence on fossil fuels.

Electrochemical energy conversion and storage devices have been extensively explored, including rechargeable batteries, electrolyzers, metal-air batteries and fuel cells.^{7, 8} The electrode materials, such as anodes and cathodes, are the key components of these devices, which have a critical impact in determining performance. Clean electrochemical energy conversion, particularly processes involving water, hydrogen, and oxygen, heavily relies on electrocatalysis, enabling a variety of sustainable processes for future technologies. For example, water electrolyzers have gained significant interest, which utilize the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER) to produce H₂ and O₂. Moreover, H₂ is an appealing energy carrier that can be used to generate clean electricity in fuel cells through the hydrogen oxidation reaction (HOR) and oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) to convert chemical energy into electricity. And ORR/OER also play a significant role in metal-air batteries.

1.1 Research Motivation

Energy conversion from renewable sources has been considered as a solution to reduce reliance on fossil fuels that cause the excessive emission of carbon dioxide, the primary contributor to global warming. However, renewable power generated from natural sources, such as solar and wind, is not constant and reliable because of variable weather conditions, which require energy storage devices to counterbalance the intermittency. Electrochemical energy conversion and storage are one of the most efficient and reliable systems, converting electricity into chemical energy or vice versa by reversible electrochemical oxidation-reduction reactions, including electrocatalytic hydrogen generation, metal-air batteries, and fuel cells. However, the energy conversion efficiency is severely restricted by the oxygen redox catalysis (OER/ORR), because of the sluggish kinetics. Thus, it is imperative and necessary to develop highly efficient electrochemical energy storage systems to mitigate the environmental issue.

1.2 The need for intermittent energy storage

Over the past few decades, extensive research has been conducted to explore alternative fuels to fossil fuels, including energy sources such as hydroelectric, geothermal, wind, and solar power.⁹ Among these, solar energy and wind power are widely recognized as the most abundant and geographically widespread. However, their intermittent nature poses a challenge due to fluctuations in wind strength and sunlight intensity throughout the day. The electrical energy storage system is an ideal solution for fulfilling this role as it can absorb excess electric energy during periods of high generation and store it for later use during times when generation falls short. Conversely, it can also discharge electric energy into the power grid when there is insufficient generation to meet the demand. (Figure 1.1) Conventional gas or steam turbine technologies have typically been utilized for this role. However, instead of adjusting the torque of large rotary turbomachinery at a rapid pace, fast-responding electrochemical electrical energy storage is better equipped to promptly meet the needs.¹⁰ A promising remedy involves exploiting renewable and earth-abundant biomass, such as lignocellulose, lipids, and starch crops, as substitutes for fossil resources to establish sustainable supply chains.

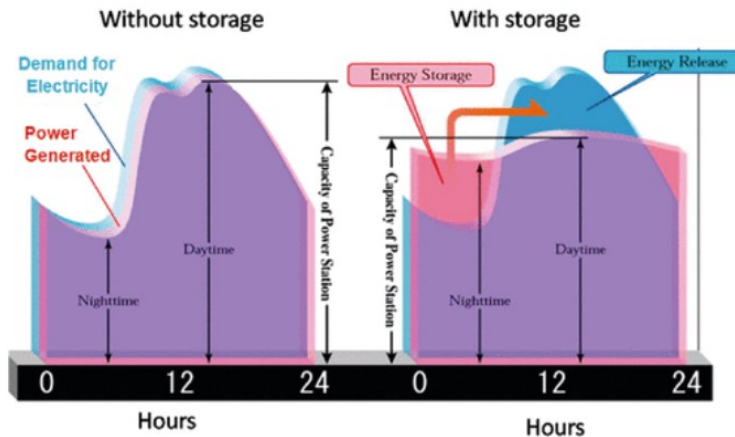


Figure 1. 1 Schematic of balancing generation and demand via load leveling, a typical case of load shifting (Courtesy of NGK, Inc.).²

1.3 Electrocatalytic oxygen reactions

Oxygen electrocatalysis involves oxygen evolution and reduction reactions (OER/ORR), which serve as the half-reaction of water electrolyzers, fuel cells and metal-air batteries. Electrochemical water splitting is a promising sustainable technology to produce high-purity H₂ in the conversion of renewable electricity, which can be divided into two half-reactions, named the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode and the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) at the cathode (Figure 1.2).¹¹ The cathodic HER can readily occur on some metals at low overpotentials because of the relatively facile two-electron process. (Eq. 1.1-1.2) In contrast, the anodic OER is a four-electron transfer process with sluggish kinetics (Eq. 1.3-1.5), leading to large overpotentials (ca. 0.3–0.6 V) to drive the reaction, which thus severely impedes the overall efficiency of H₂ production for practical application of water electrolysis.¹² The four steps involved in the OER process are thermodynamically uphill and the rate-limiting step has the highest energy barrier. During the process, the intermediates of *OH, *O, and *OOH are sequentially produced due to simultaneous electron and proton transfer. The bonding interactions within these intermediates play a significant

role in determining the catalytic activity. As a result, the adsorption energies of these intermediates are often employed as descriptors for electrocatalytic ability.

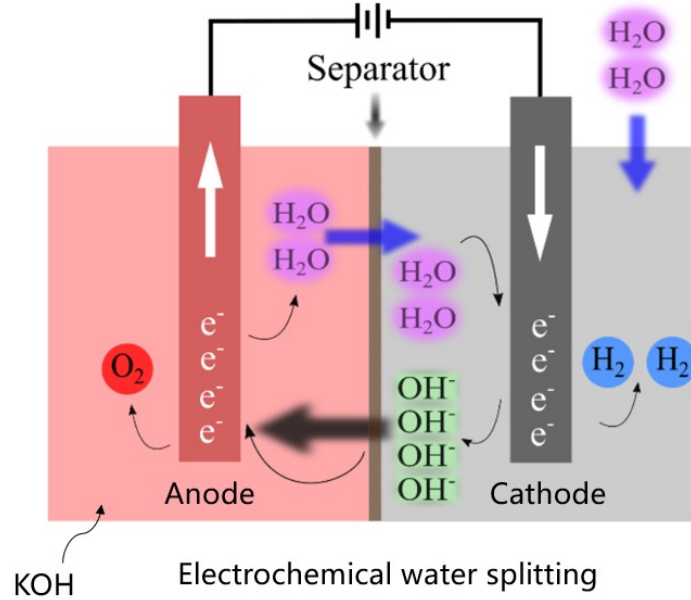


Figure 1. 2 Schematic illustration of electrocatalytic water splitting.



Electrolysis of water is pH dependent, the correlated pH-dependent potential can be as the following equation,

$$E(RHE) = E_{applied} + 0.059 pH + E_{reference} \quad (\text{Eq. 1.8})$$

The equilibrium potential of water splitting is 1.23 V at 25 °C and 1 atm.

Since the electrolysis efficiency is significantly limited by the kinetically sluggish OER, it is urgent and necessary to develop effective anodic electrocatalysts, boosting water oxidation performance. Despite the exceptional OER activity demonstrated by noble-metal-based catalytic materials such as IrO₂ and RuO₂, their high costs, limited availability and unsatisfactory stability limit their large-scale application.¹³ Therefore, great efforts have been devoted to the development of noble-metal-free electrocatalysts with low cost, improved activity, and excellent stability for OER.

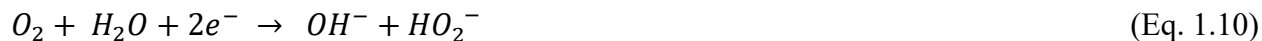
One strategy to boost water electrolysis is by enhancing the catalytic activity for OER. Besides, replacing OER with a more efficient reaction is also compelling with the generation of value-added products during the reaction, because O₂ generated from OER is not particularly valuable. Biomass is various organisms generated via photosynthesis, including plants, animals, and microorganisms.¹⁴ The favorable kinetics of biomass electrooxidation reactions (BEORs) replacing OER have recently gained much attention, because the oxidation products have important applications in various fields, such as agrochemicals and pharmaceuticals.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ Thus, pairing HER with BEOR could be able to realize the highly efficient generation of hydrogen and value-added products.

ORR is a reverse process of OER, which involves multistep electron transfer and multiple adsorbed intermediates. ORR occurs mainly by two reaction mechanisms: the full reduction of O₂ to H₂O in acidic electrolytes or to OH⁻ in alkaline electrolytes with four-electron transfer, and the 2-electron, partial reduction pathway resulting in H₂O₂ in acidic electrolytes or HO₂⁻ in alkaline electrolytes. The electrochemical reactions are written as follows:¹⁸

Four-electron process in basic solution:



Two-electron process in basic solution:



Four-electron process in acidic solution:



Two-electron process in acidic solution:



The standard Nernstian potential for the oxygen half-cell reaction is 1.23 V related to reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE), which is established based on the hydrogen standard electrode potential at a given pH value.¹⁹ At pH = 0, this potential is known as the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) scale.²⁰ The RHE can be corrected by SHE at 300 K via:

$$E_{RHE} = E_{SHE} + 0.059 \times pH \quad ^{21}$$

The ORR selectivity plays a crucial role in determining the number of electrons transferred during the reaction.²² The final products and reaction pathways of ORR are strongly affected by the surface properties of the electrocatalyst materials.²³ If the electrocatalyst surface has a strong bond with the O₂ molecule or OOH* intermediate, it can selectively dissociate the O–O bond to produce H₂O via 4e-transfer process. Conversely, electrocatalysts that maintain the O–O bond in the key OOH* species will result in a higher 2e-ORR product.

The electrocatalytic performance of ORR catalysts can be primarily evaluated by the metrics onset potential, half-wave potential, and diffusion-limited current properties.^{24, 25} The different dynamic processes, such as kinetic, mixed kinetic-diffusion, or diffusion, determine these parameters. The best catalysts should have an optimal binding strength with intermediates, which is neither too strong nor too weak, resulting in a volcano-type relationship in Figure 1.3.²⁶ The binding energy should be optimized to boost the sluggish kinetics obtaining high current density at low overpotentials. Typically, two strategies have been adopted to improve the electrocatalysis activity, increasing the number of active sites (e.g., the effective electrochemical active areas (ECSAs)) and enhancing the intrinsic activity of active sites. Along with the progressive nanotechnologies, certain Pt-based catalysts have achieved current densities that surpass the U.S. Department of Energy's specifications for Pt catalysts in PEMFCs (0.44 A mgPt^{-1} at 0.9 vs RHE).²⁷

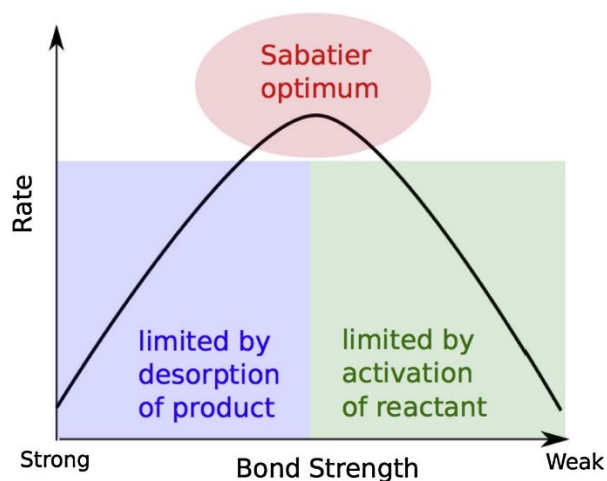


Figure 1. 3 Schematic representation of the qualitative Sabatier principle.

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Chapter 2. Literature review

To date, state-of-the-art oxygen electrocatalysts are Pt-, Ru- and Ir-based materials, but the limited resources and high cost impede the widespread applications in electrochemical storage and conversion systems.^{1,2} Noble-metal-free materials have gained huge attention for the development of oxygen electrocatalysts, including transition-metal materials, such as hydroxides, oxides, phosphides, sulfides, selenides, carbides, alloys, single-atom catalysts, etc.^{3,4} Different strategies have been explored to develop the high activity of oxygen electrocatalysts.

2.1 Main design principles of nanostructured energy materials

Nanostructures have a common feature of large surface-to-volume ratio comparison to the bulk counterparts with relatively low ratio of surface atoms. The surfaces play an important role in the chemical and physical properties of materials. Thus, surface engineering is an effective way to explore the new properties of materials in different applications. Particularly, inorganic nanostructures are a fascinating type of catalyst that have great potential for various applications such as energy conversion, energy storage, and environmental remediation. The chemical and physical processes can be tuned via the surface engineering techniques (such as morphology control, defect incorporation and interface manipulation), leading to a high impact on catalytic activity (Figure 2.1). The exposed active surface area and facets can be managed by morphology engineering.^{5,6} In addition, the enhancement of orbital hybridization can be achieved by the means of introduction of surface defects, which can change the electron density near the Fermi level and produce unsaturated coordination with more dangling bonds for catalytic reactions. Furthermore, the construction of interfaces and heterojunctions can be easily formed by incorporation other nanostructures. Then the electronic properties can be adjusted, including the energy gap and conductivity, which affects the catalytic performance. For example, the combination of metallic

nanomaterials and semiconductive nanomaterials can impact the distribution of electrons and holes, which substantially alters the activation energy of catalytic reactions.^{7, 8}

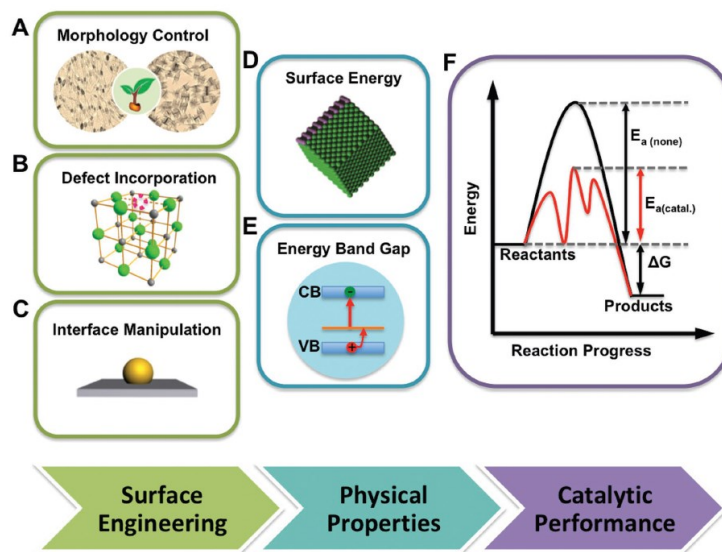


Figure 2. 1 Surface engineering techniques offer opportunities for regulating physical and chemical properties towards enhanced catalytic performance.^{5, 6, 9, 10}

2.1.1 Morphology control

The morphologies of nanomaterials have a significant influence on their properties, in addition to their chemical composition. For instance, the nanostructured materials of same chemical composition have different morphologies, such as nanospheres vs nanowires, solid vs hollow, which can display distinctive optical and catalytic properties.^{7, 8, 11} As a result, controlling the morphology of nanomaterials has become increasingly crucial in modifying and refining their physical and chemical attributes, which can enhance their performance in various applications. The conventional approach tailoring the morphology of nanostructures involves regulating the nuclei's structure and selectively adhering capping ligands on specific facets during their growth.

In addition, seeded growth and templated synthesis have also widely reported to be an effective way for manipulating the morphologies of nanostructured catalysts.

The ligand-capping effect occurs mainly during the evolution of crystalline seeds in an organic solvent or a mixture of solvents containing well-dispersed metal precursors and reductants. The surfactants in the solution coordinate with metal ions/atoms via covalent bonding, physical adsorption, electrostatic interaction, or van der Waals force. The confine of facets is realized by controlling precursors, solvents, reductants and temperature to modulate the metallic nanocrystal growth. Thus, the well-defined nanostructures can be achieved by controlling selective adhesion of the capping agent to a specific crystal surface. For example, Popczun et al. reported facet-controlled metal phosphide in a cosolvent of trioctylphosphine (TOP) and oleylamine (OAm), where the presence of trioctylphosphine oxide (TOPO) in the TOP enables the branches of CoP nanorods predominantly enclosed by (111) facets.¹² In another instance, Ni₂P nanorods were prepared by using TOP as the capping ligand, because the decomposition of Ni–TOP complexes produces octyl groups that causes the transformation of Ni₂P nanospheres into nanorods.¹³ It was demonstrated that the octyl groups selectively attached to the (210) facets and inhibited the growth on these facets while the growth along the [001] direction continued, leading to the formation of Ni₂P nanorods.

Preformed-seed-mediated growth is a versatile colloid chemical method for the preparation of a wide variety of nanostructures with tightly controlled size and diverse morphologies, such as nanorods, nanosheets, and other complex hierarchical structures.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ The seeded growth methods generally involve the preparation of seeds and subsequent epitaxial growth in the reaction solution. The initial production of fine seed particles is finished in the seeding growth process through the reduction of metal ions using an appropriate reducing agent. In a subsequent step, the seed particles

can be introduced to growth solutions containing the same or different metal ions along with other additives (e.g., dopants, ligands, etc.). During the growth process, the metal ions in the growth solutions undergo the reduction at the surface of the seed particles via heterogeneous nucleation. Therefore, the nanoparticles can be controllably prepared with different size and shape by varying the concentration and composition of the seeds in the growth solution, which provides excellent opportunities for boosting the performance of nanostructured catalysts in many energy-related applications.^{17, 18} For example, Zou's group reported bimetallic metal–organic framework hybrid structures (core/shell CoZn-ZIFs) synthesized using a low Co/Zn ratio, where the core containing Co^{2+} was first formed quickly, a Zn^{2+} contained layer was following formed on the core.¹⁹ Besides, tunable core/shell thickness ratio of the nanostructures were achieved by changing time intervals, while only agglomerates of irregular shape formed due to the weak nucleation ability of Zn^{2+} with first addition of Zn^{2+} .

2.1.2 Defect incorporation

The introduction of defects can create abundant dangling bonds and unsaturated coordination sites on the nanostructure surface, which have a significant impact on their electronic, magnetic and catalytic properties.²⁰ The defects can be divided into three types: vacancy defects, heteroatom (N, S, P and B) and metal-defect coordination structures.²¹ Particularly, the defect incorporation in the nanostructure can tailor the physical properties such as conductivity, energy band gap, adsorption and desorption energy and interaction with surroundings, which further affects the catalytic performance. Defect electrocatalysis has gained significant interest due to the experimental and theoretical evidence suggesting that solid electrocatalysts (such as metal oxides, transition-metal dichalcogenides, zeolites, carbides, and carbons) that possess defects can enhance the reactivity and selectivity in processes like OER and ORR.²²⁻²⁴ Remarkably, defects can not only modify the

surrounding electronic but also serve as a "docking" location for trapping atomic metal species, leading to the creation of new synergistic coordination structures that act as active sites.

Pit digging is an effective way to enhance the degree of surface defects through creating more dangling bonds and unsaturated coordination sites to surface of nanostructures. Xie's group fabricated a three-atomic-layer thin CeO₂ sheet with approximately 20% pits occupancy via a ultrafast open space transformation strategy, which possesses abundant pit-surrounding Ce sites.²⁵ As a result, the existence of coordination-unsaturated cerium sites in CeO₂ sheet not only enhances hole density, facilitating rapid diffusion, but also lowers activation barriers and reduced the possibility of catalyst poisoning. In addition, the presence of oxygen vacancies near the surfaces of nanostructures also has a significant impact on catalytic processes because of the increased number of active sites surrounding these defects. It is reported that the existence of vacancies on nanostructured metal oxide surfaces leads to a weaker bond between metal and oxygen, thereby facilitating more rapid exchange of intermediates and more efficient transfer of electrons.^{26, 27} For example, the oxygen-vacancy-enriched cobalt oxides were developed via a plasma engraving strategy, which exhibit a higher current density and a lower onset potential in comparison to pristine Co₃O₄, due to the improved electronic conductivity and more active sites for OER.²⁶

The electronic structures of functional nanomaterials can also be regulated by the controlled introduction of heteroatoms with a certain degree of disorder. It is reported that stabilizing non-metallic and metallic heteroatoms to generate heteroatom-defect-based patterns with varying coordination environments and robust stability can result in efficient and durable ORR performance.²¹ For example, Jia et al. fabricated various topological defects (pentagons, heptagons, and octagons) on the edge of the graphene by removing intentionally doped heteroatoms (Figure 2.2).²⁸ The DG exhibited more boosted ORR activity in contrast to NG, which

can be attributed to alterations in the charge and spin distributions within the DG as well as variations in the adsorption energies of intermediates on the active sites. Moreover, Various configurations of topological carbon defects exhibit unique appeal to different electrochemical reactions (ORR, OER, and HER) due to their specific, modulated electronic structures.

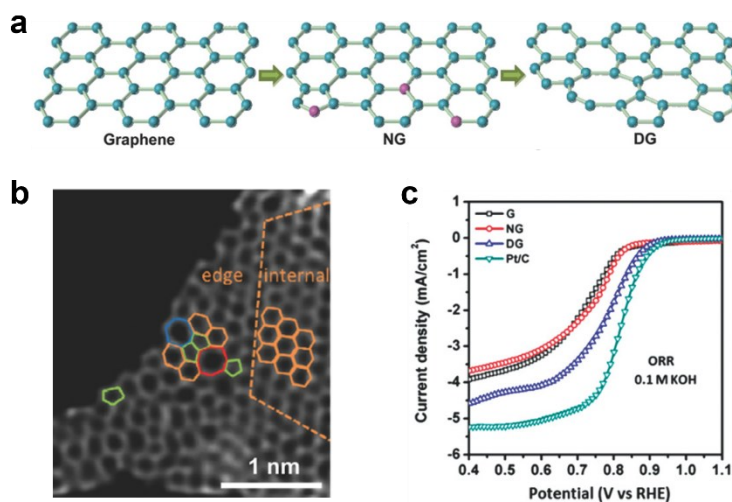


Figure 2. 2 (a) The schematic of the formation of DG. (b) HAADF image of DG. (c) The polarization curves of oxygen reduction reaction.

2.1.3 Interface manipulation

Hybridizing the catalytically active components with a host nanostructure can not only combine the properties of the two materials but also afford new functionalities due to the formation of abundant interfaces facilitating mass and charge transfer during catalytic reactions. Interface engineering can be realized through various routes such as chemical doping and post-treatment. The coupling effects between two phases generally is related to covalent bonding, hydrogen bonding, electrostatic attraction and van der Waals interaction.²⁹ This coupling effect can lead to the modification of local coordination environment and electronic states, while also enabling distinct reaction processes to occur in proximity at different active sites. The interfaces can serve

as active sites for electrocatalytic reactions in certain cases, especially for exposed interfaces. These concepts offer alternative approaches for the design of efficient electrocatalysts and present new prospects for enhancing their catalytic efficiencies.

Extensive research has been conducted on oxygen electrocatalytic reactions on the surfaces of heterostructures based on transition metals. Layered double hydroxide (LDH) is a typical example of two-dimensional (2D) materials that exhibits exceptional OER activity, due to its remarkable features such as a large surface area, open structure, and chemical versatility. Zhu et al. developed a NiFe LDH/NiTe heterostructure as an OER electrocatalyst, which exhibits a robust electronic interaction between NiFe LDH and NiTe, leading to a decrease of the d-band center of Ni in the prepared sample.³⁰ As a result, the catalyst surface has an optimal binding energy for OER intermediate species. Pankaj and the co-workers developed a Cu-CuFe₂O₄ nanocrystal heterostructure supported by carbon for ORR electrocatalysis.³¹ They observed that the interface formed between metallic Cu and semi-conductive CuFe₂O₄ led to enhanced electron mobilization, resulting in a high limiting current density.

Meeting the bifunctional performance requirements can be challenging for single component electrocatalysts. Constructing heterostructures can combine the unique properties of different components, resulting in exceptional functionality. Consequently, the development of appropriate heterointerface structures is crucial in optimizing bifunctional electrocatalytic performance. For example, CoO/Co_xP hybrids were prepared by a facile phosphorylation process, where the strong electronic interaction between the phases promotes the adsorption of intermediates during ORR and OER (Figure 2.3a-c). For ORR, the high adsorption of O₂ leads to a substantial energy barrier for the OOH* decomposition process. CoO mainly contributes to the ORR activity due to the moderate adsorption energy of O₂. Conversely, the high binding energy of OH and low binding

energy O_2 are advantageous for OER, indicating that CoP and Co₂P are more critical in catalyzing OER than CoO (Figure 2.3 d).³² In another case, the NiFe₂O₄/FeNi₂S₄ was reported for enhanced electrocatalytic performance of both OER and ORR due to an abundance of oxide/sulfide interfaces.³³ The oxygen adsorption energy on the interfaces between NiFe₂O₄ and FeNi₂S₄ significantly was reduced in comparison to the individual NiFe₂O₄ and FeNi₂S₄.

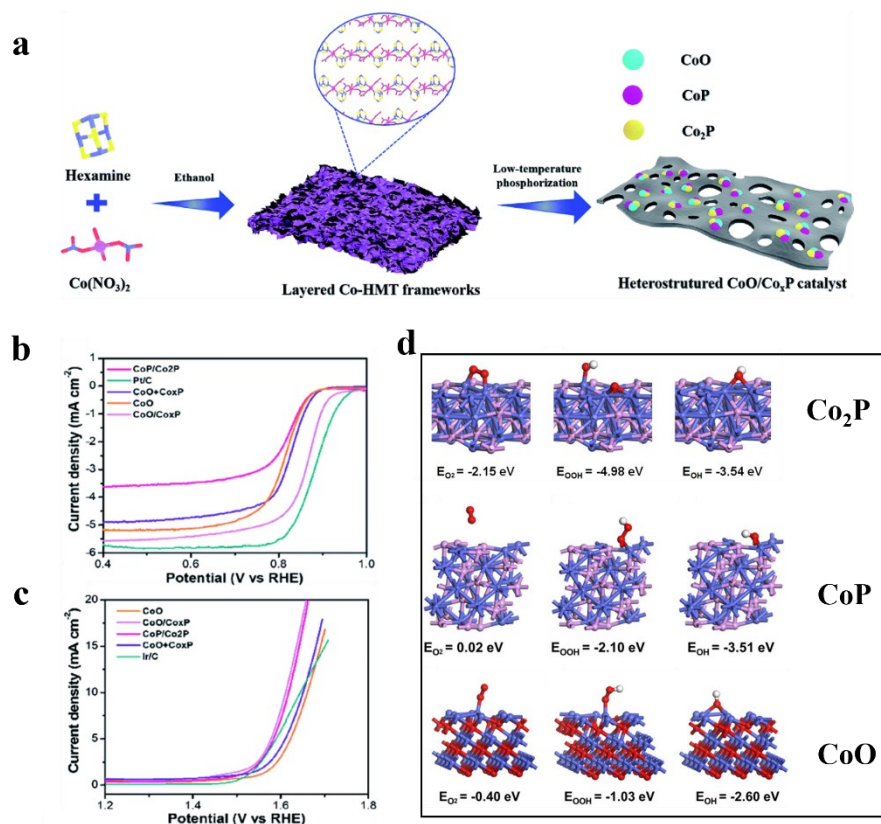


Figure 2. 3 (a) Schematic illustration for the synthesis process of CoO/Co_xP. (b) ORR polarization curves of investigated catalysts in O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution at 1600 rpm. (c) OER polarization curves for different catalysts in N₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH at 1600 rpm. (d) The optimized configurations and adsorption energy of oxygen intermediates on Co₂P, CoP and CoO.³²

2.1.4 Coupling with substrates

The self-supported electrode poses catalytically active phases grown on a conductive substrate without post coating process and using polymeric binders and conducting agents. It can be used in electrochemical storage and conversion systems directly, which simplifies the electrode preparation process and lowers the costs.³⁴ And the integration of active phases and the conductive substrate enhances the kinetics and stability in terms of the high loading of active components and rapid charge transfer.^{35, 36}

The fabrication strategies of self-supported electrode, where the catalytically active phases are in situ grown on the substrate, have been widely explored, including hydro/solvothermal, electrodeposition, vapor deposition, freeze drying, and the combination of different methods. Common substrates used for the preparation of electrode mainly focused on metal, carbon, and other conductive materials in different forms, including metal foam (e.g., Ni/Cu foam),^{37, 38} metal plate/foil (e.g., Ti plate and W/Mo/Cu foil),^{39, 40} carbon fiber papers (CFP),^{41, 42} carbon cloth (CC),⁴³ fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO),⁴⁴ and so on.

The hydro/solvothermal method is an effective way to prepare the metal-based catalytic compounds such as metal oxides and hydroxides by controlling reaction temperature and time in a pressure-tight reactor.^{45, 46} During the synthetic process, the defects and oxyl groups on the substrate can serve as the nucleation sites for the later growth of active materials to form the uniform distribution of nanostructure on the substrate.⁴⁷ For example, Chen et al. synthesized NiCo Layered Double Hydroxides (LDH) (e.g. α -NiCo LDH and β -NiCo LDH) on nickel foam by controlling the volume ratio of deionized water and N-methyl pyrrolidone through hydrothermal process.⁴⁸ The prepared metal oxyl compounds can be directly used as catalysts or as a precursor for synthesis of other materials, such as sulfides, phosphides and alloys through post treatment.

Electrodeposition can also be used for the fabrication of self-supported electrode. A three-electrode electrochemical cell is needed for the electrodeposition process, where the target materials uniformly deposit on the selected substrate as working electrode under the applied electric field. Most transition metal-based compounds can be electrodeposited on the conducting substrate, including metal oxides, hydroxides, sulfides, phosphides, and alloys.^{49, 50} Wang et al. fabricated Ni–Mo electrocatalysts using electrodeposition technique on Cu foam at current densities between 10 to 200 mA cm⁻² with 3600 s of deposition time(Figure 2.4).⁵¹ Electrodeposition offers a rapid synthetic process and controllable catalyst loading on the substrate through simply changing deposition time and applied current density.

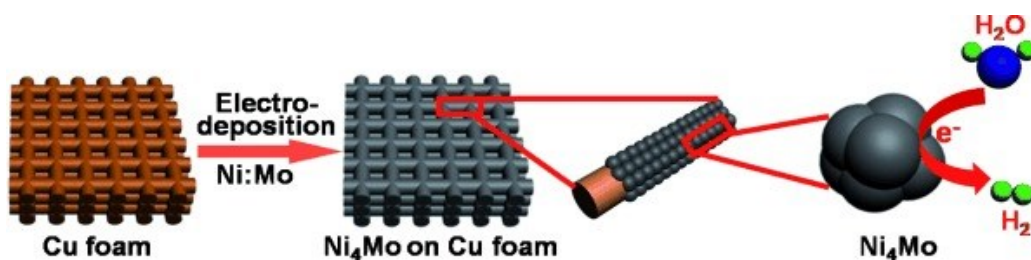


Figure 2. 4 3D nanoporous Ni–Mo electrocatalysts fabricated on Cu foam.

Chemical vapor deposition (CVD) has been extensively explored for the synthesis of inorganic catalysts. During the sintering process, the metallic compounds grown on the substrate can react with the nonmetal precursors gas such as phosphorus (PH₃ or P), fluorine, nitrogen (NH₃ or N₂) and sulfur to form the corresponding phosphides, fluorides, nitrides and sulfides.⁵² Specifically, WS_{2(1-x)} Se_{2x} nanotubes supported on carbon fibers were prepared by in situ transforming from WO₃, where WO₃ nanotubes react with sulfur and selenium vapor.⁵³ The element component can be controlled by altering the proportion of S and Se precursors (Figure 2.5).

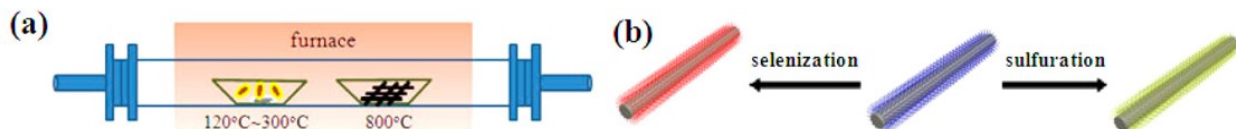


Figure 2. 5 The fabrication of WS_{2(1-x)}Se_{2x} nanotubes.

2.2 Transition Metal Hydroxides/Oxyhydroxides

Layered double hydroxides (LDHs) consist of positively charged metal hydroxide layers that interleaved with negatively charged interlayer anions, which has been widely explored for electrocatalysts, particularly for OER. The compositions are tunable by changing the positively charged metals or negatively charged interlayer anions, allowing for the modification of their catalytic properties. However, LDHs have a poor electrical conductivity resulting in an unsatisfied catalytic activity. LDHs in situ grown on a conductive substrate to fabricate a self-supported electrode is a effective way to improve the activity and long-term stability. For example, Liu et al. use a homogeneous precipitation method to vertically grow highly oriented flakes arrays of NiFe LDH on the Ni foam (NF) substrate based on urea and assisted with NH₄F as directing agent.⁵⁴

To further enhance the catalytic activity of LDHs, the nanocomposites construction and cation doping have adopted. Zou et al. developed a ultrafast synthesis of amorphous Ni-Fe-OH on Ni₃S₂ nanosheet arrays with NF supported (Figure 2.6).⁵⁵ Such fabricated nanocomposite not only provides high intrinsic activity of amorphous Ni-Fe hydroxide but endows the high conductivity of the Ni₃S₂ array. Besides, their strongly coupled interface also benefits the stability of the self-supported Ni-Fe-OH@Ni₃S₂/NF electrode presenting superior and stable OER activity. Sun's group synthesized vanadium doped NiFe LDHs nanosheet arrays in situ grown on nickel foam via a one-step hydrothermal method.⁵⁶ The Electronic Structure of NiFe LDHs were tuned by V-doping forming ternary NiFeV LDHs to reduce the onset potential, enhancing the water oxidation performance.

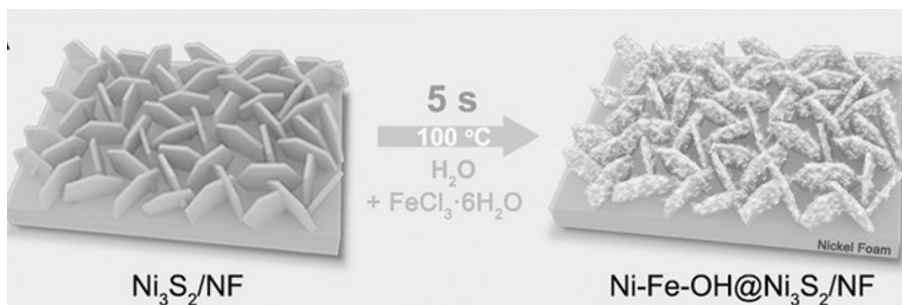


Figure 2. 6 Schematic illustration of the synthesis of $\text{Ni-Fe-OH}@Ni_3S_2/NF$

2.3 Transition Metal Oxides

The most widely used oxide catalysts for OER and ORR are still precious metal-based, for example, IrO_2 and RuO_2 for OER, Pt-based oxides for ORR.^{4, 57, 58} However, the high price and scarcity of noble metals hinder the practical application of electrochemical energy devices. Transition metal oxides are attractive for electrocatalyst application, because of the low cost, earth-rich and anti-corrosion properties in alkaline environment. The transition metal oxides have been extensively investigated for oxygen redox electrocatalysis, such as rock-salt-type oxides, spinel-type oxides, rutile oxides, and perovskite-based oxides.

Spinel-type oxides as a family of composite oxides have attracted particular interest. The general formula can be expressed as A_3O_4 (A = Co, Mn, etc.) and AB_2O_4 (A and B = transition metals, such as Ni, Co, Mn, Zn, Fe, Cu, etc.). The representative electrocatalysts applied for the oxygen reaction include Co_3O_4 , Mn_3O_4 , CoFe_2O_4 , NiCo_2O_4 and MnCo_2O_4 . Among them, Co_3O_4 and Ni-containing cobalt oxides have gained intensive investigation for OER and ORR, due to the high catalytic activity. Taking a self-supported oxide electrode as an example (Figure 2.7), the hybrid porous nanowire arrays composed of Co_3O_4 and carbon grown on Cu foil were prepared by carbonization of the Co-based metal organic framework (Co-MOF).⁵⁹ The uniform distribution and synergy between Co_3O_4 and carbon result in large active surface area, enhanced charge/mass

transport and high structural stability, which affords high OER activity with a low onset potential of 1.47 V vs RHE, a long electrocatalytic stability for 30 h under current density of 10.0 mA cm^{-2} and a high Faradaic efficiency of 99.3%.

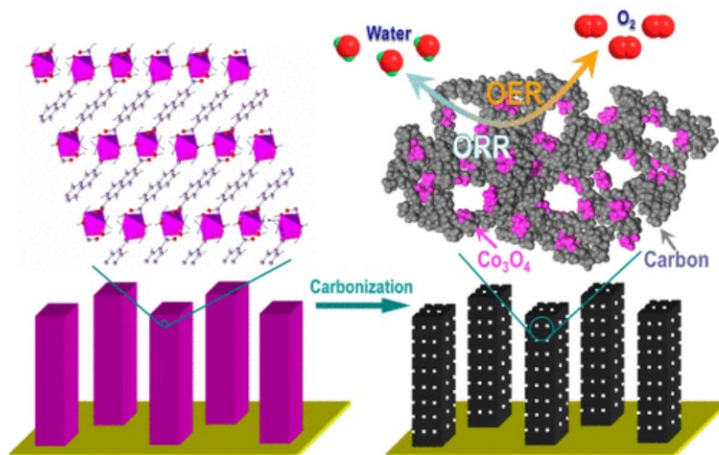


Figure 2. 7 Fabrication process of Hybrid Co_3O_4 -Carbon Porous Nanowire Arrays on Cu foil.

Other types of metal oxides were also developed as self-supported oxygen reaction catalysts. The mostly investigated rutile oxides are MoO_2 and MnO_2 working as oxygen reaction catalysts. The fabrication of nanostructured rutile oxides on 3D substrates (e.g., Nickel foam and carbon paper) have been widely investigated. For example, the porous MoO_2 nanosheets grown on the nickel foam directly work as working electrode to deliver current density of 10 mA cm^{-2} with a low potential of only 260 mV, owing to the higher surface area and more active sites contributed by porous nanostructure.⁶⁰ Manganese dioxide materials also show a potential for OER electrocatalysis, in which the engineering of Mn/O vacancies and cation doping can obviously improve the conductivity boosting the electrocatalytic activity.⁶¹⁻⁶⁴ The self-supported ultrathin δ - MnO_2 nanosheet arrays on nickel foam exhibit enhanced charge transfer, which was further demonstrated by calculation of the density of states (DOS) revealing half-metallicity property of oxygen-deficient MnO_2 nanosheet. As a result, it afforded a high OER performance with an

overpotential of 320 mV at 10 mA cm⁻².⁶¹ Besides, metal-doping is also a effective way to improve the conductivity of MnO₂. Transition metal-ion (Fe, V, Co, and Ni) doped γ -MnO₂ ultrathin nanosheet electrodeposited on Carbon fiber paper exhibits an improved electrocatalytic activity comparison to pure MnO₂ composite electrode.⁶³

2.4 Transition Metal Nonoxide Catalysts

The catalytic activity of metal oxides is impeded by the relatively low electronic preventing them from practical applications. Thus, metallic or half-metallic properties of transition metal chalcogenides (sulfide⁶⁵, selenides⁶⁶, and telluride⁶⁷) and pnictides (nitride⁶⁸ and phosphide⁶⁹) have been employed for electrocatalyst investigation. The catalytic performance can be boosted owing to the intrinsic conductivity. However, the metallic nonoxides do not directly impact the catalytic activity since they typically experience oxidation during OER. The newly transformed phase (e.g., oxyhydroxides) serves as actual active sites for OER. Even so, the metallic nonoxides based catalysts take advantage of their metallic nature favoring the electron transport, which accelerates the transformation of active phase improving the catalytic performance. For example, Stern et al. reported the core-shell Ni₂P/NiO_x for OER, where the metallic Ni₂P plays an important role in bridging the catalytic active species NiO_x and the external potential (Figure 2.8).⁷⁰ The in situ formation of NiO_x on the pristine Ni₂P surface under catalytic potential is the actual active phase. As a result, the core-shell Ni₂P/NiO_x delivers the current density of 10 mA cm⁻² at the overpotential of 290 mV. A robust electrode composed of Fe (PO₃)₂ grown on the surface of a conductive Ni₂P/NF scaffold was fabricated.⁷¹ The Fe (PO₃)₂ phase was in situ converted into amorphous FeOOH as the real catalytic sites during the OER electrocatalysis. Benefiting from the highly catalytically active FeOOH and the 3D conductive structure, the electrode exported current

density of 500 mA cm^{-2} at overpotentials of 265 mV. And a TOF value achieved around 0.12 s^{-1} per 3d Fe atom at an overpotential of 300 mV, along with excellent durability in 1 M KOH.

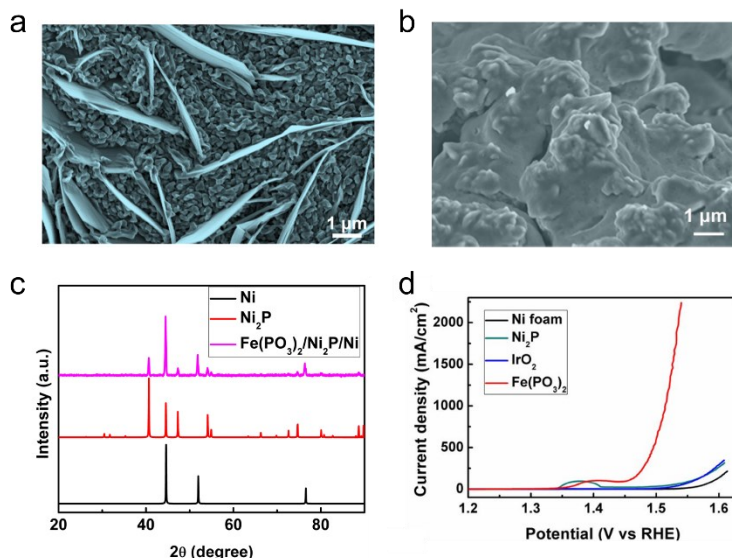


Figure 2. 8 (a) SEM image of $\text{Ni}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$. (b) SEM image of $\text{Fe}(\text{PO}_3)_2/\text{Ni}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$. (c) XRD patterns of $\text{Ni}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$, $\text{Fe}(\text{PO}_3)_2/\text{Ni}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$ and Ni. (d) Polarization curves recorded on different electrodes in 1 M KOH electrolyte.⁷¹

2.5 Single-atom electrocatalysts

Single-atom catalysis represents a compelling and potent approach that offers remarkable performance, significant cost savings, and impressive catalytic efficacy and specificity. In single-atom catalysis, supported single-atom catalysts consist of isolated atoms that are distributed across or bonded with the surface atoms of suitable substrates. This not only optimizes the utilization of metallic elements at the atomic level but also presents an alternative strategy to fine-tune the activity and selectivity of catalytic processes. The essential condition for creating Single-Atom Catalysts (SACs) involves dispersing individual metal atoms onto suitable support surfaces. Nevertheless, crafting SACs proves to be a complex task due to the natural tendency of metal atoms to preferentially aggregate during the synthesis or subsequent treatment phases.

Consequently, the wider adoption of materials consisting of single metal atoms require the advancement of sophisticated synthetic techniques, such as Atomic Layer Deposition (ALD), wet impregnation, and co-precipitation.

The composition of carbon nanomaterials can be tuned through chemical methods by introducing different heteroatoms like N into the carbon backbone. These doping sites can then serve as anchorage centers that facilitate the incorporation of metal moieties through strong coupling effects, leading to the formation of stable and electrocatalytically active metal-nitrogen-carbon (M–N–C) species.⁷² Organometallic materials M–N comprising transition metal elements (e.g., Fe, Co, Ni, Cu) coordinated by macrocycles (such as phthalocyanine and phenanthroline) can guarantee a quick electron transport process in electrochemical reactions, which could attribute to the existence of delocalized π -electrons in the macrocyclic structures.⁷³ However, the metal dissolution and material decomposition in strong acid or alkaline environments lead to the inferior stability of these organometallic complex, which limits its application. M–N_x–C materials were generally fabricated through pyrolysis and carbonization of the transition-metal macrocycles under the inert gases at temperatures over 700 °C (Figure 2.9).⁷⁴ As a result, the M–N_x–C materials show a significantly improved activity and stability in contrast to pristine organic macrocycles. N-ligands can be converted into various nitrogen species such as graphitic, pyridinic, and pyrrolic nitrogen during the process of heat treatment, which are chemically bonded to both the metal centers and carbon atoms in the carbon framework. At the same time, the elementary metals generated from the reduction of pyrolysis gas can catalyze the production of graphitic carbon shells, leading to an improvement in the conductivity of the resulting material. Consequently, this technique not only ensures an even distribution of catalytically active sites but also enhances the electronic connectivity throughout the entire system.

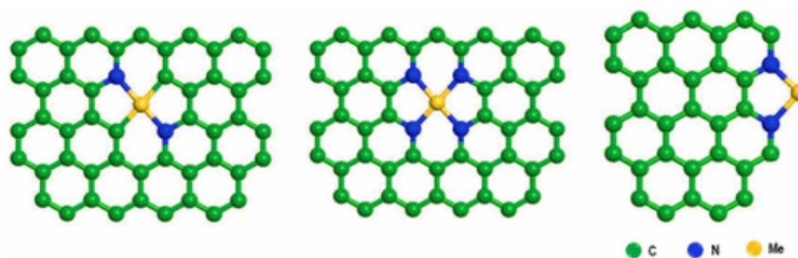


Figure 2. 9 General structures of the M–N_x–C material.

Although the natural catalytic activity of M–N_x–C systems has been demonstrated, the catalytic performance is significantly impacted by the porosity and micro- or nanostructures, because the accessibility of the active site is also vital to the overall catalytic efficiency.^{75,76} Thus, to fabricate the porous structures, some rigid templates (e.g., silica nanoparticles, anodic alumina) are generally utilized during carbonization.⁷⁷ The rigid-templating route normally involves preparation and dispersion of templates and the post synthesis removal of templates. Such tedious and time-consuming procedures hinder the large-scale production. Polymeric templates (e.g., polystyrene (PS), F127) were also reported for the manufacturing porous nanostructure. Because polymers have the ability to homogeneously penetrate precursor matrices, which can be removed subsequently under high-temperature calcination to create porous M–N_x–C.⁷⁸ The combination of hierarchical porosity and good conductivity provides the composite electrocatalysts with outstanding ORR activity, which is closely comparable or even superior to commercial Pt/C.

Bimetal-based M–N_x–C catalysts have shown significant potential in ORR compared to single metal counterparts, owing to their tunable electronic structure of the active sites by introducing another metallic center. For example, the cooperation between two metal atoms in diatomic metal catalysts enables more effective adjustment of the center position of the D-band.⁷⁹ This leads to the optimization of the interaction between reactants or intermediates and the active sites. Zeolitic

imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs)-based materials have shown a significant potential in bimetal-based catalyst synthesis. To date, several strategies for synthesizing atomically dispersed M–N_x/C catalysts based on ZIF-derived precursors have been widely reported, such as ion exchange, spatial confinement, defects trapping, and others. As a representative study, a novel electrocatalyst with Fe–Co dual sites was fabricated by transforming the initial bimetallic MOF into N-doped carbon nanotubes through the pyrolysis process, which displayed excellent activity towards the ORR with a superior E_{1/2} of 0.954 V in 0.1M KOH solution.⁸⁰

2.6 Current status and remaining challenges

Over the past few decades, significant research efforts have been dedicated to enhancing the electrocatalytic activities of oxygen reactions for energy conversion and storage applications, including hydrogen production, metal-air batteries, and full cells. The development of oxygen reaction catalysts has progressed from traditional noble metal-based materials (such as Ru, Ir, and Pt) to various transition metallic and carbonaceous materials. The electronic structure of catalysts directly determines the functionalities and performances of materials. Thus, extensive strategies (e.g., morphology control, interface manipulation, heteroatom doping) have been explored to design advanced electrocatalysts. However, the catalytic activity of transition metal-based materials is still inferior to the state-of-art noble metal-based catalysts, let alone putting them in practical applications.

Heterostructure engineering is an effective strategy to boost catalytic activity benefitting from the improved electron transfer capability and tuned electronic structure. The interfaces within the heterostructure are believed to be the real catalytic active sites. Various strategies have been developed to promote the catalytic activity in terms of exposure of the more active sites and enhancing electrical conductivity. For example, tailoring transition-metal-based layered double

hydroxides (LDHs) into single or few-layer nanosheets exposes more surface sites and reduces the diffusion length for ions and/or electrons. Although some encouraging developments have been made on boosting the catalytic activity in OER, the electrocatalytic performance still falls behind commercial requirements (current density, $j \geq 500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ at overpotential, $\eta \leq 300 \text{ mV}$), because of the limited exposure of active sites and low electrical conductivity.

Apart from large overpotential required for OER in anode to obtain appreciable current densities because of the sluggish kinetics, which could drag down the whole efficiency of hydrogen production. The anodic product (O_2) is of low value and does not contribute to economic feasibility. Thus, replacing OER with biomass electrooxidation reactions (BEORs) is an attractive strategy to lower the full-cell potential and simultaneously produce valuable products at the anode. Interfacial engineering has been demonstrated as an effective approach for designing efficient BEORs electrocatalysts by integrating two components, where the instructed heterointerfaces can promote electron transfer, influence the adsorption/desorption energies of active species during electrocatalytic process, regulating catalytic ability. Nevertheless, most reported electrocatalysts could only deliver satisfying activity for a single HER or BEOR. Developing low-cost transition metal-based electrocatalysts with bifunctionality for both HER and BEOR is imperative but remains a grand challenge.

In addition, the energy conversion efficiency of metal-air batteries is also severely restricted by the kinetically sluggish of oxygen catalysis. For cathodic ORR, the high energy needs of $\text{O}=\text{O}$ bond breaking and sluggish kinetics of the $4\text{e}^-/4\text{H}^+$ transfer process result in most electrocatalysts suffering from unsatisfactory catalytic performance. Single atom catalysts present the unique appeal for energy conversion application due to the high atomic availability and specific activity. Wherein, Fe–N–C single-atom catalysts (SACs) with Fe– N_4 moieties dispersed on carbon matrix

have been considered as promising alternatives to platinum-group-metal (PGM)-based catalysts for ORR due to the maximized atomic utilization and low cost. However, substituting PGM catalysts with Fe–N₄ catalysts while achieving superior activity and durability for practical applications is still challenging, due to the high energy barrier of O–O bond cleavage.

Therefore, motivated by the above discussion, I came up with a hypothesis about whether increasing the contact area of two domains could regulate the electronic structure more efficiently for catalytic performance in terms of activity and stability. The excellent catalysts should possess good intrinsic activity and charge transferability. For engineering two different components, the morphology, and the arrangement of two components should be taken into consideration. Well-defined morphology such as nanosheets and nanowires can provide high surface area and expose more active sites. Thus, to confirm the feasibility of above hypothesis. The objectives of this research are to develop effective heterointerfaces from nanoscale to atomic scale regulating the electronic structure for efficient electrocatalyst, which are as follows:

1. Maximize the exposure of heterostructured interfaces via constructing interconnected heterointerfaces in nanosheets.
2. Develop the nanostructured catalyst by interface engineering with bifunctionality for both HER and HMFOR for energy-saving H₂ production and value-added product generation.
3. Develop hetero-single-atom catalysts with optimized electronic structure for efficient ORR that is comparable to PGM in metal-air battery application.

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Chapter 3. Methodology and experimental section

3.1 Electrochemical analysis

3.1.1 Electrochemical measurements in a standard three-electrode cell

A standard three-electrode system comprises working, reference, and counter electrodes in a batch-type electrochemical cell, which is generally used for oxygen electrocatalysis measurements. In our work, the as-prepared electrode served as the working electrode, and a graphite rod and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were employed as the counter electrode and the reference electrode, respectively. All electrochemical OER measurements were performed in O₂ saturated 1.0 M KOH. The HER tests were conducted in an N₂ saturated 1.0 M KOH aqueous solution. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) polarization and Tafel plots were obtained at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ with iR compensation. The electrochemical surface area (ECSA) of the catalysts was evaluated by double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) values ($ECSA = C_{dl}/C_s \text{ cm}^2$, $C_s = 40 \mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$), which were determined by cyclic voltammetry (CV) scans performed between a non-Faradaic region in 1.0 M KOH electrolyte at different scan rates ranging from 20 mV s⁻¹ to 100 mV s⁻¹ with an interval point of 20 mV s⁻¹. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed at the overpotential of 300 mV in a frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz. All potentials reported were corrected to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by adding $0.241 + 0.0592 \times \text{pH}$. The Faradaic efficiency was determined by the water drainage method.

3.1.2 Electrochemical test using rotation disk electrode (RDE) and rotating ring-disk electrode (RRDE)

RDE measurements are widely used in electrochemistry to establish well-defined mass transport conditions in half-cell setups, which can be performed to screen the catalyst performance and

investigate the electron transfer mechanism in the ORR process. The RDE system consisted of a Pine Instruments rotator (PINE Research MSR Rotator, model: AFMSRCE, USA) and RDE electrode. The electrocatalysis measurement setup is shown in Figure 3.1.¹ A graphite rod and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were employed as the counter electrode and the reference electrode, respectively. The catalyst-coated glassy carbon RDE was used as the working electrode.

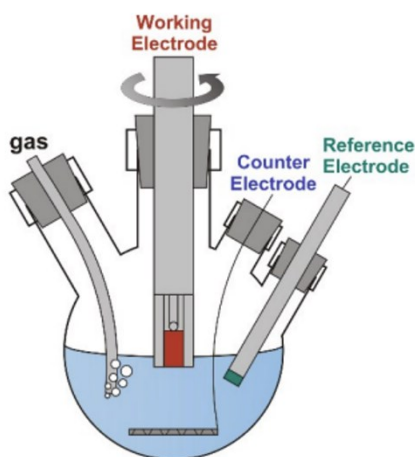


Figure 3. 1 Schematic figure of RDE test in a standard three-electrode cell.

For the preparation of the working electrode, 5 mg of catalyst was dispersed in the mixture of 495 μL isopropyl alcohol (IPA), 495 μL DI water and 10 μL Nafion (5 wt%) under sonication to form a homogeneous catalyst ink. Then 10 μL of this catalyst ink was dipped on a glassy carbon disk of RDE with a diameter of 0.5 cm, followed by drying at room temperature. The total weight loading of catalysts for both as-prepared catalysts and commercial Pt/C (20 wt%, Sigma Aldrich) was 0.255 mg cm^{-2} . The ORR test at an RDE was conducted in O_2 -saturated 0.1 M KOH or 0.1 M HClO_4 electrolytes with varying rotating speeds from 400 to 2025 rpm at a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} . 10000 potential cycles were conducted to examine the electrocatalytic durability at the sweep speed of 50 mV s^{-1} . The ORR potentials were calculated into the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by the following equation:

$$E \text{ (vs. RHE)} = E \text{ (vs. SCE)} + 0.059 \times \text{pH} + 0.241 \quad (3.1)$$

The electron transfer number (n) per oxygen molecule for oxygen reduction can be determined by the Koutechy–Levich equations (3.2-3.3):

$$\frac{1}{J} = \frac{1}{J_L} + \frac{1}{J_K} = \frac{1}{B\omega^{0.5}} + \frac{1}{J_K} \quad (3.2)$$

$$B = 0.62nFC_0(D_0)^{3/2}\nu^{-1/6} \quad (3.3)$$

where J is the measured current density, J_L and J_K are the diffusion- and kinetic-limiting current densities, ω is the electrode rotation rate expressed in angular velocity (rad s^{-1}), n is the transferred electron number, F is the Faraday constant (96485 C mol^{-1}), C_0 is the concentration of O_2 in the electrolyte ($1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$), D_0 is the diffusion coefficient of O_2 ($1.93 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), and ν is the kinetic viscosity of 0.1M KOH ($0.01 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$).²

RRDE measurements were carried out to investigate the electron selectivity of the as-prepared samples with the same catalyst loading as RDE measurement. The model of the RRDE setup is AFE6R1PT with disk OD = 5.0 mm, ring OD = 7.50 mm, ring ID = 6.50 mm. The disk electrode was scanned cathodically under the same condition of RDE at a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} and the ring potential was kept at 1.5 V vs RHE. The rotation rate is 1600 rpm. The following equations (3.4-3.5) were used to calculate hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) yield and electron transfer number (n).

$$n = \frac{4I_D}{I_D + I_R/N} \quad (3.4)$$

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\% = \frac{2I_R/N}{I_D + I_R/N} \times 100 \quad (3.5)$$

where I_D is disk current, I_R is ring current, and $N \approx 0.25$ is the current collection efficiency of the Pt ring, which was provided by the manufacturer.

The onset potential was defined as a potential value corresponding to 5 % of the diffusion-limited current density. The half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) is corresponding to the potential where the current density is equal to half of the limited current density. The EIS measurements were conducted from 10^5 Hz to 0.1 Hz at 50 mV vs RHE.

3.1.3 Zn–air battery (ZAB) assembly and tests.

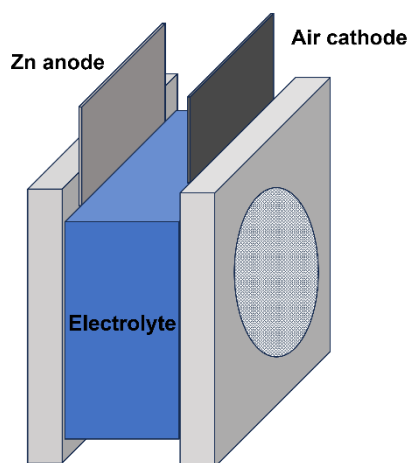


Figure 3. 2 Schematic of homemade Zinc-air battery cell.

The ZAB tests were carried out using a homemade electrochemical cell (Figure 3.2). The ability of the electrocatalysts to serve as an air electrode in ZAB was evaluated under ambient conditions. A polished zinc foil was used as the anode. 5 mg of the prepared catalyst was dispersed in 1 mL DI water, 3 mL IPA and 1 mL Nafion via probe sonication. The cathode was prepared by drop casting the catalyst inks onto the Gas Diffusion Layer (GDL) of carbon fiber paper with a mass loading of 0.5 mg cm^{-2} . For the primary Zn-air batteries, the electrolyte consists of 6 M KOH and 0.2 M zinc acetate dehydrate. $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}+\text{IrO}_2$ (w:w = 1:1) ink was prepared in the same way for the long-term charge-discharge cycle stability test of the ZAB device in that it was performed with a period of 10 min charge and 10 min discharge. For all-solid-state Zn–air battery assembly, the gel polymer electrolyte was prepared as follows. Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, 1 g) was dissolved

in 10 mL DI water under continuous stirring at 95 °C to form a homogeneous gel. Then 1 mL of 18 M KOH containing 0.2 M zinc acetate dehydrate was added dropwise to form a homogeneous viscous solution. The as-prepared Fe_x/Cu-N@CF film and zinc foil were placed on the two sides of the PVA gel, followed by pressed Ni foam as the current collector. The reference cathode was made in the similar way using commercial Pt/C or Pt/C+IrO₂ (w:w=1:1).

3.2 Materials characterizations

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM): The morphologies of prepared materials were studied via Zeiss Sigma 300 VP-Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) configured with an EBSD detector.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM): The TEM measurements were conducted on a JEOL JEMARM200CF equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) at an accelerating voltage of 200/300 kV.

X-ray diffraction (XRD): The XRD patterns were collected by Rigaku Ultima IV diffractometer (XRD, D8 discover diffraction system equipped with Cu K α radiation (40 kV, 44 mA)) at a scan rate of 5° min⁻¹.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS): XPS measurements were recorded on on Kratos Analytical AXIS 165 with a monochromatic Al K α source. The C 1 s photoelectron peak at 284.6 eV as reference was used for spectrometer calibration.

Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS): UPS measurements were carried out on a physical Electronic PHI 5000 photoelectron spectrometer with He I (21.22 eV) ultraviolet radiation.

Water contact angle: The water contact angle was characterized on Contact Angle (FTA-200) equipped with a CCD camera.

Digital microscope imaging: Bubble releasing behavior was recorded by digital microscope VHX-700F.

N₂ adsorption: Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were collected on an Autosorb Quantachrome 1MP at 77 K.

Raman spectroscopy: Raman spectroscopy measurements were performed using a Renishaw InVia Raman system calibrated by a standard silicon wafer (520 cm⁻¹) using a 532 nm laser. In situ Raman spectra were recorded on Renishaw InVia Raman microscope using a 532 nm laser as excitation source under the controlled potentials (1-1.5 V vs. RHE) *via* the Gamry reference 3000 in 1.0 M KOH solution.

Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES): The ICP-OES measurements were performed on Thermo iCAP6300 Duo ICP_OES.

Atomic-resolution electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS): The EELS measurements were conducted on Titan Cubed Themis G20 TEM equipped with a highly sensitive Super-X energy dispersive X-ray detector system (operated at 300 kV).

X-ray absorption spectroscopy: X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data at the Hard X-ray microanalysis beamline (HXMA-061D) of the Canadian Light Source. The X-ray absorption spectra were acquired in fluorescence mode using a Si(111) double-crystal monochromator to range the X-ray energy from 5–40 keV. The ring current is 250 mA. A He-filled Oxford straight ion chamber detector was used to monitor the incident X-ray, and the fluorescence yield signal was captured using a 32-element Ge detector. The energy was calibrated using Fe and Cu plate reference samples.

High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC): The HPLC measurements were recorded on Shimadzu LC-20 equipped with a 4.6 mm × 150 mm 5 μm C18 detector column and an ultraviolet-visible detector set at 245 nm.

3.3 References

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2. Yang, G.; Zhu, J.; Yuan, P.; Hu, Y.; Qu, G.; Lu, B.-A.; Xue, X.; Yin, H.; Cheng, W.; Cheng, J., Regulating Fe-spin state by atomically dispersed Mn-N in Fe-NC catalysts with high oxygen reduction activity. *Nat. Commun.* 2021, 12 (1), 1734.

Chapter 4. Ni₃S₂-Embedded NiFe LDH Porous Nanosheets with Abundant Heterointerfaces for High-current Water Electrolysis

Abstract: Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH heterostructured porous nanosheets were *in situ* grown on nickel foam (Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs /NF) *via* a one-pot solution method mediated by NaHS at room temperature in 15 min. Benefiting from the abundant Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH interfaces, the as-prepared catalyst delivers 50, 500 and 1000 mA cm⁻² with an overpotential of only 230, 285 and 303 mV for oxygen evolution reaction, respectively, registering as one of the best performing non-precious metal OER catalysts. *In situ* and *ex situ* analysis reveal that the Ni₃S₂ was *in situ* partially transformed under an electrooxidation environment into NiOOH over an equally important electrically conductive Ni₃S₂ to drive proficient catalysis. This strategy can be extended to fabricate Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrocatalyst for high active hydrogen evolution reaction.

4.1 Introduction

Electrochemical water splitting is a promising sustainable technology to produce high-purity H₂ in the conversion of renewable electricity, but the energy conversion efficiency is severely restricted by the sluggish kinetics of oxygen evolution reaction (OER) in the anode.[1-2] Two-dimensional (2D) structure has sparked intensive interest in the field of energy storage/conversion due to the distinct physical and chemical properties compared with bulk and other dimensional counterparts.[3, 4] NiFe layered double hydroxides (NiFe-LDHs) nanosheets have been considered as one of the most active catalysts toward water oxidation.[5] Various strategies have been developed to further promote the OER catalytic activity of NiFe-LDHs nanosheets in terms of exposure of the more active sites. For example, tailoring LDHs into single or few-layer nanosheets exposes more surface sites and reduces the diffusion length for ions and/or electrons.[6-8] Besides, engineering nanopores is also confirmed to be a versatile strategy to enhance the

intrinsic activity of nanosheets, resulting from the abundant defects and active edge sites created in catalysts.[9] Although some encouraging developments have been made on NiFe LDHs, the electrocatalytic performance of NiFe LDHs still falls behind commercial requirements (current density, $j \geq 500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ at overpotential, $\eta \leq 300 \text{ mV}$), because of the limited exposure of active sites and low electrical conductivity.[10]

Heterostructure engineering is an effective strategy to boost OER activity benefitting from the improved electron transfer capability and tuned electronic structure. The interfaces within the heterostructure are believed to be the real catalytic active sites.[11-13] For example, NiFe(OH)_x/FeS and NiFeOOH/NiFe heterostructured nanomaterials exhibit enhanced OER activity as compared to the NiFe hydroxides.[14, 15] However, these reported hierarchical heterostructure possesses sparse interfacial sites, leading to inefficient utilization of catalysts because of the limited optimization of adsorption energies (Figure 4.1a). Besides, the synthesis processes (such as electrodeposition, hydrothermal and calcination) normally involve tedious multistep procedures with significant energy and time consumption. Up to now, most reported methods are difficult to realize extremely dense interfacial sites, due to the asynchronous nucleation and growth of the two heterophases. The construction of well-defined heterostructured 2D materials is expected to be an effective way to overcome the drawbacks of hierarchical heterostructure (Figure 4.1b). Recently, a powdery catalyst, Ni(0)-embedded Ni(OH)₂ heterostructure nanosheets, shows enhanced water oxidation due to high-density active sites exposed and modified electronic structure.[16] Nevertheless, the controllable growth of heterostructured 2D materials on a certain substrate for large-scale production is challenging because of the complex reaction kinetics.

Ni₃S₂, which occurs naturally as the mineral heazlewoodite, has intrinsic metallic behavior due to the continuous network of Ni–Ni bonds throughout its structure.[17, 18] To this end, we fabricated a robust electrode composed of Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH heterostructured nanosheets with a porous structure supported on nickel foam (NF) *via* a one-pot solution approach at room temperature in 15 min. The well-defined heterostructured Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs nanosheets possess both abundant interfaces and improved electron transfer capability. In addition, the porous structure not only provides nanosheets with more exposed active sites, but also facilitates ions transfer and bubble release, which benefits its stability, especially under high j_s with a large amount of gas evolved. As a result, Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 exhibits superior OER catalytic performances with small η_s of 230, 285 and 303 mV to reach j_s of 50, 500 and 1000 mA cm⁻², small Tafel slope of 35.6 mV dec⁻¹ and excellent stability over 100 hours, outperforming most reported non-precious metal catalysts and noble-metal benchmarks. Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalyst can be obtained in a similar way with only the addition of RuCl₃, which exhibited an enhanced hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) catalytic performance ($\eta=61.3$ mV at 10 mA cm⁻²). The coupled Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrodes showed a significantly boosted overall water splitting activity with low voltages of 1.47, 1.71 and 1.85 V to deliver high j_s of 10, 100 and 500 mA cm⁻², respectively, far surpassing current commercial requirements (1.8-2.40 V for 200-400 mA cm⁻²). [19]

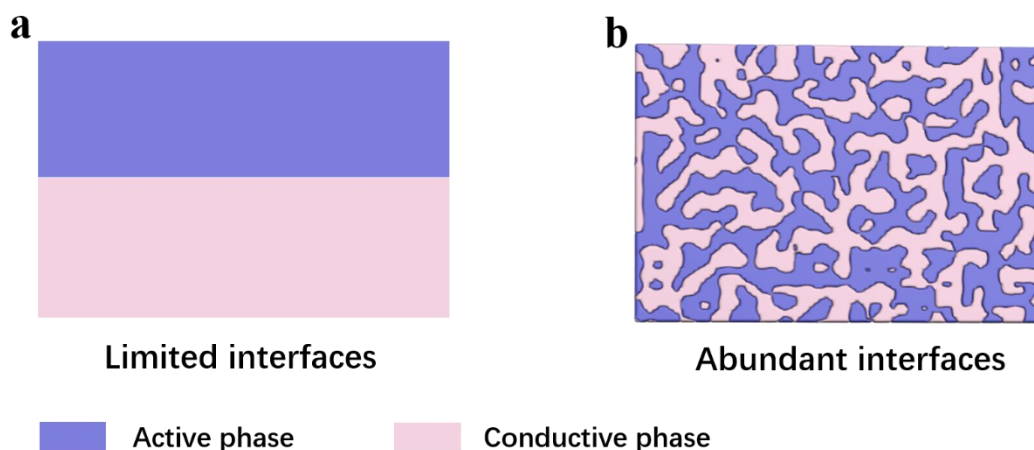


Figure 4. 1 (a) Hierarchical structure. (b) Interconnected structure.

4.2 Experimental Section

4.2.1 Materials

$\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, NaHS were purchased from Fisher scientific. Iridium oxide (IrO_2) and Pt/C (20%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. All reagents were used as received without further purification. Ni foam was purchased from Xiamen Lith Machine Co., Ltd. Before the use, Ni foam was cleaned with HCl (3 M), acetone, and deionized water (DI) several times. Deionized water was used throughout the experimental processes.

4.2.2 Synthesis of Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF

Typically, 0.1 M $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ solution containing 14.5 mM NaHS was prepared in 10 mL DI water. Then a piece of NF ($1 \times 2.5 \text{ cm}^2$) was immersed into the above solution. After resting for 15min at ambient conditions, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2 supported on NF was obtained by rinsing with deionized water and drying naturally. The loading of the product on NF was determined to be 1.8 mg cm^{-2} . Accordingly, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-1, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-3 samples were

prepared by tuning the concentration of NaHS at 8.9 and 19.6 mM, respectively. NiFe LDHs/NF was synthesized without NaHS. Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF was synthesized similarly to that of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 except with the addition of RuCl₃ (39 mg) resting for 2 h.

4.2.3 Materials characterization

SEM images were captured by Zeiss Sigma 300 VP-Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on a JEOL JEMARM200CF equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were measured using a D8 discover diffraction system equipped with Cu K α radiation (40 kV, 44 mA) at a scan rate of 5° min⁻¹. Raman spectroscopy measurements were performed using a Renishaw InVia Raman system calibrated by a standard silicon wafer (520 cm⁻¹) using a 532 nm laser. In situ Raman spectra were recorded on Renishaw InVia Raman microscope using a 532 nm laser as excitation source under the controlled potentials (1-1.5 V vs. RHE) *via* the Gamry reference 3000 in 1.0 M KOH solution. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were collected on a Kratos Analytical AXIS 165 with monochromatic Al K α source. The binding energy was calibrated using the C 1s photoelectron peak at 284.6 eV as reference. The S: Fe ratio was determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) on Thermo iCAP6300 Duo ICP_OES. The contact angle was characterized on Contact Angle (FTA-200) equipped with a CCD camera. Bubble releasing behavior was recorded by digital microscope VHX-700F.

4.2.4 Electrochemical measurements

All electrochemical measurements were performed in a three-electrode system using Gamry reference 3000 with Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF directly as the working electrode, graphite rod as the

counter electrode, and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference electrode in O₂ saturated 1.0 M KOH. The HER tests were conducted in an N₂ saturated 1.0 M KOH aqueous solution. For the two-electrode electrolyzer, the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF samples were used as the anode and cathode, respectively. All potentials reported were corrected to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by adding $0.241 + 0.0592 \times \text{pH}$. The stability test was performed in a 1.0 M KOH electrolyte. LSV polarization and Tafel plots were obtained at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ with iR compensation. Electrochemical surface area (ECSA) of the catalysts was evaluated by double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) values ($\text{ECSA} = C_{dl}/C_s \text{ cm}^2$, $C_s = 40 \mu\text{F cm}^{-2}$), which were determined by cyclic voltammetry (CV) scans performed between a non-Faradaic region in 1.0 M KOH electrolyte at different scan rates ranging from 20 mV s⁻¹ to 100 mV s⁻¹ with an interval point of 20 mV s⁻¹. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed at the overpotential of 300 mV in a frequency range of 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz. The Faradaic efficiency was determined by the water drainage method. The RuO₂/NF and Pt/C/NF were prepared by a slurry cast method. Typically, 10 mg catalysts were ultrasonically dispersed in a 1 ml solution containing 970 μL isopropyl alcohol and 30 μL Nafion solution. To maintain the same mass loading with the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF, a certain amount of ink was pipetted onto the NF and dried in the air before the electrochemical measurements.

4.3 Results and Discussion

4.3.1 Synthesis and characterizations of electrocatalysts

The Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH nanosheets were in situ grown on NF *via* a one-step solution method at room temperature in only 15 min (Figure 4.2a). NF was selected as both the substrate and Ni source. The three-dimensional Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalyst was prepared in the solution

containing iron (III) nitrate, NaHS, where the presence of Fe^{3+} stimulates Ni^{2+} release from NF (Eq.4.1), the NaHS hydrolyzes and generates hydroxide ions H_2S (Eq.4.2) and HS^- reacts with metal ions to produce sulfides (Eq.4.3). Meanwhile, metal ions combine with locally generated hydroxide ions to form bimetallic hydroxide NiFe LDH (Eq.4.4). [14, 20]



The color of NF changes from silvery-white to black in 15 min at room temperature without stirring. The Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF was collected and used directly as the OER electrode. To optimize catalytic activity, electrodes were prepared by simply tuning the concentration of NaHS (0, 8.9, 14.5, 19.6 mM), which were donated as NiFe LDH/NF, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-1, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2, and Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-3, respectively. The Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2 with a large geometry size of $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ was prepared (Figure 4.2b). The corresponding scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image in Figure S4.1 demonstrates that the well-defined nanosheets on NF were synthesized successfully for larger-scale preparation.

The SEM images of the Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDH/NF-2 (Figure 4.2c) show that the Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDH nanosheets are uniformly grown on NF with an average size of 186 nm (Figure S6b). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of the product further corroborates the thin-layered structure (Figure 4.2d). In addition, we observed abundant pore structures from high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images of the Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDH nanosheet (Figure 4.2e, f). The average pore size within the nanosheet is around 3.8 nm (Figure

S4.2). Undoubtedly, the porous-structured nanosheets can provide abundant exposed active sites and facilitate electrolyte penetration and bubble release during water electrolysis. [21, 22] The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image (Figure 4.2g) confirms the formation of NiFe LDH and Ni₃S₂ phases in the nanosheet. In enlarged HRTEM regions (outlined in Figure 4.2g), the well-resolved lattice fringe of 0.21 nm corresponds to the (018) crystal plane of NiFe LDHs (Figure 4.2h), two sets of lattice fringes with the interplanar spacings of 0.23 and 0.24 nm, respectively, exhibit 70° interplanar angle, which agrees well with the (021) and (003) planes of the hexagonal Ni₃S₂ phase (Figure 4.2i).[17] The coexistence of NiFe LDHs and Ni₃S₂ in the nanosheet was approved by the corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT) pattern (Figure 4.2j). In Figure 4.2k, the STEM image and the corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) mapping images clearly state the existence of the Ni, Fe, O, S elements in the catalyst. The distribution of elements confirms that Ni₃S₂ is embedded in NiFe LDHs. The atomic ratio of S/Fe determined by the EDS spectrum (Figure S4.3) is about 2.21:1, which matches well with the ICP-OES result of 2.29:1 (Table S4.1). Additionally, the mechanical integrality of as-prepared Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 catalyst is highly robust compared to self-supported catalyst (NiFe LDHs/NF) prepared by the commonly used hydrothermal method.[23] The Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH nanosheets were hard to peel from the NF, even after sonication for 1 h in water, while the detachment of NiFe LDHs from NF occurs in 1 minute (Figure S4.4). This robust mechanical property of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 benefits the maintenance of its activity and durability even at high j_s .

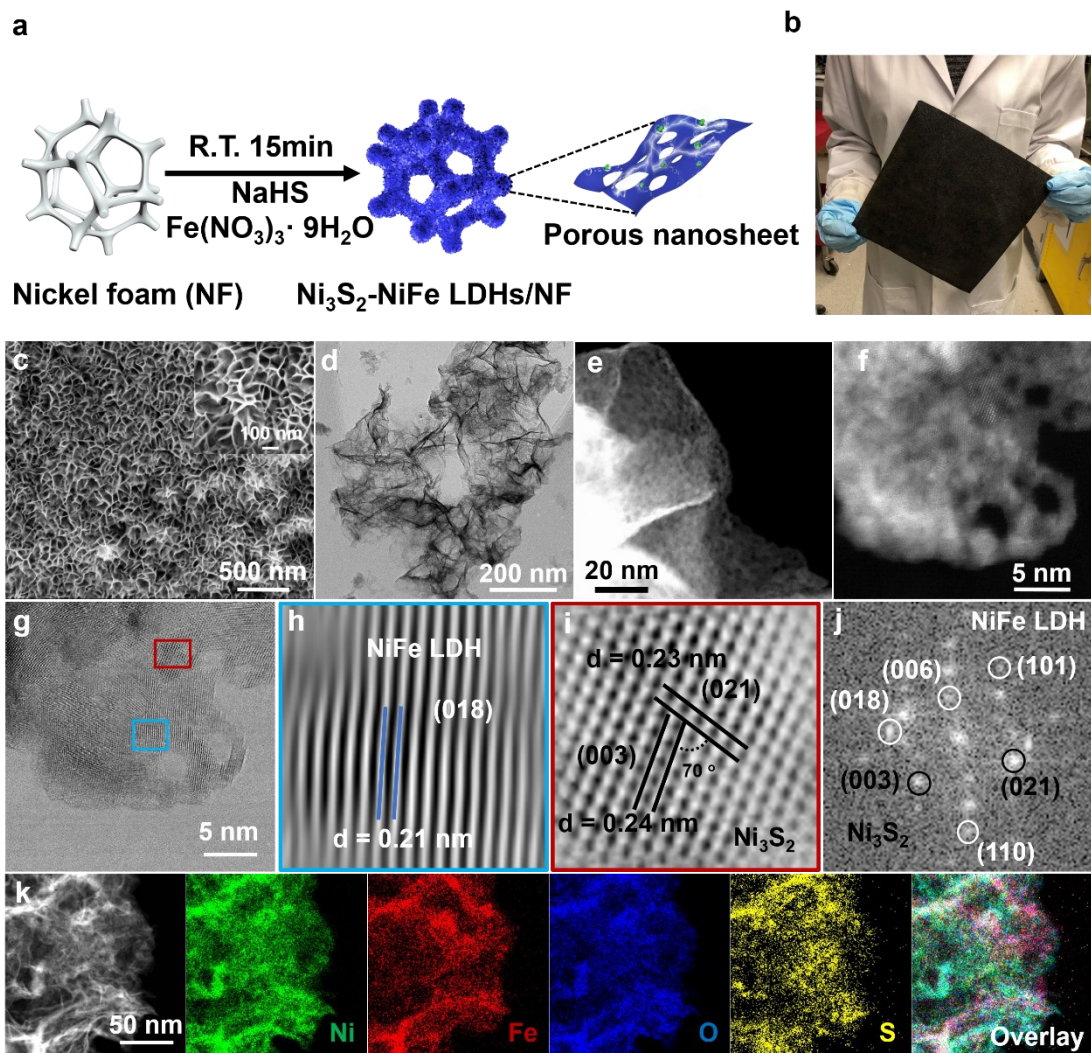


Figure 4. 2 (a) Schematic of the synthesis of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF}$. (b) Photograph of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$ with $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ area. (c, d) SEM and TEM images of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$. (e, f) STEM images of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$. (g, h, i) High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$. (j) The corresponding fast Fourier transformation (FFT) pattern. (k) HAAD-STEM image and associated elemental mapping images.

The release of Ni species from NF is the first key step of *in situ* growth of NiFe-based hydroxides on NF. The redox reaction between Fe^{3+} and Ni in an aqueous solution ($\text{Ni} + 2\text{Fe}^{3+} \rightarrow \text{Ni}^{2+} + 2\text{Fe}^{2+}$) is slow and high temperature is needed. For most reported work, a suitable alkaline condition and high temperature are required for the synthesis of NiFe-based hydroxide with well-defined nanosheet morphology. [24, 25] In this work, NaHS in an aqueous solution provides both hydroxide ions and sulfur ions that quickly combine with metal ions, which speeds up the redox reaction rate causing *in situ* growth of Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs on NF in a short time. Accordingly, the synthesis of Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF was carried out by tuning NaHS concentrations ranging from 0 to 19.6 mM. Agglomeration of particles on NF can be observed without the addition of NaHS (Figure S4.5a-c). Interestingly, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs with a small nanosheet size were grown onto NF in the case of 8.9 mM NaHS (Figure S4.5d-f). The size of nanosheets increased with increasing NaHS concentration up to 14.5 mM (Figure S4.5g-i), then the opposite effect was noted when further increasing NaHS to 19.6 mM (Figure S4.5j-l). Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2 prepared in 14.5 mM has the largest average size ($\bar{S} = 186$ nm) (Figure S4.6a-c). The pore diameters between nanosheets also exhibit an apparent dependence on the concentration of NaHS. Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2 has the largest pore diameter ($\bar{D} = 91$ nm) (Figure S4.6d-f).

We suspect that the rate of Ni species release can affect the nucleation and growth processes of the product onto NF. Without the addition of NaHS, the as-produced NiFe LDH particles arise from the hydrolysis of metal ions in the solution with dissolved oxygen.[26] The addition of NaHS significantly boosts the release of Ni^{2+} from NF and provides OH^- and S^{2-} ions, which provides more nuclei and mass source for the growth process. For example, the material synthesized in 8.9 mM NaHS has embryonic-like nanosheets with small \bar{S} and \bar{D} . Then 14.5 mM NaHS supplies more mass sources for the growth process of nanosheets, thus affording larger nanosheets.

However, at a higher NaHS concentration of 19.6 mM, the nucleation is significantly boosted resulting in small-sized nanosheets, but the atomic ratio of S/Fe is about 2.36:1 close to that of 14.5 mM (2.29:1) (Table S4.1).

The phase of the products was further identified by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns. The diffraction peaks of as-synthesized catalysts match well with the standard XRD patterns of hexagonal NiFe LDH (PDF # 42-0573) and hexagonal Ni₃S₂ (PDF # 44-1418), indicating the successful formation of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH nanosheets on NF (Figure 4.3a).[17, 27] And the collected XRD patterns of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-1 and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-3 are consistent with Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 (Figure S4.7). The XRD patterns of Ni metal are from Ni foam. The Raman spectra also confirmed the chemical composition of prepared catalysts. Figure 4.3b displays a comparison of Raman spectra of NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs /NF-2. The peak at 194.7 cm⁻¹ is related to O–M–O bending modes, including O–Ni–O and O–Fe–O.[28,29] The bands at 466 and 540 cm⁻¹ correspond to the stretching vibrations of $\delta(\text{Ni-O})$ and $\nu(\text{Ni-O})$ in Ni(OH)₂, the peaks at 307, 680 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the Fe–O vibrations in disordered FeOOH.[30-32] The decrease of the ratio of peak intensities (I_{δ}/I_{ν}) can be observed in Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 compared to NiFe LDHs/NF, which means the incorporation of Fe content increased because the local structure of Ni–O is affected by the Fe content.[30, 33] In comparison, Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs /NF-2 exhibits additional Raman bands at 186, 200, 222, 302, 324, and 350 cm⁻¹ assigned to Ni₃S₂.[17, 34] X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted to further understand the surface chemistry and valance state of elements for the synthesized electrocatalysts. As shown in Figure 4.3c, the high resolution XPS spectrum of Ni 2p for NiFe LDHs/NF consists of two spin-orbit peaks of Ni 2p_{3/2} (855.6 eV) and Ni 2p_{1/2} (872.3 eV) along with two satellite peaks, while the minor peaks at 852.2 and 869.3 eV are indexed to metallic Ni.[35, 36] The

presence of Ni peaks suggests that NF was not fully wrapped by the products, which is consistent with the SEM images (Figure S4.6a-b). By contrast, the peaks of metallic Ni disappeared in Ni 2p for Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, which indicates that NiFe LDHs/Ni₃S₂ nanosheets are uniformly grown on the NF. For Fe 2p (Figure 4.3d), the peaks for Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺ can be observed, indicating that the Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺ coexist in the prepared catalyst.[37] The introduction of Fe²⁺ in NiFe LDHs has been demonstrated to be an effective strategy for the enhancement of the OER activity.[26, 38] It is noteworthy that Ni 2p_{3/2} shows a negative shift of approximately 0.3 eV, while Fe 2p positively shifts 0.3 eV, which could be related to the electronic interaction between Ni₃S₂ and NiFe LDH.[39-41] Correspondingly, in the O 1s spectrum (Figure 4.3e), the peaks at 529.7, 531 and 533.2 eV are attributed to metal-O, hydroxyl species and absorbed molecular water on the surface, respectively.[42-46] And the content of metal-O of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 is about 34.4% higher than that of NiFe LDHs/NF (21.4 %), which indicates more NiFe LDH formation in Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2. For the high-resolution XPS spectrum of S 2p in Figure 4.3f, the two peaks located at 167.8 and 161.9 eV originate from the sulfate groups and S-S bond, respectively, and the peak at 163.2 eV corresponds to the Ni-S bond. [47, 48]

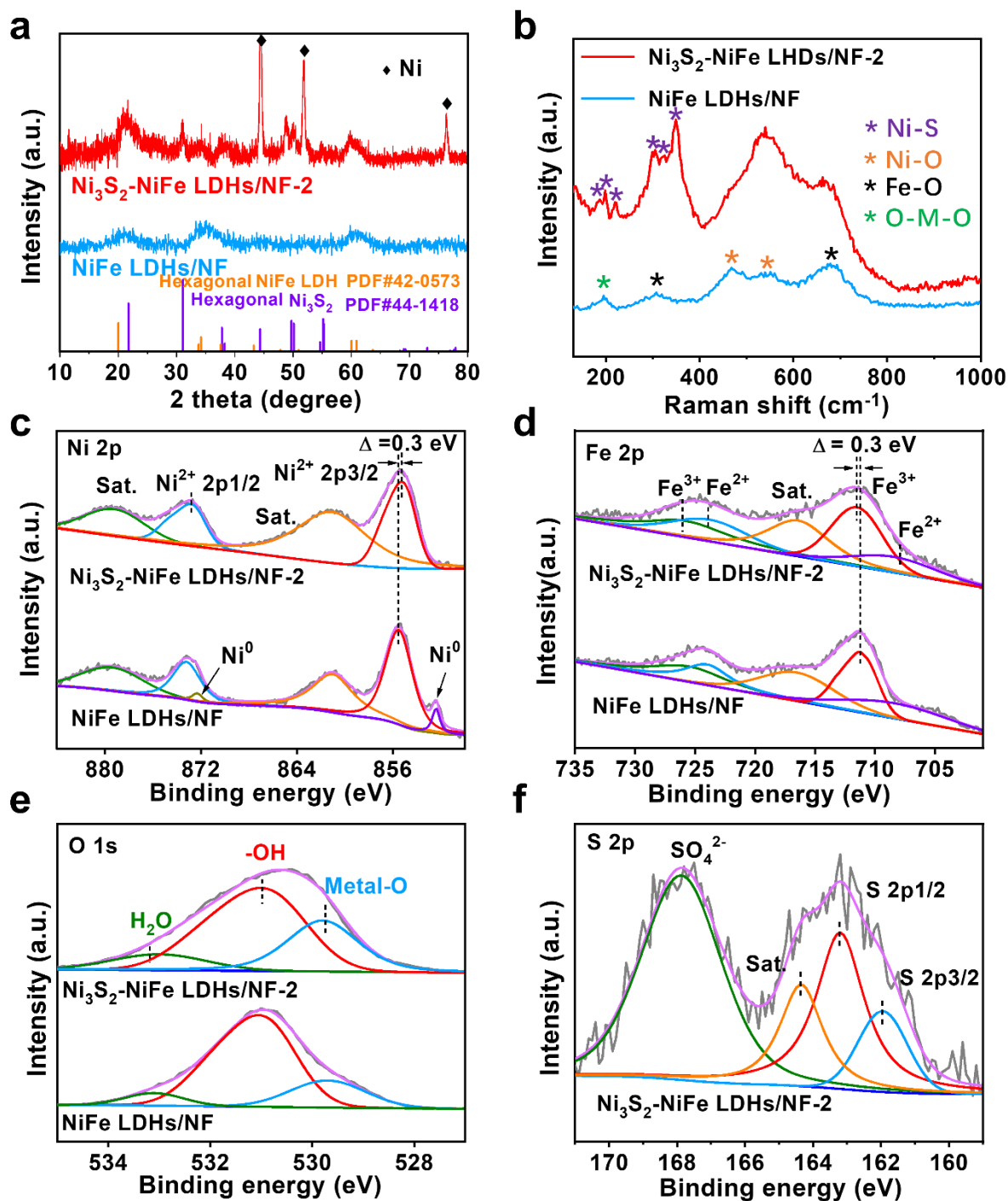


Figure 4. 3 (a) XRD patterns of NiFe LDHs/NF and $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$. (b) Raman spectra of NiFe LDHs/NF and $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$. (c-f) High-resolution XPS spectra of Ni 2p, Fe 2p, O 1s and S 2p for NiFe LDHs/NF and $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$.

4.3.2 Electrocatalytic OER performance

The OER electrocatalytic performance of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 is evaluated using a standard three-electrode cell in a 1.0 M KOH solution. For comparison, commercial RuO₂ loaded on NF (denoted as RuO₂/NF) and bare NF were also measured as control samples. According to the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves in Figure 4.4a, the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalysts exhibit great superiority in electrocatalytic performance compared to NiFe LDHs/NF, RuO₂/NF and NF electrodes employed. It is noted that Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 exhibits the most prominent enhancement, which only requires η of 230 mV to deliver 50 mA cm⁻², superior to those of NiFe LDHs/NF (354 mV) and RuO₂/NF (335 mV). Specifically, the low η_s of 285 and 303 mV are needed to deliver the high j_s of 500 and 1000 mA cm⁻², respectively. The consistent kinetic behaviors can be observed in the Tafel plots in Figure 4.4b, Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 shows a Tafel slope of 35.6 mV dec⁻¹, which is much smaller than those of NiFe LDHs/NF (84.6 mV dec⁻¹), RuO₂/NF (83.2 mV dec⁻¹) and NF (186.4 mV dec⁻¹), suggesting boosted OER kinetics. The as-prepared 10 batches of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 exhibit similar catalytic performance, which proves its reproduction (Figure 4.4c, S4.7). OER performances (LSV, EIS) of the prepared 20x20 cm² catalyst. All the above experimental results state our Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 as an earth-abundant and efficient OER catalyst that is superior to most recently reported high-performance electrocatalysts (Figure 4.4d, e and Table S4.3). In addition, the facile and effective preparation method means that Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 has great potential to drive a water-splitting cell for large-scale H₂ production fulfilling the commercial criteria of the OER process in the anode. The electrochemical stability of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 was evaluated by performing chronopotentiometry measurement under a constant j of 100 mA cm⁻² for 240 h, which shows only 2.7 % potential decay with time (Figure 4.4f).

To elucidate the origins of disparity in the OER catalytic activity among the different catalysts, double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) investigations were conducted, and the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) was estimated from the C_{dl} of the electrocatalysts. The Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 shows a dramatically higher value of C_{dl} (4.57 mF cm⁻²) than that of NiFe LDHs/NF (1.16 mF cm⁻²), NF (0.86 mF cm⁻²) and other investigated samples (Figure 4.4g, S4.10), which corroborates that the optimized Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 possesses a larger ECSA related to full-developed porous nanosheets with more exposure of active sites. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) plots reveal that the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 catalyst exhibits the smallest semicircle diameter among all investigated samples (Figure 4.4h, S4.11, Table S4.2), revealing the lowest charge-transfer resistance of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 during the OER process. This result suggests that the coexistence of NiFe LDHs and Ni₃S₂ in nanosheet created abundant interfaces, the metallic feature of Ni₃S₂ favors the electron transfer within the nanosheet.[39] This was further demonstrated by the work functions of the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 and NiFe LDHs/NF determined by ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS). Clearly, the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 shows a smaller work function than NiFe LDHs/NF (Figure 4.4i), confirming the better electron transferability of the former, which benefits the charge transport between the catalyst surface and reactant intermediates and thus facilitates electrocatalysis. [49-51] The OER performance (LSV, EIS) of the prepared 20 x 20 cm² catalyst was also examined. There is not much difference between the prepared 20 x 20 cm² catalyst and the small sample, confirming the scalability of this method without compromising activity (Figure S4.13).

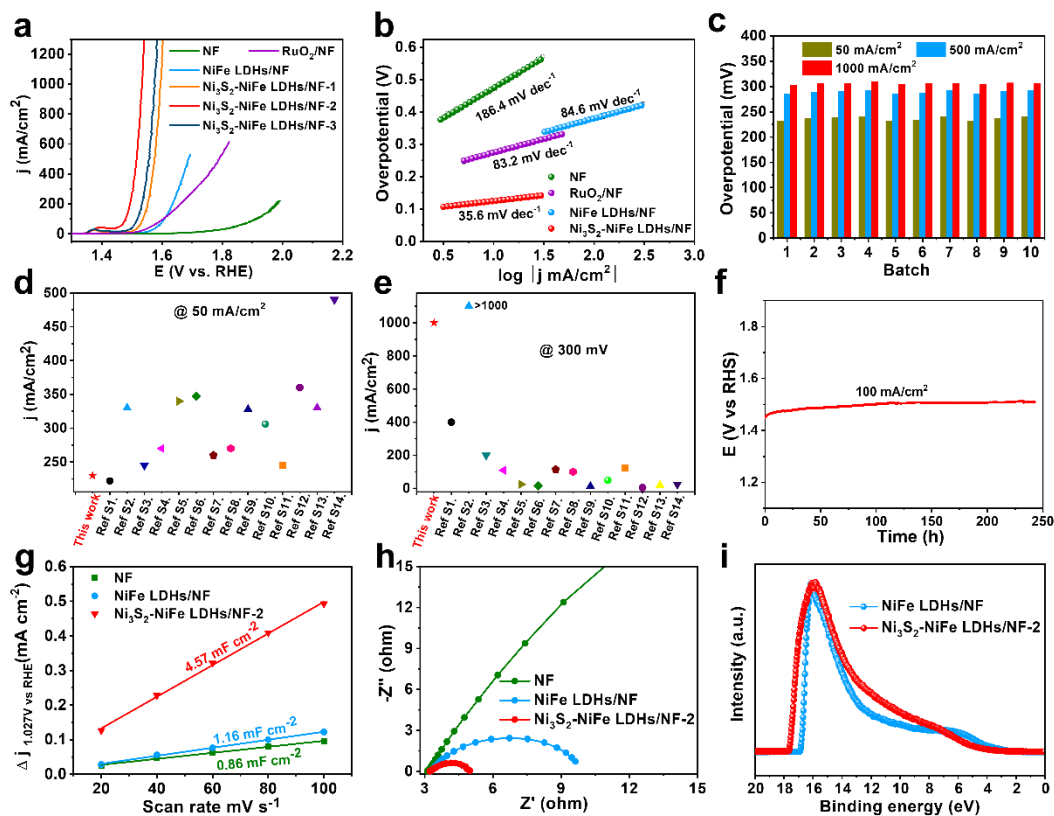


Figure 4. 4 (a) The LSV curves for OER recorded on $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$, NiFe LDHs/NF , RuO_2/NF and NF . (b) The corresponding Tafel plots. (c) The overpotential histogram for ten batches of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$ at 50, 500, and 1000 mA cm^{-2} . (d, e) Comparison of the overpotentials required at 50 mA cm^{-2} and the current densities delivered at 300 mV among our catalyst and available reported OER catalysts. (f) Chronopotentiometric curves of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$ at 100 mA cm^{-2} in 1 M KOH. (g, h) ECSA and EIS plots of the $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$, NiFe LDHs/NF and NF . (i) UPS spectra of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$, NiFe LDHs/NF .

4.3.3 Mechanistic analyses

We further investigated the surface wettability and oxygen bubble-releasing behavior for NF , NiFe LDHs/NF , $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$ (Figure 4.5a-c, video 4.1-4.3). The NF and NiFe

LDHs/NF showed contact angles of 129° and 87°, respectively, while the water droplet immediately infiltrated into the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, indicating its super hydrophilicity. The oxygen bubbles generated at the interface between electrocatalysts, and electrolytes hinder the contact of active sites and reactants, so effective bubble release is crucial for the maintenance of high activity. [52, 53] The bubble releasing behavior was recorded by a digital microscope at 25 mA cm⁻². The oxygen bubbles firmly stick to the surface of bare NF and grow to very large sizes (up to 400 μm) (Figure 4.5a, video 4.1). The bubbles generated from NiFe LDHs/NF show a small size (smaller than 100 μm), but the grown bubbles (more than 300 μm) can be still observed (Figure 4.5b, video 4.2). In sharp contrast, the bubbles easily leave from the surface of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 with the smallest size (less than 30 μm) (Figure 4.5c, video 4.3), which proved fast re-exposure of active sites to surrounding electrolyte for Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2. Such an efficient bubble-releasing process could be related to the high hydrophilicity and porous-structured nanosheets enhancing the mass transfer and facilitating the reaction kinetics.

To further gain insights into the mechanism of high activity of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, the structural and compositional evolutions after the OER were investigated. SEM and TEM images show that the nanosheet structure is well maintained after the long-term electrocatalysis test. (Figure 4.5d, e). From the HR-TEM image, we can still observe the porous structure of the nanosheet, as well as some newly generated phases (Figure 4.5f). The change of surface chemical composition was further revealed by XPS, where the M-S bonds almost disappeared accompanied by an increase in M-O/OOH species (Figure 4.5g, h). The Ni³⁺ and Fe³⁺ content increased after the long-term electrocatalysis test (Figure S4.15). *In situ* Raman was measured to study the dynamic surface chemistry of the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 during the electrochemical process. As shown in Figure 4.5i, the as-prepared catalyst immersed in electrolyte possesses the characteristic Raman

bands of Ni₃S₂ at 302 and 350 cm⁻¹. The peaks at 465 and 540 cm⁻¹ are attributed to Ni²⁺-O vibrations in Ni(OH)₂ phases. It is noted that the peaks for Ni₃S₂ and Ni²⁺-O gradually disappeared after 1.34 V, accompanied by the rise of peaks at 477 and 557 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the δ(Ni³⁺-O) and ν(Ni³⁺-O) bonds of NiOOH phases. [54, 55] This potential is the onset of Ni oxidation peak area in the corresponding LSV curve. In this case, the presence of Ni₃S₂ in the surfaces also creates additional active sites for electrocatalysis, where the dynamic surface reconstruction is induced by S leaching. Similar phenomena have been reported that metal sulfide will be transformed to metal (oxy)hydroxides after OER, the resultant M-OOH phase is believed to be the actual active species for OER.[56] However, the characteristic XRD peaks of Ni₃S₂ can be still observed after the long-term electrocatalysis (Figure S4.16), dedicating that the Ni₃S₂ phases are only partially converted into NiOOH, which preserves the conductivity of catalysts. Therefore, the *in situ* formed NiOOH resulting from Ni(OH)₂ and Ni₃S₂ guarantees enough active sites, and the remaining metallic Ni₃S₂ expedites the electron transport within electrocatalysts, ensuring the catalytic process. Benefiting from this synergistic effect, the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 electrocatalyst exhibits superior OER performances.

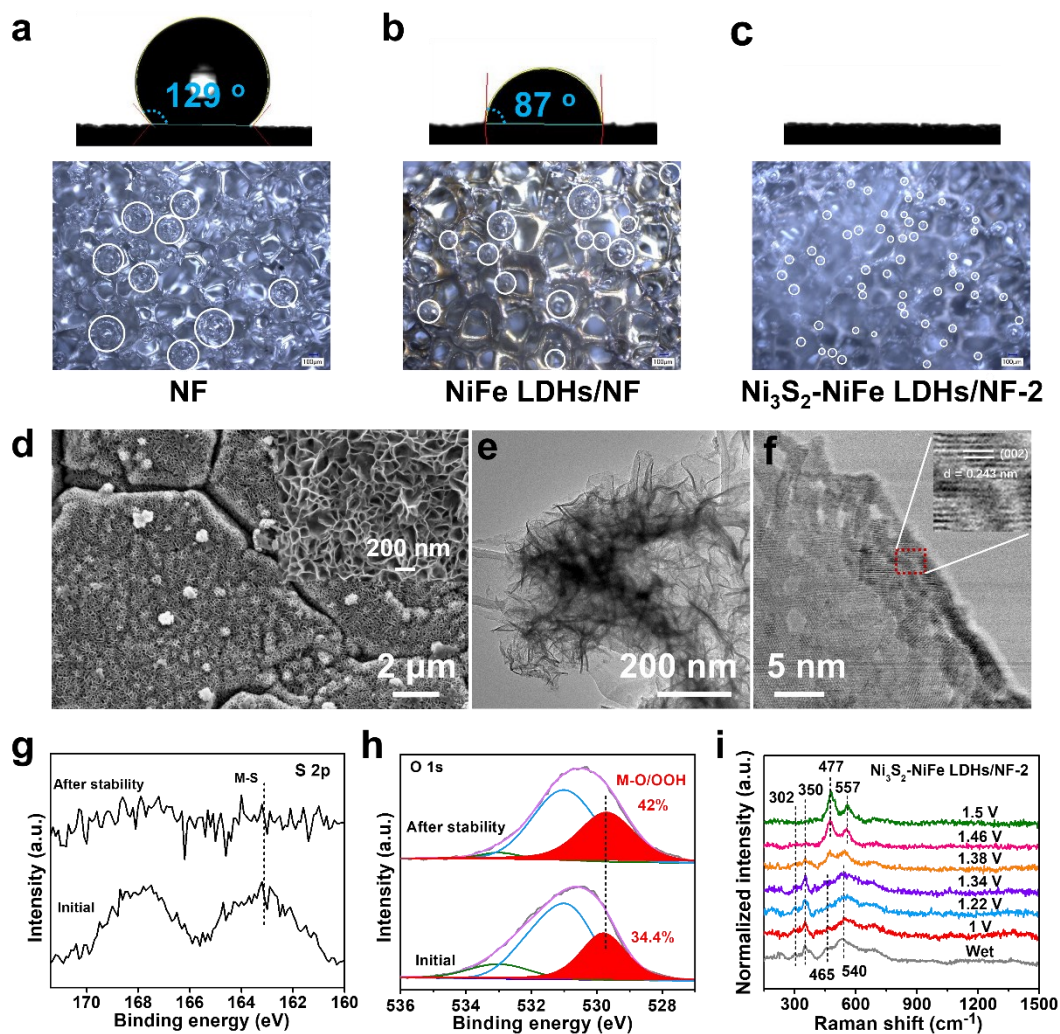


Figure 4. 5 (a-c) Surface wettability and bubble releasing behavior of the NF, NiFe LDHs/NF, and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2. (d) SEM image of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 after electrocatalysis stability test. (e) TEM image of the products scratched from Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 after long-term stability test. (f) HR-TEM image of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 after electrocatalysis stability test. (g) S 2p, (h) O 1s XPS spectra of the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 electrode before reaction and after electrocatalysis stability test. (i) In situ Raman spectra of the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 catalyst collected in the potential range 1 V–1.5 V.

4.3.4 Electrocatalytic HER and overall water splitting performances

The Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF for HER electrocatalysis was prepared in a similar way to the preparation of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 with the addition of RuCl₃. The SEM and TEM images reveal the thin-layered nanosheet structure (Figure S4.17, 4.18). The wide scanning XPS spectrum indicates the co-existence of Ni, Fe, Ru, O and S elements in the catalyst (Figure S4.20a). The high resolution spectra suggest the formation of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF (Figure S4.20b-f). The HER performance of the catalysts was also evaluated *via* LSV curves. The catalytic activity of as-prepared electrodes was benchmarked against Pt/C catalyst for comparison. As shown in Figure 4.6a, the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrode exhibited remarkably enhanced HER activity, which is superior to the benchmark of Pt/C, especially at high j_s . The Tafel slope of (96 mV dec⁻¹) Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF is close to that of Pt/C catalyst (72 mV dec⁻¹) (Figure 4.6b), which is within the range of 39–116 mV/dec, indicating that the HER catalysis is governed by the charge-transfer-induced water dissociation process in alkaline electrolyte.[57] After Ru addition, the reduced Tafel slope of Ru- Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH indicates superior HER kinetics, which is made more evident by EIS plots (Figure S4.24). The Ru- Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF showed a much lower charge transfer resistance than that of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF, confirming a faster charge-transfer-induced water dissociation process in hydrogen evolution and thus a better HER kinetics on the Ru- Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF. To deliver 10 mA cm⁻², the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF only requires an η of 61.3 mV which is comparable to previously reported HER catalysts (Table S4.4). More importantly, the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrode delivers j_s of 50 and 500 mA cm⁻² at η_s as low as 127 and 253 mV, respectively, which is much lower than those of Pt/C (135, 400 mV), and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 (314, 483 mV) (Figure 4.6c).

Given the superior catalytic performance of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF for OER and HER, respectively, the electrolyzer created by coupling a Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 anode and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF cathode shows a very low voltage of 1.47 V to deliver j of 10 mA cm⁻² (Figure 4.6d), superior to the coupled state-of-the-art RuO₂ (+) || Pt/C (-) electrolyzer (1.55 V) and most existing catalysts (Table S4.5). In particular, Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF can generate high j_s of 100 and 500 mA cm⁻² at only 1.71 and 1.85 V, respectively, far surpassing current industrial requirements (deliver 200-400 mA cm⁻² at 1.8-2.40 V). The bubble releasing was observed obviously when Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF was working at 50 mA cm⁻² (video 4.4). The Faradaic efficiency was determined to be 98% for both the HER and OER (Figure 4.6e), indicating a negligible side reaction during the electrolysis. Furthermore, the coupled cell also displays good electrochemical stability with only a 7 % decrease in activity after 210 h of continuous operation at 1.71 V (Figure 4.6f).

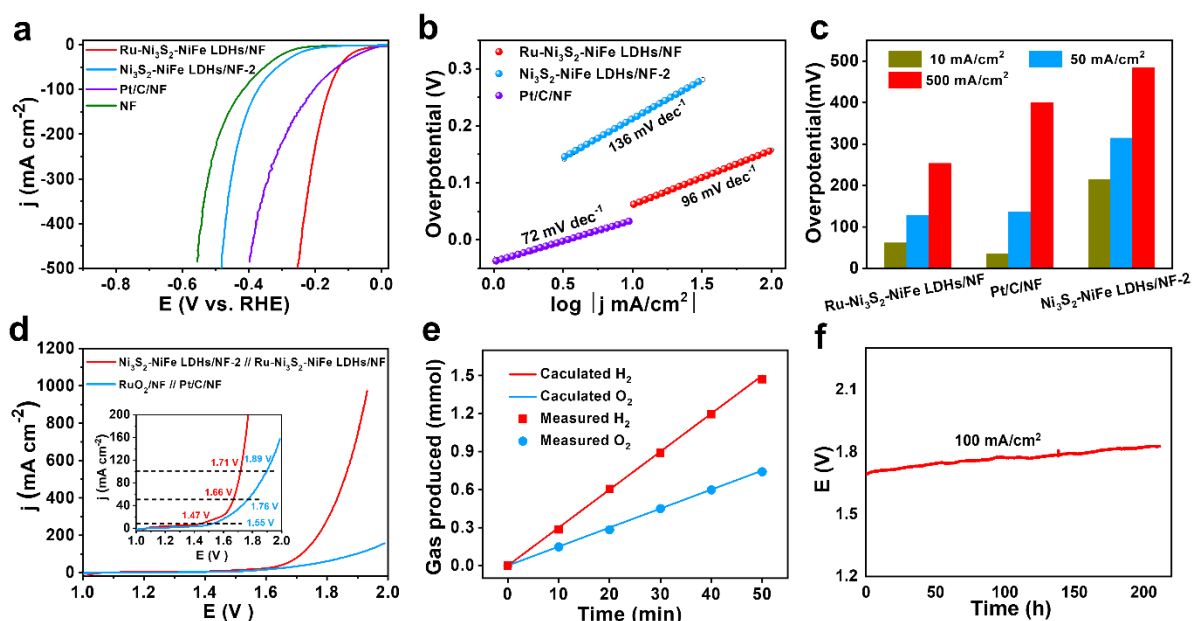


Figure 4. 6 (a) The polarization curves for HER recorded on Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF, Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, Pt/C/NF and NF. (b) The corresponding Tafel plots. (c) The overpotential histogram

for Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF at 10, 50, and 500 mA cm⁻². (d) The overall water splitting performance of coupled Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and RuO₂ || Pt/C electrolyzers. (e) Comparison of experimental and theoretical amounts of generated H₂ and O₂ over 50 min by Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrolyzer. (f) Chronopotentiometric curve of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 || Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF electrolyzer at 100 mA cm⁻² in 1 M KOH.

4.4 Conclusions

To achieve high-current-density oxygen evolution electrocatalysis at low overpotentials, the catalytic components should meet multiple criteria simultaneously: 1) high intrinsic catalytic activity with more exposure of active sites; 2) enhanced charge and mass transferability; 3) highly robust contact with the electrode; 4) efficient bubble release, especially under high current densities and vigorous gas evolution conditions. C_{dl} and EIS indicated a larger ECSA and low charge-transfer resistance of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2. UPS revealed the better electron transferability of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, which benefits the charge transport between the catalyst surface and reactant intermediates and thus facilitates electrocatalysis. Herein, Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH heterostructured nanosheets with a porous structure supported on NF synthesized at room temperature in 15 min *via* a one-pot solution method, which offers abundant interface, intrinsic large surface area, high activity, efficient mass transport and fast electron transport in the electrode. More importantly, NiOOH was *in situ* formed under the electrooxidation environment by partially sacrificing Ni₃S₂, where newly formed NiOOH is equally important with remaining Ni₃S₂ to drive proficient catalysis. In 1.0 M KOH, it exhibits prominent electrochemical durability for 240 h to deliver 100 mA cm⁻² with an overpotential of only 240 mV required. This strategy can be extended to design the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalyst for a highly efficient HER

electrocatalysis. This work provides a cost-effective and industrially compatible method to prepare water splitting catalysts, without any sophisticated process and equipment. To demonstrate the practical application, the resulting Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF were coupled as an electrolyzer for overall water splitting and achieved a commercial-level current density of 500 mA cm⁻² at a low voltage of 1.85 V.

4.5 References

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4.6 Supporting Information

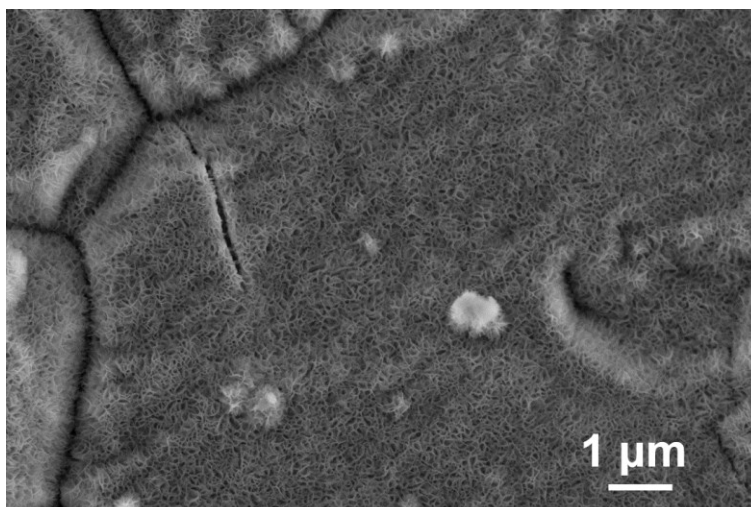


Figure S4. 1 The corresponding SEM image of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 with 20x20 cm² area (Figure 4.2b).

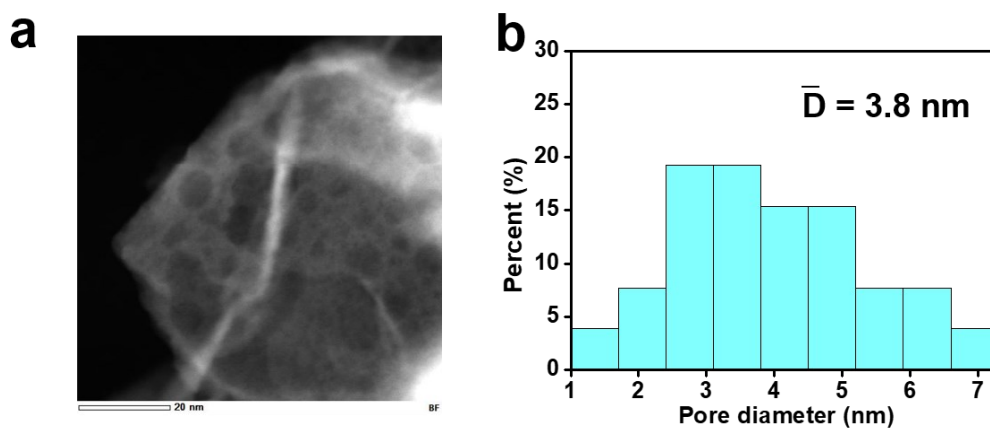


Figure S4. 2 (a) STEM image of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2. (b) The corresponding diameter histogram for pores.

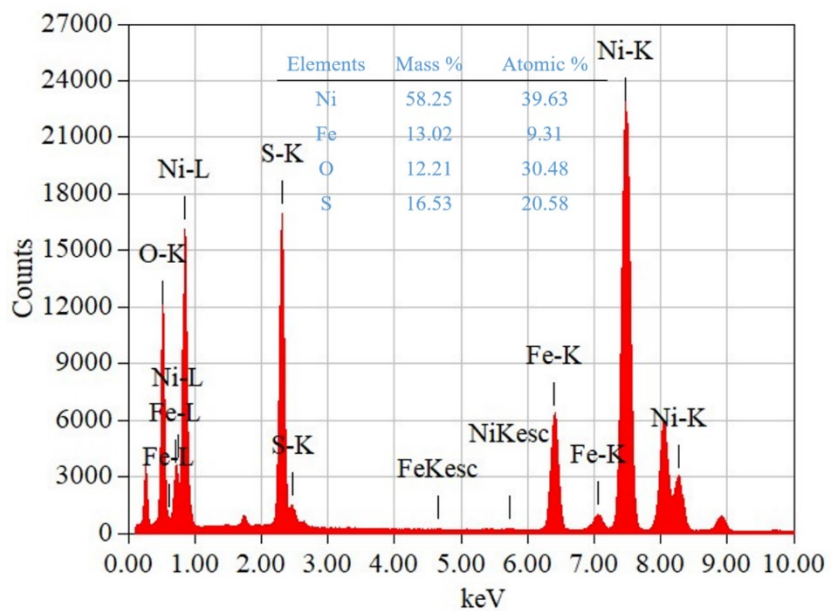


Figure S4. 3 STEM-EDS spectrum of the corresponding region in Figure S4.2.

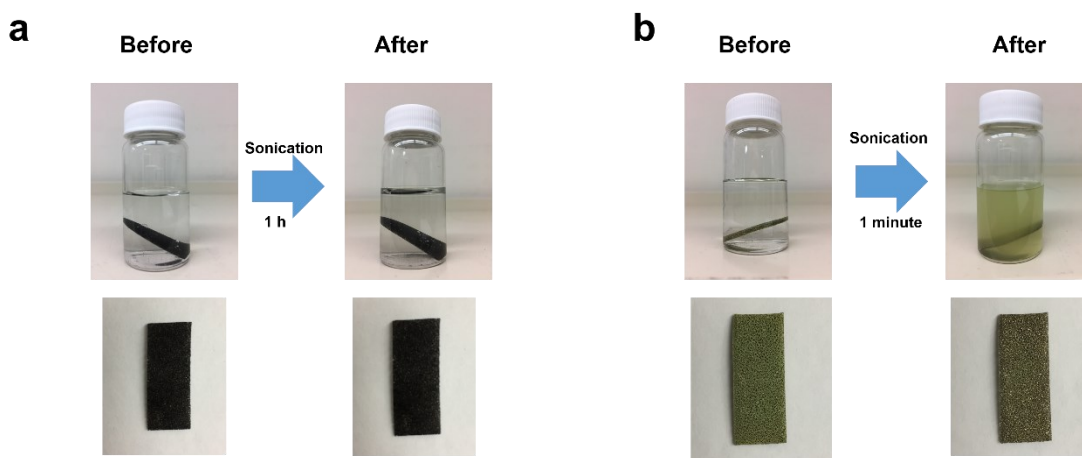


Figure S4. 4 The change of samples sonicated in water. (a) $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe}$ LDHs/NF-2, (b) NiFe LDHs/NF prepared by the commonly used hydrothermal method.

Table S4. 1 Fe and S content determined by ICP-OES

Samples	Fe content (ppm)	S content (ppm)
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-1	5.8	12.6
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-2	17.1	22.4
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-3	9.8	13.2

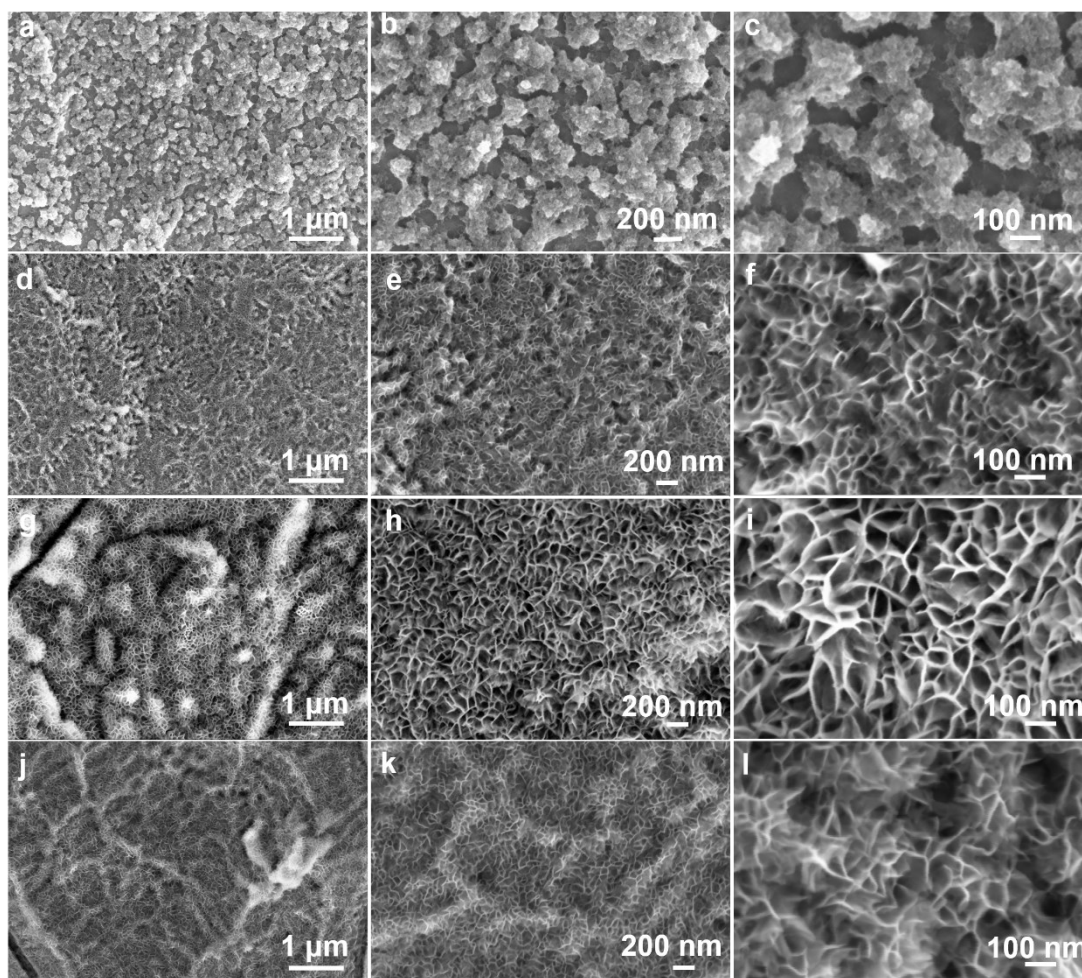


Figure S4. 5 SEM images of (a-c) NiFe LDHs/NF, (d-f) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-1, (g-i) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, (j-l) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-3.

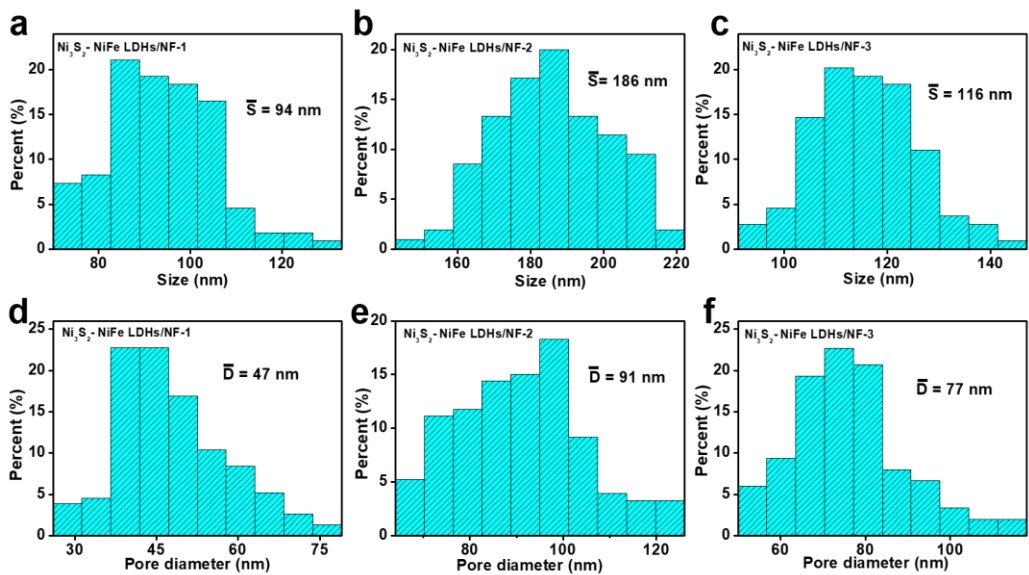


Figure S4. 6 Nanosheet size (a-c) and pore diameter (d-f) distribution histograms of Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-1, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-3.

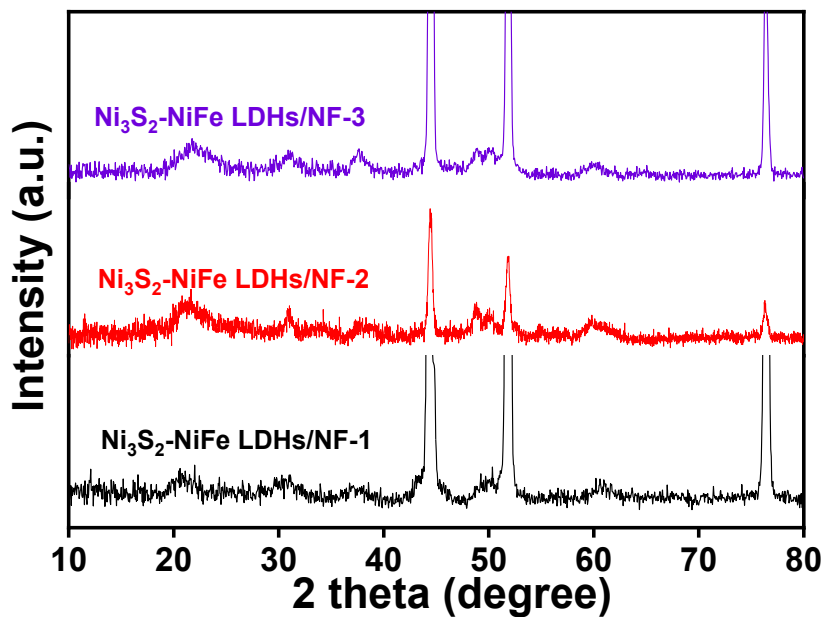


Figure S4. 7 XRD patterns of Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-1, Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-2 and Ni_3S_2 -NiFe LDHs/NF-3.

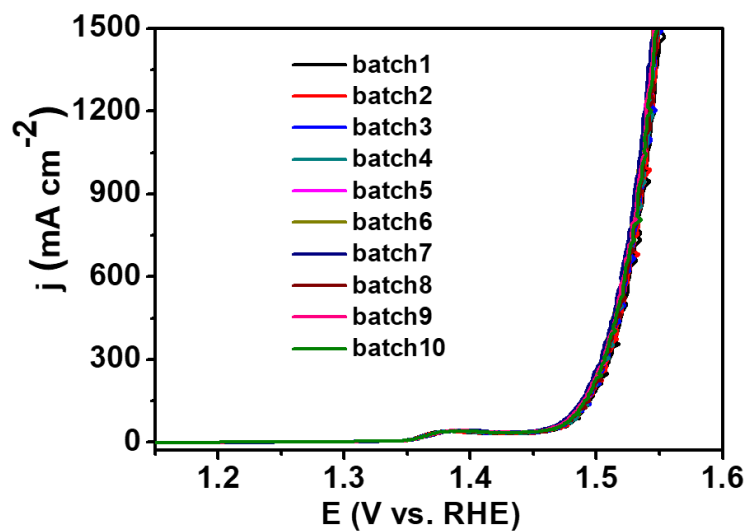


Figure S4. 8 The OER polarization curves for ten batches of $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$.

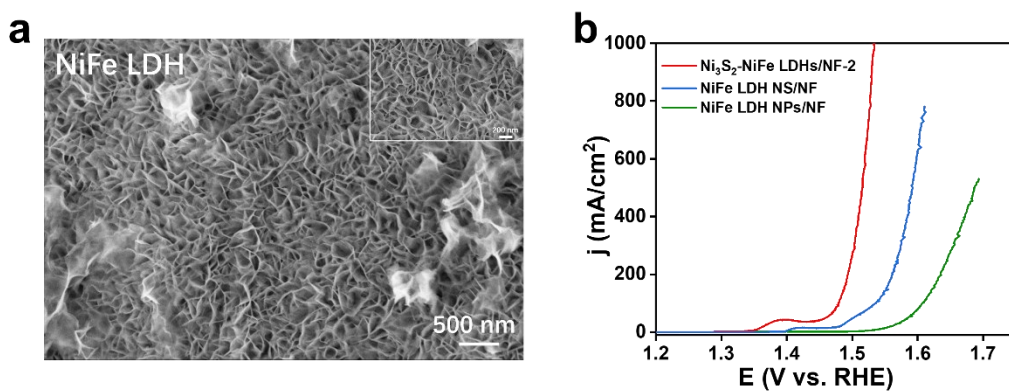


Figure S4. 9 (a) SEM images of NiFe LDH NS/NF. (b) The LSV curves for OER recorded on $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$, NiFe LDH NS/NF and NiFe LDH NPs/NF.

In our work, the NiFe LDH synthesized at room temperature in 15 min was in nanoparticle (NP) form and not fully wrapped Ni foam (Figure S4.5a-c), which could arise from the hydrolysis of metal ions in the solution with dissolved oxygen. (Small 15.41 (2019): 1902551.) For comparison, as shown in Figure S4.9a, we prepared NiFe LDH nanosheets grown on Ni foam (NiFe LDH NS/NF) via a hydrothermal method in alkaline condition. (Applied Catalysis B: Environmental 284 (2021): 119740.) The OER performance of NiFe LDH NS/NF is higher than our NiFe LDH NPs/NF, but lower than Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF (Figure S4.9b).

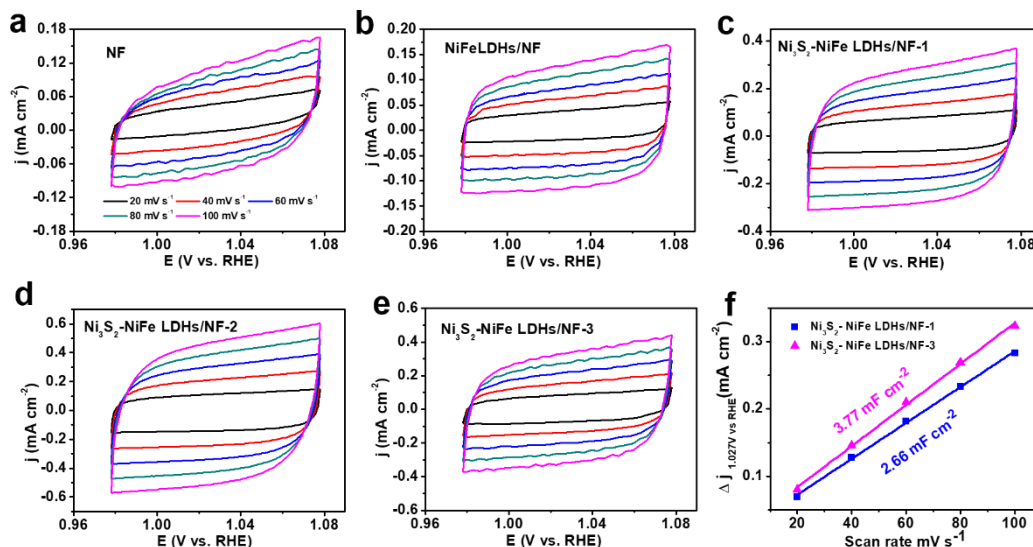


Figure S4. 10 CV curves within a non-faradaic reaction region of 0.97 ~ 1.07 V versus RHE at different scan rates for (a) NF, (b) NiFe LDHs/NF, (c) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-1, (d) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2, (e) Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-3. (f) C_{dl} values of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-1 and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-3.

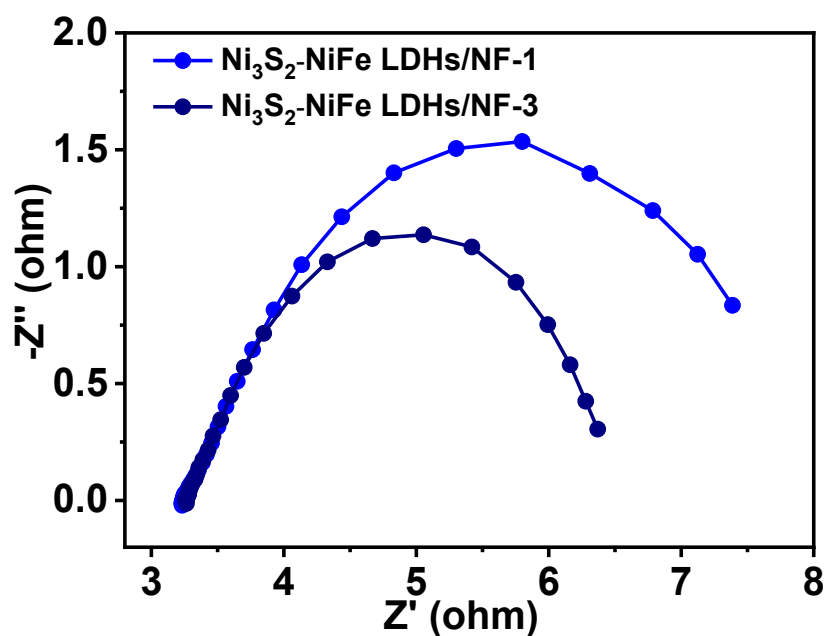


Figure S4. 11 EIS spectra of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-1 and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-3 toward OER.

Table S4. 2 The electrochemical impedance spectra of various catalysts fitted to equivalent electrochemical circuits.

Samples	R _{ct}	Error (%)
NF	73.36	6.266
NiFe LDHs/NF	6.244	2.578
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-1	4.611	4.286
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-2	1.568	2.878
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-3	2.943	2.864

The electrochemical active surface area is calculated from the following formula:

$$A_{ECSA} = \frac{\text{specific capacitance}}{40 \text{ uF cm}^{-2} \text{ per cm}^2_{ECSA}}$$

We used the double-layer capacitances (C_{dl}) to estimate the ECSAs and further normalized the geometric current density to the corresponding ECSA (Figure S4.12). When normalized to the ECSA (Figure S4.10c), the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 still displays higher current density than other investigated samples, indicating the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 has intrinsic high activity.

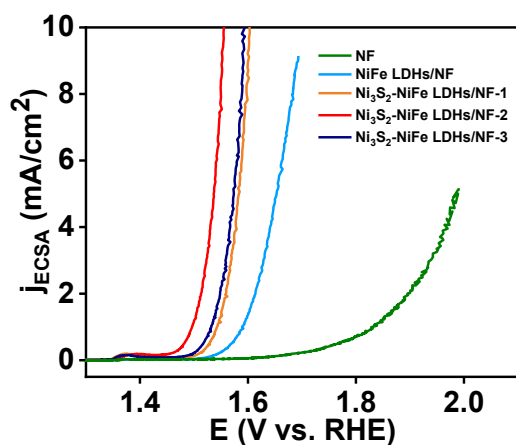


Figure S4. 12 (c) Normalized Polarization curves of investigated samples.

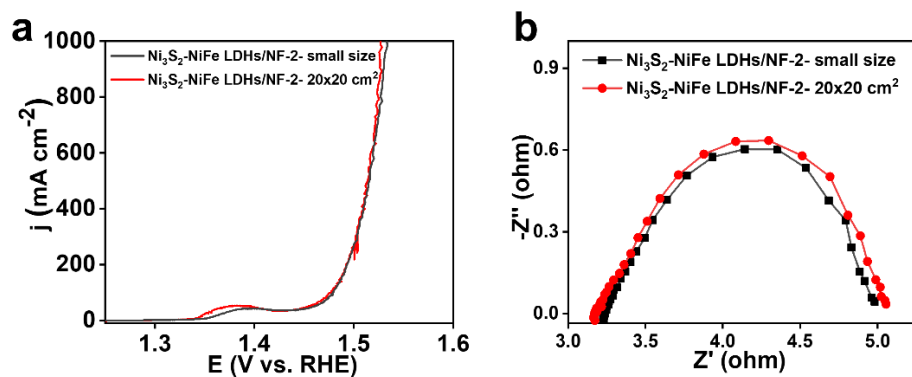


Figure S4. 13 (a) The LSV curves and (b) EIS plots for $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF-2}$ in $1 \times 2.5 \text{ cm}^2$ and $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$.

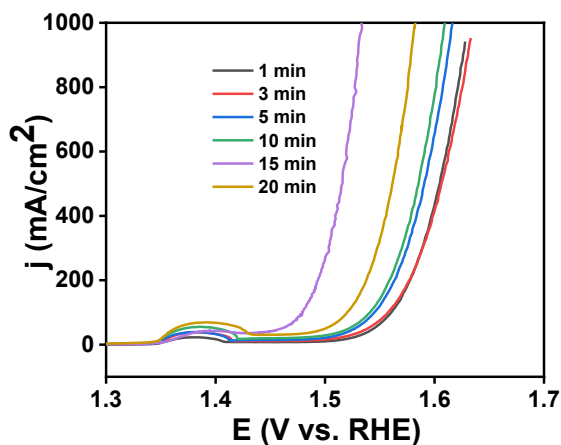


Figure S4. 14 LSV curves for OER performance on $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF}$ in different reaction time.

The effect of the reaction time on the catalytic performance was studied. The $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2\text{-NiFe LDHs/NF}$ samples were synthesized in 10 mL 0.1 M $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ solution containing 14.5 mM NaHS at

room temperature in 1, 3, 5, 10, 15 and 20 min. Oxygen evolution performance of the samples was evaluated via LSV polarization (Figure S4.14). The Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-15min shows a best OER performance.

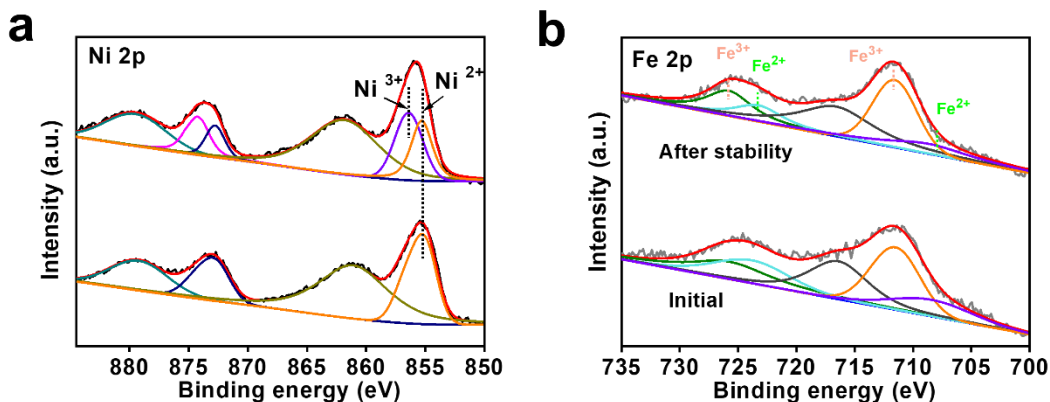


Figure S4. 15 The High-resolution (a) Ni 2p and (b) Fe 2p XPS of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 before reaction and after electrocatalysis stability test.

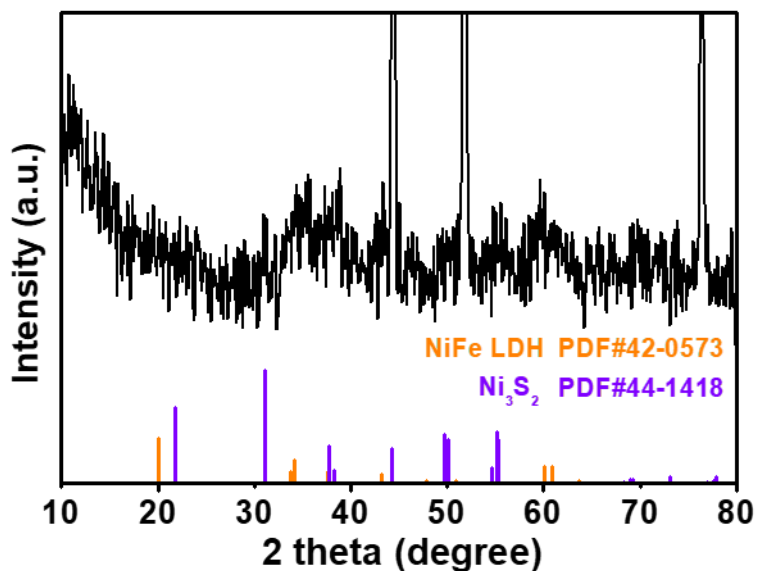


Figure S4. 16 The XRD of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 after long-term electrocatalysis test.

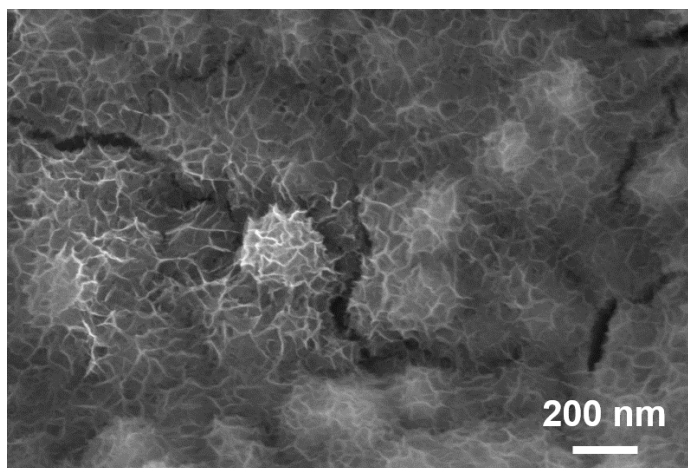


Figure S4. 17 The SEM image of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF.

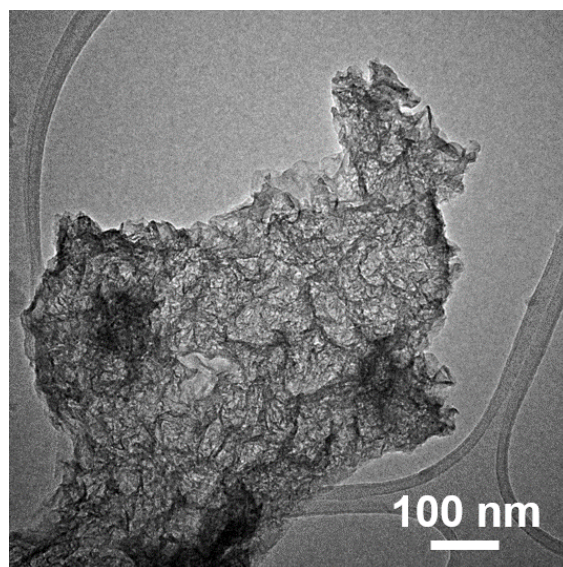


Figure S4. 18 The TEM image of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF.

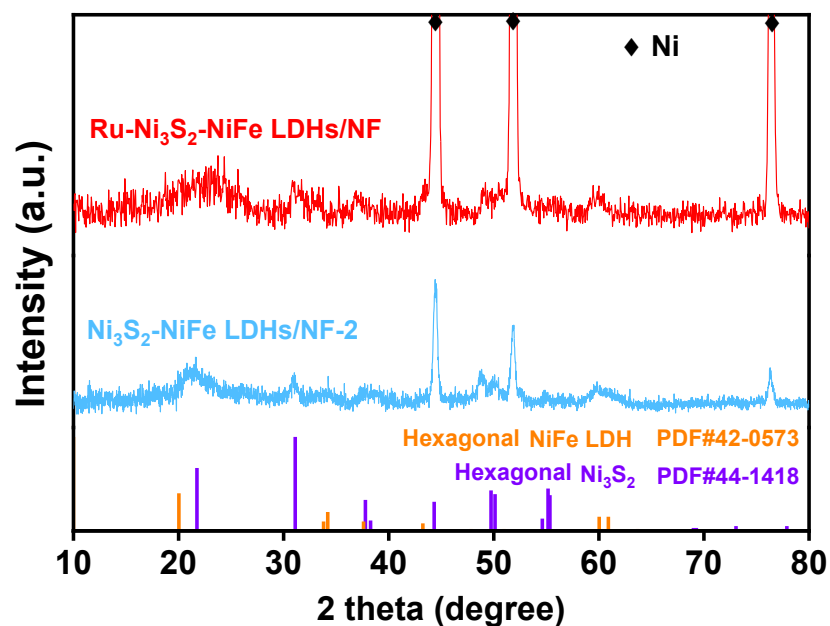


Figure S4. 19 XRD patterns of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2.

We extended our method to synthesize Ru-doped Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs for HER application. The collected XRD patterns of the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH/NF-2 and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF confirmed the successful growth of the Ni₃S₂ and NiFe LDH on the Ni foam, no other Ru-based XRD diffraction signals were detected in the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF, suggesting that the Ru should be involved in the formation of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH (Figure S4.19).

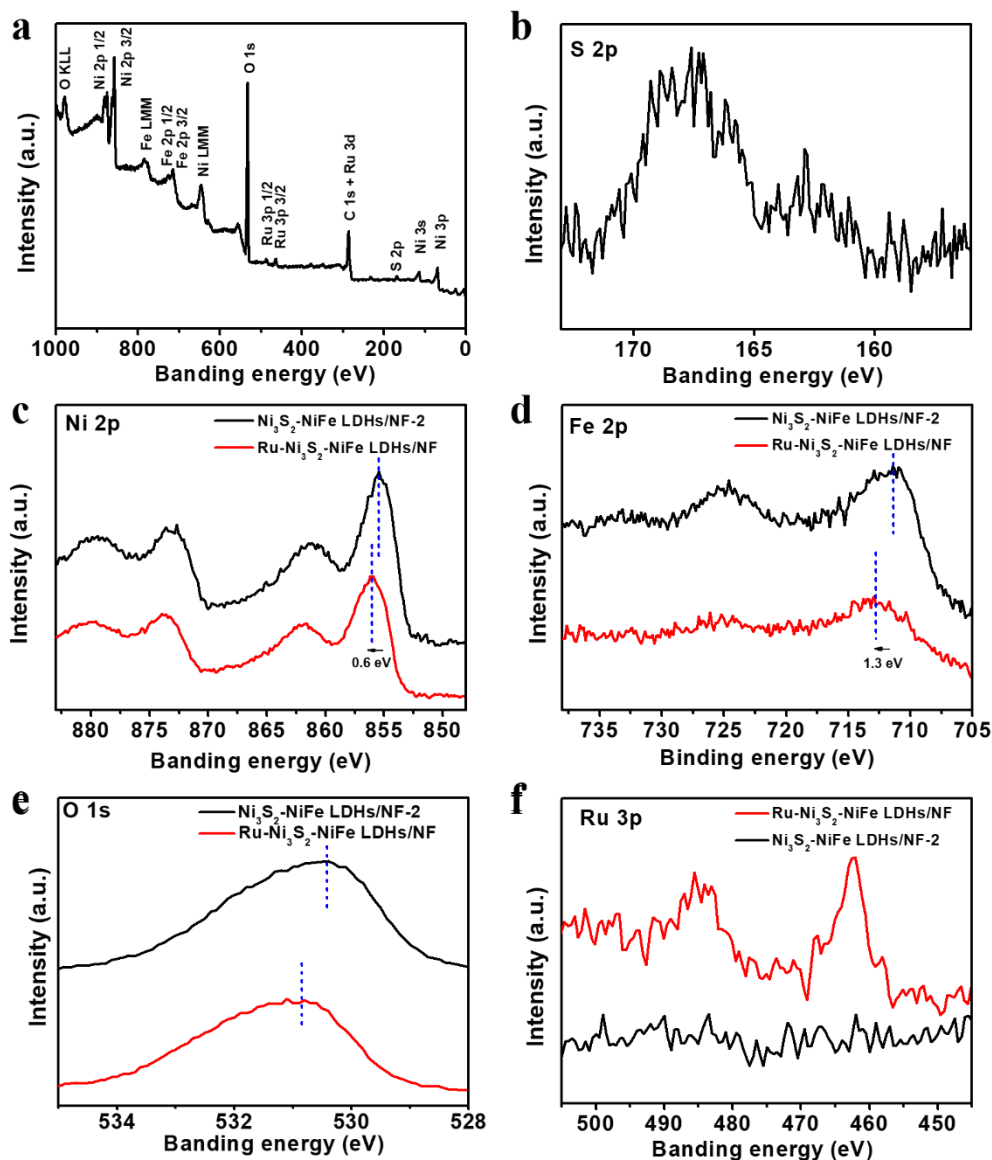


Figure S4. 20 (a) The wide-scanning XPS spectrum of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF. (b-f) The high resolution XPS of S, Ni, Fe, O and Ru elements in Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2.

To further confirm the introduction of the Ru, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted (Figure S4.20). In comparison with Ni₃S₂-NiFe-LDHs/NF, the binding energies of Ni and Fe in Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH have a positive shift of 0.6 and 1.3 eV, respectively. Moreover, a

positive shift is observed in O 1s XPS of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH in comparison of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH, indicating that Ru atom coordinates with O atoms through an intimate interaction between Ru and Ni (Fe), where the Ru drew the electrons from Ni (Fe) atoms as a result of their different electronegativity (Nature Communications 12.1 (2021): 1-11; Advanced Materials 30.10 (2018): 1706279; A. P. Grosvenor, M. C. Biesinger, R. S. C. Smart, A. R. Gerson, in Hard X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (HAXPES) (Ed.: J. Woicik), Springer International Publishing, 2016, pp. 217). All the evidence confirmed that the Ru-doped Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH was prepared successfully.

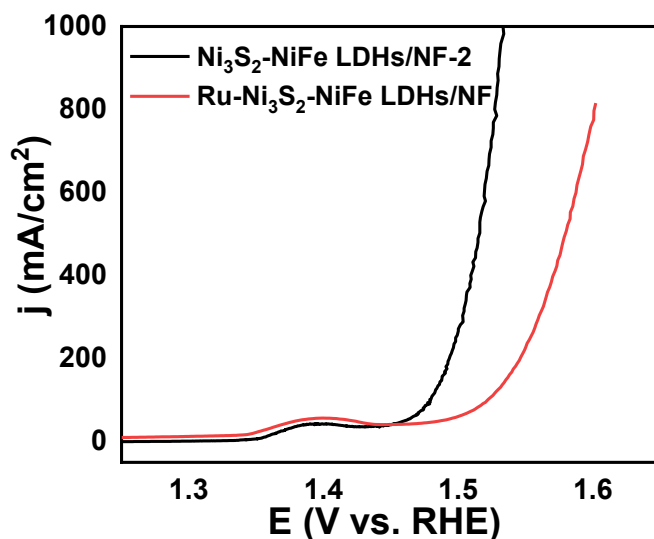


Figure S4. 21 The LSV curves for OER recorded on Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2.

Oxygen evolution performance of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF was evaluated via LSV polarization. As shown in Figure S4.21, the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 showed a better OER performance than

Ru- Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF. To gain insights into the mechanism of the OER catalytic activity, the double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) investigations were conducted to understand the surface property of the electrocatalysts (Figure S4.22). The Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 shows a higher value of C_{dl} (4.57 mF cm⁻²) than that of Ru- Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF (3.6 mF cm⁻²), indicating that the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 possesses a larger specific surface area. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) plots reveal that Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 catalyst exhibits a smaller semicircle diameter than Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF (Figure S4.23), revealing the lower charge-transfer resistance of Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 during the OER process. All these factors demonstrated that the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF has a low OER catalytic activity in comparison with Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2.

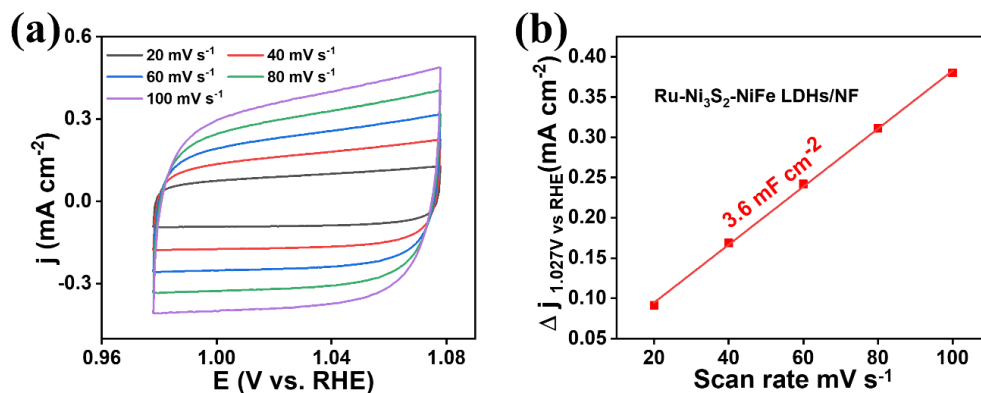


Figure S4. 22 (a) CV curves within a non-faradaic reaction region of 0.97 ~ 1.07 V versus RHE at different scan rates for Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF. (b) C_{dl} value of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF.

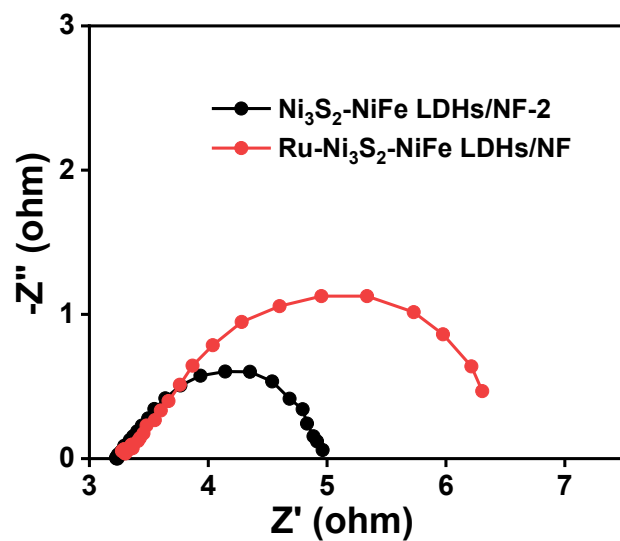


Figure S4. 23 EIS spectra of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 toward OER.

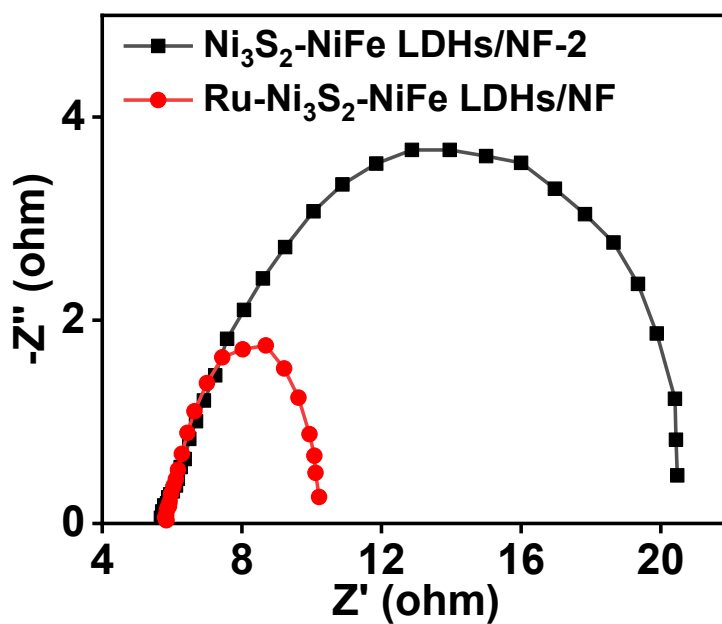


Figure S4. 24 EIS plots of Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF and Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 toward HER.

Table S4. 3 Comparison of the OER performance and the synthesis process between the Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF-2 catalyst and other recently reported OER electrocatalysts in 1 M KOH electrolyte. Here η_{50} represents the overpotential required to achieve current densities of 50 mA cm⁻². j_{300} represents the current density delivered at the overpotential of 300 mV.

Catalysts	Substrate	η_{50} (mV)	j_{300} (mA cm ⁻²)	Tafel	Synthesis method	Reference
				slope (mV dec ⁻¹)		
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF-2	Nickel foam	230	1000	35.6	One-pot solution method:15 min at room temperature	This work
NiFeOOH@Ni Fe nanowires [1]	Nickel foam	220	>1000	34.7	Magnetic- field-assisted chemical deposition method.	Energy Environ. Sci., 2020, 13, 86-- 95
S-doped NiFeOOH nanoparticles [2]	Nickel foam	250	200	48.9	One-step solution method: 5min	Energy Environ. Sci., 2020,

					at room temperature	13, 3439--3446
NiFe (OH) _x /FeS [3]	Iron foam	245	400	NA	Two steps with a hydrothermal process to synthesize FeS for 120 °C for 12 h	Adv. Funct. Mater. 2019, 29, 1902180
CoFeWO _x [4]	Nickel foam	270	110	32	Two steps of electrodeposition	Adv. Energy Mater. 2020, 10, 2002593
Se-doped FeOOH [5]	Iron foam	340	25	54	Two steps of hydrothermal process: 140 °C for 12 h; 120 °C for 12 h	J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2019, 141, 7005-7013.

FeCoNi-ATNs [6]	Nickel foam	347	16	107	One-step hydrothermal method: 190 °C for 6 h	Adv. Energy Mater. 2019, 9, 1901312
v-NiFeLDH [7]	Nickel foam	260	115	34.8	Two steps with a hydrothermal process for 150 °C for 24 h.	Nano Energy 81 (2021) 105606
CoFeCrOOH [8]	Glassy carbon	270	101	31	Two steps of solution phase method: 90 °C in 20 min; 90 °C for 6 h	Adv. Energy Mater. 2021, 11, 2003412
La _{0.9} Ce _{0.1} NiO ₃ [9]	Carbon paper	328	13	45	One-step of hydrothermal method: 180 °C for 12 h	Adv. Energy Mater. 2021, 11, 2003755

Ni ₂ P-VP ₂ /NF [10]	Nickel foam	306	46	49	Two steps of hydrothermal method: 180 °C for 10 h; 600 °C for 2 h	Adv. Mater. 2019, 31, 1901174
NiCo ₂ S ₄ /FeOO H nanowires [11]	Carbon cloth	245	123	73	Two steps with a calcination: 100 °C for 10 h	Nano Energy 78 (2020) 105230
Co-Fe-N-C [12]	Glassy carbon	360	5	37	Multiple steps including: refluxed at 60 °C for 4 h; calcinated at 700 °C for 2 h	J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2019,14 1,14190 -14199
P/Mo-Co ₃ O ₄ [13]	Carbon cloth	330	20	59.4	Multiple steps including: calcination at 400 °C for 2 h in air, follow	Adv. Sci. 2020, 7, 1902830

					by 300 °C for 2 h in N ₂	
						Adv.
						Funct.
Pd-e-NiCo- PBA-C [14]	Glassy carbon	410	8	67	Multiple steps for 4 days at lest	Mater. 2021, 31, 2008989

Table S4. 4 Comparison of the HER performance and the synthesis process between the Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalyst and other recently reported OER electrocatalysts in 1 M KOH electrolyte. Here η_{10} , η_{50} represent the overpotential needed to deliver current densities of 10, 50 mA cm⁻², respectively.

Catalysts	Substrate	η_{10} (mV)	η_{50} (mV)	Tafel	Synthesis method	Reference
				slope (mV dec ⁻¹)		
Ru-Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF	Nickel foam	61.3	127	96	One-pot solution method: 2 h	This work

						at room temperature	
Ni ₃ N/C [15]	NA	64	>150	48		Two steps with a hydrothermal process at 120 °C for 16 h	Angew.Chem. Int.Ed. 2019, 58,7445 – 7449
Ni(Cu)VO _x [16]	Nickel foam	49	75	28		Electrodeposi tion	Nature communications 11.1 (2020): 1- 9.
Ni ₂ P- NiSe ₂ /CC [17]	Carbon cloth	66	140	72.6		Multiple steps including hydrothermal process at 120 °C for 6 h	Applied Catalysis B: Environmental (2020): 118245.
MoP@NCHSs-T [18]	Glassy carbon	92	160	62		Multiple steps including	Angew. Chem. 132.23

					calcination at 900 °C for 2 h	(2020): 9067-9075.
Ni ₅ P ₄ -Ru [19]	Glassy carbon	123	220	56.7	Multiple steps including calcination at 400 °C for 2 h	Adv. Mater, 32.11 (2020): 1906972
1T- MoS ₂ QS/Ni(OH) ₂ [20]	carbon fiber cloth	57	105	30	Electrochemi cal lithiation plus water exfoliation method	Adv. Funct. Mater. 30.25 (2020): 2000551
MoS ₂ -Ni ₃ S ₂ HNRs/NF [21]	Nickel foam	98	160	61	Hydrotherma l process at 240°C for 24 h	ACS Catal. 2017, 7, 2357
Ni ₃ (S _{0.25} Se _{0.75}) ₂ @ Ni OOH/NF-8 [22]	Nickel foam	102	180	47	Hydrotherma l process at 230°C for 30 min	Small 2018, 14, 1803666

Ni ₃ N-VN/NF [10]	Nickel foam	64	200	37	Two steps:	Adv. Mater.
					hydrothermal process at 180 °C for 10 h, and calcination at 600 °C for 2h	
NF@Ni/C-600 [23]	Nickel foam	37	110	57	Two steps:	Energy Environ. Sci. 2018, 11, 2363
					hydrothermal process at 180 °C for 24 h, and calcination at 600 °C for 2h	

Table S4. 5 Comparison of the overall-water-splitting activities among recently reported electrocatalysts tested in 1 M KOH. V₁₀ corresponds to the cell voltages of the overall-water-splitting cell operated at 10 mA cm⁻².

Catalysts	V ₁₀ (mV)	Reference
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs /NF-2 Ru-	1.47	This work
Ni ₃ S ₂ -NiFe LDHs/NF		
O-NiFeLDH H-NiFe LDH [24]	1.48	Energy Environ. Sci., 2019, 12, 572-581

NF-Ni ₃ S ₂ MnO ₂ [25]	1.52	Applied Catalysis B: Environmental 254 (2019): 329-338.
Ni ₃ N-VN/NF Ni ₂ P-VP ₂ /NF [10]	1.51	Adv. Mater. 2019, 31, 1901174
FeNiOOH(Se)/IF MoNi ₄ /MoO ₂ /NF [5]	>1.55	J. Am. Chem. Soc. 141.17 (2019): 7005-
NiFeOOH MoNi ₄ [26]	NA	Energy Environ. Sci., 2018, 11(10): 2858- 2864
FeCoNi-hybrid nanotube arrays [27]	1.429	Nat. Commun., 2018, 9(1): 2452
NiO/NF Fe-NiO/NF [28]	1.73	Nano Energy 66 (2019) 104118
Ni/NiFeMoO _x /NF Ni/NiFeMoO _x /NF [29]	1.50	Adv. Sci. 2020, 7, 1902034

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Chapter 5. Bifunctional CoF₂/CoP Heterostructured Nanowires for Enhanced Electrooxidation of 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural and Hydrogen Production

Abstract: The efficiency of hydrogen production via water electrocatalytic splitting is impeded by the sluggish kinetics of anodic OER. Replacing OER with biomass electrooxidation reaction lowers driving potential and produces value-added products simultaneously is meaningful but challenging. In this study, we fabricated nanowires composed of CoF₂/CoP heterostructure grown on nickel foam as a robust bifunctional electrocatalyst for 5-hydroxymethylfurfural oxidation reaction (HMFOR) and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). Thanks to its interfacial electronic structure, the optimized CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits excellent HMFOR activity with a working potential of 1.33 V to deliver 100 mA cm⁻² and a Tafel slope of 21.1 mV dec⁻¹. Meanwhile, the FDCA yield achieved 98.8 % and the faradic efficiency is 98 %. In addition, CoF₂/CoP-2 delivers a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² at an overpotential of only 59 mV with a Tafel slope of 59.8 mV dec⁻¹ toward HER. Furthermore, bifunctional CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits excellent full-cell electrocatalytic activity when employing CoF₂/CoP-2 for cathodic H₂ and anodic FDCA production, which only requires the cell voltage of 1.33 V at 10 mA cm⁻², superior to the voltage of 1.54 V at 10 mA cm⁻² for pure water splitting. This work demonstrates the great potential of CoF₂/CoP for energy-saving H₂ production with green chemical (FDCA) production in practical application.

Keywords: Heterostructured nanowires, bifunctionalities, H₂ production, HMFOR

5.1 Introduction

Hydrogen (H₂) has been regarded as a promising alternative energy carrier to traditional fossil fuels due to its high gravimetric energy density and environmental friendliness. Among various H₂ production methods, the electrocatalytic water splitting powered by renewable energy is

considered as one of the most promising methods to generate high-purity H₂ in the future.[1-4] The overall water splitting (OWS) consists of a cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and an anodic oxygen evolution reaction (OER).[5, 6] However, the overall energy efficiency of OWS is significantly limited by the sluggish kinetics of OER originating from the four-electron transfer.[7-9] Moreover, the anodic product (O₂) is of low value and does not contribute to economic feasibility.[10, 11] Replacing OER with biomass electrooxidation reactions (BEORs) is an attractive strategy to lower the full-cell potential and simultaneously produce valuable products at the anode. Biomass-derived 5-Hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF) has been emphasized as a promising anode-side reactant for coupling with cathodic HER.[12-14] Its oxidation product, 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid (FDCA), is of particular interest for the replacement of petroleum-based monomeric terephthalic acid (PET) to prepare renewable biobased plastics.[15, 16] Therefore, it is highly desirable to couple HMF oxidation reaction (HMFOR) with HER to achieve highly efficient production of H₂ and biomass upgrading. Recently, transition metal-based electrocatalysts (e.g., nitrides, phosphides, sulfides and hydroxides) have gained extensive attention for HER and HMFOR owing to their low cost as compared to noble metals.[12, 17-19] Nevertheless, most reported electrocatalysts could only deliver satisfying activity for a single HER or HMFOR. Developing low-cost transition metal-based electrocatalysts with bifunctionality for both HER and HMFOR is imperative but remains a grand challenge.

Interfacial engineering is an effective strategy to simultaneously modulate the electronic structure and active sites of catalysts.[3, 20, 21] It is demonstrated that the interfacial synergy effect between two domains has a great influence on the binding strength of reaction intermediates and the transportation of electrons, thus regulating the catalytic activity and selectivity.[22-25] These features make interfacial engineering very popular in electrochemical hydrogen and oxygen

catalysis. For example, Mu and co-workers reported that Mo-doped $\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2/\text{Ni}_x\text{P}_y$ hollow heterostructure exhibited remarkable stability and bifunctionality because the heterostructure can synergistically optimize the adsorption energies of H- and O-containing intermediates during HER and OER process.[20] Cobalt phosphide is an ideal HER catalyst and has also been coupled with secondary phase to achieve bifunctionality. Tian et al. synthesized a $\text{Co}_2\text{P}@/\text{Ni}_2\text{P}$ core shell heterostructure arrays with efficient electrocatalytic performance toward HER and urea oxidation reaction (UOR), which can deliver 10 mA cm^{-2} at a cell voltage of 1.43 V for HER/UOR electrolyzer.[26] Cobalt (hydro)oxides (such as Co_3O_4 and CoOOH) have been adapted for HMFOR and exhibited high activity.[14, 27] However, they are not suitable for H_2 production due to their intrinsic poor HER activity, thus it is expected to explore a new bifunctional cobalt-based heterostructure catalyst to boost the efficiency of both HER and HMFOR, which has rarely been achieved.

Herein, we designed and fabricated hierarchical nanoneedle arrays with abundant $\text{CoF}_2\text{-CoP}$ interface on Ni foam as a bifunctional electrocatalyst for both HER and HMFOR. The $\text{CoF}_2\text{-CoP}$ is formed by in situ growth of $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2$ nanowire arrays on NF, followed by two-step fluorination and phosphorization process. Interfacial electron transfer between CoF_2 and CoP is important to modulate electronic environments of the active centers, where hydrogenase-like electronic structure benefits inter- and intramolecular proton/hydride exchange, the metal and base (P and F) sites exhibits an ensemble effect to act as proton-acceptor and hydride-acceptor centers. For anodic HMFOR, it only requires very low working potential of 1.33 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) to reach 100 mA cm^{-2} in 1.0 M KOH with 50mM HMF electrolyte. The 2,5-furandicarboxylic acid (FDCA) is obtained with the selectivity of 98.8 % and the faradic efficiency achieves 98 %. Meanwhile, due to the interfacial synergy effect of CoP and CoF_2 , $\text{CoF}_2\text{-CoP-2}$

exhibits a current density of 10 mA cm^{-2} at low overpotential of 59 mV with small Tafel slope of 59.8 mV dec^{-1} for HER in alkaline medium. Furthermore, in an integrated electrolyzer for HMF-assisted H_2 production using $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-2}$ as bifunctional electrocatalysts, the system requires lower cell voltage of 1.33 V at 10 mA cm^{-2} in comparison to the pure water splitting (1.54 V at 10 mA cm^{-2}), which indicates the great potential for energy-saving H_2 production compared to OWS system.

5.2 Experiment

5.2.1 Materials synthesis

Preparation of $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2$ nanowire arrays grown on Ni foam (NF): NF was cleaned with HCl (3 M), acetone, and deionized water (DI) several times. 1 mmol $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 5 mmol $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and 5 mmol NH_4F were dispersed into 10 mL deionized water. Then a piece of CF ($2 \times 2 \text{ cm}$) was immersed into the above solution in a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and kept at $120 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 8 h. The products $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2/\text{NF}$ were washed with deionized water and dried in an oven at $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ overnight.

Preparation of CoF_2/CoP nanowire arrays grown on NF: Typically, $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2/\text{NF}$ ($1 \times 2 \text{ cm}$) and 100 mg NH_4F were placed in two separate porcelain crucibles with NH_4F at the upstream side of the furnace, following heated at $400 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 1h with 45 min of heating time under Ar gas to obtain $\text{CoF}_2/\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2/\text{NF}$. The sample was subsequently phosphorized with 1 g NaH_2PO_2 on the upstream at $300 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 2 h with $3 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ of heating rate under Ar atmosphere. After naturally cooling to room temperature, the $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-2}$ was obtained. $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-1}$ and $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-3}$ were prepared in the same way with 50 mg and 150 mg NH_4F , respectively. CoF_2 was synthesized in a similar way without a phosphorization process, except using 200 mg NH_4F . $\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2/\text{NF}$ ($1 \times 2 \text{ cm}$) was directly phosphorized with 1 g $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ to obtain CoP.

5.2.2 Materials characterization

The morphologies of prepared materials were studied via Zeiss Sigma 300 VP-Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) and Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) on a JEOL JEMARM200CF equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS). The crystal structure was characterized by X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 discover diffraction system equipped with Cu K α radiation (40 kV, 44 mA)) at a scan rate of 5° min⁻¹. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were performed on Kratos Analytical AXIS 165 with a monochromatic Al K α source to study the chemical compositions. The C 1 s photoelectron peak at 284.6 eV as reference was used for spectrometer calibration. The local structures of the investigated materials were analyzed by measuring the Co K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data at the Hard X-ray microanalysis beamline (HXMA-061D) of the Canadian Light Source. The X-ray absorption spectra were acquired in fluorescence mode using a Si(111) double-crystal monochromator to range the X-ray energy from 5–40 keV. The ring current is 250 mA. A He-filled Oxford straight ion chamber detector was used to monitor the incident X-ray, and the fluorescence yield signal was captured using a 32-element Ge detector. The energy was calibrated using Co plate reference sample.

5.2.3 Electrochemical Measurements

The OER, BEOR and HER measurements were performed with a three-electrode system using a BioLogic SP-300 electrochemical test station with CoF₂/CoP as the working electrode. A saturated calomel electrode (SCE) electrode and a graphite rod were used as reference electrode and counter electrode, respectively. All the reported potentials were corrected to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) through $E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{SCE}} + 0.059 \times \text{pH} + 0.241 \text{ V}$. The Pt/C/NF were prepared by a slurry cast method. Typically, 10 mg catalysts were ultrasonically dispersed in a 1 ml solution

containing 970 μL isopropyl alcohol and 30 μL Nafion solution. To maintain the same mass loading with the CoF_2/CoP , a certain amount of ink was pipetted onto the NF and dried in the air before the electrochemical measurements. The polarization curves were scanned at a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} . The electrochemical OER and HER tests were conducted in 1.0 M KOH solution. BEORs were similar with HER and OER, except that the electrolyte was performed in 1.0 M KOH solution with 50 mM biomass (5-hydroxymethylfurfural (HMF)). The conversion tests of catalysts for BEOR were evaluated by chronoamperometry at 1.43 V vs RHE. The stability test of HER was tested for 68 h at the current density of 20 mA cm^{-2} . The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were carried on with frequency from 0.1 Hz to 100 kHz with an amplitude of 10 mV. The electrochemically surface area (ECSA) of the catalysts was calculated by using the double-layer capacitor. The CVs were tested with different rates from 20 to 100 mV s^{-1} in the potential interval of -0.69 to -0.59 V.

5.2.4 Product Quantification

To analyze the oxidation products of biomass quantitatively and calculate the corresponding Faradaic efficiency (FE), high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on Shimadzu LC-20 was used. The HPLC was equipped with a $4.6 \text{ mm} \times 150 \text{ mm}$ $5 \mu\text{m}$ C18 detector column and an ultraviolet-visible detector set at 245 nm. A mixture of eluting solvents (A and B) was utilized, comprising 70% 5 mM ammonium formate aqueous solution and 30% methanol. A 30 μL electrolyte solution was taken and mixed with 1470 μL of deionized water. An injection volume of 1 mL was applied, and the identification and quantification of reactants and oxidation products were determined from calibration curves by standard solution with known concentrations of commercially purchased compounds.

The FDCA conversion (%) and the Faradic efficiency (%) were calculated using the following equation:

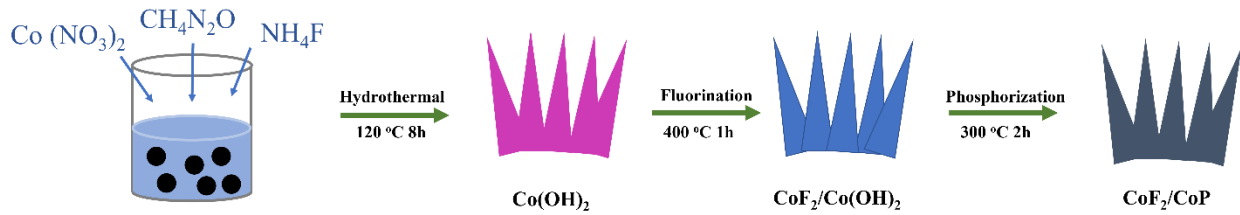
$$FDCA_{yield} = \frac{\text{mol of FDCA formed}}{\text{mol of initial HMF}} \times 100\%$$

$$FE_{FDCA} = \frac{\text{mol of FDCA formed} \times n \times F}{\text{Total passing charges}} \times 100\%$$

Where F is the Faraday constant of 96485 C mol⁻¹, n is the electron transfer number.

5.3 Results and Discussion

5.3.1 Synthesis and characterizations of electrocatalysts



Scheme1. The synthesis procedure of CoF₂/CoP.

The synthetic process of CoF₂/CoP nanowire arrays grown on nickel foam (NF) is depicted in Scheme 1. The heterostructured CoF₂/CoP nanowire arrays were prepared by three steps, which involve growth of precursor and subsequent fluorination and phosphorization. Co (OH)₂ nanowire arrays were first vertically grown on pre-cleaned NF through facile hydrothermal synthesis with urea as precipitants to provide OH⁻ and NH₄F as the morphology control reagent for selective passivation of the specific crystal surfaces. Then the vapor-phase fluorination process was conducted on the Co(OH)₂/NF to obtain CoF₂/Co(OH)₂ nanowire arrays at the selected temperature by reacting with hydrogen fluoride (HF) vapor resulting from the thermal decomposition of NH₄F. From the XRD pattern, it well indexes the presence of tetragonal CoF₂

(PDF#33-0417) and hexagonal Co(OH)_2 (PDF#30-0443) after vapor-phase fluorination process, indicating the precursor Co(OH)_2 was not fully transformed into CoF_2 (Figure S1). After phosphorization, the final heterostructured CoF_2/CoP nanowires were synthesized on NF, in which NaH_2PO_2 was taken as the phosphorization agent. To optimize the catalytic performance, fluorination was carried out by controlling the amount of fluorine source (0, 50, 100, 150 mg), which donates as CoP , $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-1}$, $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-2}$ and $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-3}$, respectively. CoF_2 was synthesized only via fluorination with 200 mg of fluorine source. The reaction formulas are as follows:



The morphology structure of prepared products was first characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). As shown in Fig. 1a, a layer of nanowires vertically and uniformly distributes on the NF, which can not only benefit the electron transfer rate during the electrocatalytic process but also enhance the specific active area. Besides, the high-resolution SEM images of the $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-2}$ show that the nanowire morphology was formed with a diameter of 80-200 nm and several microns in length (Fig 1b, c). The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image in Fig. 1d further confirms the straight needle-like shape. The corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (Fig. 1e) indicates the polycrystalline nature instead of a single crystal, suggesting the construction of heterointerfaces. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image shows

the lattice fringes of 0.196 and 0.23 nm indexed to the (112) and (111) planes of CoP and CoF₂, respectively, which reveals the presence of CoP and CoF₂ in CoF₂/CoP-2 (Fig 1f). Moreover, the elemental mapping (Fig. 1g) presents a spatial distribution of Co (red), P (green), and F (blue) elements in the typical CoF₂/CoP-2 nanowire, demonstrating the co-existence of Co, P and F in nanowires. Effects of the amount of fluorine source were investigated to evaluate on the morphology structure of the final products. As shown in Fig. S2-3 in the Supporting Information, we can observe negligible influence on the microstructures of nanowire arrays for samples prepared with different amount of fluorine source, all of them (CoF₂, CoP, CoF₂/CoP-1 and CoF₂/CoP-3) shows well-defined vertical nanowire arrays on NF.

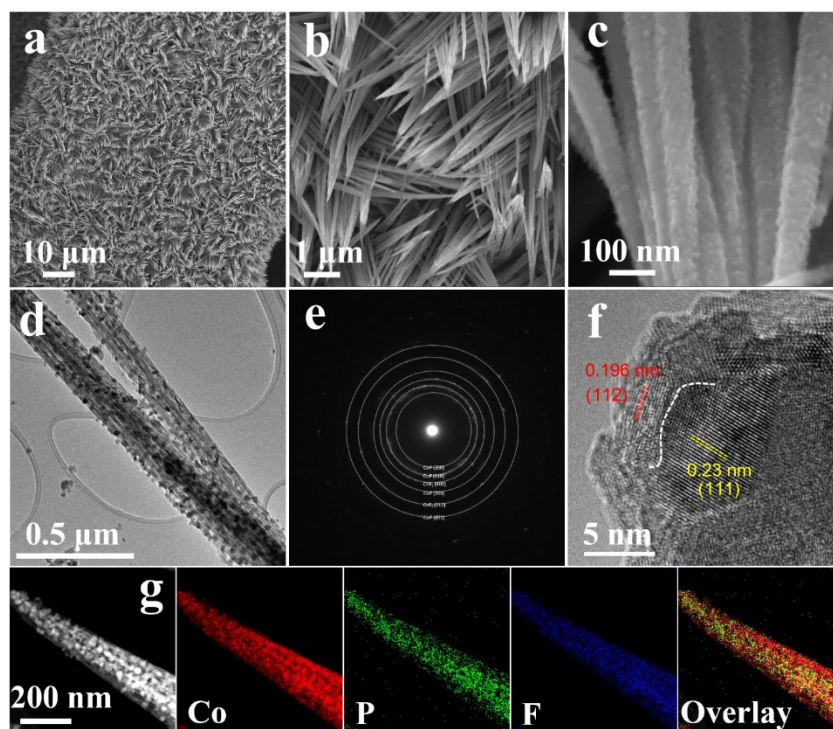


Figure 5. 1 (a, b, c) SEM images of CoF₂/CoP-2. (d) TEM image of CoF₂/CoP-2. (e) the corresponding SAED of (d). (f) High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image of CoF₂/CoP-2. (g) HAAD-STEM image and associated elemental mapping images.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurement was carried out to characterize the phase structure of the as-prepared products. As displayed in Fig. 2a, the peaks at 26.8°, 34.2°, 39.2° and 54.9° match with the (110), (101), (111) and (220) planes of tetragonal CoF₂ (PDF#33-0417), respectively. The peaks at 48.7°, 56.2° and 57.1° can also be differentiated, which can be indexed to (202), (212) and (301) planes of orthorhombic CoP (PDF#29-0497), respectively. The peaks of metallic Ni are derived from the substrate. The CoF₂/CoP-2 involves both the CoF₂ and CoP phase patterns, implying again the formation of CoF₂ and CoP in the CoF₂/CoP-2 sample. Besides, it is well indexed that the single phase CoF₂ (PDF#33-0417) and CoP (PDF#29-0497) can be observed in prepared products of CoF₂ and CoP, respectively, which indicates that precursor Co (OH)₂ was thoroughly transformed. Similarly, the XRD patterns of CoF₂/CoP-1 and CoF₂/CoP-3 also involve the crystal structure of both CoF₂ and CoP (Fig. S4).

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted to further understand the surface chemistry and valance state of elements for the synthesized electrocatalysts. In the wide-scanning XPS spectra, the signals for Co, F and P elements can be observed in CoF₂/CoP-1, CoF₂/CoP-2 and CoF₂/CoP-3 (Fig. S5), consistent with the EDS elemental mapping. In Fig. 2b, the high-resolution XPS spectrum of Co 2p for CoP consists of peaks at 778.7 eV and 793.7 eV assigned to Co⁰ in CoP, as well as peaks at 781.6 eV and 797.8 eV corresponding to Co²⁺ in the surface oxidation.[28, 29] The Co 2p spectrum of CoF₂ only shows Co-F/O peaks along with two satellite peaks, where the binding energies of Co 2p negatively shifted in comparison to CoP. After phosphorization, the Co⁰ belonging to CoP appears in CoF₂/CoP-2, in addition, the binding energies of the Co 2p spectrum in CoF₂/CoP-2 are also negatively shifted in comparison to that of CoP. F 1s XPS spectrum of CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits the F-P signal that is absent in CoF₂ (Fig. 3c), indicating P and F atoms form a transitional interface and penetrate each other between the two

lattice structures. As shown in Fig. 3d, the binding energies of P 2p_{1/2} (129.93 eV) and P 2p_{3/2} (129.04 eV) of CoF₂/CoP-2 also show a positive shift in contrast to those of CoP (0.49 eV for P 2p_{1/2} and 0.36 eV for P 2p_{3/2}), since the high electronegativity of F. [30] The broad peak at about 134 eV owns to the P-O due to the air exposure. The above results suggest the pronounced electron transfer in CoF₂/CoP-2 due to the interaction between CoP and CoF₂ in the closely contacted heterointerface. Besides, introduction of the base F (δ^-) into Co-P complex results in the formation of hydrogenase-like electronic structure, facilitating inter- and intramolecular proton/hydride exchange, where metal and base (P and F) sites exhibit an ensemble effect to act as proton-acceptor and hydride-acceptor centers, benefiting the catalytic process.[31-33] Synchrotron XAFS spectroscopy was used to further investigate the electronic property and coordination information of as-prepared products. The valence of Co in CoF₂/CoP-2 is between that of CoP and CoF₂, but lower than that of Co₃O₄, suggesting the electron redistribution in the heterointerfaces (Fig. 2e). The extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy was used to explore the coordination configurations. As shown in Fig. 2f, the R-space EXAFS spectrum of Co K-edge in CoF₂/CoP-2 presents peaks at 1.47 Å and 1.82 Å, corresponding to the Co-F and Co-P shells, respectively, in reference to CoF₂ and CoP.[34, 35] This evidences again the presence of CoF₂ and CoP in the prepared CoF₂/CoP-2.

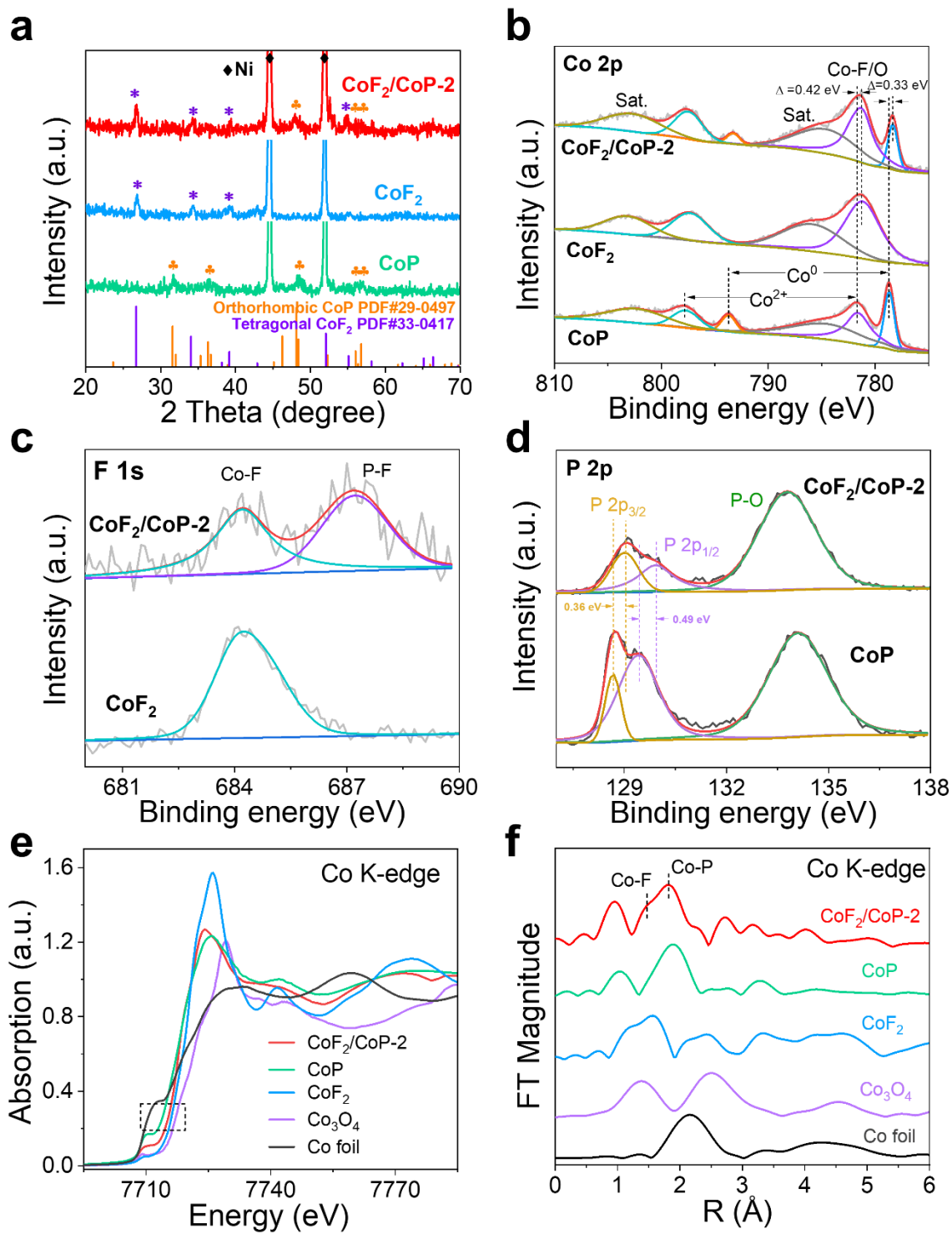


Figure 5. 2 (a) XRD patterns of CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2. (b) High-resolution XPS spectra of Co for CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2. (c) High-resolution XPS spectra of F 1s for CoF₂ and

CoF₂/CoP-2. (d) High-resolution XPS spectra of P 2p for CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2. (e) Co K-edge XANES spectra and (f) Fourier-transform EXAFS curves of CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2 and references (Co foil and Co₃O₄).

5.3.2 Electrocatalytic performance

The advantages of CoF₂/CoP-2 could render it a promising robust electrocatalyst, considering the active heterointerface and good mass/electron transfer ability. FDCA as one of the oxidation products of HMF is a promising chemical for synthesis of polymeric materials with different industrial applications. The electrochemical HMFOR activity of prepared electrodes was determined in 1M KOH with 50 mM HMF electrolyte. Since OER is the major competing reaction to HMFOR, the Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and polarization curves of water oxidation in the absence of HMF were also investigated for comparison at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. In Fig. S6, it is noted that Co²⁺/Co³⁺ transformation occurs in CoF₂ at potentials around 1.2-1.3 V (vs RHE).[36] The transformation of Co³⁺/Co⁴⁺ (1.36-1.5 V vs RHE) was boosted with the co-existence of CoF₂ and CoP in CoF₂/CoP-1.[37, 38] With the increase of CoF₂, the CoF₂/CoP-2 shows the most broad oxidation peak area including Co²⁺ ↔ Co³⁺ ↔ Co⁴⁺ transformations. It was clearly observed from the CV profiles that OER occurred after the redox peak positions. The electrochemical HMFOR activity was examined shown in Fig. S7. The CoF₂/CoP-2 manifests a prominent enhanced performance for HMF oxidation relative to CoF₂/CoP-1 and CoF₂/CoP-3. In addition, as depicted in Fig. 3a, without HMF, the CoF₂/CoP-2 electrode presents the potential of 1.60 V (vs RHE) to deliver 100 mA cm⁻² resulting from the OER. In contrast, the potential was decreased to 1.33 V (vs RHE) at 100 mA cm⁻² after 50 mM HMF was introduced, indicating that the oxidation of HMF was significantly favored over water oxidation. Subsequently, the HMFOR activity of CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2 were also evaluated for comparison (Fig. 3b). The CoF₂/CoP-2 presents a better

activity than CoF₂ and CoP for HMF oxidation. The consistent kinetic behaviors can be observed in the Tafel plots. The CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits a Tafel slope of 21.1 mV dec⁻¹, smaller than CoF₂ (26.7 mV dec⁻¹) and CoP (29.7 mV dec⁻¹), implying a boosted HMFOR kinetics for practical applications. The above results indicate that the presence of both Co²⁺ and Co³⁺ contributes to the electrocatalytic activity for HMF electrooxidation, which is consistent with the previous report.[14]

HMF is a highly functionalized platform chemical derived from biomass, composed of a furan ring, a hydroxymethyl group, and an aldehyde group. Both the hydroxymethyl and aldehyde groups can be oxidized into carboxyl groups. Thus, the HMF oxidation has two possible pathways, due to the sequential oxidation order of the two groups. As shown in Fig. 3d, the initial alcohol group of HMF is oxidized into 2,5-diformylfuran (DFF) intermediate and the oxidation of aldehyde group yields 5-hydroxymethyl-2-furancarboxylic acid (HMFCFA) intermediate. Both DFF and HMFCFA can be further oxidized into 2-formyl-5-furancarboxylic acid (FFCA), which can turn into the end-product of FDCA. In addition to the above process, the ring-opening reaction of HMF can also easily be occurred to generate by-products such as levulinic acid and formic acid.[39, 40] Given the complex transformation network of HMF, achieving a high selectivity of HMF transformation to FDCA is still considered to be a challenging technical objective. The electrochemical HMF oxidation of CoF₂/CoP-2 was conducted in 20 mL 1.0 M KOH with the concentration of 10 mM HMF under an applied potential of 1.43 V in a H-cells. To fully convert the HMF into FDCA, nearly 116 C of the theoretical passed charge is required (Fig. S8). The high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was used to analyze the HMF oxidation products during electrocatalysis process, including HMFCFA, FDCA, DFF and FFCA. Calibration with standard solutions of HMF and the intermediates allows to quantify the possible compounds during electrolysis (Fig. S9). The concentration of HMF and oxidation products are depicted in Fig. 3e.

We can clearly see the decreased concentration of HMF and an increase in FDCA over time, suggesting the gradual conversion of HMF into FDCA during the electrochemical HMF oxidation. The trace amounts of HMFCA, FFCA and DFF were also detected during the process. It is noted that the intermediates do not accumulate and the HPLC trace of end-product FDCA increases to the maximum while that of HMF almost disappears, when the passing charge reaches 116 C. Above results indicate the fast transformation of HMFCA, FFCA and DFF into FDCA. The durability test of CoF₂/CoP-2 for HMF oxidation was performed at an applied constant potential of 1.43 V in the presence of 10 mM HMF. The one sample was tested in 5 bathes of 10 mM HMF subsequently under the same electrocatalysis condition. The superior FDCA yield (~ 98.8%) and faradic efficiency (~ 98%) were achieved, due to the efficient synergistic effect between CoF₂ and CoP (Fig. 3f). The catalytic activity of CoF₂/CoP-2 is well maintained after five runs. Notably, CoF₂/CoP-2 still retains superior FDCA yield and faradic efficiency after five successive constant electrocatalysis cycles, illustrating the outstanding stability for HMF oxidation.

To evaluate the hydrogen generation application of the prepared CoF₂/CoP electrodes, the electrocatalytic HER performance of the synthesized samples was examined in 1 M KOH electrolyte using a standard three-electrode system. The HER catalytic activity of the electrodes was benchmarked against Pt/C catalyst for comparison. According to the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves in Fig. S10, the optimized CoF₂/CoP-2 presents a better electrocatalytic activity than the counterparts. As shown in Fig. 3g, Pt/C displays excellent activity at current density of 10 mA cm⁻² with overpotential of only 15.9 mV, and the onset potential is near zero, Tafel slope is 18.2 mV dec⁻¹. CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibited remarkably enhanced HER activity among investigated samples (such as CoF₂ and CoP), which only requires overpotentials of 59 and 114.1 mV to deliver 10 and 100 mA cm⁻², respectively, superior to those of CoF₂ (218.7 and 308 mV)

and CoP (120.5 and 215.4 mV). Moreover, its activity is also better than that of Pt/C when the absolute value of current density is above 123.8 mA cm^{-2} . The Tafel slope of CoF₂/CoP-2 is 59.8 mV dec^{-1} , which is smaller than that of CoF₂ (99 mV dec^{-1}) and CoP (88 mV dec^{-1}), demonstrating more rapid HER kinetics of CoF₂/CoP-2 (Fig. 3h). Such Tafel slope suggests the Volmer–Heyrovsky mechanism of CoF₂/CoP-2 for HER, indicating that the HER catalysis is governed by the charge-transfer-induced water dissociation process in alkaline electrolyte.[41, 42] Furthermore, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) test was also performed (Fig. S11). In accordance with the order of HER activity, the CoF₂/CoP-2 shows smallest semicircle diameter among the investigated samples (CoF₂ and CoP), confirming the enhanced conductivity and rapid electron transfer in the CoF₂-CoP interfaces and a better HER kinetics of CoF₂/CoP-2. Additionally, the electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) was estimated by measuring the double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) of catalysts via cyclic voltammetry. The CoF₂/CoP-2 presents a dramatically higher value of C_{dl} (44.28 mF cm^{-2}) than that of CoF₂ (4.66 mF cm^{-2}) and CoP (10.13 mF cm^{-2}) (Fig. S12), which corroborates that the optimized CoF₂/CoP-2 possesses a larger ECSA related to the construction of heterointerfaces in CoF₂/CoP-2 with high exposure of the active sites. In addition to the high activity, a desirable catalyst should be able to achieve substantial long-term stability, which endows its potential in practical application. The electrochemical stability of CoF₂/CoP-2 was evaluated by performing chronopotentiometry measurement at a constant current density of 20 mA cm^{-2} for 68 h. CoF₂/CoP-2 displays the long-term stability without obvious potential shift with time (Fig. S13).

In view of the above encouraging catalytic performance, we expect that CoF₂/CoP-2 can catalyze both HER and HMFOR simultaneously. A two-electrode electrolyzer was constructed using CoF₂/CoP-2 as both the anode and cathode in H-cells. The pure water splitting electrolyzer was

also evaluated for comparison. The polarization curves are illustrated in Fig. 3i. CoF₂/CoP-2 catalyst exhibits a voltage of 1.54 V at 10 mA cm⁻² for pure water splitting. In contrast, the voltage is obviously reduced to 1.33 V at 10 mA cm⁻² when 50 mM HMF is introduced, highlighting pairing HER with HMFOR is an effective strategy to realize the highly efficient generation of hydrogen and the synthesis of value-added products.

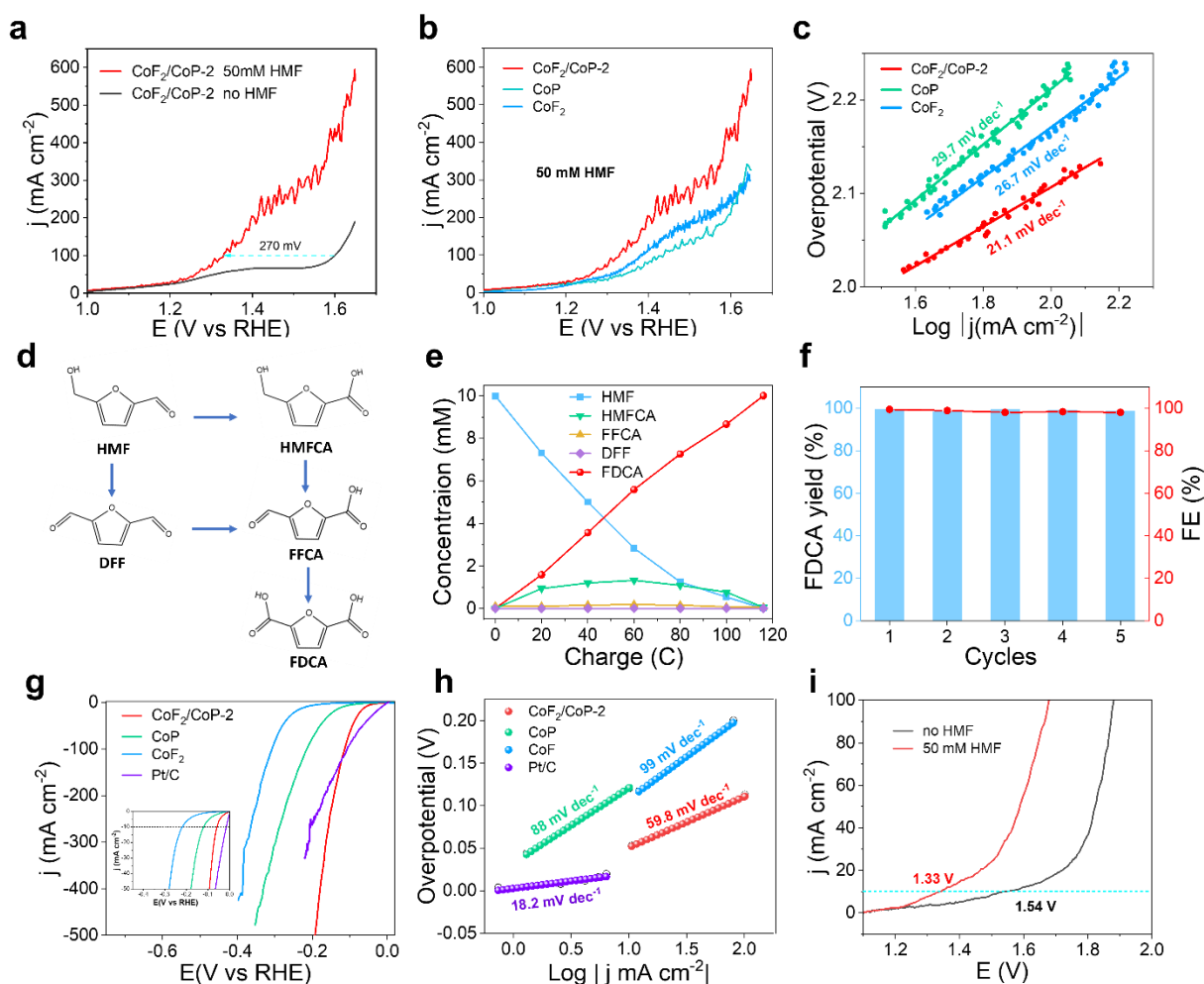


Figure 5. 3 (a) Polarization curves of CoF₂/CoP-2 in 1 M KOH with and without 50 mM HMF at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. (b) Polarization curves of CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2. (c) The corresponding Tafel slopes of (b). (d) Two possible pathways of HMF oxidation to FDCA. (e) Concentration changes of HMF, FDCA and the intermediates during the HMFOR process. (f)

FDCA yield and FE (%) of CoF₂/CoP-2 under five successive cycles. (g) The HER polarization curves of CoF₂, CoP, CoF₂/CoP-2 and Pt/C. (h) The corresponding Tafel slopes of (g). (i) Polarization curves of CoF₂/CoP-2 couple in 1M KOH with and without 50 mM HMF.

5.3.3 Mechanism Analysis

To explore the HMFOR/HER activity–structure relationship, the morphology and compositional changes were investigated before and after long term electrocatalysis. The change of phase structure in HMFOR was revealed by XRD, where apart from CoF₂ diffraction peaks, the new crystallization peaks corresponding to γ -CoOOH also appear in the XRD pattern, but no peaks for CoP can be observed, suggesting that bias potential could mainly promote the transformation of CoP into γ -CoOOH (Fig. 4 a). The morphological evolution after HMFOR was unveiled by SEM and TEM. As shown in Fig. S14a-c, the nanowires were converted into nanosheets with rough thin film on the surface after the anion reconstruction. In TEM image (Fig. S15), we can see that the nanosheets are vertically grown on a single nanowire, forming a core–shell nanostructure with a rough surface, where the core should be the preserved CoF₂, which could explain the presence of CoF₂ diffraction peaks in the XRD pattern. The high-resolution TEM images further corroborate the newly formed thin-layered structure (Fig. 4b, c). The formation of thin-layered structure results in large surface area, favoring the contact with more electrolytes for mass transfer. In addition, the (101) crystal face of γ -CoOOH can also be observed in the nanosheet, which evidenced again the phase of γ -CoOOH mainly contributing to the HMFOR catalytic activity (Fig. 4c). The sustained vertical nanostructure and integrated nanosheets after anion reconstruction endow fast ion diffusion and electron conduction throughout the electrode, further optimizing the electrocatalytic activity and durability of the composites.[43] The XRD pattern of electrode after HER reveals the diffraction peaks of Co (OH)₂ without CoF₂ and CoP peaks observed (Fig. 4d). The SEM images

of CoF₂/CoP-2 after HER test are also compared to the pristine electrode before testing, as exhibited in Fig. S14d-f. It appears that the NF is uniformly covered by newly formed nanosheets with a smooth surface after long term electrocatalysis. It can be concluded that Co species are mainly transformed into Co (OH)₂ and the newly converted phase is obtained by anion reconstruction as well, which benefits the catalytic performance for HER.[44] The nanosheet morphology can be demonstrated again by the TEM images (Fig. 4e, f). From the HR-TEM image, the newly generated phases are matching well with the (100) and (001) crystal planes of Co (OH)₂. Thus, the actual active phases between the two electrodes are clearly different, which stems from the different reaction mechanisms for the HMFOR and HER.

The change of surface chemical composition was also investigated by XPS. For the post- HMFOR catalyst, the two new peaks of the Co 2p spectrum are assigned to the Co³⁺ species in CoOOH (Fig. 4g). In F 1s, the Co-F peak can be obviously observed, while F-P peak disappears (Fig 4h). Meanwhile, the Co-P peak in P 2p spectrum also vanishes and the P-O peak has a negative shift and decreases in comparison with initial electrode (Fig. 4i). These results illustrate the successive reconstruction of CoP into metal (oxy)hydroxide during HMFOR, which is the true active species, consistent with previous reports.[45, 46] For the post-HER catalyst, we can observe the disappearance of Co⁰ peaks belonging to CoP and only Co²⁺ peaks along with two satellite peaks in Co 2p spectrum. The F 1s peaks of the electrode thoroughly vanish (Fig. 5h). The peak of Co-P in P 2p also disappears and P-O peak show a negative shift, which indicates that the leaching of anion triggers the phase reconstruction during HER.[47]

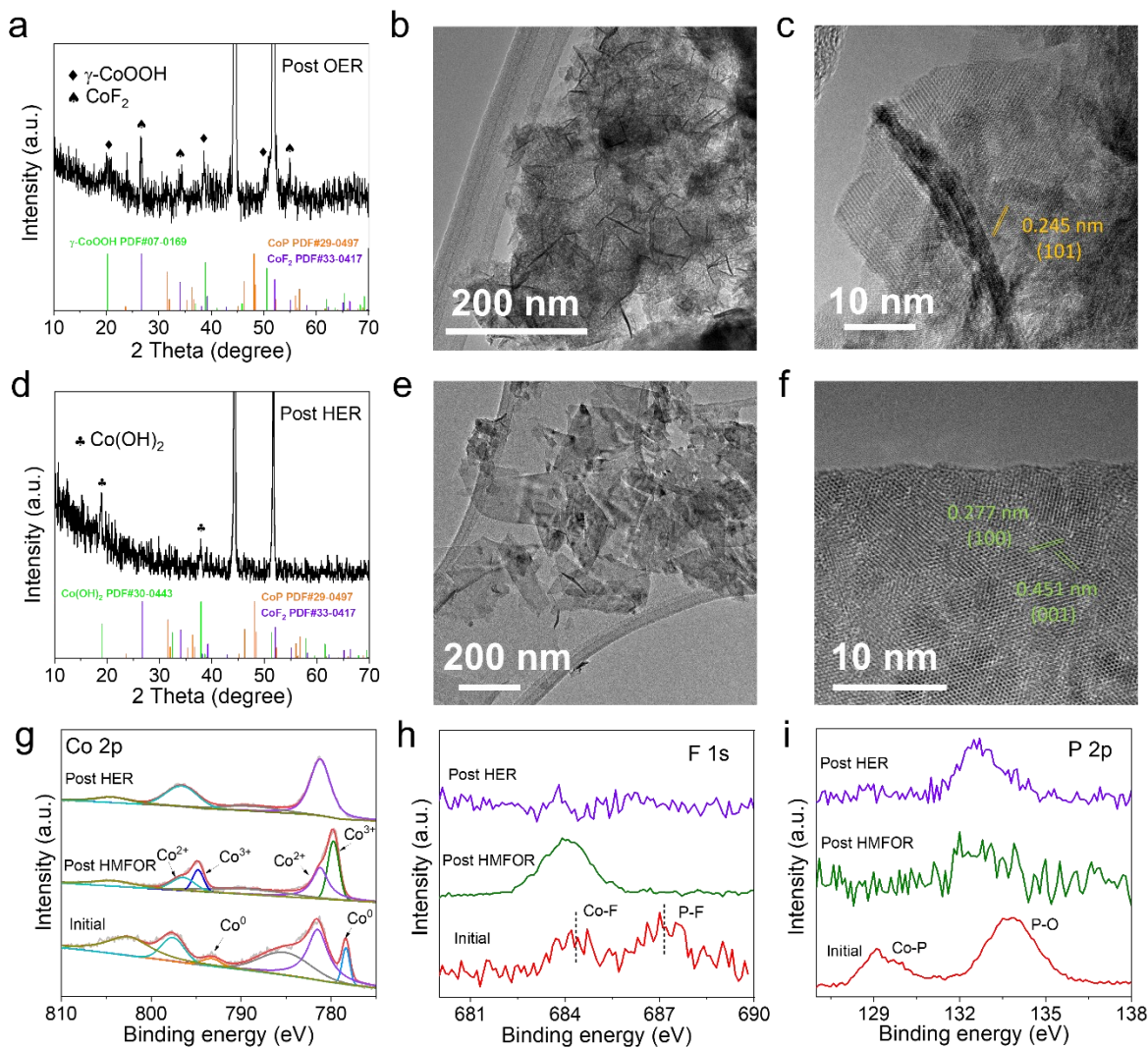


Figure 5. 4 (a) XRD patterns of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long term electrocatalysis test under HMFOR condition. (b, c) TEM image of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long-term stability test under HMFOR condition. (d) XRD patterns of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long term electrocatalysis test under HER condition. (e, f) TEM image of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long-term stability test under HER condition. (g) Co 2p, (h) F 1s, (i) P 2p XPS spectra of the CoF₂/CoP-2 electrode before and after electrocatalysis HMFOR/HER stability test.

5.4 Conclusion

In summary, we developed an electrode with CoF₂/CoP nanowire arrays grown on NF, which possesses good mass/electron transfer ability. The construction of heterointerfaces between CoF₂ and CoP results in the more exposure of active sites, modulating the catalytic activity for HMFOR and HER. As a result, a high electrocatalytic performance for both HMFOR and HER is achieved. Since the different reaction mechanisms for the HMFOR and HER, the newly formed γ -CoOOH after the anion reconstruction contributes to the HMFOR activity with low driving potential, high biomass conversion and selectivity, and enhanced cycle durability. The Co (OH)₂ is the actual active phase benefiting the catalytic performance for HER with low overpotential and good electrocatalysis stability. The CoF₂/CoP-2 was used to catalyze cathodic H₂ and anodic FDCA production synchronously, which only requires a low voltage of 1.33 V to afford 10 mA cm⁻². Thus, the construction of heterostructure between CoF₂ and CoP has been identified as promising strategy for both electrocatalytic HMF oxidation and HER to enhance hydrogen generation efficiency and the production of value-added products, paving a way for “green chemistry”.

5.5 References

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5.6 Supporting information

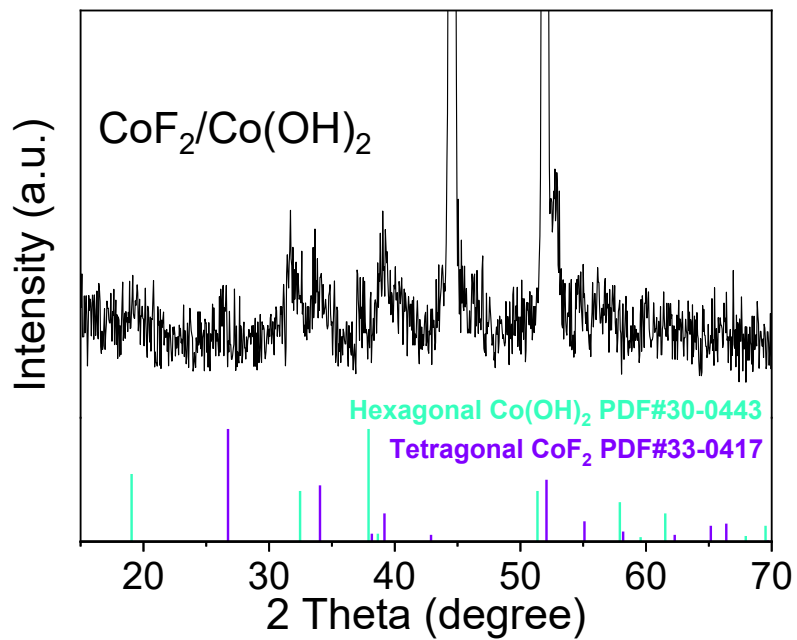


Figure S5. 1 XRD pattern of the product after fluorination process

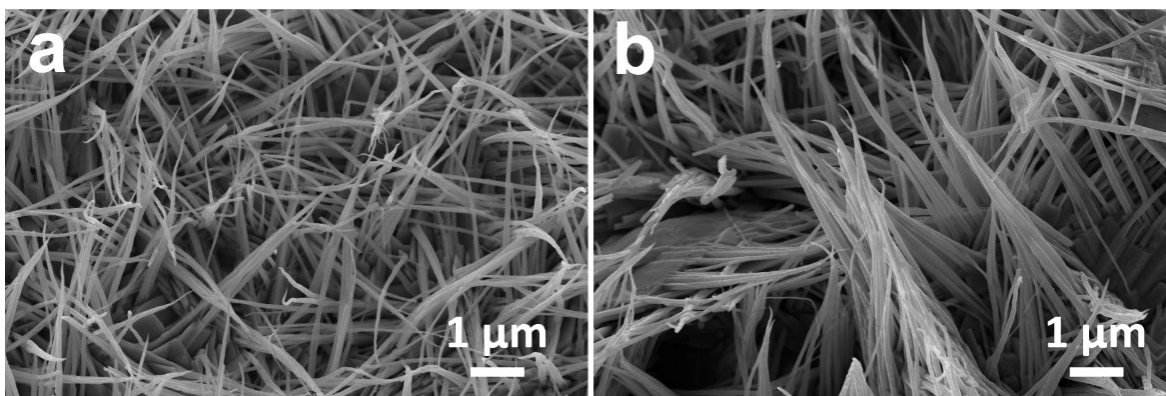


Figure S5. 2 SEM images of CoP (a), CoF_2 (b).

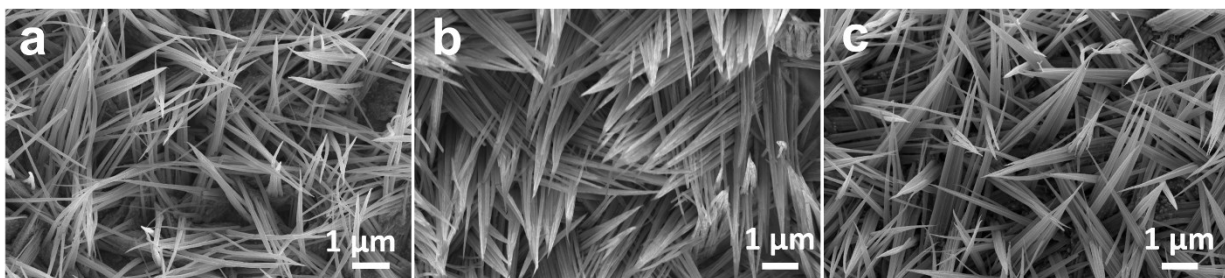


Figure S5. 3 SEM images of CoF₂/CoP-1 (a), CoF₂/CoP-2 (b) and CoF₂/CoP-3(c)

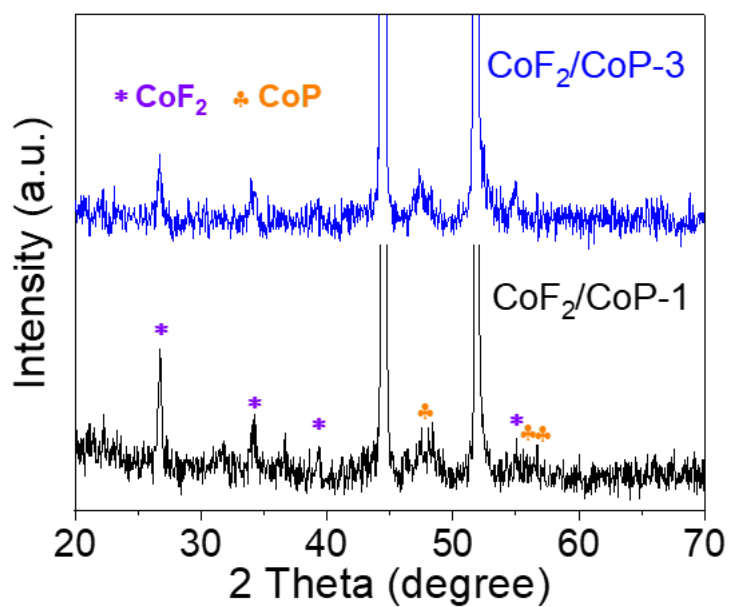


Figure S5. 4 XRD patterns of CoF₂/CoP-1 and CoF₂/CoP-3.

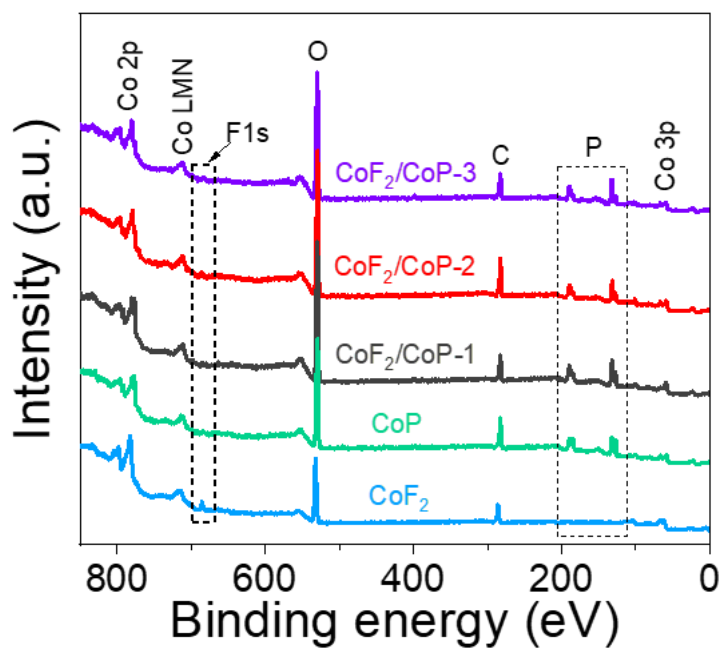


Figure S5. 5 The wide-scanning XPS spectra of CoF₂, CoP, CoF₂/CoP-1, CoF₂/CoP-2 and CoF₂/CoP-3.

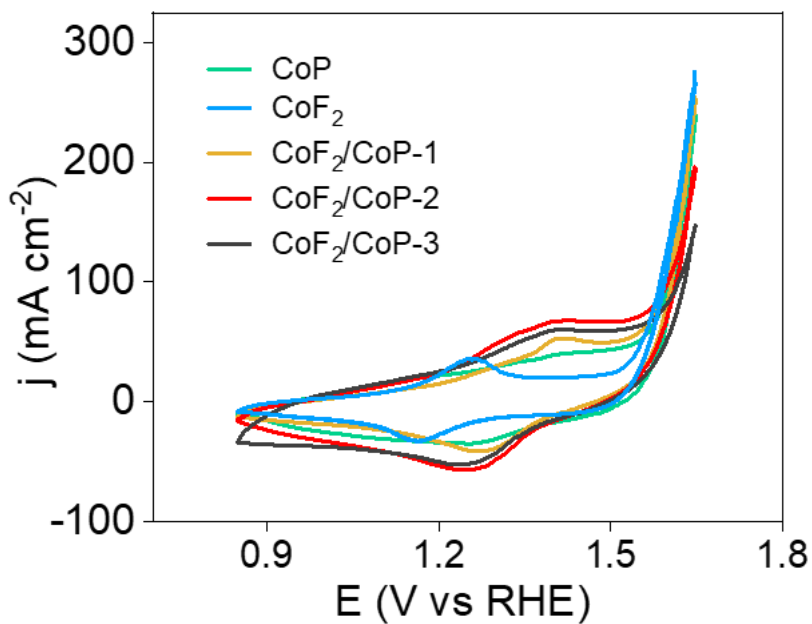


Figure S5. 6 The CV of CoF₂, CoP, CoF₂/CoP-1, CoF₂/CoP-2 and CoF₂/CoP-3 toward OER.

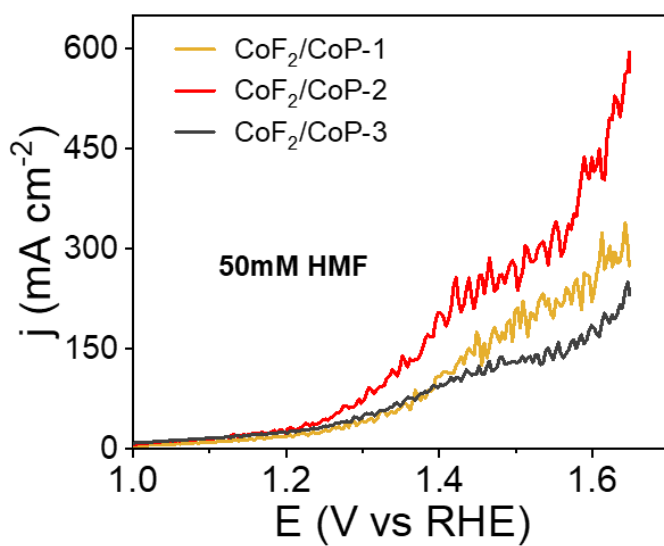


Figure S5. 7 The polarization curves of CoF₂/CoP-1, CoF₂/CoP-2 and CoF₂/CoP-3 toward HMFOR.

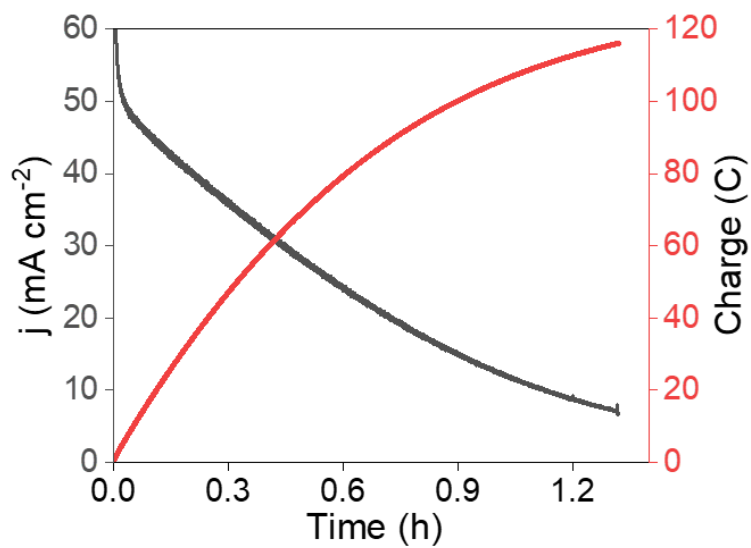


Figure S5. 8 I-t curve for CoF₂/CoP-2 at a constant potential of 1.43 V in 1.0 M KOH with 10 mM HMF by passing the charge of 116 C.

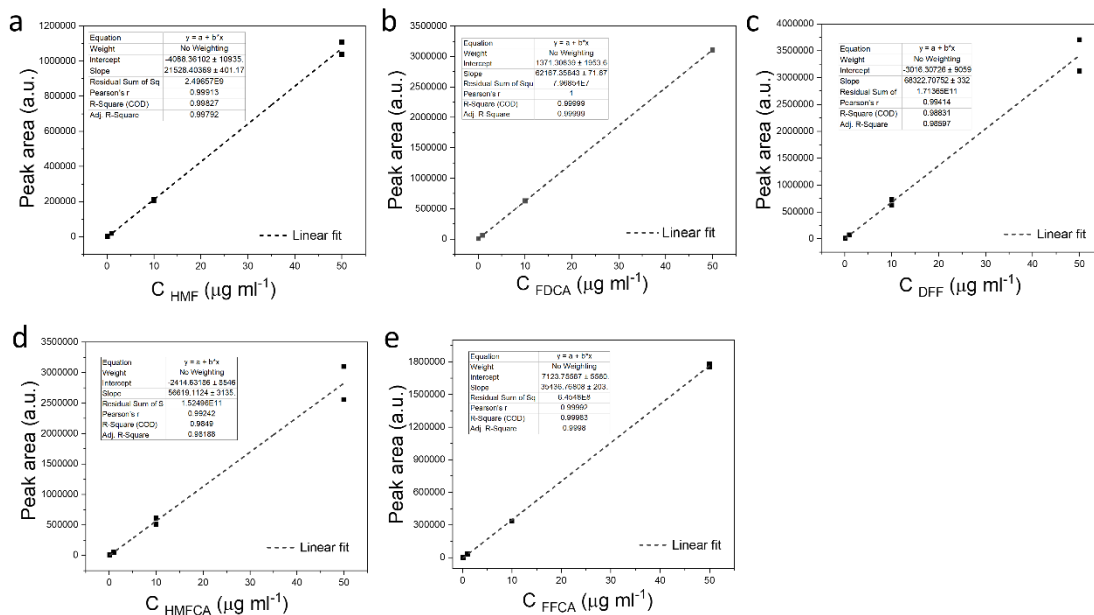


Figure S5. 9 Calibration of the HPLC for HMF (a), FDCA (b), DFF (c), HMFCFA (d) and FFCA (e).

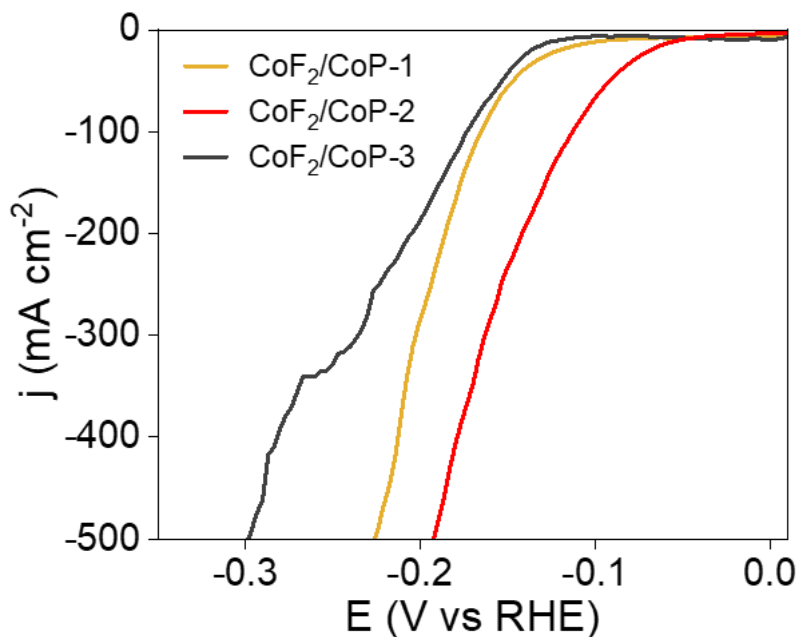


Figure S5. 10 The polarization curves of CoF₂/CoP-1, CoF₂/CoP-2 and CoF₂/CoP-3 toward HER.

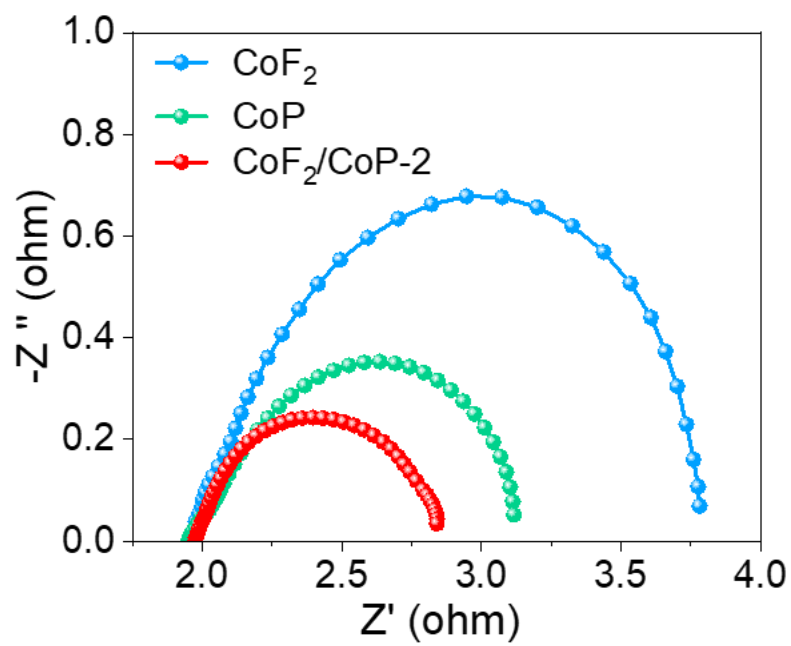


Figure S5. 11 EIS spectra of CoF₂, CoP and CoF₂/CoP-2 towards HER.

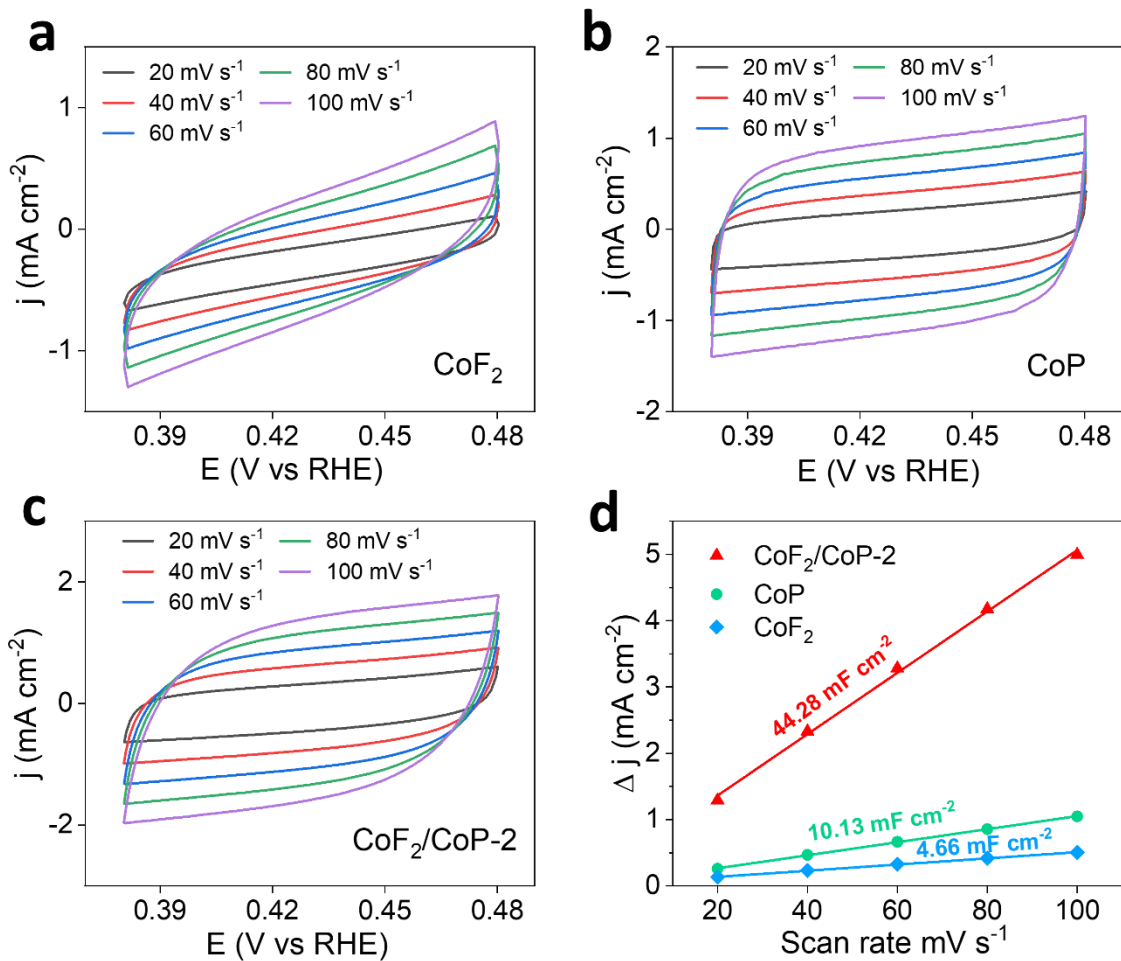


Figure S5. 12 (a-c) CV curves within a non-faradaic reaction region of $-0.69 \sim -0.59$ V versus RHE at different scan rates for CoF_2 , CoP and $\text{CoF}_2/\text{CoP-2}$. (d) The corresponding C_{dl} value.

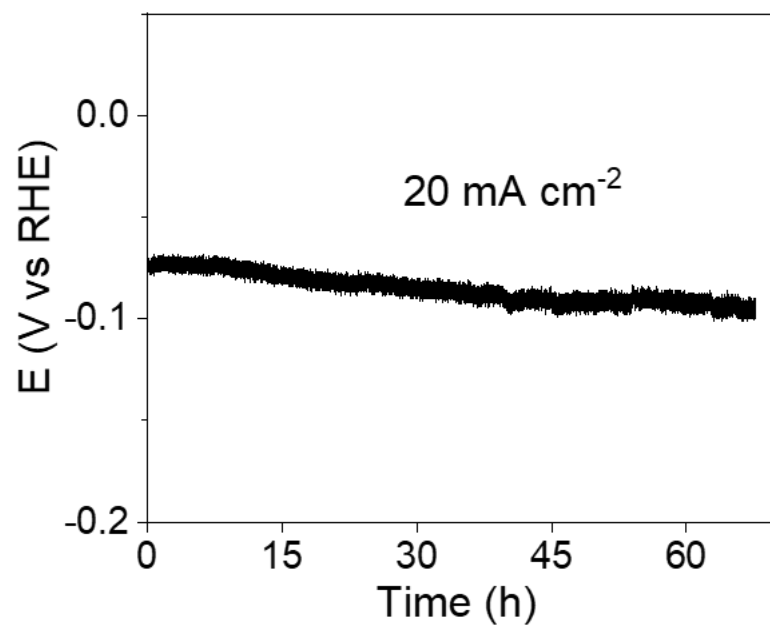


Figure S5. 13 Chronopotentiometry of CoF₂/CoP-2 under the current density of 20 mA cm⁻².

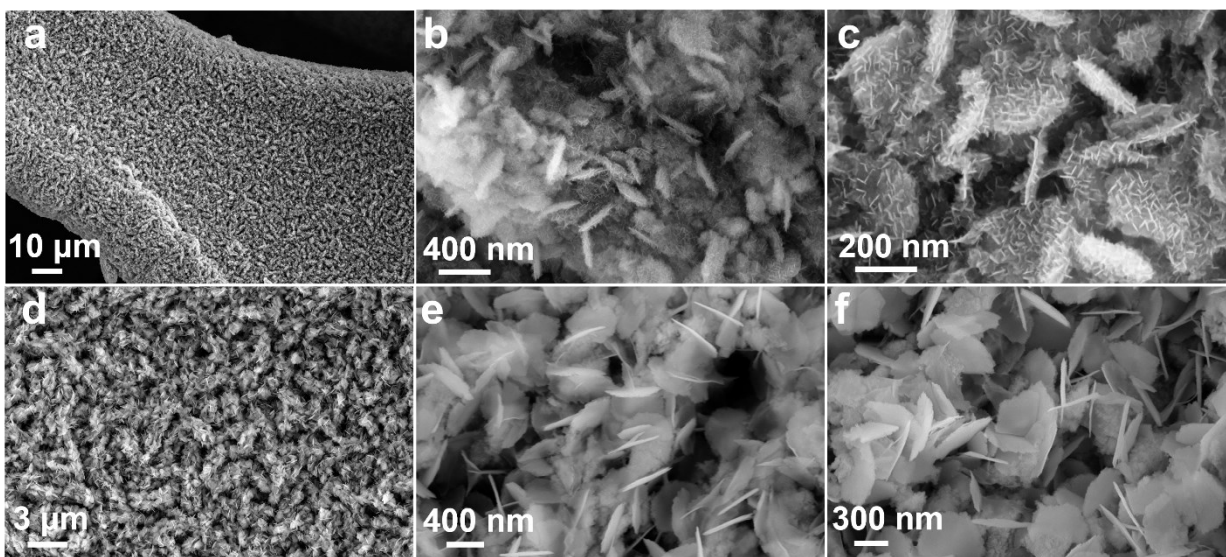


Figure S5. 14 SEM images of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long-term electrocatalysis under HMFOR condition (a-c) and HER condition (d-f).

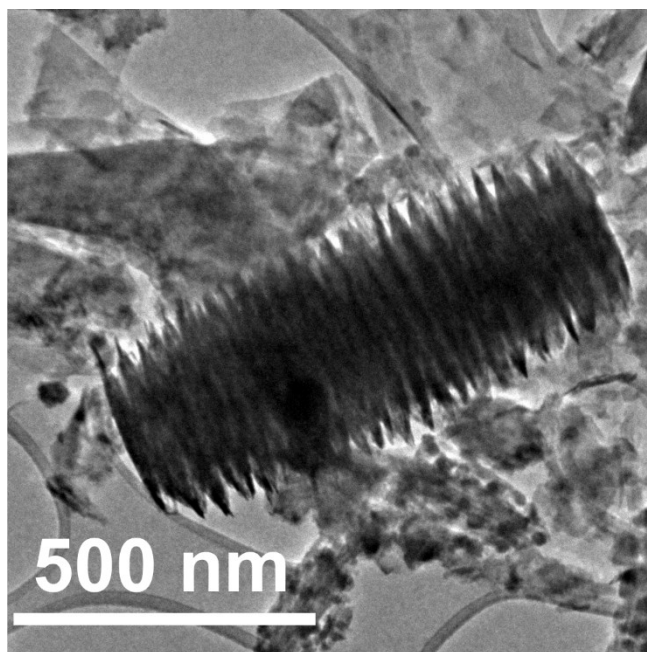


Figure S5. 15 TEM image of CoF₂/CoP-2 after long term HMFOR electrocatalysis.

Chapter 6. Single Cu–N₄ sites enable atomic Fe clusters with high-performance oxygen reduction reaction

Abstract: Atomically dispersed Fe–N₄ catalysts are proved as promising alternatives to commercial Pt/C for the oxygen reduction reaction. Most reported Fe–N₄ catalysts suffer from inferior O–O bond-breaking capability due to superoxo-like O₂ adsorption, though the isolated dual-atomic metal sites strategy is extensively adopted. Atomic Fe clusters hold greater promise for promoting O–O bond cleavage by forming peroxo-like O₂ adsorption. However, the excessively strong binding strength between Fe clusters and oxygenated intermediates sacrifices the activity. Here, we first report a Fe_x/Cu–N@CF catalyst with atomic Fe clusters functionalized by adjacent single Cu–N₄ sites anchoring on porous carbon nanofiber membrane. The theoretical calculation indicates that the single Cu–N₄ sites can modulate the electronic configuration of Fe clusters to reduce O₂* protonation reaction free energy which ultimately enhances the electrocatalytic performance. Particularly, the Cu–N₄ sites can increase the overlaps between *d* orbitals of Fe and *p* orbitals of O to accelerate O–O cleavage in OOH*. As a result, this unique atomic catalyst exhibits a half potential ($E_{1/2}$) of 0.944 V in an alkaline medium exceeding that of commercial Pt/C, whereas acidic performance $E_{1/2} = 0.815$ V is comparable to Pt/C. This work shows the great potential of single atoms for improvements of atomic cluster catalysts.

6.1 Introduction

The development of highly efficient and low-cost electrocatalysts for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) is significantly urgent for fuel cells and metal-air batteries.¹⁻⁶ However, the high energy needs of O=O bond breaking and sluggish kinetics of the $4e^-/4H^+$ transfer process result in most electrocatalysts suffering from unsatisfactory ORR performance.⁷⁻⁹ Although platinum-group-metal (PGM)-based catalysts exhibit state-of-the-art activity toward ORR, their scalable

implementation is restricted to the price and scarcity.¹⁰⁻¹³ Fe–N–C single-atom catalysts (SACs) with Fe–N₄ moieties dispersed on carbon matrix have been considered as promising alternatives to PGM due to the maximized atomic utilization and low cost.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ Despite this, substituting PGM catalysts with Fe–N₄ catalysts while achieving superior activity and robust stability for practical applications still remains a grand challenge.

An ideal ORR catalyst for substitution of PGM catalysts firstly should possess favourable O₂ activation sites for efficient O=O bond cleavage due to the very high O=O bond energy of 498 kJ mol⁻¹.¹⁷ Fe–N₄ tends to bond only one oxygen atom of O₂ to form superoxo-like adsorption because of its simple and symmetric structure.¹⁸⁻²⁰ This adsorption configuration will result in two-electron side reaction (O₂ reaction to H₂O₂) and slow catalytic kinetics due to high energy barrier of O–O bond cleavage. As compared with Fe–N₄, multinuclear Fe sites (such as atomic Fe clusters) could accelerate O–O bond cleavage by forming a stretched peroxo-like O₂ adsorption (two oxygen atoms of O₂ bonded to two adjacent Fe atoms).²¹ However, the peroxo-like adsorption results in relatively strong binding strength with *O₂,²² which may be an obstacle for the next hydrogenation step. An effective way to solve this problem is to adjust the electronic structure of the active sites by introducing another metallic center. For example, various secondary metal sites, such as Ni–N₄,²³ Mn–N₄,²⁴ Pt–N₄,²⁵ Co–N₄,²⁶ and Cu–N₄,²⁷ have been introduced to modulate the electronic structure of Fe–N₄. However, the electronic modification of atomic Fe clusters by another single metal atom has been overlooked as compared with Fe–N₄, let alone the in-depth understanding of the interaction between them.

Another key factor for efficient Fe–N–C catalysts is that they should possess well-defined pore structure.^{28, 29} To date, most reported Fe–N–C catalysts are prepared by direct pyrolysis of zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) with abundant micropores. Unfortunately, only the FeN_x sites near

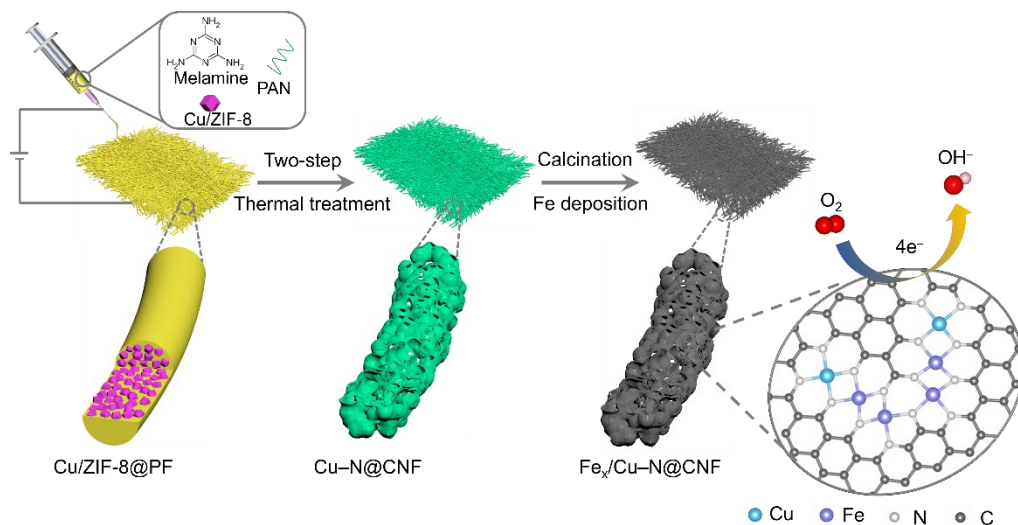
the external surface of the ZIF-derived catalysts could contribute to ORR, whereas those interior FeN_x sites buried in the dense carbon matrix are inactive.^{30, 31} This is because protons and O_2 molecules can hardly penetrate these micropores with small openings (1–2 nm).^{32, 33} Such an obstacle can be mitigated by constructing crosslinked one-dimensional (1D) carbon nanofibers (CNF) with sufficient microporosity for hosting active FeN_x sites as well as interconnected meso- and macropores for efficient mass and charge transfer. Electrospinning has been proved a practical strategy to introduce large meso- and macropores.³⁴ Hence, we hypothesized that introducing single atom sites (i.e., CuN_4) into atomic Fe clusters and simultaneously integrating them with hierarchical porous CNF is particularly appealing for ORR.

Herein, we report an effective strategy of Cu-N_4 sites functionalizing atomic Fe clusters on a hierarchical porous carbon nanofiber ($\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CNF}$) via electrospinning for high performance ORR. Density of functional theory (DFT) calculations reveal that the single Cu-N_4 sites assist the activation of O_2 to reduce the energy barrier of O_2^* protonation, as well as modulate the overlap of Fe *d* orbitals and O *p* orbitals to facilitate O–O bond cleavage in OOH^* , thus significantly boosting the overall ORR. Concurrently, the interconnected micro- and mesopores within $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CNF}$ enable abundant accessible active sites and fast mass transport. Electrochemical measurements show that $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CNF}$ exhibits superior performances with an onset potential (E_{onset}) of 1.03 V, an ultrahigh half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) of 0.944 V, and remarkable durability in alkaline medium, outperforming commercial Pt/C and most reported catalysts. Moreover, when applied in zinc-batteries, it achieves an impressive specific capacity (1110.4 mA h g^{-1} at 100 mA cm^{-2}) and long-cycling over 400 h, exceeding those Pt/C-based devices. This work not only highlights the influence of single atoms on atomic metal clusters but also provides a new and efficient strategy for designing highly active catalysts.

6.2 Results and Discussion

6.2.1 Sample synthesis and structural characterization

The fabrication approach of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ is described in Scheme 6.1, which involves electrospinning process, thermal treatment, and chemical vapor deposition (CVD). Typically, Cu doped zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 (Cu/ZIF-8) nanoparticles (NPs) with an average size of ~ 50 nm were first prepared (Figure S6.1). Then, these Cu/ZIF-8 NPs and melamine were well-dispersed into polyacrylonitrile (PAN) solution. This mixture solution was electrospun into a three-dimensional (3D) membrane consisting of Cu/ZIF-8 embedded 1D polymeric fibers (Cu/ZIF-8@PF). A rough surface was observed over Cu/ZIF-8@PF precursor due to the presence of Cu/ZIF-8 in the PF (Figure S6.2). Afterward, pre-oxidation and carbonization two-step thermal treatments were implemented to form atomically dispersed Cu anchored N-doped porous carbon fibers (Cu-N@CF). The pre-oxidation in air was used to stabilize the microstructure and avoid the fusion of CFs in the later subsequent carbonization step. During the carbonization process in argon, the Zn species were evaporated from Cu/ZIF-8 and created carbon defects. Meanwhile, Cu-N_4 species were in situ formed by coordinating with four N atoms. Finally, atomic Fe clusters were introduced into Cu-N@CF to form $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ via a CVD process using anhydrous FeCl_3 as the Fe source. Solid FeCl_3 with a low boiling point of ~ 316 °C will become a Fe_2Cl_6 vapour and directly deposit on the defect sites of Cu-N@CF. The sample only contained atomic Fe clusters on CF ($\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$) was prepared by using pristine ZIF-8 for electrospinning.



Scheme 6.1. The synthesis procedure of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

The morphology of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF was revealed by scanning electron microscopy and transmission electron microscopy. Clearly, the CFs of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF formed a 3D interconnected network with the diameter of CF ranging from 200 to 500 nm (Figure 6.1a). The higher-resolution SEM and TEM images (Figure 6.1b-e and Figure S6.3a, b) show that a large amount of mesopores is uniformly distributed throughout these nanofibers. The size of these mesopores is about 50 nm, close to the size of Cu/ZIF-8 nanoparticles. This well-distributed pore structure could facilitate the electrolyte penetration and O₂ reactants diffusion for ORR. A similar morphology is also observed for Fe_x-N@CF and Cu-N@CF (Figure S6.4). The textural porosity of samples was further inspected by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms measurement (Figure S6.5). The surface area of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF was up to 478 m² g⁻¹ based on the BET measurement. The pore size distribution curves show that the as-prepared catalysts possess dominate micropores of 1–2 nm and mesopores of 2–50 nm, which agrees well with SEM and TEM results. The mesoporous structure was expected to enhance mass transportation and utilization of active sites, causing the remarkable O₂ adsorption capacity of the catalyst under the O₂-saturated electrolyte.^{32, 35, 36} It is

noteworthy that no metallic particles exist in the $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ (Figure 6.1f). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of prepared samples show only two broad diffraction peaks assigned to the (002) and (100) planes of carbon (Figure S6.6). Peaks of the crystalline metal (oxide) species could not be resolved within the resolution of the used diffractometer.

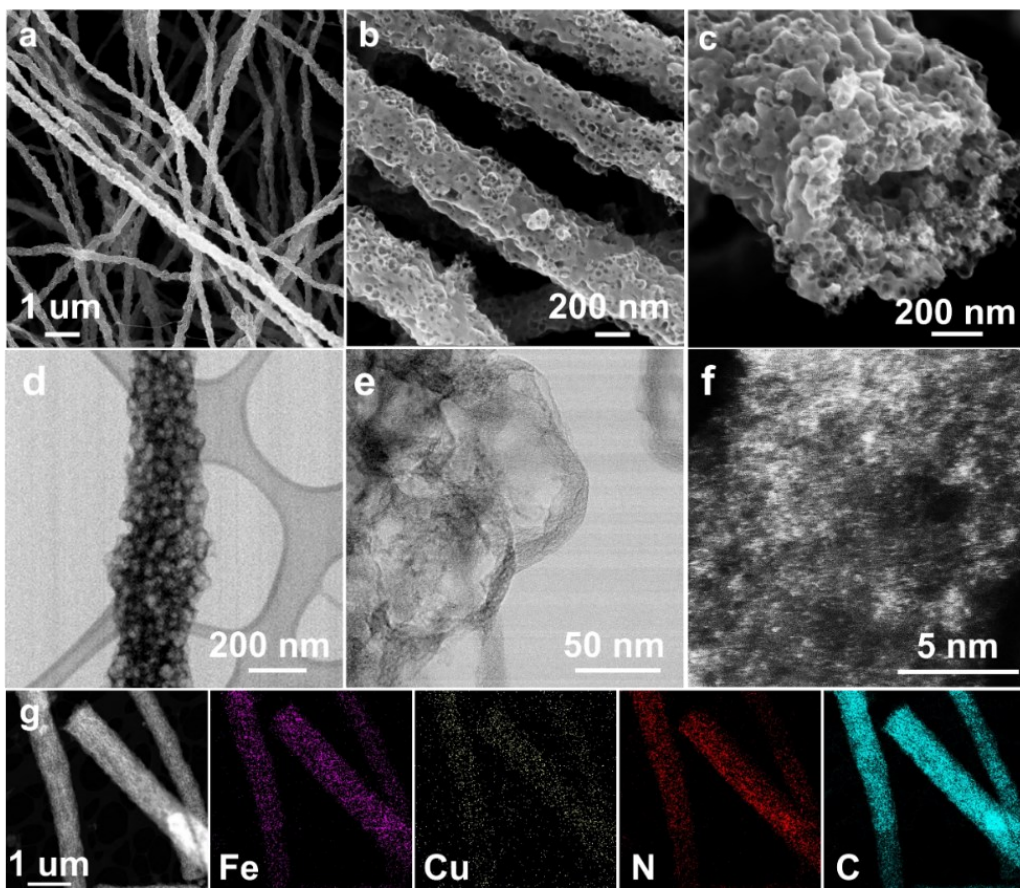


Figure 6. 1 (a) Low-resolution and (b-c) high-resolution SEM images of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$. (d-f) HAADF-STEM images of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$. (g) HAADF-STEM image and corresponding EDS mapping of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$.

Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) elemental mapping shows the coexistence of Fe, Cu, N, and C elements over $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ (Figure 6.1g). To figure out how the metal species exist in the CF, aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM was utilized. As shown in Figure 6.2a, the HRTEM

image of Cu–N@CF displays individual bright dots (marked with blue circles), indicating the atomic distribution of Cu atoms. The HAADF-STEM image in magnified scale further indicates the single atomic Cu in Cu–N@CF (Figure S6.7). After the CVD process, plentiful larger spots (marked with pink circles) were observed (Figure 6.2b), which can be assigned to Fe clusters. The high magnitude image more clearly shows the atomic cluster close to single atoms (Figure S6.8). The HADDF-STEM and EDS mapping images in magnified scale further reveal the existence of Fe clusters and homogenous distribution of Cu, N, and C elements (Figure S6.9). For Fe_x–N@CF, Fe clusters are randomly distributed on the carbon support (Figure S6.10). Furthermore, the atomic-resolution elemental analysis via electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) line scan clearly reveals that only Fe elements can be detected in the bright cluster (Figure S6.11). As shown in Figure S6.11a, the bright cluster is surrounded by single atoms. When the beam was moved to the cluster edge area, both Fe and Cu elements can be detected, but the intensity of the signal of Cu is much weaker than that of Fe, suggesting the single atomic Cu distribution. It is demonstrated that the bright cluster spots are comprised of only Fe, and Cu single atoms are distributed on the edge of Fe clusters. Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) tests determined that the mass loading of Fe and Cu in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF is about 2.23 and 0.57 wt%, respectively (Table S6.1). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was adopted to further detect the surface chemical composition of as-prepared catalysts. Signals for Fe, Cu, N and C elements are observed in the survey XPS spectrum of Fe_x/Cu–N@CF (Figure S6.12), consistent with the EDS elemental mapping. The high resolution of the N 1s spectra of prepared catalysts (Figure S6.13a) can deconvolute into pyridinic N (398.5 eV), metal–N (399.8 eV), pyrrolic N (400.8 eV) and graphitic N (401.5 eV).³⁷⁻³⁹ It is noted that the peak energy of metal–N bond obviously increased after the deposition of Fe atoms on the Cu–N@CF, demonstrating the formation of Fe–

N moieties in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$. Besides, as shown in Figure S6.13b, c, the binding energy of Fe shows a positive shift of approximately 0.5 eV, while Cu negatively shifts 0.5 eV, which could be attributed to the electronic interaction between Cu and Fe, indicating the higher oxidation state of Fe and lower valence of Cu in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ in comparison to that of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ and Cu-N@CF , respectively.⁴⁰

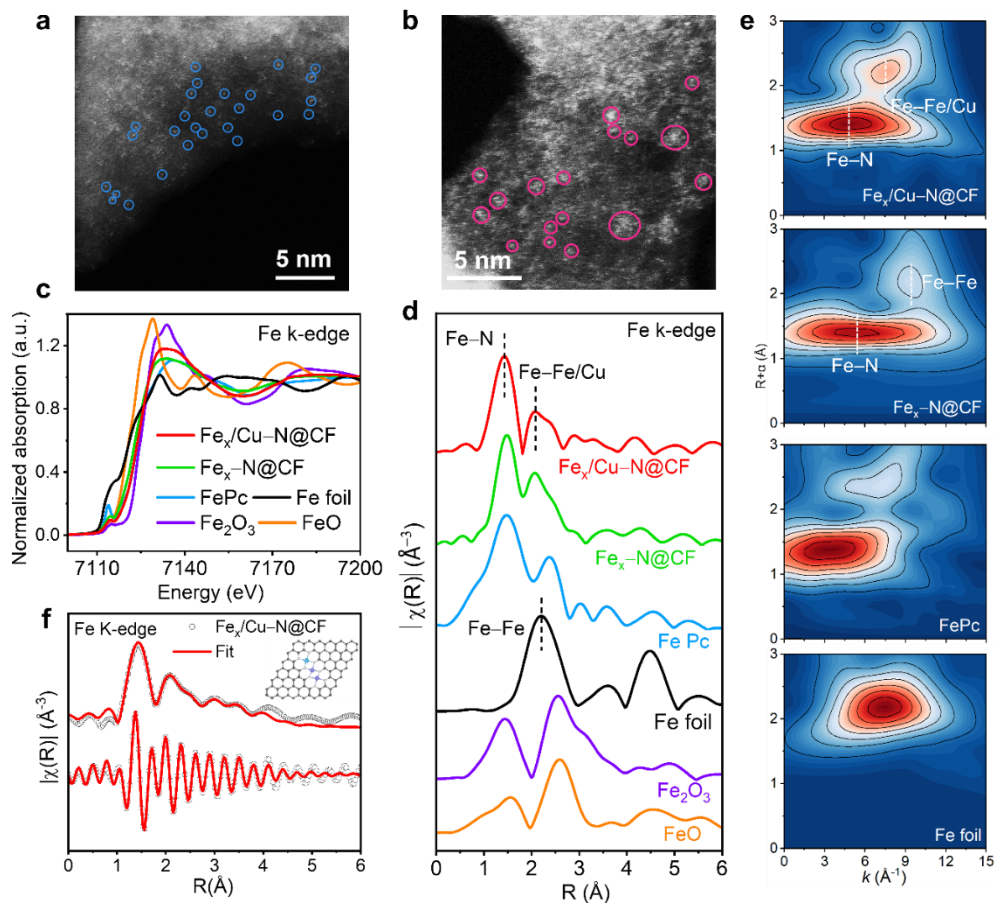


Figure 6. 2 HAADF-STEM images of (a) Cu-N@CF and (b) $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$. (c) Fe K-edge XANES spectra and (d) Fourier-transform EXAFS curves of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ and references (Fe Pc , Fe foil , Fe_2O_3 , FeO). (e) WT-EXAFS of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$, Fe Pc and Fe foil . (f) Fe K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ in R-space (FT magnitude and imaginary component) (inset is the corresponding structure model).

To resolve the chemical states and coordination configurations of Fe and Cu sites in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF, Fe_x–N@CF and Cu–N@CF, X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) measurements were conducted at the K-edge in reference to Fe foil, FePc, Fe₂O₃, FeO, Cu foil, CuPc, CuO and Cu₂O. The Fe K-edge XANES spectra (Figure 6.2c) show that the adsorption threshold position of Fe_x/Cu–N@CF and Fe_x–N@CF located between FeO and Fe₂O₃ reveals the oxidation state of Fe in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF and Fe_x–N@CF is between +2 and +3. Yet, the position of the adsorption threshold for Fe_x/Cu–N@CF shows a slight positive shift in comparison with Fe_x–N@CF, suggesting a somewhat higher Fe valence state in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF, in good agreement with results from XPS measurements. Notably, the pre-edge peak at around 7113 eV, arising from the square-planar or centrosymmetric FeN₄ configuration, shows a weaker intensity in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF than in Fe_x–N@CF and Fe Pc, indicating the decreased symmetry of FeN₄ in Fe_x/Cu–N@CF in the presence of Cu in contrast to Fe_x–N@CF.^{41, 42} In Figure 6.2d, the R-space EXAFS spectrum of Fe K-edge in Fe_x/Cu– N@CF presents a primary peak located at ~1.43 Å, corresponding to the Fe–N scattering, similar to that in Fe_x–N@CF and FePc. It is noteworthy that a secondary peak can be also observed at 2.10 Å in both Fe_x/Cu–N@CF and Fe_x–N@CF, but absent in FePc, implying the existence of coupling effect between Fe–metal atoms in addition to Fe–N bonding. The profiles of Fe_x/Cu–N@CF and Fe_x–N@CF are markedly different from Fe foil, suggesting no Fe particles in our prepared catalysts. Additionally, the Fe K-edge wavelet transform (WT)-EXAFS was also analyzed to identify the atomic configuration of back scatterers, which provides the resolution in both R-space and k-space. In the WT contour plots of reference samples (Fe Pc and Fe foil), the intensity maximum at R ≈ 2.4 Å and k ≈ 7.4 Å⁻¹ in Fe Pc assigns to the Fe–C distance of the second neighbor shell, which is different from that of Fe foil (R ≈ 2.2 Å and k ≈ 7.6 Å⁻¹) (Figure 6.2e).^{43,44} As shown in Fig. 2e, the WT contour plots in Fe_x/Cu–

N@CF exhibited two intensity maximums at 4.5 \AA^{-1} and 7.8 \AA^{-1} , corresponding to the Fe-N and Fe-metal scattering paths, respectively. It should be noted that the intensity of Fe-metal was obviously enhanced, and the position in k-space shifted with the addition of Cu in comparison to $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$, which could arise from the formation of coordination between Fe-Cu. But these two WT contour plots are clearly different from the Fe foil, indicating the isolated Fe atoms are in clusters rather than the Fe-based crystalline structure in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$. The Cu K-edge XANES profiles of the specimens (Figure S6.14a) exhibit the absorption edge of Cu in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ negatively shifted in comparison to Cu-N@CF , suggesting a lower Cu valency, as revealed by XPS spectra. In the $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and Cu-N@CF EXAFS spectra (Figure S6.14b), a predominant peak at about 1.45 \AA is very close to that in CuPc, confirming the presence of atomically dispersed Cu-N₄ sites. In addition, a Cu-metal peak ($\approx 2.43 \text{ \AA}$) shows up in the R-space EXAFS spectrum of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, but absent in Cu-N@CF , which could illustrate the coupling effect between Cu and Fe after the deposition of Fe. This was also confirmed by the WT contour plots (Figure S6.14c), where the intensity maximum of Cu-Fe appeared in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, but no Cu-metal peak can be observed in Cu-N@CF , further demonstrating the coupling effect of Cu-Fe in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$.

The EXAFS fitting analysis was performed to quantitatively determine the local structure of Fe in as-prepared materials. Based on the CVD synthesis process of FeCl_3 evaporation, FeCl_3 exists in the binuclear form of Fe_2Cl_6 in the gas phase, indicating the smallest Fe clusters could be Fe dimers.^{45,46} The Fe_2 dimer is considered as the model of ultra-small Fe clusters in different configurations (Figure S6.15a, b). Based on the simulated Fe K-edge spectra of EXAFS, the theoretically calculated $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$ was consistent with the experimental spectra (Figure S6.16a-d, Table S6.2). Therefore, the proposed $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$ model is suggested as the most possible structure

of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$. In addition, the EXAFS spectrum of Cu-N@CF can be perfectly fitted to the proposed Cu-N shell with the coordination number of 4, indicating the formation of Cu-N_4 moieties in Cu-N@CF (Figure S6.15c, Figure S6.17 and Table S6.3). To confirm the atomic configurations of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, density functional theory (DFT) was used to deduce the possible structure of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N-C}$ (Figure S6.18). Among these three types of configurations, Cu K-edge EXAFS fitting curves based on $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ model fit the experimental data best in R-space (Figure S6.19, 20a and Table S6.4-6.5). In addition, the Fe K-edge fitting curves based on $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ model also match well with the experimental data in R-space (Figure 6.2f, Table S6.6). The Cu/Fe K-edge fitting curves exhibit very similar oscillation to the experimental spectra in k-space (Figure S6.20b, c), further confirming the rationality of the selected $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ model.

The computational calculations have made XANES spectroscopy able to confirm or discard a structure model for the environment of the X-ray absorbing atom, thus forming a fundamental diagnostic tool in condensed matter physics and chemistry.⁴⁷ Therefore, DFT guided XANES modelling is also used to verify the Cu-Fe coordination configuration, based on the predicted structural models ($\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$, $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-2}$ and $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$). For Cu-K edge (Figure S6.21a, b, ESI†), the $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ reproduces most of the features of experimental spectrum upon “a” the chemical shift for XANES edge jump, “b” whiteness peak drifting and “c” signal intensity on high energy wing of whiteness. The $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$ is least supported by XANES modeling, considering the feature “d”. Moreover, the simulated Fe K-edge XANES spectra show that $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ well reproduces the pre-edge feature (Figure S6.21c). While the $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$ and $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-2}$ exhibit whiteness intensity loss and whiteness peak drifting. Thus, a better consistency between experimental and simulated $\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-3}$ XANES

spectra on Fe K-edge was obtained. The simulated XANES on Cu/Fe K edge again evidenced that Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆-3 could be the most reasonable structure model in Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

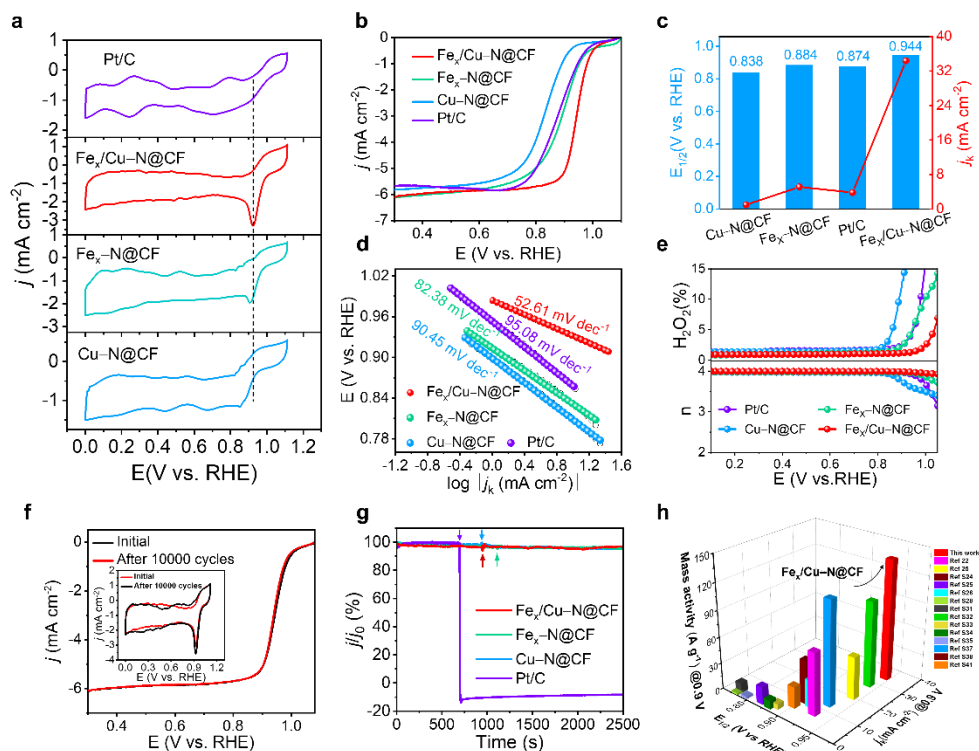


Figure 6. 3 (a) CV curves of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF, Cu-N@CF and Pt/C in O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution at a sweep rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. (b) LSV curves recorded in 0.1 M KOH with a rotation rate of 1600 rpm. (c) E_{1/2} and j_k at 0.85 V. (d) The corresponding Tafel plots. (e) Electron transfer number and peroxide yield calculated from RRDE measurements. (f) LSV and CV curves of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF before and after 10000 potential cycles at the scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ with the rotation speed of 1600 and 0 rpm, respectively. (g) Methanol tolerance tests. (h) The comparison of performance to literature.

6.2.2 Electrocatalytic ORR performance

To verify the oxygen reduction reactivity of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF with single Cu atoms functionalized Fe nanoclusters, the electrocatalytic performance of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF in O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution was first demonstrated in comparison to Fe_x-N@CF, Cu-N@CF and commercial Pt/C (20%) by Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and Linear scan voltammetry (LSV) measurements. The CV of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF curve reveals a significant reduction peak at 0.93 V while Cu-N@CF and Fe_x-N@CF show a lower one at 0.88 and 0.91 V (Figure 6.3a), suggesting the significant role of coexistence of Fe and Cu in boosting ORR electrocatalytic activity. In addition, the LSV curves recorded at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ and a rotating rate of 1600 rpm further present the highest activity of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF with the most positive onset potential ($E_{\text{onset}} = 1.03$ V) and half-wave potential ($E_{1/2} = 0.944$ V) among all investigated catalysts (Figure 6.3b), outperforming the catalysts containing only Fe_x-N moieties ($E_{\text{onset}} = 1.01$ V, $E_{1/2} = 0.884$ V) or only Cu-N moieties ($E_{\text{onset}} = 0.95$ V, $E_{1/2} = 0.838$ V) and even commercial Pt/C ($E_{\text{onset}} = 0.997$ V, $E_{1/2} = 0.874$ V), indicating that the adjacent Cu-N could remarkably enhance the ORR activity of Fe_x-N. As shown in Figure 6.3c, Fe_x/Cu-N@CF also shows the highest kinetic current density (j_k) of 34.37 mA cm⁻² at 0.9 V, compared to Pt/C (3.81 mA cm⁻²), Fe_x-N@CF (5.12 mA cm⁻²), and Cu-N@CF (0.97 mA cm⁻²), manifesting the fast ORR kinetic process. Moreover, Fe_x/Cu-N@CF shows the smallest Tafel slope (52.61 mV dec⁻¹) among all prepared catalysts (Figure 6.3d). Koutecky-Levich (K-L) plots were used to probe the electron transfer number during ORR process (Figure S6.22).⁴⁸ The results suggest that the first-order reaction kinetics of the dissolved oxygen and the electron transfer number is $n \approx 4$, which signifies a high 4e⁻ selectivity for reduction of O₂ to H₂O. The rotating ring-disk electrode (RRDE) measurements (Figure 6.3e) suggest that the H₂O₂ yield of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF remains below 2% over the potential range of 0.1 to 0.8 V, where the direct four-electron transfer mediated ORR process is confirmed again in alkaline media ($n \approx 3.99$). The

electron transfer number for other investigated samples is 3.98 ($\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$), 3.96 (Cu-N@CF) and 3.97 (Pt/C). The electrochemical impedance spectra (EIS) plots reveal the smallest charge-transfer resistance of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ during the ORR process, suggesting the enhanced reaction kinetics by adjacent Cu-N (Figure S6.23).

In addition to the high activity, a desirable ORR catalyst should also be able to achieve substantial long-term stability. This was first assessed by the continuous repetitive CV cycling. As evidenced by Figure 6.3f, the $E_{1/2}$ of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ only negatively shifts ≈ 6 mV after 10000 continuous potential cycles in O_2 -saturated 0.1M KOH. The outstanding stability of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ is also supported by the chronoamperometry measurement with 95% current retention after 72 h continuous operation (Figure S6.24). The high-resolution TEM and XRD analysis show that the clusters and single atoms still can be observed on the carbon supports without forming any crystalline species after the long-term stability test (Figure S6.25a-c). The R-space EXAFS spectra of Fe K-edge in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ still present a primary peak of Fe-N and a secondary peak of Fe-Fe/Cu (Figure S6.25d), and Cu-N and Cu-Fe peaks can also be observed in Cu K-edge (Figure S25e), indicating the preserved atomic Fe clusters and Cu single atoms in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ after long-term electrolysis. All these results reflect the structural robustness of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ during electrocatalysis process. Furthermore, $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ possesses a superior methanol tolerance with a negligible current drop, while a sharp current recession of commercial Pt/C catalyst occurs after methanol crossover (Figure 6.3g), implying strong resistance to poisoning in alkaline electrolyte. In comparison to the performance metrics of literature benchmarks, our catalyst is superior to most recently reported Fe-N based ORR electrocatalysts (Figure 6.3h and Table S6.9). The ORR performance was also examined in acidic media. $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ shows an outstanding ORR activity with $E_{1/2}$ of 0.815 V, superior to the $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ and Cu-N@CF , close to that of

commercial Pt/C (0.845 V) with only -30 mV of disparity (Figure S6.27). In addition, the stability test of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF and Pt/C was conducted in the O₂-saturated 0.1M HClO₄ solution, where Fe_x/Cu-N@CF shows better stability than commercial Pt/C in the acidic media (Figure S6.28). These results suggest its potential application in acidic solution. It is worth mentioning that Cu-interacted Fe clusters dominate on Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, while Fe clusters without Cu modification could exist based on the microscopic characterizations. As we discussed above, Fe_x/Cu-N@CF shows much enhanced electrocatalytic activity in comparison to Fe_x-N@C, which indicates Cu modified-Fe clusters mainly contribute to the activity enhancement, the effect of Fe clusters without Cu modification on activity enhancement should be limited.

6.2.3 Performance in ZABs

Inspired by the outstanding ORR performance of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF catalyst in alkaline electrolyte, a two-electrode primary Zn-air battery (ZAB) was assembled using Fe_x/Cu-N@CF catalyst as air cathode and a Zn plate as the anode for the practical application, where the open-circuit voltage is up to 1.4 V, the peak-power density is 156 mW cm⁻², superior to commercial Pt/C (98.7 mW cm⁻², Figure 6.4a). In Figure 6.4b, the specific capacities of as-assembled ZABs normalized by the mass of consumed Zn were estimated by the galvanostatic discharge at the current density of 100 mA cm⁻². The specific capacity of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF was calculated to be 1110.4 mA h g⁻¹ with a corresponding energy density of 1032.7 Wh kg⁻¹, which is higher than that of commercial Pt/C (1076.2 mA h g⁻¹, 925.5 Wh kg⁻¹). The solid-state ZABs were further fabricated using Fe_x/Cu-N@CF membrane as the air cathode directly and poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA)-KOH-Zn (CH₃COO)₂ hydrogel as the electrolyte, delivering an open-circuit voltage of 1.34 V (Figure 6.4c). These two assembled solid-state ZABs in a series connection can effectively power a series of LED lamps, demonstrating the promising practical application in power energy devices. As shown in Figure

6.4d, the galvanostatic discharge curves were first obtained continuously at different current densities (5, 10 and 20 mA cm⁻²) each with 18 h discharge voltage plateaus of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF-based ZAB. The discharge voltage plateaus can be well recovered when the current density is returned to 10 mA cm⁻², continuously discharging for 100 h with only 70 mV of voltage decay, signifying a good rate capability. To further examine the electrochemical stability of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF in the rechargeable battery, the cycling performance of rechargeable ZAB with Fe_x/Cu-N@CF was investigated by long-term galvanostatic charge-discharge tests with a duration of 20 min per cycle. Considering promoting the efficiency for oxygen evolution reaction (OER) during charging, the commercial IrO₂ was additionally added into the catalytic layers of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.^{49,50} The rechargeable ZAB was assembled by using Fe_x/Cu-N@CF + IrO₂ as the cathode and Zn foil as the anode. From Figure 6.4e, we can observe the negligible change of both charge and discharge voltage by over 240 h at 5 mA cm⁻². Then the cycling performance of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF + IrO₂-based ZAB was continuously examined at 10 mA cm⁻² for 160 h, where the discharge potential of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF cathode barely changes. These results confirm the remarkable stability of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF in practical ZAB.

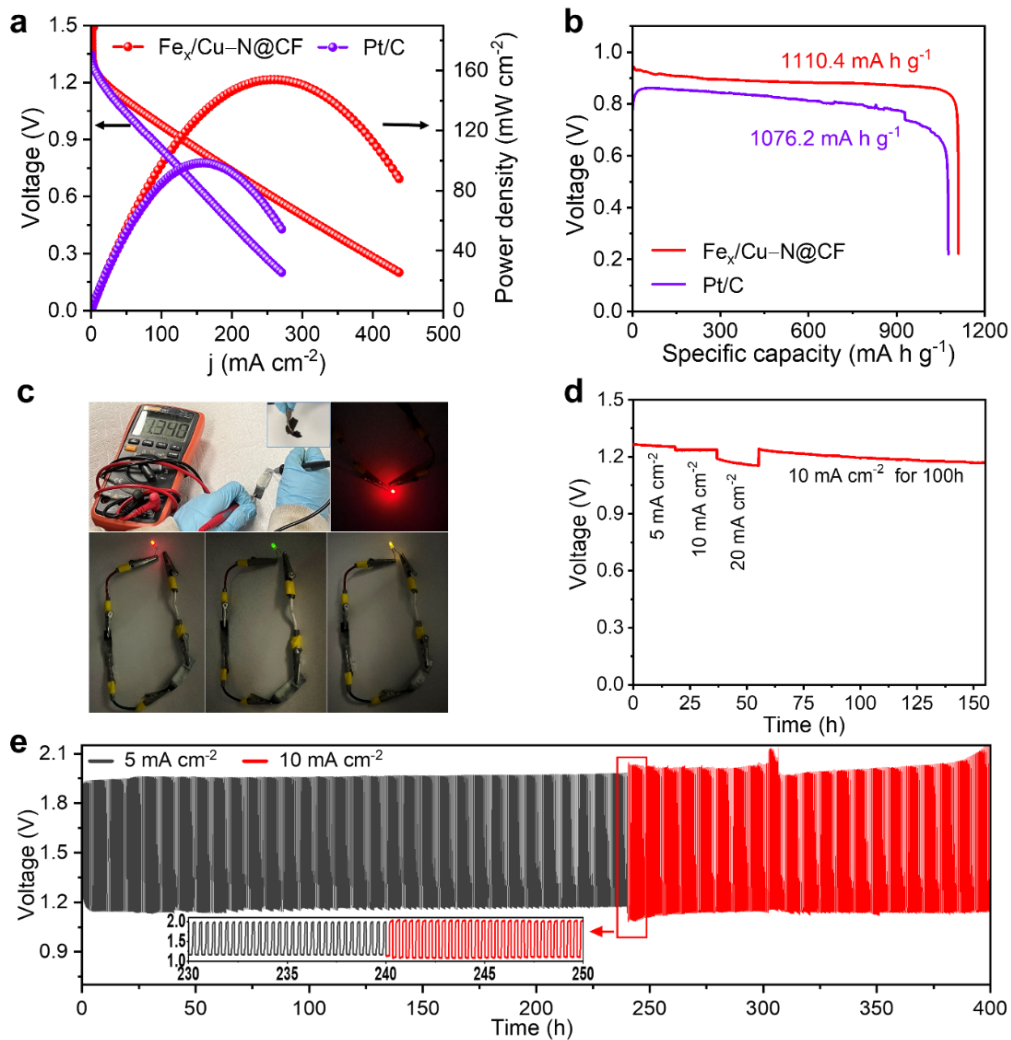


Figure 6. 4 (a) Polarization and power density curves of the primary Zn–air batteries of the $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and Pt/C catalyst in O_2 -saturated 6 M KOH solution and 0.2 M zinc acetate. (b) Specific capacity normalized by the consumed Zn of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and Pt/C at 100 mA cm⁻². (c) LED lamps lighted by the solid-state ZABs. (d) Galvanostatic discharge curves at different current densities (5, 10 and 20 mA cm⁻²). (e) Galvanostatic discharge–charge cycle profiles of the Zn-air battery based on $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF} + \text{IrO}_2$ at 5 mA cm⁻¹ and 10 mA cm⁻¹.

6.2.4 Theoretical analysis

To further shed light on the critical role of Cu-N₄ in boosting ORR activity of atomic Fe clusters, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed. The Fe₂ dimer is considered as the model of ultra-small Fe clusters, considering computational resources and time. Based on the synchrotron XAFS experimental data and fitting results, we used Cu-N₄, Fe₂-N₆, and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ graphene as the model reference to represent the difference of Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF, and Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, respectively (Figure 6.5a, b). Generally, the absorption of O₂ and O-O bond cleavage are key factors determining the ORR performance of metal-N-based catalysts.⁵¹ The O-O bond length is related to the activation of O₂ molecules, and metal-O bond length reflects the strength of interaction between *O₂ and metal-N site. For Cu-N@CF, the O₂ molecule is adsorbed on the Cu-N₄ site in a superoxo-like configuration with O-O bond length of only 1.26 Å and Cu-O bond length of 2.44 Å (Figure S6.29), indicating the interaction between Cu atom and oxygen is under-activated on Cu-N₄.⁵² This could limit the kinetic rate because the following protonation of O₂* requires extra energy.⁵³ In contrast, a peroxo-like adsorption is formed on Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ both containing Fe₂-N₆ site. The Fe-O bond lengths over these two structures are distributed between 1.83–1.85 Å, which are shorter than Cu-O bond over Cu-N₄ (2.44 Å). Moreover, the peroxo-like adsorption elongates the O-O bond (1.39 Å). Therefore, the Fe₂-N₆ facilitates the activation of O₂ molecule due to the unique adjacent Fe₂ structure, which is consistent with previous reports.^{22, 54} Since *OOH is another important reaction intermediate of ORR, the adsorption configuration of *OOH over Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ was also checked (Figure 6.5b). Compared with the Fe₂-N₆, the adjacent Cu-N strengthens bridge-cis adsorption of *OOH on Fe atoms, where both adjacent Fe atoms in Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ bind an O atom of OOH* to form dual-side adsorption which stretches the O-O bond to a slightly longer distance (1.48 Å), manifesting an easier O-O bond cleavage.⁵⁵ He et al. reported that the introduction of single Cu

atoms (CuN₄) to single Fe–N₄ sites manipulated the magnetic moment, exhibiting reduced ΔG_{OH^*} , benefitting the catalytic activity.²⁷ In our work, the proposed reaction pathways are shown in Figure S6.30.

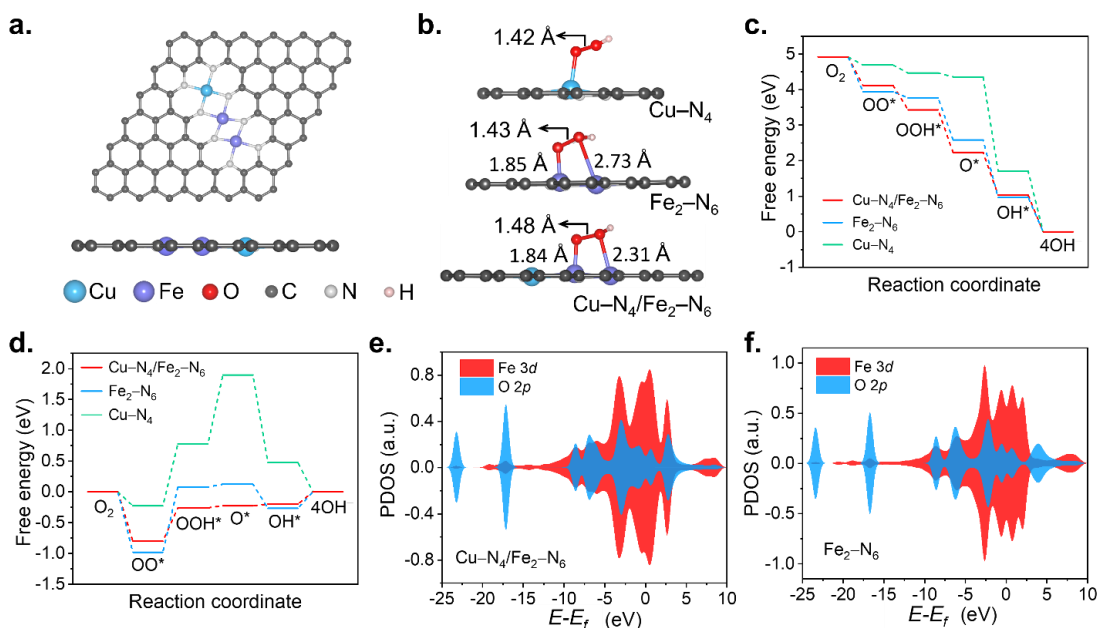


Figure 6. 5 (a) Constructed Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ model for the calculations. (b) Optimized geometry of OOH adsorption configuration on Cu–N₄, Fe₂–N₆, and Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆. (c) ORR free energy diagrams for Cu–N₄, Fe₂–N₆ and Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ at U=0 V. (d) ORR free energy diagrams for Cu–N₄, Fe₂–N₆, and Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ at U=1.23 V. Fe 3d and O 2p PDOS of Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ (e) and Fe₂–N₆ (f) after OOH* adsorption.

The intrinsic activity of the catalysts was further evaluated by comparing the free energy of the intermediate steps of the electrochemical reactions. The Gibbs free energy diagrams for ORR over Cu–N₄, Fe₂–N₆ and Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ were then calculated and shown in Figure 6.5c. At U = 0 V, the energy pathway for all these three samples is downhill, indicating a spontaneous and exothermic process. According to Noskov et al., when detailed kinetic data is not available, the largest of the free energy differences in the reaction mechanism can be used as an indicator of the activation

barrier of the rate limiting step.⁵⁶ Upon increasing the potential to 1.23 V, the dissociative step from OOH* to O* on Cu-N₄ structure has the largest free energy difference as 1.12 eV (Figure 6.5d). This can explain the poor ORR activity observed on Cu-N@CF. For Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆, the protonation of O₂* step has the largest free energy difference, instead of the dissociation of OOH*. Moreover, the free energy difference between OOH* and OO* on Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ (0.54 eV) is much lower compared on pure Fe₂-N₆ (1.06 eV), suggesting that the introduction of Cu-N₄ site facilitates the protonation of O₂*, significantly boosting ORR activity of Fe₂-N₆. To further elucidate how the Cu-N₄ site affects the electronic structure of Fe₂-N₆ and the consequent interactions with ORR intermediates, the projected density of states (PDOS) from the 3*d* state of Fe atom in Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ was investigated. As observed in Figure S6.31, the *d*-band center of Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ (-0.96 eV) negatively shifts to lower energy level compared to Fe₂-N₆ (-0.92 eV). Lee et al.⁵⁷ suggested that such slight downshift of *d*-band center might increase the filling degree of antibonding orbitals and thus in turn weaken the adsorption of O₂*. As such, the introduction of Cu-N₄ site can potentially increase the filling degree of partially occupied *d* orbitals of Fe₂-N₆ and lead to weakened binding strength of the overly strong adsorption of O₂*, consequently facilitating the ORR process. Since the formation of OOH* is the reaction step with the largest reaction free energy difference for both Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆. The PDOS for *d* orbitals of Fe and *p* orbitals of O for the two structures after OOH* adsorption was calculated. As shown in Figure 6.5e, f, the overlap (especially for energy level from 2.5-5 eV) between *d* orbitals of Fe and *p* orbitals of O over Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ is significantly larger than that over Fe₂-N₆. This could be an indicator for a stronger σ -bond between the *d* orbital of Fe and *p* orbital of the O in OOH on Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆, which strengthens the adsorption of OOH* and weakens the O-O bond.⁵⁸ This could facilitate the O-O bond breaking, which is in agreement with

the adsorption configuration analysis. These comparative studies show that the introduction of Cu–N₄ modulates the electronic structure of Fe₂–N₆ sites, and at the same time, reduces the reaction free energy of the protonation of O₂* step to enhance the ORR catalytic activity. A larger model consisting of Fe₄–N₁₁ with single Cu atoms located on the edges (Figure S6.32) was further investigated. As shown in Figure S6.33, the energy profile of this large model is similar to the Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ mode, with a similar limiting step of 0.62 eV (the reaction energy for *OO to *OOH). This suggests that the combination of multiple Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ models could potentially form a large Fe cluster in the center with single Cu atoms on the edges, while still maintaining active sites on Fe atoms that are enhanced by single Cu atoms.

Based on the findings and results from this study, it is worth mentioning that our work differs from some previous studies on FeN₄-based bimetallic catalysts for ORR application, in which secondary metal sites were introduced to regulate the electronic configuration of the FeN₄ sites.²³⁻²⁷ However, the intrinsic poor activation of O–O* on FeN₄ could still result in slow catalytic kinetics. In addition, most reported M–N–C catalysts are prepared by direct pyrolysis of zeolitic imidazolate frameworks (ZIFs) with micropores, which leads to limited active site exposure and mass transfer.^{32, 33} In contrast, we here demonstrated Cu–N₄ sites functionalizing atomic Fe clusters on hierarchical porous carbon nanofibers (Fe_x/Cu–N@CNF), which shows reduced O₂* protonation reaction free energy and boosted O–O cleavage during the catalysis process. Moreover, the hierarchical porous construction possesses interconnected micropores and mesopores, enabling abundant accessible active sites and fast mass transport. As a result, this unique atomic catalyst exhibits outstanding catalytic activity and durability for ORR, superior to most recently reported transition metallic ORR electrocatalysts. This work could pave a new avenue for the design of earth-abundant metal-based catalysts for efficient ORR.

6.3 Conclusion

In summary, we for the first time have reported atomic Fe clusters functionalized by single Cu atoms anchoring on interconnected porous CFs ($\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$) through electrospinning and subsequent pyrolysis process. The configurations of atomic Fe clusters and single Cu sites in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ have been identified by HAADF-STEM, XAFS, and DFT calculations. The unique atomic interaction between single Cu atoms and Fe clusters renders significantly enhanced ORR catalytic activity compared to monometal counterparts. DFT calculations show that the increased filling degree of d orbitals of Fe clusters with the introduction of Cu-N_4 sites in $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ leads to a reduced energy barrier of rate determining step (O_2^* protonation) in comparison to $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$. The strong σ bonds resulted from the overlap of the Fe d orbital and p orbital of O in OOH enhance the adsorption of OOH^* , facilitating the O–O bond breaking. Thus, the boosted intrinsic activity of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ results from the optimized oxygen intermediate adsorption and strong driving force for O–O bond breaking in OOH^* . As for practical applications, the free-standing $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ membrane was successfully incorporated as an effective air cathode in a Zn–air battery device with long-term work stability. This work paves the way to optimizing transition-metal cluster catalysts via heterogeneous single metal atoms to achieve high-efficient and stable ORR catalysts for metal–air batteries, fuel cells and other renewable energy devices.

6.4 References

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6.5 Supporting information

6.5.1 Experimental section

Synthesis of Cu/ZIFs-8. 1.041 g $\text{Zn}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 0.0954 g $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were dissolved in 8 mL deionized (DI) water. 22.7 g 2-methylimidazole was dissolved in 80 mL DI water. Then these two aqueous solutions were purified by filter paper before mixing. The purified nitrate solution was subsequently poured into the above 80 mL of the solution containing 22.7 g 2-

methylimidazole with magnetically stirring for 5 min at room temperature. The products were collected by centrifugation (12000 rpm, 30 min) and washed by DI water at least three times. The product was dried at 60 °C overnight in a vacuum drying oven.

Synthesis of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, Cu-N@CF and Fe_x-N@CF. The main membrane was synthesized via an electrospinning process. First, 330 mg of polyacrylonitrile (PAN, Mw = 150,000), 770 mg of Cu/ZIFs-8 and 200 mg of melamine were dissolved in 8 mL of N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF) in a round bottom flask via vigorously stirring at 60 °C overnight to get a homogenous precursor mixture. The precursor solution was diverted into a syringe with a stainless tip needle for the subsequent electrospun process. The processing condition was 0.7 mL/h of solution flow rate, 21 kV of applied potential and 15 cm of spin distance. The as-spun fibers were peroxidized in the air at 250 °C for 1 h, following carbonized under Ar gas at a high temperature of 900 °C for 2 h with 5 °C min⁻¹ heating rate. After this carbonization, the atomically dispersed Cu anchored N-doped porous carbon fibers (Cu-N@CF) was formed. Then, the deposition of Fe atoms was conducted on the above resultant material. In a typical process, 40 mg of anhydrous FeCl₃ was placed in a boat sitting in the tube upstream of the gas flow; 40 mg of the carbonized material was placed in another boat sitting in the tube downstream of the gas flow. The furnace was heated to 750 °C with a ramping rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ and maintained at this temperature for 3 h under the continuous Ar gas flow (100 mL min⁻¹ of flow rate). Then the Fe_x/Cu-N@CF was collected. Fe_x-N@CF was prepared in a similar way by using pristine ZIF-8 for electrospinning.

Materials characterization. The morphologies of prepared materials were studied via Zeiss Sigma 300 VP-Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM) and Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) on a JEOL JEMARM200CF equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS). Atomic-resolution electron energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS) images were

taken with a Titan Cubed Themis G20 TEM equipped with a highly sensitive Super-X energy dispersive X-ray detector system (operated at 300 kV). The crystal structure was characterized by X-ray diffractometer (XRD, D8 discover diffraction system equipped with Cu K α radiation (40 kV, 44 mA)) at a scan rate of 5° min⁻¹. Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were collected on an Autosorb Quantachrome 1MP at 77 K. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were performed on Kratos Analytical AXIS 165 with a monochromatic Al K α source to study the chemical compositions. The C 1 s photoelectron peak at 284.6 eV as reference was used for spectrometer calibration. The Fe/Cu ratio was determined by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) on Thermo iCAP6300 Duo ICP_OES.

XAFS measurements and data analysis. The local structures of the investigated materials were analyzed by measuring the Fe K-edge and Cu K-edge X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data at the Hard X-ray microanalysis beamline (HXMA-061D) of the Canadian Light Source. The X-ray absorption spectra were acquired in fluorescence mode using a Si(111) double-crystal monochromator to range the X-ray energy from 5–40 keV. The ring current is 250 mA. A He-filled Oxford straight ion chamber detector was used to monitor the incident X-ray, and the fluorescence yield signal was captured using a 32-element Ge detector. The energy was calibrated using Fe and Cu plate reference samples. The obtained XAFS raw data were normalized, background-subtracted, and Fourier transformed based on the standard procedures using the ATHENA program.^{1, 2} The k²-weighted EXAFS spectra were obtained by normalizing to the edge-jump step and subtracting the post-edge background from the overall absorption. Then, $\chi(k)$ data of Fe and Cu K edge in the k-space was Fourier transformed to real (R) space using a Hanning window ($dk = 1.0 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) to separate the EXAFS contributions from different coordination shells in k range 3–11 \AA^{-1} . The

EXAFS fitting analysis was performed using the ARTEMIS program according to standard procedures to get the quantitative structural parameters.² The WT of EXAFS data was performed by using the Hama Fortran code. The parameters were R range: 1–3 Å, k range: 0–15 Å⁻¹. Morlet function with $\kappa = 10$, $\sigma = 1$ was used as the mother wavelet to provide the overall distribution.^{3,4} The theoretical calculation for XANES data was performed with the FDMNES code under the Molecule model with “Quadrupole” and “SCF” included in the calculation.^{5,6}

Electrochemical measurements of ORR. Electrochemical measurements were conducted by BioLogic SP-300 electrochemical test station. A Pine instrument (PINE Research MSR Rotator, model: AFMSRCE, USA) was used for ORR measurements by a standard three-electrode system in an O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH or 0.1 M HClO₄ electrolyte. A standard three-electrode system comprises working, reference, and counter electrodes in a batch-type electrochemical cell.^{7,8} In our work, a graphite rod and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were employed as the counter electrode and the reference electrode, respectively. For the preparation of the working electrode, 5 mg of catalyst was dispersed in the mixture of 495 μ L isopropyl alcohol (IPA), 495 μ L DI water and 10 μ L Nafion (5 wt%) under sonication to form a homogeneous catalyst ink. Then 10 μ L of this catalyst ink was dipped on a glassy carbon disk of RDE with a diameter of 0.5 cm, followed by drying at room temperature. The total weight loading of catalysts for both as-prepared catalysts and commercial Pt/C (20 wt%, Sigma Aldrich) was 0.255 mg cm⁻². The ORR test at an RDE was conducted in O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH electrolytes with varying rotating speeds from 400 to 2025 rpm at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. The onset potential was defined as a potential value corresponding to 5 % of the diffusion-limited current density. 10000 potential cycles were conducted to examine the electrocatalytic durability at the sweep speed of 50 mV s⁻¹. The ORR potentials were calculated into the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) by the following equation:

$$E \text{ (vs. RHE)} = E \text{ (vs. SCE)} + 0.059 \times \text{pH} + 0.241 \quad (\text{S6.1})$$

The electron transfer number (n) per oxygen molecule for oxygen reduction can be determined by the Koutechy–Levich equations (S6.2-6.3):

$$\frac{1}{J} = \frac{1}{J_L} + \frac{1}{J_K} = \frac{1}{B\omega^{0.5}} + \frac{1}{J_K} \quad (\text{S6.2})$$

$$B = 0.62nFC_0(D_0)^{3/2}\nu^{-1/6} \quad (\text{S6.3})$$

where J is the measured current density, J_L and J_K are the diffusion- and kinetic-limiting current densities, ω is the electrode rotation rate expressed in angular velocity (rad s^{-1}), n is the transferred electron number, F is the Faraday constant (96485 C mol^{-1}), C_0 is the concentration of O_2 in the electrolyte ($1.26 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$), D_0 is the diffusion coefficient of O_2 ($1.93 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), and ν is the kinetic viscosity of 0.1M KOH ($0.01 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$).⁹

RRDE measurements were carried out to investigate the electron selectivity of the as-prepared samples with the same catalyst loading as RDE measurement. The model of the RRDE setup is AFE6R1PT with disk OD = 5.0 mm, ring OD = 7.50 mm, ring ID = 6.50 mm. The disk electrode was scanned cathodically under the same condition of RDE at a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} and the ring potential was kept at 1.5 V vs RHE. The rotation rate is 1600 rpm. The following equations (S6.4-6.5) were used to calculate hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) yield and electron transfer number (n).

$$n = \frac{4I_D}{I_D + I_R/N} \quad (\text{S6.4})$$

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\% = \frac{2I_R/N}{I_D + I_R/N} \times 100 \quad (\text{S6.5})$$

where I_D is disk current, I_R is ring current, and $N \approx 0.25$ is the current collection efficiency of the Pt ring, which was provided by the manufacturer.

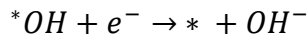
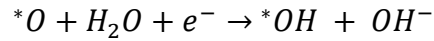
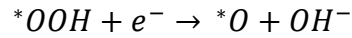
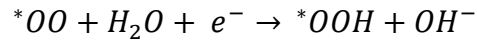
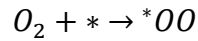
Zn–air battery (ZAB) performance test. The ZAB tests were carried out using a homemade electrochemical cell. The ability of the electrocatalysts to serve as an air electrode in ZAB was evaluated under ambient conditions. A polished zinc foil was used as the anode. 5 mg of the prepared catalyst was dispersed in 1 mL DI water, 3 mL IPA and 1 mL Nafion via probe sonication. The cathode was prepared by drop casting the catalyst inks onto the Gas Diffusion Layer (GDL) of carbon fiber paper with a mass loading of 0.5 mg cm^{-2} . For the primary Zn-air batteries, the electrolyte consists of 6 M KOH and 0.2 M zinc acetate dehydrate. $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF+IrO}_2$ (w:w = 1:1) ink was prepared in the same way for the long-term charge-discharge cycle stability test of the ZAB device in that it was performed with a period of 10 min charge and 10 min discharge. For all-solid-state Zn–air battery assembly, the gel polymer electrolyte was prepared as follows. Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA, 1 g) was dissolved in 10 mL DI water under continuous stirring at $95 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ to form a homogeneous gel. Then 1 mL of 18 M KOH containing 0.2 M zinc acetate dehydrate was added dropwise to form a homogeneous viscous solution. The as-prepared $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ film and zinc foil were placed on the two sides of the PVA gel, followed by pressed Ni foam as the current collector. The reference cathode was made in the similar way using commercial Pt/C or Pt/C+IrO₂ (w:w=1:1).

6.5.2 Computational methods

DFT calculations were performed with the periodic plane-wave implementation (with the plane-wave cutoff energy of 450 eV) of DFT using the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package (VASP)¹⁰⁻¹³ with the projector augmented wave (PAW) scheme.^{14,15} The Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange correlation functional¹⁶ with the vdW-DFT^{17,18} was used as the Generalized gradient approximation (GGA). $3 \times 3 \times 1$ K-point sampling and within the Monkhorst-Pack scheme was used for integration over the Brillouin zone. The convergence criteria for total energy and inter-

atomic forces of all calculations were 10^{-6} eV per unit cell and 0.01 eV \AA^{-1} , respectively. A 15 \AA vacuum thickness above the top layer was used to prevent the interaction between repeated periodic unit cells. To obtain the free energies of the ORR reaction intermediates, the entropy, zero-point energy and enthalpy correction were computed from statistical thermodynamics for all adsorbed structures, while those values for gas-phase molecules were taken from the standard thermodynamics NIST-JANAF table.¹⁹ The reaction energy of the entire ORR process is calculated according to the method proposed by Norskov et al.²⁰

The four-electron ORR pathway was simulated as follows:



The asterisk * represents the adsorption site.

For each reaction step, the Gibbs reaction free energy is calculated as

$$\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta ZPE - T\Delta S - eU + \Delta E_{pH}$$

where ΔE is the reaction energy between the reactants and products; ΔZPE is the change in zero-point energy due to the reaction; T is the temperature and ΔS is the change in entropy ; $-eU$ includes the bias effect on all states involving the electron in the electrode, where e is the

transferred charge and U is the electrode potential; ΔE_{pH} is the energy correction due to pH value of the electrolyte, which depends on the concentration of H^+ :

$$\Delta G_{pH} = -kT \ln[H^+]$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant and T is the temperature. The Gibbs reaction free energy were calculated for each reaction step.

The free energy of gas-phase O_2 molecule was determined as

$$G_{O_2(g)} = 4 \times 1.23eV + 2G_{H_2O} - 2G_{H_2}$$

The zero-point energies were obtained by vibrational frequency calculations and the zero-point energy of the adsorption site was assumed negligible. The thermodynamic properties of gas-phase molecules were taken from the standard thermodynamics NIST-JANAF table, and the entropies of adsorbates and adsorption site were assumed to be negligible. All reported free energies of gas phase and reaction free energies were computed at 20 °C.

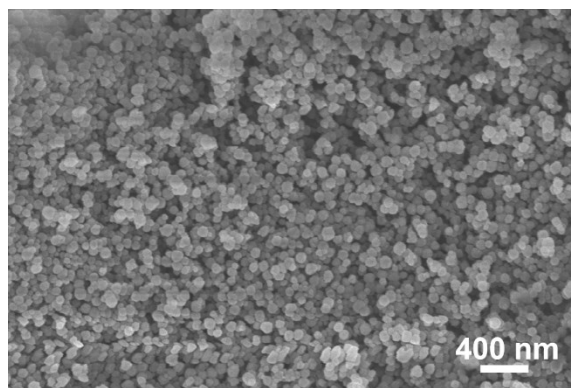


Figure S6. 1 SEM image of Cu/ZIF-8.

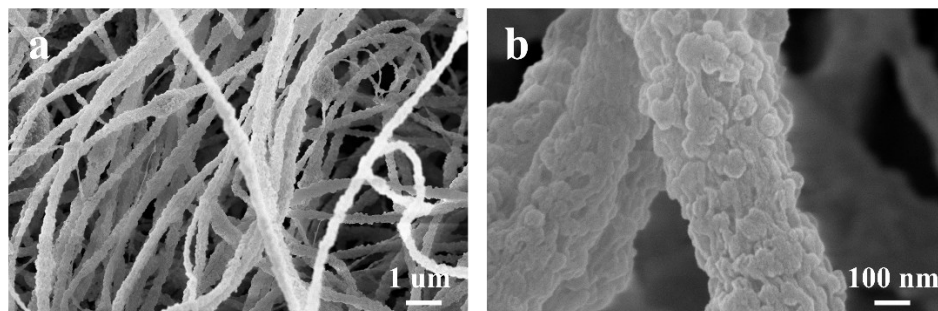


Figure S6. 2 SEM images of Cu/ZIF-8@PF.

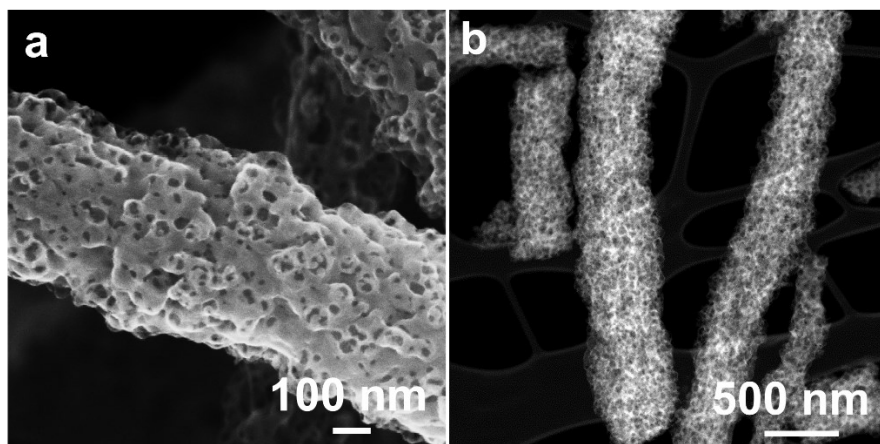


Figure S6. 3 (a) high resolution SEM image, (b) HAADF-STEM image of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$.

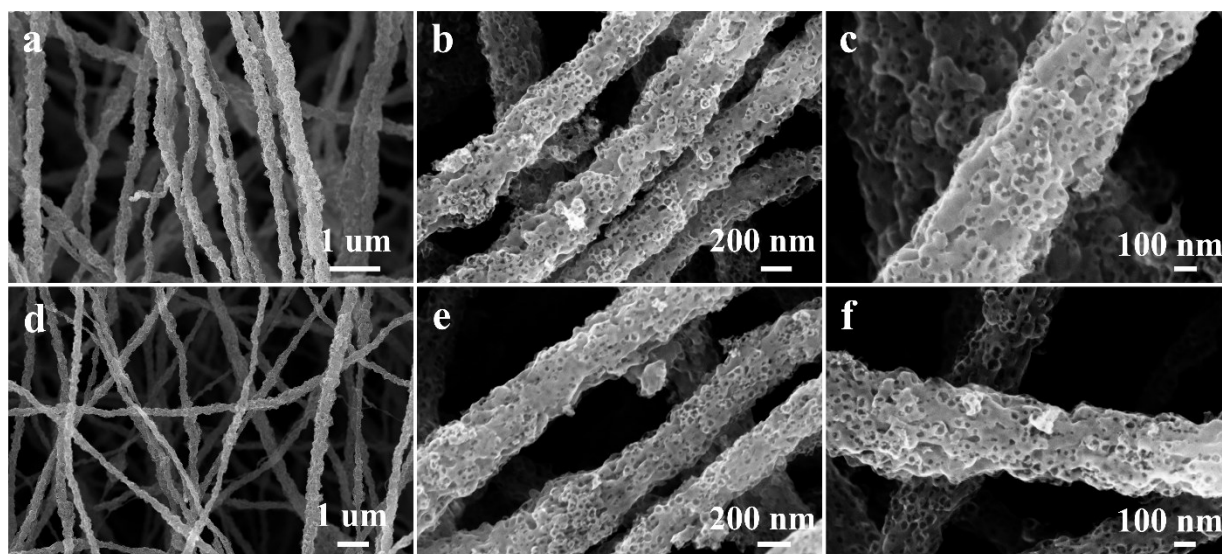


Figure S6. 4 SEM images of (a-c) Cu-N@CF and (d-f) $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$.

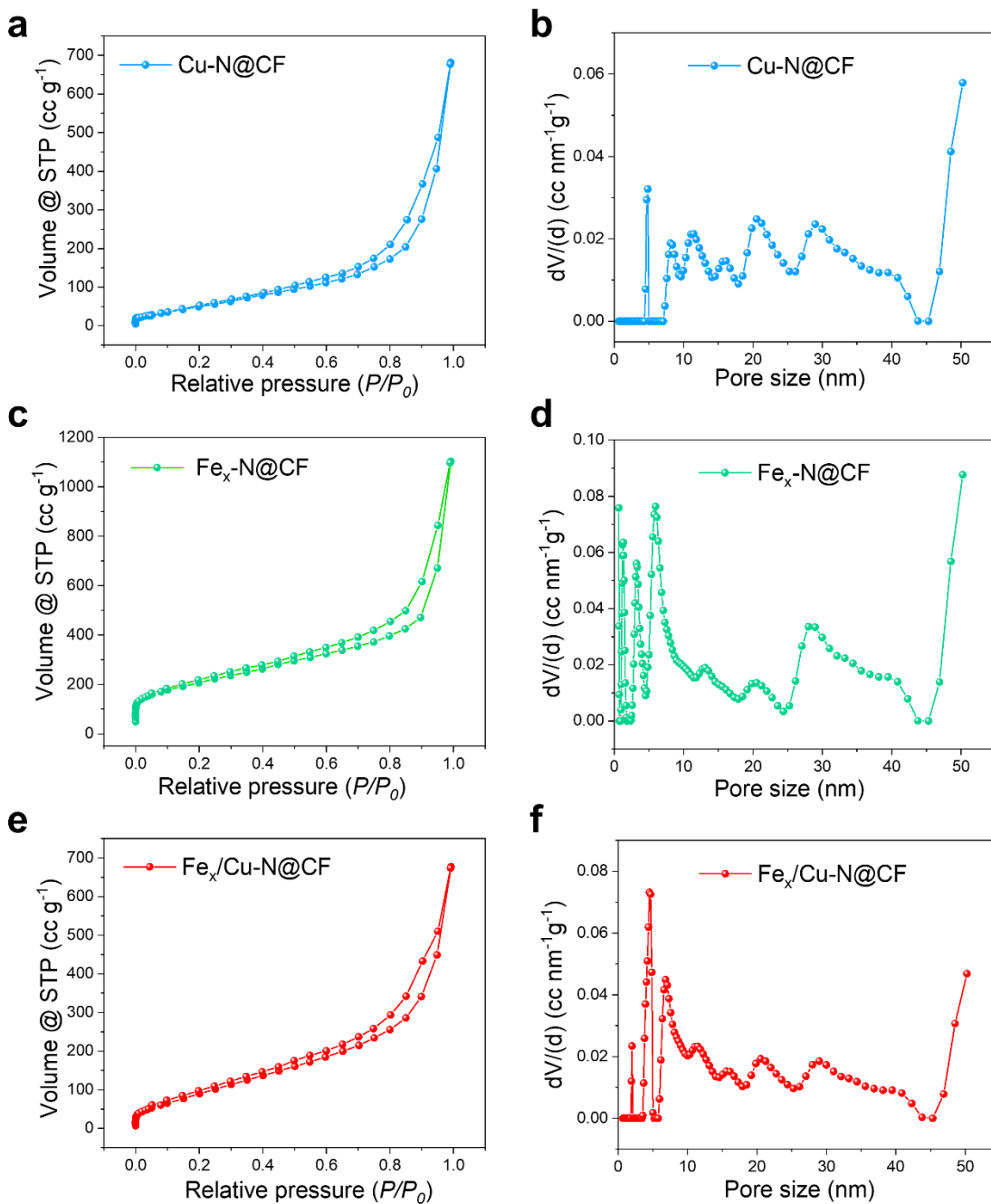


Figure S6. 5 N_2 adsorption isotherms and pore size distributions of (a, b) Cu-N@CF, (c, d) $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ and (e, f) $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$.

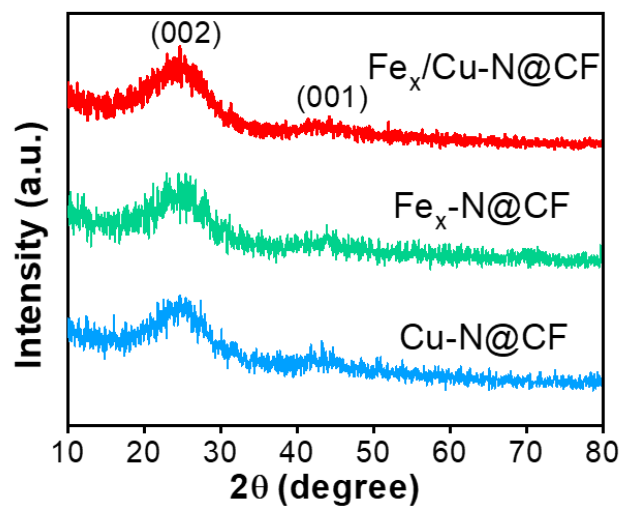


Figure S6. 6 XRD patterns of Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF and Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

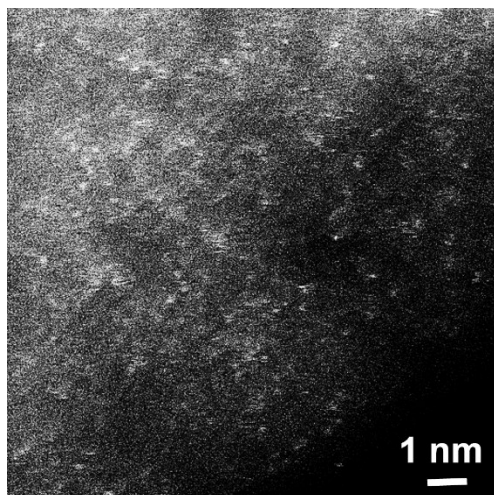


Figure S6. 7 The magnified HAADF-STEM image of Cu-N@C.

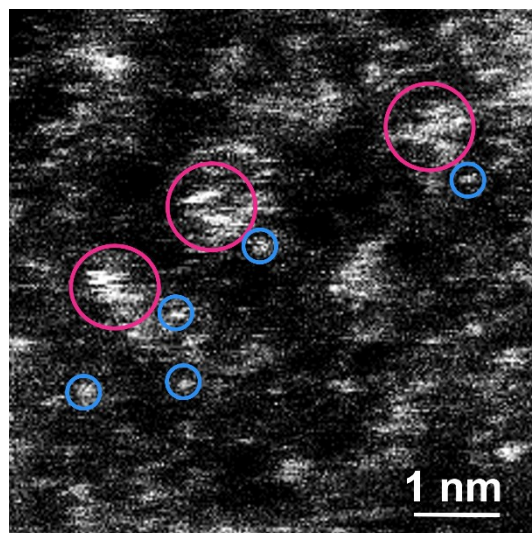


Figure S6. 8 HAADF-STEM image showing the coexistence Fe clusters (marked by pink circles) and single Cu atoms (marked by blue circles) of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

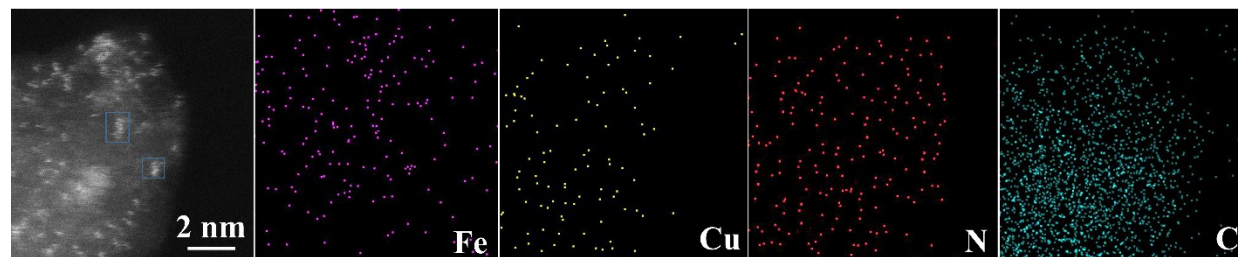


Figure S6. 9 The magnified HAADF-STEM image and corresponding EDS mapping of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF. Blue rectangles indicate Fe nanoclusters.

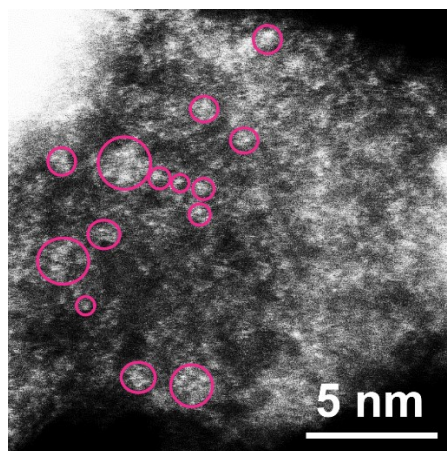


Figure S6. 10 HAADF-STEM image of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ (marked larger spots with pink circles).

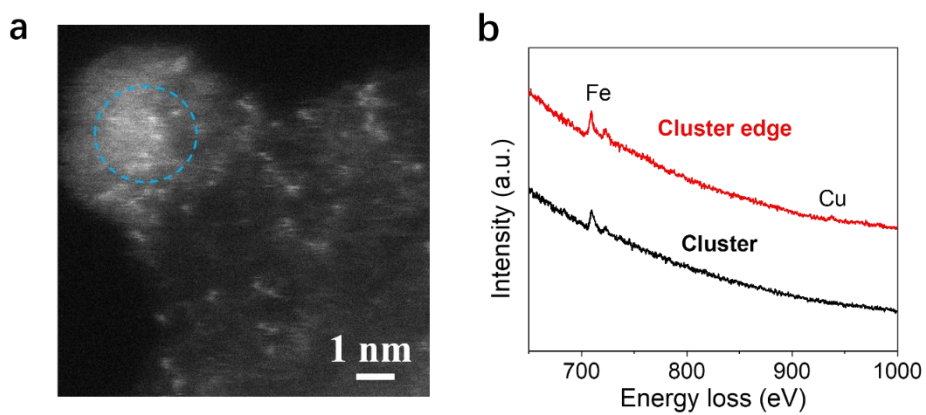


Figure S6. 11 (a) Atomic-level HAADF-STEM image (marked the bright cluster with the blue circle), (b) corresponding EEL spectra.

Table S6. 1 Fe and Cu content determined by ICP-OES.

Samples	Fe content (wt. %)	Cu content (wt. %)
Fe _x /Cu-N@CF	2.23%	0.57%
Fe _x -N@CF	2.01%	0.06%
Cu-N@CF	0.05%	0.62%

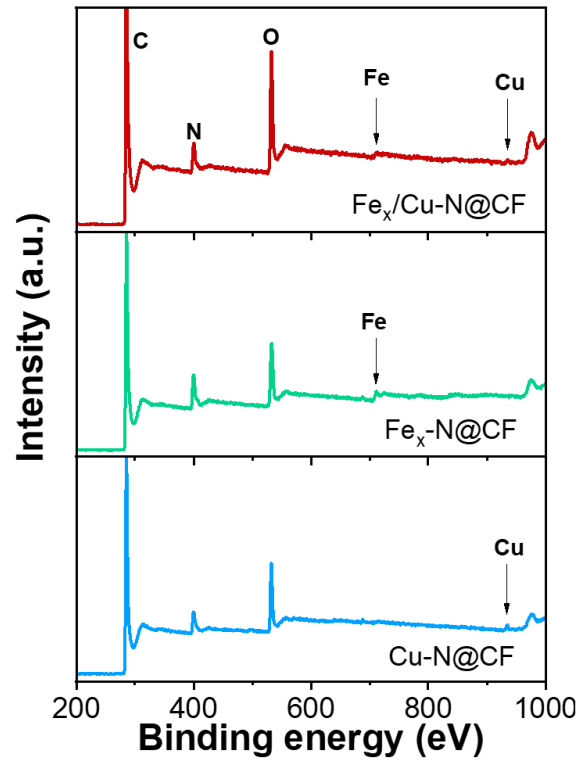


Figure S6. 12 The wide-scanning XPS spectra of Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF and Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

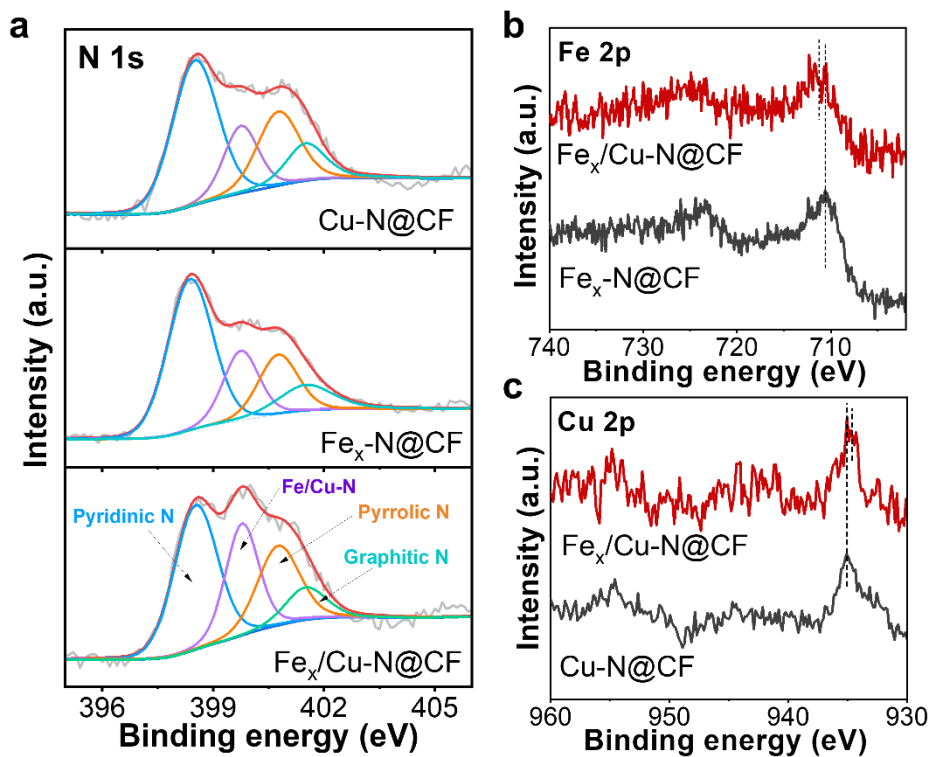


Figure S6. 13 XPS spectra of N 1s, Fe 2p, and Cu 2p in Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF and Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

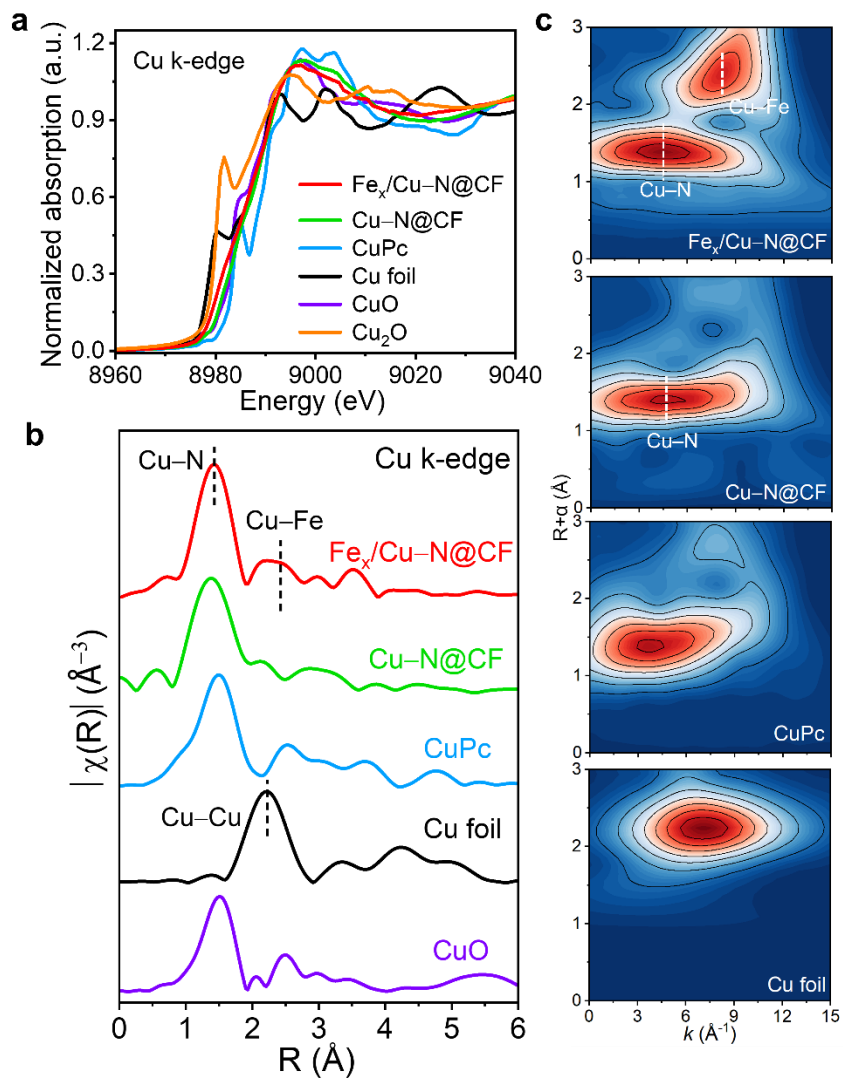


Figure S6. 14 (a) Cu K-edge XANES spectra and (b) EXAFS curves of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, Cu-N@CF and references (Cu Pc , Cu foil , CuO , Cu_2O). (c) WT-EXAFS of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$, Cu-N@CF , Cu Pc , Cu foil and CuO .

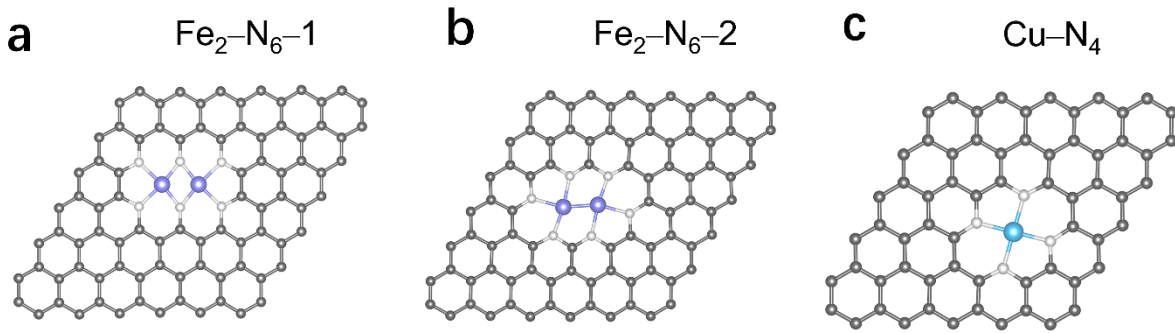


Figure S6. 15 The proposed possible structural models of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ (a-b) and Cu-N@CF (c).

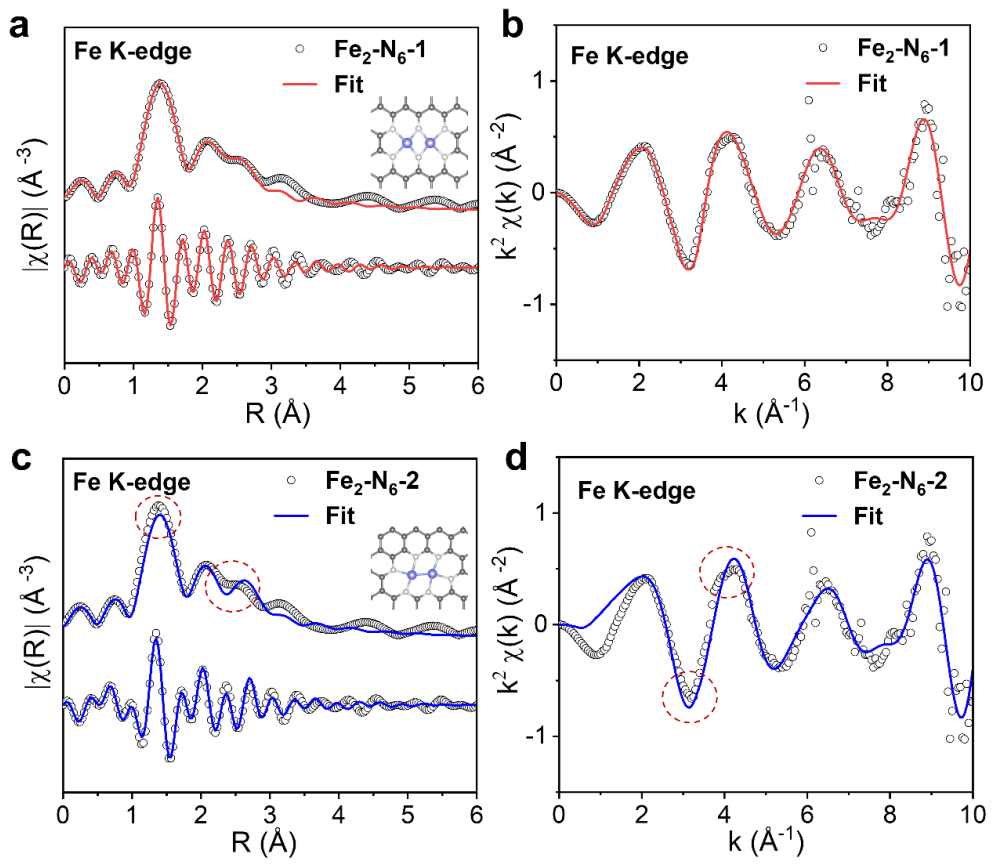


Figure S6. 16 (a, b) Fe K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ and the corresponding fitting curves of k^2 -weighted k -space based on $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$ and (c, d) $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-2}$ models.

Table S6. 2 The Fe K-edge EXAFS curves fitting parameters of $\text{Fe}_x\text{-N@CF}$ based on $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$, $\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-2}$ models.

Sample	Scattering pair	Coordination number	R(Å)	σ^2	ΔE_0	S_0^2	R factor
$\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-1}$	Fe-N1	1.98 ± 0.126	1.72	0.005	3.9	0.83	0.0032
	Fe-N2	1.89 ± 0.367	1.94	0.004			
	Fe-Fe	0.91 ± 0.161	2.18	0.003			
$\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6\text{-2}$	Fe-N	2.81 ± 0.69	1.99	0.003	4.5	0.83	0.029
	Fe-Fe	0.94 ± 0.39	2.22	0.003			

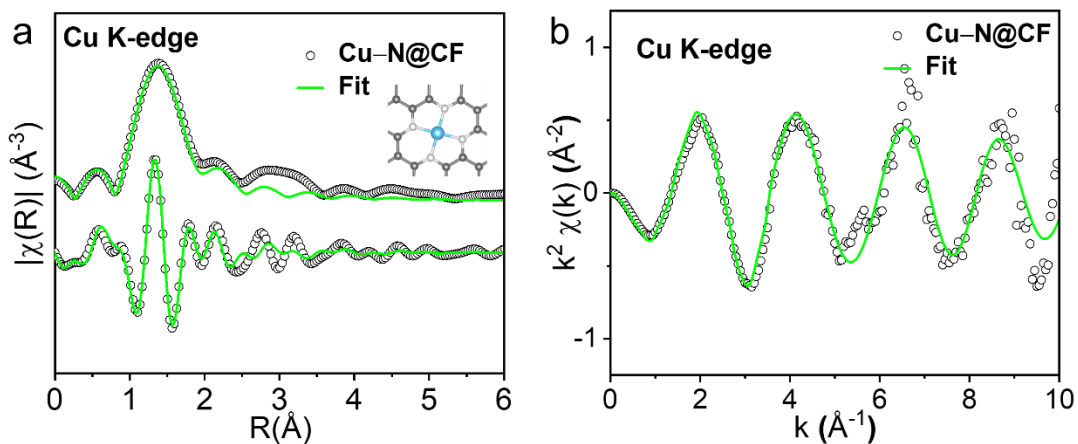


Figure S6. 17 (a) Cu K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of Cu-N@CF based on Cu-N_4 model. (b) The corresponding fitting curves are shown in k^2 -weighted k -space.

Table S6. 3 The Cu K-edge EXAFS curves fitting parameters of Cu-N@CF.

Sample	Scattering pair	Coordination number	R(Å)	σ^2	ΔE_0	S_0^2	R factor
Cu-N@CF	Cu-N	3.91 ± 0.221	1.89	0.004	3.6	0.9	0.0044

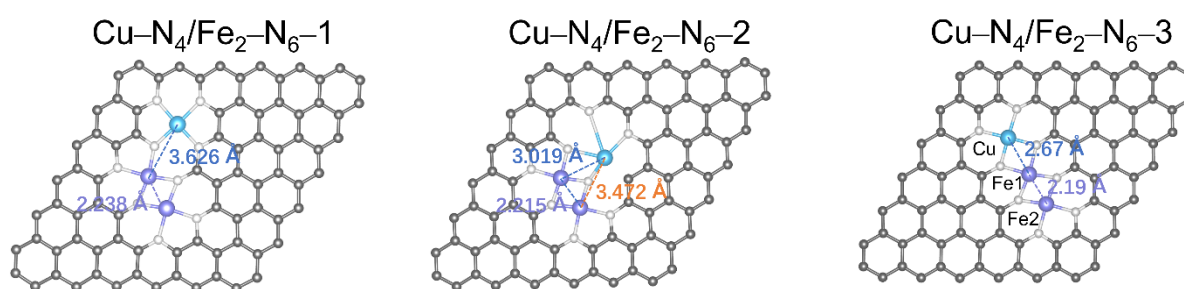


Figure S6. 18 The possible structural models of $Fe_x/Cu-N@CF$.

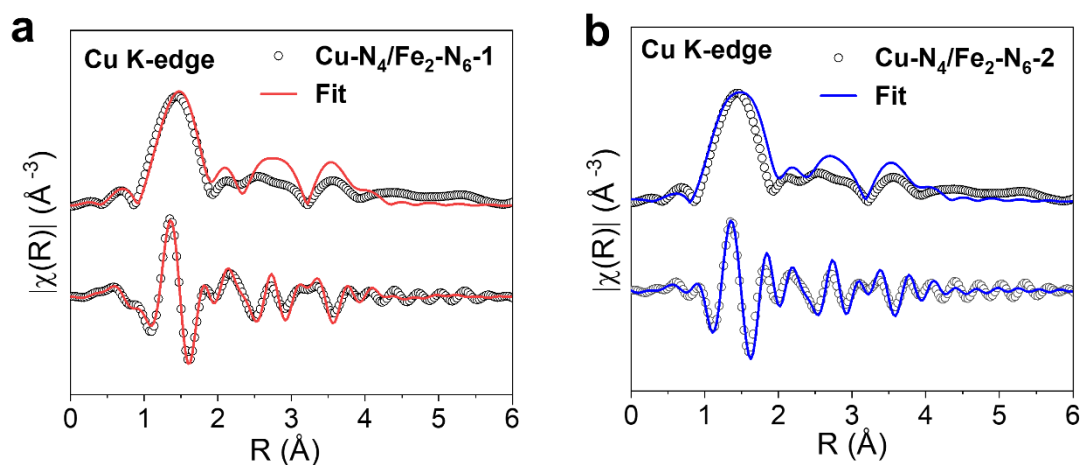


Figure S6. 19 Cu K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of Cu-N@CF based on Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆-1 model (a) and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆-2 model (b).

Table S6. 4 The Cu K-edge EXAFS curves fitting parameters of Cu-N@CF based on Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆-1 and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆-2 models.

Sample	Scattering pair	Coordination number	R(Å)	σ^2	ΔE_0	S_0^2	R factor
Cu-N ₄ /Fe ₂ -N ₆ -1	Cu-N1	3.13 ± 0.132	1.95	0.003	4.2	0.9	0.043
	Cu-N2	1.02 ± 0.571	1.80	0.004			
	Cu-Fe	0.55 ± 0.461	3.23	0.006			
Cu-N ₄ /Fe ₂ -N ₆ -2	Cu-N1	2.11 ± 0.159	1.97	0.004	5.5	0.9	0.031
	Cu-N2	1.74 ± 0.436	1.80	0.004			
	Cu-Fe	0.67 ± 0.387	2.89	0.006			

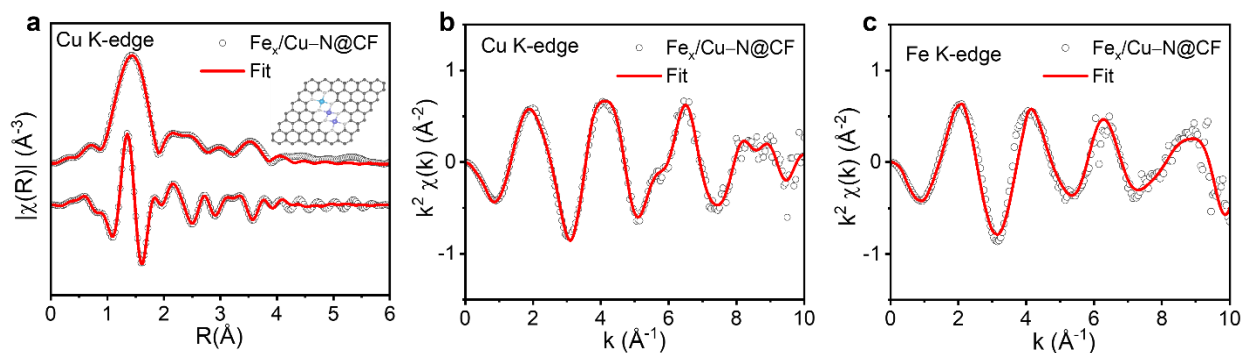


Figure S6. 20 (a) Cu K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF in R-space (inset shows the corresponding structure model), and (b) the corresponding fitting curve shown in k²-weighted k-space. (c) Fe K-edge experimental and FT-EXAFS fitting curves of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF shown in k²-weighted k-space.

Table S6. 5 The Cu K-edge EXAFS curves fitting parameters of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

Sample	Scattering pair	Coordination number	R(Å)	σ^2	ΔE_0	S_0^2	R factor
Fe _x /Cu-N@CF	Cu-N1	2.99 ± 0.041	1.95	0.005	3.6	0.9	0.001
	Cu-N2	0.98 ± 0.083	1.80	0.004			
	Cu-Fe	1.05 ± 0.062	2.77	0.003			

Table S6. 6 The Fe K-edge EXAFS curves fitting parameters of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF.

Sample	Scattering pair	Coordination number	R(Å)	σ^2	ΔE_0	S_0^2	R factor
Fe _x /Cu-N@CF	Fe-N1	2.22 ± 0.361	1.77	0.005	3.9	0.83	0.012
	Fe-N2	1.85 ± 0.123	1.95	0.004			
	Fe-Fe	1.13 ± 0.345	2.17	0.003			
	Fe-Cu	1.15 ± 0.514	2.77	0.003			

R is the distance between absorber and backscatter atoms, σ^2 is Debye-Waller factor to account for both thermal and structural disorders, ΔE_0 is inner potential correction; R factor indicates the goodness of the fit. S_0^2 for Fe K-edge fitting was fixed to 0.83 determined from Fe foil fitting. S_0^2 for Cu K-edge fitting was fixed to 0.9 determined from Cu foil. Fitting range: $3 \leq k (\text{Å}^{-1}) \leq 11$ and $1 \leq R (\text{Å}) \leq 3$.

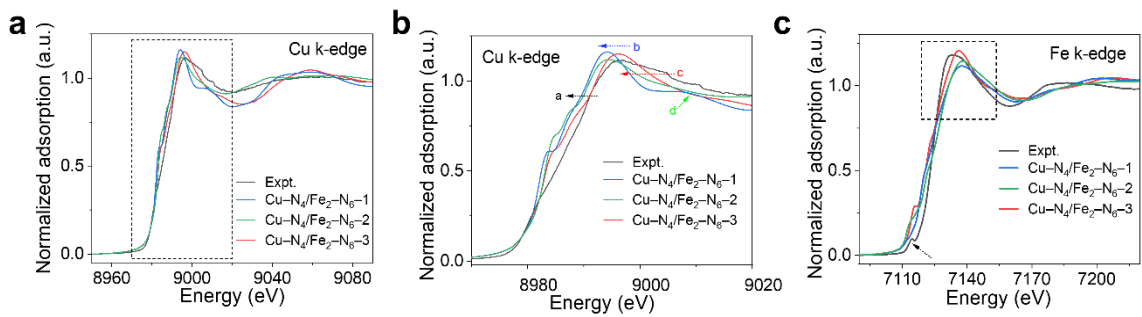


Figure S6. 21 (a) Comparison between the experimental Cu K-edge XANES spectrum of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and the simulated spectra. (b) The spectra from dash box of (a). (c) Comparison between the experimental Fe K-edge XANES spectrum of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ and the simulated spectra.

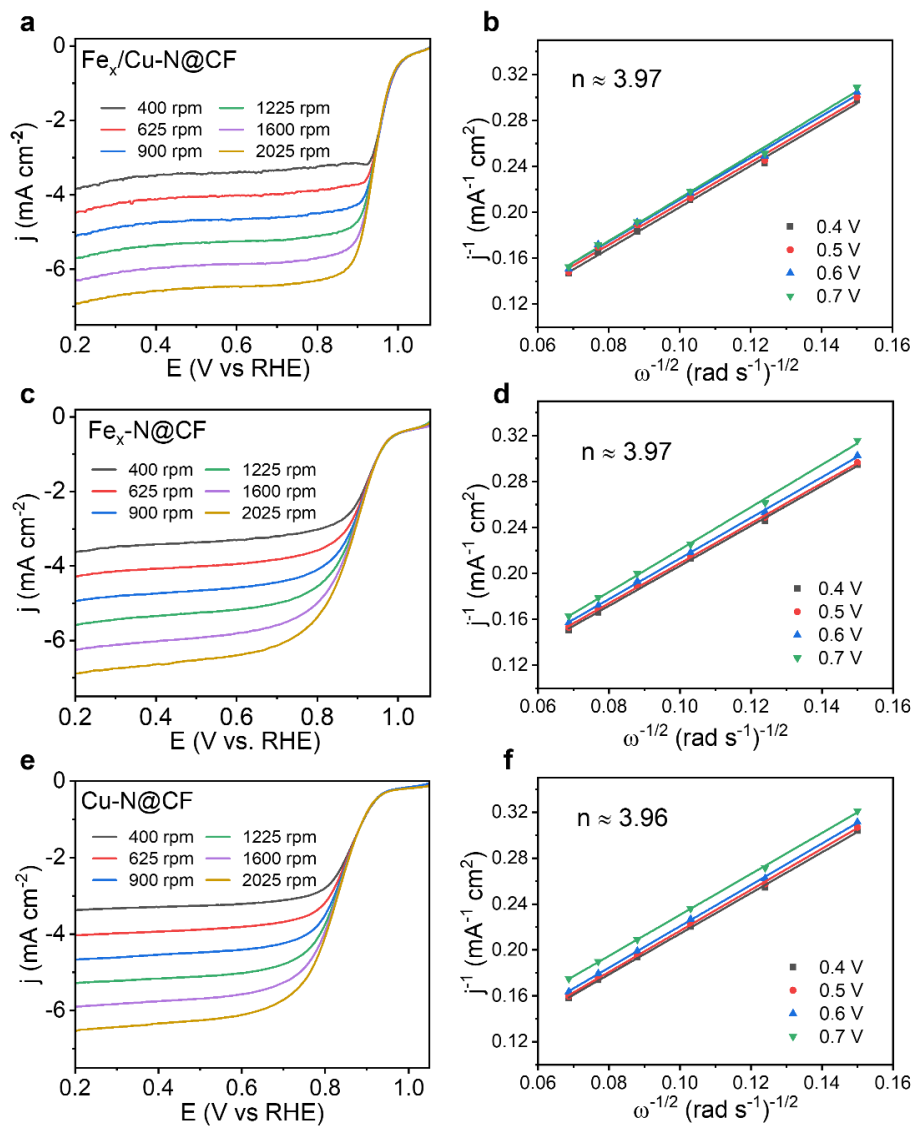


Figure S6. 22 LSV curves of (a) Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, (c) Fe_x-N@CF and (e) Cu-N@CF at different rotating rates. (b, d, f) The corresponding K-L plots and electron transfer number.

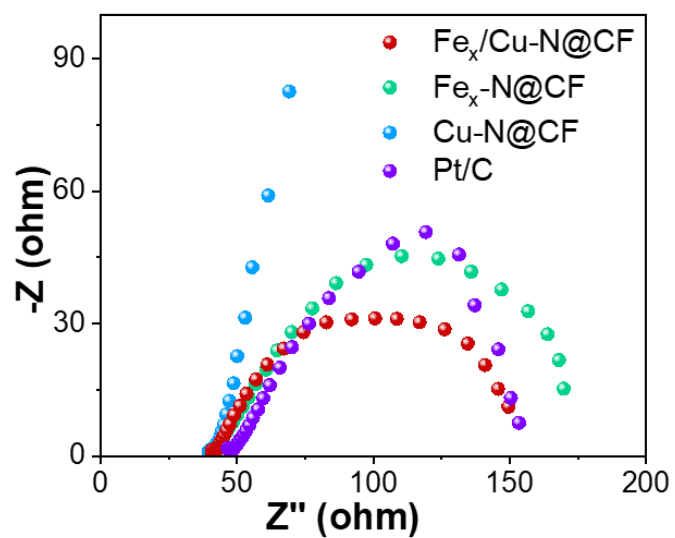


Figure S6. 23 EIS plots of Fe_x/Cu-N@CF, Fe_x-N@CF, Cu-N@CF and Pt/C.

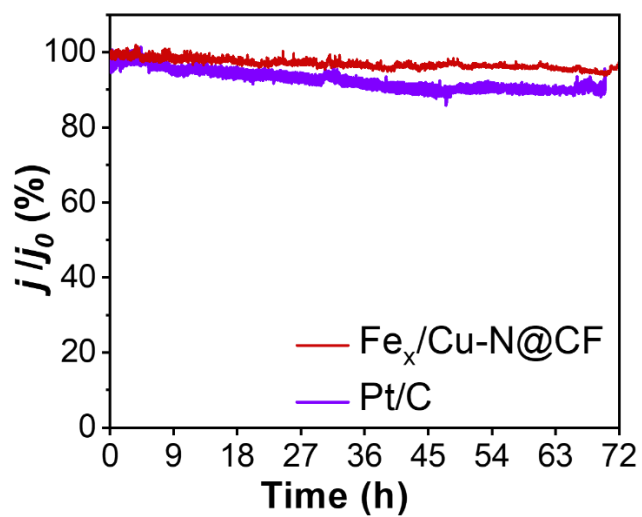


Figure S6. 24 Stability test at 0.6 V for Fe_x/Cu-N@CF and Pt/C in 0.1 M KOH.

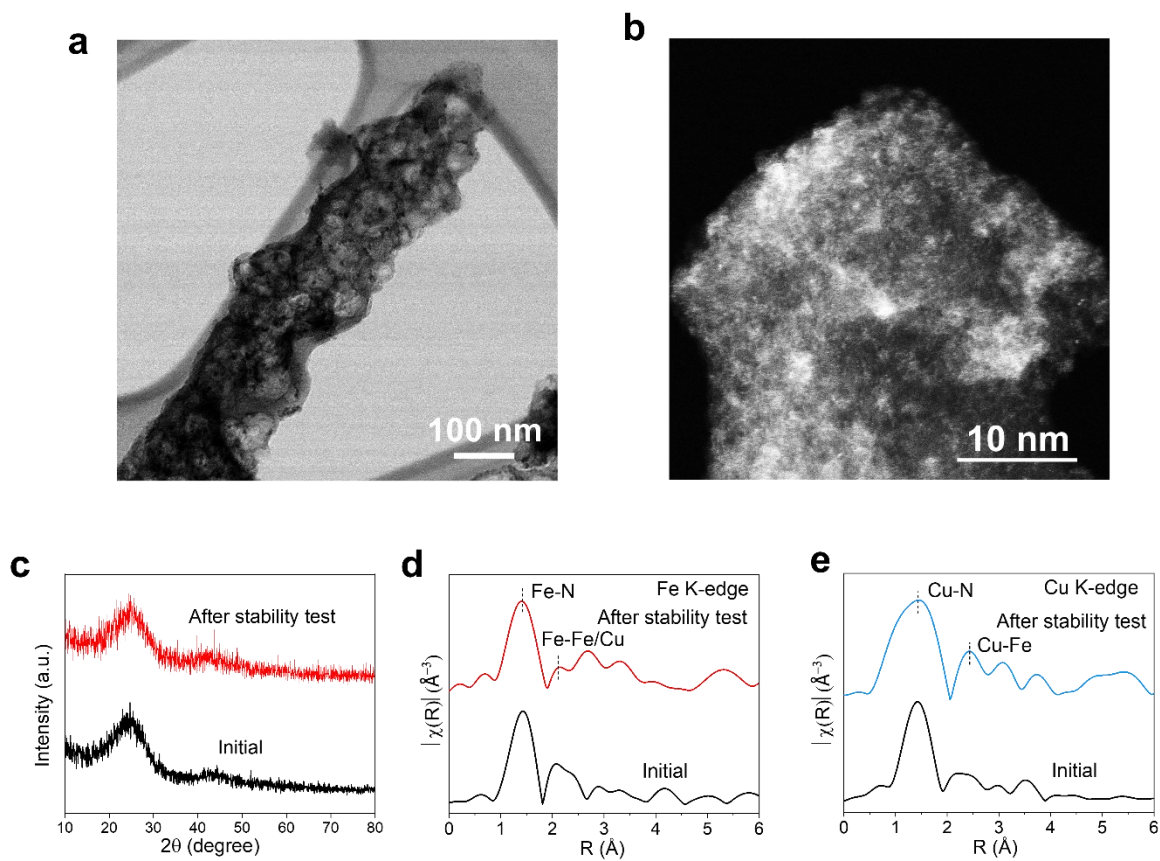


Figure S6. 25 (a-b) HR-TEM image, (c) XRD pattern, (d-e) Fourier-transform EXAFS curves of $\text{Fe}_x/\text{Cu-N@CF}$ before and after stability test.

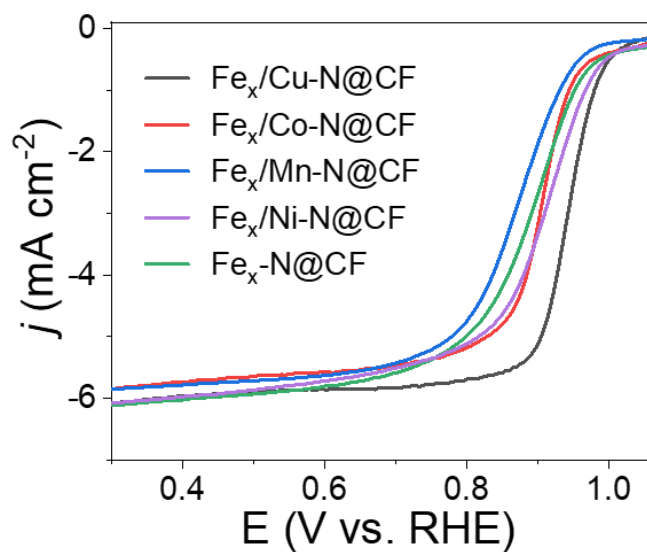


Figure S6. 26 LSV curves were recorded in 0.1 M KOH with a rotation rate of 1600 rpm.

The ORR performance of other M-N₄ (e.g., CoN₄, MnN₄, and NiN₄) decorated atomic Fe clusters was also examined. As shown in Figure S26, the CuN₄ is the most effective one in improving the ORR performance of Fe clusters.

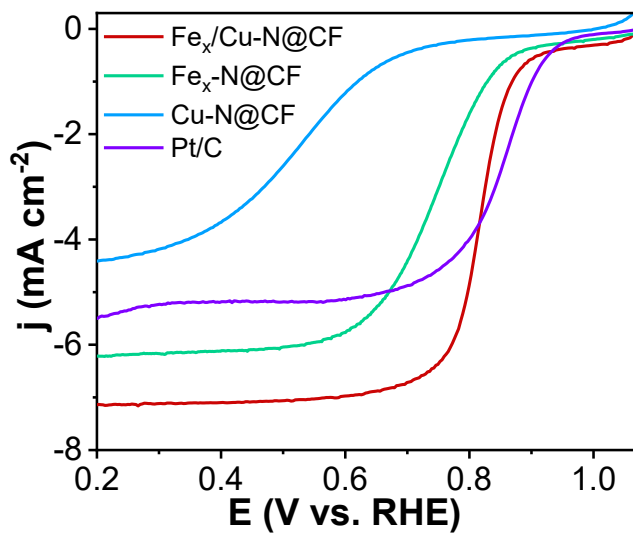


Figure S6. 27 LSV curves in O₂-saturated 0.1 M HClO₄.

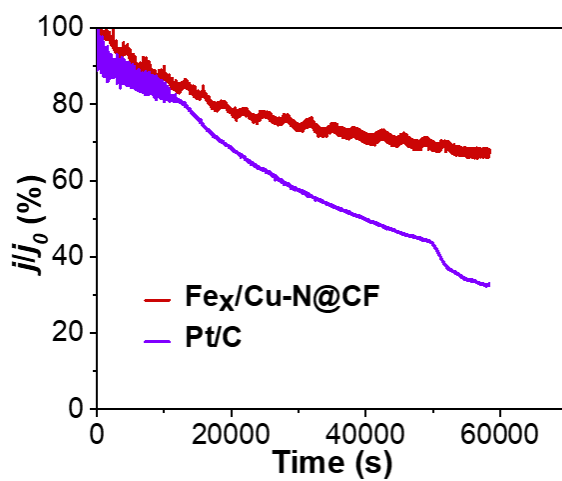


Figure S6. 28 Stability test at 0.6 V in 0.1 M HClO₄.

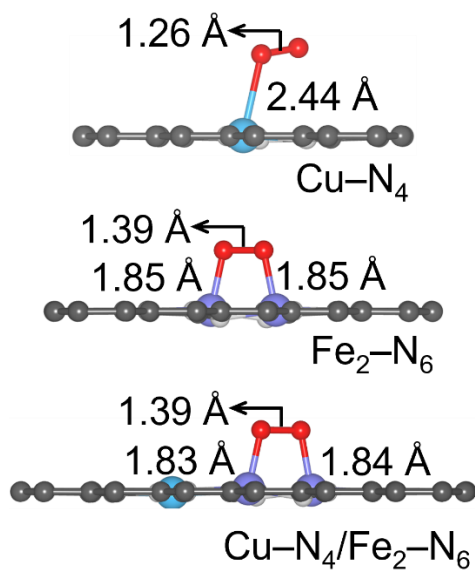


Figure S6. 29 Optimized geometry of OO* adsorption configuration on Cu-N₄, Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆.

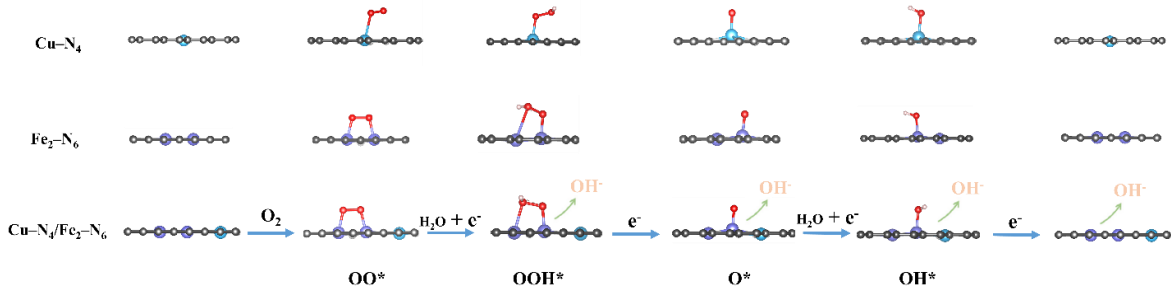


Figure S6. 30 The ORR reaction pathways of Cu-N₄, Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆.

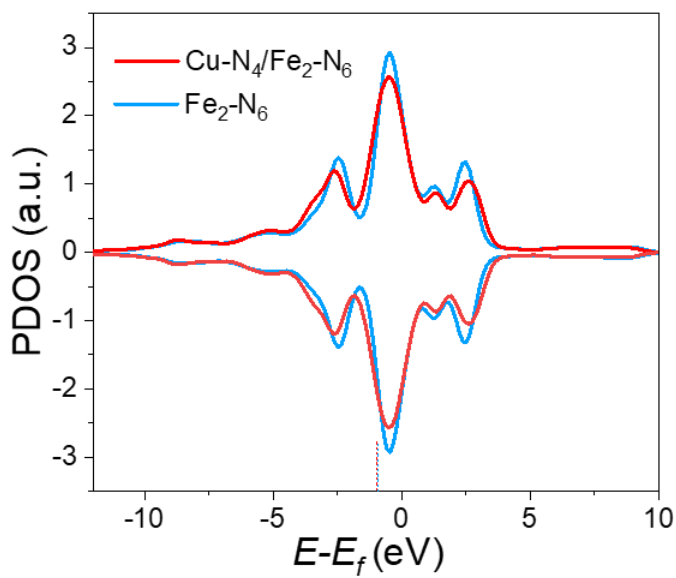
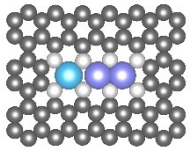
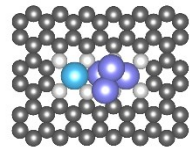
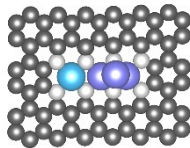
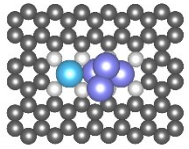
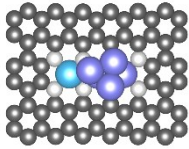
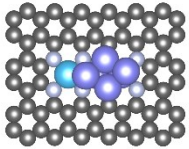


Figure S6. 31 The PDOS of Fe d orbitals in Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆.

Additional DFT calculations were performed to investigate the possible structure of the catalyst. To investigate the thermodynamic feasibility of Fe forming a cluster with a larger number of atoms, we calculated the reaction energy of adding Fe to the CNF structure, starting from Cu–N₄/N₆ and progressing to Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆, and all the way to Cu–N₄/Fe₆–N₆. Table S6.7 reports the reaction energies. The comparison of reactions i and ii reveals that the addition of first two Fe atoms close to Cu is energetically favorable (-3.50 eV). However, if Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ is already formed, adding two more Fe atoms is significantly less favorable, suggesting it is unlikely to occur on the catalytic surface. As Fe atoms are added one by one to the previous structures in reactions iii-vi, the reaction energies increase from +2.53 to +2.93 eV, indicating that during the catalyst synthesis, Fe atoms are more likely to form a new Cu–N₄/Fe₂–N₆ structure near a single Cu with the formation of Fe–N moieties on the CNF rather than aggregating into larger Fe-Fe clusters.

Table S6. 7 The Fe cluster formation reactions and corresponding reaction energies

	Hypothetical reactions	Reaction energy(eV)	Structures
i	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{N}_6 + 2\text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6$	-3.50	
ii	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6 + 2\text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_4\text{-N}_6$	+5.27	
iii	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_2\text{-N}_6 + \text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{-N}_6$	+2.53	

iv	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_3\text{-N}_6 + \text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_4\text{-N}_6$	+2.73	
v	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_4\text{-N}_6 + \text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_5\text{-N}_6$	+2.70	
vi	$\text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_5\text{-N}_6 + \text{Fe} = \text{Cu-N}_4/\text{Fe}_6\text{-N}_6$	+2.93	

*The energy of Fe is taken from pure iron lattice unit cell.

The use of simplified models with a few Fe atoms to represent an iron cluster is common in the literature.^{21,22} We believe that the Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ model is appropriate as a basic unit for representing the catalyst structure. To validate this model, we calculated the free energy pathway of a larger model consisting of Cu-N₄/Fe₄-N₁₁ (Figure S6.32). The Cu-N₄/Fe₄-N₁₁ model has single Cu atoms located on the edges of the observed "Fe cluster."

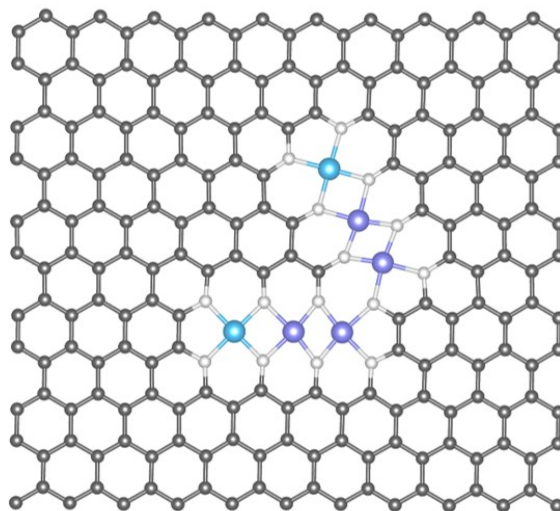


Figure S6. 32 The Cu-N₄/Fe₄-N₁₁ model.

We found that the active site remains on the Fe atoms that are closest to the Cu atoms, confirming the enhancing effect of Cu on the reactivity of the Fe cluster. As shown in Figure S6.33, the energy profile of this large model is similar to the Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ model proposed in the manuscript, with a similar limiting step of 0.62 eV (the reaction energy for *OO to *OOH). This suggests that the combination of multiple Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ models could potentially form a large Fe cluster in the center with single Cu atoms on the edges, while still maintaining active sites on Fe atoms that are enhanced by Cu atoms. Therefore, we conclude that the Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ model proposed is suitable for representing the catalyst structure.

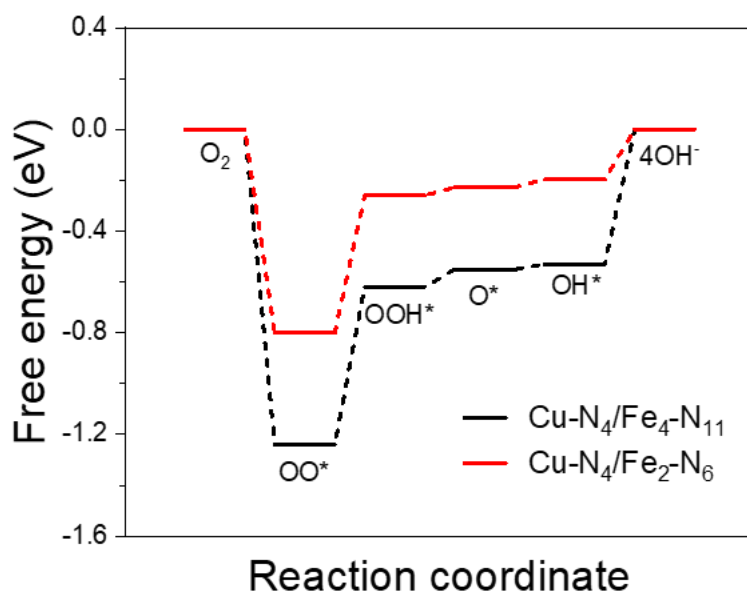


Figure S6. 33 ORR free energy diagrams for Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆, and Cu-N₄/Fe₄-N₁₁ at U=1.23 V.

Table S6. 8 Bader's charge of Fe atom on Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ model

Model	Fe #1	Fe #2	Average
Fe ₂ -N ₆	0.959	0.956	0.958
Cu-N ₄ /Fe ₂ -N ₆	1.015	0.984	1.000

Bader's charge analysis was performed to further investigate the impact of Cu on Fe₂-N₆. Table S6.8 shows the Bader's charge for Fe on both Fe₂-N₆ and Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ models. On Fe₂-N₆ model, two Fe atoms have the same neighbor atoms, resulting in their Bader's charges being similar, with an average value of 0.958. On Cu-N₄/Fe₂-N₆ model, the Bader's charges of Fe are slightly increased to 1.015 and 0.984, respectively. We observed Fe #1 is in between Cu and another Fe atom (Fe #2). As Fe #1 is closer to Cu, its Bader's charge increased more significantly, resulting in a stronger bond with O-containing adsorbates. This is qualitatively in agreement with configuration analysis and free energy calculation results.

Table S6. 9 ORR activities of various transition metal single-atom electrocatalysts in 0.1 M KOH.

Catalysts	$E_{1/2}$ (V vs RHE)	Tafel slope (mV dec ⁻¹)	J_k (mA cm ⁻²) @0.9 (V vs RHE)*	MA(A g ⁻¹)@ @0.9 (V vs RHE)*	Reference
Fe_x/Cu-N@CF	0.944	52.61	34.37	137.5	This work
NCAG/Fe-Cu	0.94	55	20	49.1	23
Fe/Zn-N-C	0.906	47	10	26.3	24
Fe-Te _n	0.867	86	2.3	20.3	25
Co ₂ /Fe-N@CHC	0.915	62	9.44	31.46	26
Fe,Mn/N-C	0.928	86	7.1	71	27
Cu/Zn-NC	0.83	54.8	1.1	2.71	28
Zn/Fe-N-C	0.86	84	5.49@0.85V	16.1@0.85V	29
Fe-N ₄ /Pt-N ₄ @NC	0.93	78	13.1	NA	30
Ni-N ₄ /GHSs/Fe-N ₄	0.83	55	2.8	11.2	31
Fe/Ni-N _x /OC	0.938	59.9	28.1	98.6	32
FeCoNiCuMn	0.887	81	3.2	6.27	33
Fe-NC-S	0.88	49	2	10	34
Fe-N/P-C-700	0.844	NA	1.56	2.6	35
Fe/SNCFs-NH ₃	0.89	70.82	38.36 @ 0.82 V	100.2@0.82	36
Fe-Pc-O defect	0.929	30	13	118.4	37
Fe-N-C-900	0.905	76.6	10	50	38
Fe-N-C/Fe NP	0.885	56	55.1 @ 0.8 V	162.1@0.8V	39
FeAC@FeSA-N-C	0.912	61	61.1@0.85	165@0.85	40
Fe-ACSA@NC	0.90	76	6.45	24.81	41
P/Fe-N-C	0.90	NA	25.4@0.85	40.7@0.85	42
5-PtNi _x /NiNC	0.86	NA	NA	26	43
Pd ₅₀ Ag ₅₀	0.81	45.7	NA	NA	44

*The value of J_k and Mass activity (MA) are recorded at 0.9 V, except specifically noted.

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Chapter 7 Summary and prospects

7.1 Summary

In this thesis, I present the strategies in developing transition metal-based catalysts for electrochemical devices. The advances and ideas presented herein are described as below:

In chapter 4, the integration of two-phase-coexisting nanosheets on three-dimensional substrates offers new and fascinating opportunities for the design of electrocatalysts. The catalyst composed of Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH porous nanosheets in situ grown on nickel foam (Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF) was fabricated via a one-pot solution method mediated by NaHS at room temperature in 15 min, without any sophisticated equipment involved. The NaHS plays a critical role in the growing process by manipulating the Ni²⁺ release from nickel foam and providing OH⁻ and S²⁺. The preparation process is fully controllable and scalable to deliver commercial-level performance. This study reveals the enhanced catalytic activity by offering the following advantages: 1) The Ni₃S₂-embedded NiFe LDH porous nanosheet possesses remarkably more interfaces than the traditional hierarchical structure. 2) Ni₃S₂ was *in situ* partially transformed into NiOOH under electrooxidation environment, the newly formed NiOOH is equally important with remaining electrically conductive Ni₃S₂ to drive proficient catalysis. 3) This integrated 3D electrode significantly facilitates the charge and mass transfer. For instance, the bubbles can be released much more efficiently, according to our *in situ* microscope analysis. The resulting catalyst only requires an η of 303 mV to deliver 1000 mA cm⁻² toward OER. It can continuously work for at least 240 h at 100 mA cm⁻². This strategy can be extended to prepare a highly active HER catalyst (Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF). A full electrolytic cell coupling Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDH/NF-2 and Ru-Ni₃S₂-NiFe LDHs/NF catalysts achieved remarkable j_s of 10, 100 and 500 mA cm⁻² at low voltages of

1.47, 1.71 and 1.85 V upon driving overall water splitting, far surpassing current commercial requirements (200-400 mA cm⁻² at 1.8-2.40 V).

In chapter 5, I developed hierarchical nanoneedle arrays with abundant CoF₂-CoP interface on Ni foam as a bifunctional electrocatalyst for HER and HMFOR. Interfacial electron transfer between CoF₂ and CoP modulates the electronic environments of the active centers, boosting the activity and stability of both HER/HMFOR. The modulated electronic structure benefits the Co²⁺ ↔ Co³⁺ ↔ Co⁴⁺ transformations under the bias potential. The post-investigation reveals that γ-CoOOH and Co (OH)₂ were formed via anion reconstruction under the HMFOR and HER, respectively, which serve as the real active phases contributing to the electrocatalytic activity. As a result, CoF₂/CoP-2 exhibits excellent HMFOR activity with a working potential of only 1.33 V to deliver 100 mA cm⁻². Meanwhile, the FDCA yield achieved 98.8 % and the faradic efficiency is 98 %. CoF₂/CoP-2 also exhibits outstanding HER activity delivering 10 mA cm⁻² at an overpotential of only 59 mV. Furthermore, the electrolyzer employing CoF₂/CoP-2 for cathodic H₂ and cathodic FDCA production only requires the cell voltage of 1.33 V at 10 mA cm⁻², superior to the voltage of 1.54 V at 10 mA cm⁻² for pure water splitting. This work demonstrates a promising strategy of the construction of CoF₂/CoP heterostructure for both electrocatalytic HMF oxidation and HER to promote H₂ generation efficiency and the production of value-added products, paving a way for “green chemistry”.

In chapter 6, I demonstrated a Fe_x/Cu-N@CF catalyst with atomic Fe clusters functionalized by adjacent single Cu-N₄ sites anchoring on porous carbon nanofiber membrane. The theoretical calculation indicates that the single Cu-N₄ sites can modulate the electronic configuration of Fe clusters to trigger optimized oxygen intermediates absorption and strong driving force for O-O cleavage, because the introduction of Cu-N₄ sites increases the filling degree of *d* orbitals of Fe

and the overlaps between d orbitals of Fe and p orbitals of O in OOH*. In addition, the construction of crosslinked one-dimensional carbon nanofibers provides sufficient microporosity for hosting active sites and interconnected micro- and mesopores for efficient mass and charge transfer. As a result, this unique atomic catalyst exhibits excellent ORR activity with 0.944 V of half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) in 0.1M KOH, registering as one of the best performing ORR catalysts. And 0.815 V of $E_{1/2}$ in 0.1M HClO₄ is comparable with commercial Pt/C. For practical applications, the free-standing Fe_x/Cu-N@CF membrane was successfully incorporated as an effective air cathode in Zn–air battery device with long-term work stability. Besides the outstanding catalytic activity, the two key achievements of this work are (1) having developed a feasible strategy (single atom functionalizes atomic clusters) to overcome the obstacle of poor O–O cleavage and (2) having understood the interplay between single atoms and atomic clusters on ORR. This work shows the great potential of single atoms for improvements in atomic cluster catalysts.

7.2 Future prospects

Understanding the dynamic reconstruction of electrocatalysts under the working conditions is critical for the design of highly efficient catalysts, since most electrocatalysts undergo structural reconstruction and surface rearrangement under the bias potential. Similarly, the catalysts presented in this thesis undergo the transformation in terms of composition and morphology during the electrocatalytic process. *In situ* characterizations provide the information of understanding reconstruction process, real active sites, and catalytic intermediates. Recently, *in situ* investigations have been explored by various techniques, including Raman, X-ray diffraction (XRD), infrared (IR) spectroscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and other methods, in tracking the reconstruction of electrocatalysts in realistic reaction conditions. However, employing a single *in situ* technique

could provide limited reconstruction information of catalysts. Thus, using *in situ* techniques will provide deep insights into reaction progress under applied potential, which should be central position for this research direction.

HMFOR have been regarded to as an ideal reaction for the replacement of OER coupling with HER for hydrogen generation with low driving voltage and production of value-added chemicals. Chapter 5 has shown that the construction of heterointerface creates a robust bifunctional electrocatalyst for HER and HMFOR. The mechanistic understanding associated with HMF electrocatalytic oxidation is still not clear enough so far. The development of innovative catalytic materials should be accompanied by the theoretical investigations to elaborate structure-performance relationships in-depth, such as molecular dynamics simulation and electronic calculation.

Transition metal-based catalysts for oxygen reduction reaction still are restricted by the low activity and durability in acidic media. Chapter 6 has shown that transition metal cluster anchored on N-doped carbon (M_x -N-C) is a promising alternative to Pt, which even outperform Pt/C in terms of both ORR activity and durability. However, the catalytic performance in acidic media is still far from satisfactory for practical application. Many efforts have been devoted to improving the catalytic activity of carbon based electrocatalysts, including regulation of the N dopant species, co-doping of heteroatoms (e.g., N/P and N/S), and morphological structure engineering. Further research effort should be made in this direction to promote catalytic performance of M_x -N-C for catalytic activity and stability in acidic media.

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