

Edited by Jianmin Ma

Photo- and Electro-Catalytic Processes

Water Splitting, N_2 Fixing, CO_2 Reduction



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WILEY-VCH

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Preface

We are living in a rapidly developing world, especially advance in the fields of science and technology. Our science research and technology development are approaching into the new era. In the past decades, we produced new chemicals by reactions via heating at high temperatures. Nowadays, we can realize our reactions via light or electrics, which is considered as green means. The change from conversional means to green means will be advocated to protect our environment.

CO₂ is room-temperature gas, which can increase our air temperature with the increase of concentration of CO₂ emission. Therefore, it is urgent to control its emission. In addition, the conversion and storage of CO₂ are also widely paid attention to. As chemical workers, we focus more attention to how CO₂ is converted into other useful chemicals, especially by green catalytic processes. Ammonia synthesis by electrocatalysis means is highly efficient and energy-saving process, compared with conversional reaction, which can provide us the fertilizer.

O₂-involved reactions (O₂ reduction reaction, ORR and O₂ evolution reaction, OER) are crucial for metal–air batteries and fuel cells, which are considered as promising battery technologies. However, highly efficient catalysts for ORR and OER are desired to be explored. Another reaction about H₂ product is also believed to be very important since H₂ is the cleanest fuel, which can be used in fuel cells to produce to water.

We are obligated to study the green catalytic processes on above useful reactions including photocatalytic, photoelectrocatalytic, and electrocatalytic reactions. The main targets for studying these reactions should be included, i.e. the understanding of reaction mechanisms, the design and preparation of catalysts, and the development of characterization technologies. To facilitate the development of this field, we write this book, and hope potential readers from all levels get insights from these reactions. Finally, we hope that this book can inspire more people to pay attention to these technologies and can be devoted to the development of green catalytic reaction processes.

Chengdu, 1 August 2021

Jianmin Ma

1

Oxygen Reduction Reaction Electrocatalysts

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1.1 Introduction

With the series of energy crises and environmental pollution by the transition consumption of fossil fuels, the pursuit of new clean alternative sources of energy is becoming more and more urgent [1]. Oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) as an important electrode reaction for proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) and zinc–air batteries (ZABs) to alleviate the current energy and environmental problems have drawn much attention by the scientist [2]. Compared with traditional fuels, PEMFCs are the device that can directly convert chemical energy into electrical energy through electrochemical reactions, which is not restricted by the Carnot cycle and has high energy conversion efficiency (45–60%) [3–5]. The process of power generation is environment-friendly and emits only water as a byproduct, which is called the green energy conversion technology in the twenty-first century [6, 7]. Additionally, ZABs are considered to be safe, economical, and alternative battery systems due to the high abundance of zinc, mild reactivity, low cost, high theoretical energy density, and incombustibility feature of the aqueous electrolytes [1, 2, 8].

However, ORR is an inert reaction, and the poor reaction kinetics of ORR severely restrict the energy conversion efficiency of PEMFCs and ZABs [9]. At present, Pt-based catalysts (mainly Pt/C) are still the most effective ORR electrocatalysts for PEMFCs and ZABs [10, 11]. So, it is necessary to load larger Pt on the cathode to catalyze slow and speed-limited ORR [12]. But, Pt is expensive and easily poisoned by carbon monoxide and methanol, which seriously restricts the large-scale application of PEMFCs and ZABs [4, 6]. Therefore, emerging low-cost ORR catalyst materials with high electrocatalytic activity as well as strong durability has appeared at the front of current research and progress energies headed for PEMFCs and ZABs [7, 13]. So far, many approaches have been developed to synthesize these catalysts, which can be divided into two diverse approaches. The first approach is reducing the dosage of Pt, such as improving the atom utilization of Pt by alloying

with low-priced metals such as Co, Fe, Ni, etc. [14], boosting the intrinsic catalytic activity, constructing specific nanostructures with Pt-rich surface, and reducing the nanostructure size of Pt-based electrocatalysts [5, 12, 15]. Another approach is the fabrication of non-noble metal electrocatalysts, such as transition metal (TM)-based catalytic materials (metal carbide, metal nitride, metal oxides, metal sulfide, atomically dispersed metal in carbon materials, alloys, etc.) [2, 10, 13, 16] and metal-free materials (N-, P-, S-, B-doped carbon materials, etc.) [1, 17–19]. Recently, excellent progress has been made in controlling the size, morphology, facets, and composition of transition metal-based and metal-free ORR electrocatalysts [7, 17, 20]. In the past few years, our group had also carried out many works to improve the ORR catalytic activity of biomass-derived carbon-based catalysts. For instance, the proposed top-down approach for the bulk transformation of raw wood to prepare the high-efficiency N-doped 3D ORR catalyst (N/E-HPC-900) with a high density of hierarchical pores [2], as well as the proposed simple and convenient manufacturing strategy for high-performance 3D self-supporting flexible carbon aerogel ORR electrocatalysts ($\text{FeP}/\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3@\text{NPCA}$ [N, P-doped rGO/CNF carbon aerogel]) [1].

In this chapter, the recent research progress of ORR electrocatalysts for PEMFCs and ZABs is reviewed in detail. The Pt-based electrocatalyst and the non-noble metal electrocatalyst are two research hotspots of ORR electrocatalysts. For non-noble ORR electrocatalysts, transition metals and metal-free materials are made in-depth analysis and comparison. Additionally, we also reviewed and analyzed the activity and stability of ORR electrocatalytic materials in the discharge reaction of ZABs, along with the perspectives on the proper design of carbon-based materials as ORR electrocatalysts for highly efficient ORR in the acid electrolyte.

1.2 Pt-Based ORR Electrocatalysts

Although many other types of highly active electrocatalysts have attracted increasing attention to replace expensive precious metal catalysts, Pt-based nanomaterials are still the main electrocatalysts for commercial applications and are often chosen as the benchmark materials for PEMFCs and ZABs [7]. Pt nanoparticles (NPs) are typically loaded onto support materials with high surface areas to increase their dispersibility and increase catalytic activity [21–23]. However, the commercialization of PEMFCs and ZABs is still limited by the high cost of Pt. In recent decades, to increase the stability and catalytic activity of Pt-based catalysts, two methods have been proposed to be effective in enhancing ORR performance: (i) designing the shape, size, and structure of Pt NPs to maximize their specific activity [24, 25] and (ii) alloying or modifying Pt with non-noble metal iron (Fe), cobalt (Co), nickel (Ni), copper (Cu), manganese (Mn), chromium (Cr), and so on to form alloys or core-shell nanostructures [26, 27].

1.2.1 Facet-Controlled Catalysts

Basic research studies of Pt have shown that the high-index plane demonstrates higher activity than the common stable plane [28, 29]. Therefore, controlling Pt

nanocrystals bounded by a high-index plane is a promising way for improving the catalytic performance of Pt nanocrystals [30]. Sheng et al. exhibited that the successful synthesis of 2–10 nm high-index facet Pt supported by carbon black or graphene can achieve comparable mass activity to commercial catalysts [31]. Zhang et al. adopted a wet chemical route to synthesize concave cubic Pt NPs enclosed by high-index planes (510), (720), and (830). The Pt concave cube provides the ORR with the advantage of uniform surface structure and large surface area. The mass and surface area activity of the obtained catalyst at 0.9 V (vs. reversible hydrogen electrode [RHE]) were higher than that of the commercial Pt/C catalyst [32]. The ORR activity of uniformly dispersed Pt NPs is related to its size, and its ORR activity is reduced in the size range of 2–7 nm. Recently, the researcher demonstrated that the Pt catalyst loaded on the LiCoO_2 thin layer that expands and contracts by 0.01 nm when the electrons move in and out almost doubled the catalytic activity of the Pt when the support material contracted during the charge phase. However, detailed experimental studies have shown that no matter the initial shape, Pt NPs are metastable and gradually evolve into thermodynamic equilibrium round shape with similar activity to ORR. Thus, as the particle age, size, and shape effects decrease, it may even seem that the ORR activity is independent of both particle size and particle shape [12]. Structural regulation is another effective way to achieve high ORR catalytic activity, such as assembling 1D nanostructure Pt into 2D membrane or 3D nanonetwork [33–35]. For instance, Lou and coworkers reported on interconnected 3D-Pt-nanometer assembly catalysts [36]. Compared with 0D Pt NPs, the interconnected three-dimensional Pt-nanoassembly exhibited enhanced stability, high electrochemical surface area, and a higher resistance to migration, aggregation, dissolution, and Ostwald ripening.

1.2.2 Multimetallic Nanocrystals

1.2.2.1 Pt Alloys

The alloy catalyst not only inherits the remarkable electrocatalytic performance of metal Pt but also generally exhibits superior performance to metal Pt [15, 37]. In past years, many Pt bimetallic and trimetallic nanomaterials have been synthesized, for example, coating Pt on metal NPs, Pt/3d transition metal alloying, and dealloying of binary/ternary nanocatalysts, and have shown remarkable performance in the catalytic ORR [38–40]. While transition metal alloying reduces the content of expensive Pt, it can improve the catalytic activity and stability by optimizing their electronic structure and geometric atomic arrangement [41–43]. These geometric and electronic effects lead to the shift of the energetic center of the Pt-projected d-state, affecting the strength of the surface-adsorbed bonds, and thus leading to changes in the chemical adsorption of reactants, intermediates, and products [44]. Polycrystalline Pt_3M film catalysts ($\text{M} = \text{Fe}, \text{Ni}, \text{Co}, \text{and Ti}$) were synthesized by Stamenković and coworkers to investigate the function of 3d metals in the oxygen reduction activity of Pt alloys [45]. The results showed that the nature of the 3d metal played a vital role in the catalytic activity of ORR. The fundamental relationship between oxygen reduction activity and the surface electronic structure (the d-band center)

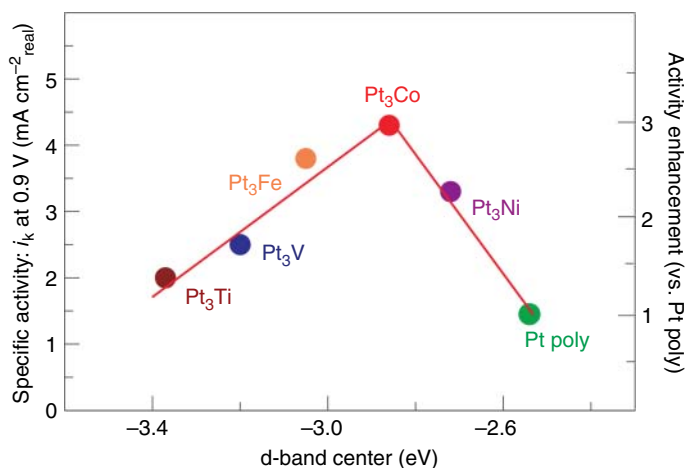


Figure 1.1 Relationships between experimentally measured specific activity for the ORR on Pt₃M surfaces in 0.1 M HClO₄ at 333 K vs. the d-band center position. Source: Reproduced with permission of Stamenković et al. [46], Springer Nature.

for the Pt₃M (M = Co, Ni, Fe, Ti, and V) surfaces is showed in Figure 1.1 [46]. It demonstrated a “volcano-type” relationship in which the optimum catalytic activity is controlled by the balance between the surface coverage of the blocking species and adsorption energy of the reaction intermediate. A better ORR electrocatalyst should have a weaker ability to bind O₂ molecules than Pt and enhance the rate of desorption of intermediate products [7, 45]. From this point of view, Co, Ni, and Fe were considered to be most valid alloying elements [45, 46]. Stamenković et al. adopted the solvothermal method to synthesize a series of homogeneous Pt₃M (M = Fe, Co, or Ni) nanocatalysts supported on porous carbon with controllable particle size [14]. Studies on ORR performance showed that the Pt₃M catalysts had enhanced factors of ~2–3 in specific activity vs. Pt at 0.9 V. Compared to Pt₃Ni and Pt₃Fe, Pt₃Co had the highest activity. Since the study of single-crystal Pt₃Ni(111) by Stamenković et al., Pt–Ni alloy octahedron has attracted great interest. Recently, the authors optimized the method reported in the literature to synthesize a 9 nm Pt–Ni octahedron having a clear (111) crystal plane on its surface [5]. The Pt/Ni ratio can be controlled in different time ranges under the action of acetic acid at 60 °C, and Pt_{2.5}Ni was 17 times more active at 0.9 V than the Pt/C. The study on the epitaxial surface of Pt₃Ni(111) single crystal showed that the specific activity is 10 times that of the corresponding Pt(111) and 90 times that of commercial Pt/C for the ORR in 0.1 M HClO₄ medium [15]. It was found that the three outermost layers of Pt₃Ni(111) were crucial to determine the catalytic properties, in which the third layer was Pt-rich (87% Pt), the intermediate atomic layer is rich in Ni (52% Ni), and the outermost layer contains 100% Pt. Sun et al. prepared monodisperse Pt–M NPs using a simple and yet general approach that co-reduction of Pt(acac)₂ and M(acac)₂ in the presence of oleylamine at 300 °C (M = Cu, Co, Fe, Ni, Zn) [47]. This versatile approach offers the possibility to investigate in more detail the Pt-based alloy NPs used in ORR catalysis. Recently, a highly durable and active hollow Pt₃Ni

nanoframe catalyst with the interior and exterior catalytic surfaces was synthesized [48]. This catalyst with Pt₃Ni-/Pt-skin surfaces on high surface area carbon showed a higher specific activity and mass activity for ORR than that of Pt/C. There has been a lot of research studies on the Pt–Co system and has made great progress, including intermetallic Pt–Co nanocatalysts with ordered structure and disordered Pt–Co alloys. For example, Abruña and coworkers successfully prepared Pt–Co NPs with a core–shell structure consisting of an ordered Pt₃Co intermetallic core and a Pt shell with two to three atomic layer [49]. Compared with the disordered Pt₃Co–C alloy, Pt₃Co@Pt has more excellent activity and durability and has the highest mass activity of Pt.

Porous nanostructure applications have unparalleled advantages in electrocatalysis, such as high specific surface area and low density, while providing sufficient active sites for close-range absorption of molecules. At the same time, this special nanoporosity facilitates the mass transfer of O₂ on the metal surface, thereby improving the ORR kinetics by encapsulating O₂ on the active metal surface. Therefore, introducing nanoporosity into bimetallic alloys can improve the active surface area and is generally considered to be an available method to increase the catalytic activity [50–52]. Héctor D. Abruña et al. prepared a promising intermetallic NP of Cu₃Pt with low Pt mole fraction [50]. Their results showed a thin Pt skin with a thickness of about 1 nm, and an ordered Cu₃Pt core was obtained by the electrochemical dealloying method, while a “spongy-like” structure without forming an ordered structure was prepared by the chemical leaching. Compared with electrochemically de-alloyed NPs, sponge-like NPs demonstrated lower specific activity and better mass activity after 50 potential cycles [50]. Jonah Erlebacher and coworkers developed a nanoporous Ni/Pt NP catalyst which was made through dealloying of Ni/Pt alloy NPs with rich nickel to study the ORR activity of nanoporous Ni/Pt alloy NPs [53]. It was found that the mass activity of the ORR was almost four times that of the Pt/C, exceeding the comparable nanoporous Pt-skeleton Ni/Pt alloy NPs. Yi Ding and coworkers developed a nanoporous surface alloy structure using a simple two-step dealloying process; the obtained nanostructures are interconnected by ligaments approximately 3 nm in diameter consisting of a Pt/Ni alloy core and an almost pure Pt surface [51]. In their research, they found that these nanoporous surface alloys showed a remarkable specific activity of 1.23 mA cm^{−2} at a high potential (0.9 V vs. RHE) and enhanced durability for ORR [51]. Jiang-Lan Shui et al. prepared Pt–Fe alloy nanowires with nanopores by electrospinning and chemical dealloying techniques [52]. These porous long nanowires with a diameter of about 10–20 nm and the ligament diameter 2–3 nm exhibited a high specific activity. Yadong Li and coworkers developed a facile chemical dealloying strategy to prepare a variety of monodisperse alloy nanoporous NPs using nanocrystalline alloys [54]. The primary electrochemical tests confirmed that alloy nanoporous NPs with small pores and high surface area showed more superior catalytic properties than alloyed NPs. To understand the effect of nanopores on the stability and intrinsic activity of NP electrocatalysts, Peter Strasser and coworkers prepared Pt–Ni bimetallic NPs with a controllable nanopore structure by an atmosphere-controlled acid leaching [55]. Their research showed

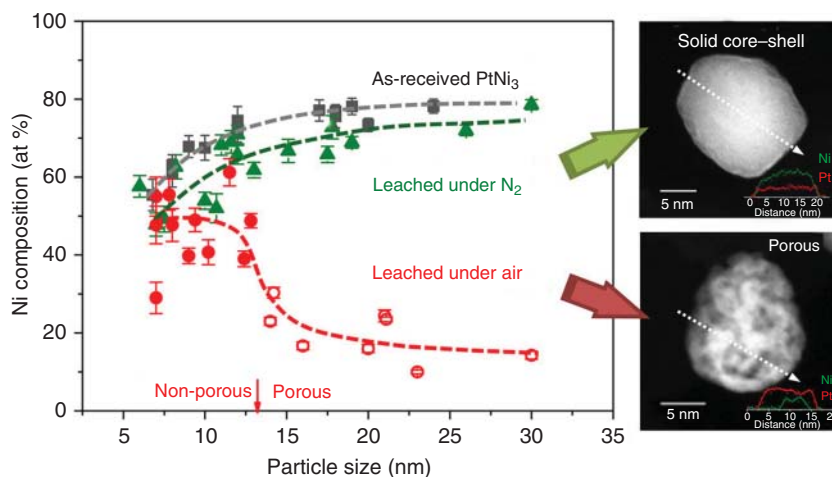


Figure 1.2 Correlations between particle size, composition, and porosity in the three catalysts (PtNi₃, PtNi₃ leached under N₂, PtNi₃ leached under air), where the horizontal dot lines represent the average compositions. Source: Reproduced with permission of Gan et al. [55], American Chemical Society.

that nanoporosity in PtNi NPs larger than c. 10 nm was essentially related to the violent dissolution of Ni; therefore, the intrinsic catalytic activity rapidly decreased during the oxygen reduction process, resulting in severe attenuation of catalyst ORR performance (Figure 1.2).

1.2.2.2 Supported-Enhanced Catalysts

Although carbon support materials are used as commercial catalysts for their excellent performance, carbon corrosion at high electrode potentials can inevitably cause the detachment of Pt NPs from the support, resulting in loss of ORR performance [56–58]. Furthermore, catalytic activity area reduction is due to the migration and aggregation of the supported Pt NPs [59, 60]. Recently, highly graphitized carbon materials such as carbon nanofibers, graphene, and nanotubes attracted the interest of many scientists for these great excellent carbon corrosion resistance [61]. Pt interacts with the rich π site of the graphitized carbon surface, which helps to inhibit the aggregation and oxidation of Pt. Further designing the nanostructures of these highly graphitized carbon materials offers the potential to simultaneously control and improve several properties [62]. Yu Jong-Sung et al. explored methods for supporting high-load Pt NPs and prepared ordered hierarchical nanostructured carbon (OHNC) by reverse replication of silica templates [63]. Compared to carbon black-supported Pt, the catalytic activity of the OHNC-support one was remarkably improved for ORR performance. Keith P. Johnston and coworkers prepared an ordered graphitized mesoporous carbon for ORR with the highly stable Pt supported on it [64]. They found that Pt dissolution, ripening, and coalescence could be mitigated by the electrical contact between the metal and carbon. Ferdi Schüth and

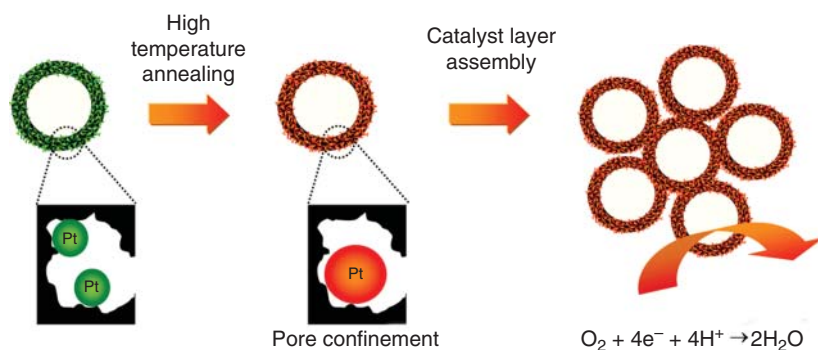


Figure 1.3 Schematic model of Pt encapsulation by pore confinement. Source: Reproduced with permission of Carolina et al. [65], American Chemical Society.

coworkers developed a form of graphite hollow spheres (HGSs) with mesoporous graphitic carbon [65]. Figure 1.3 shows the principle model of Pt encapsulation prepared by the pore confinement method. Pt NPs with size <2 nm are formed under 30% H_2 in Ar at 250°C . After annealing at a high temperature to 900°C , Pt NPs grow in the HGS and are limited to about 3–4 nm. HGS with a specific surface area and the precisely controlled pore structure exhibited the long-term stability of the catalyst and maintain high activity.

Although the intrinsic corrosion rates of the above-described nanocarbon materials are reduced several times, they still cannot prevent irreversible carbon oxidation at high potentials. In recent years, several research groups have studied the electrocatalytic systems of Pt NPs supported by non-carbonaceous materials such as tungsten carbide (WC) [66], WO_x [67], TiO_2 [68], TiC [69], and ITO [70]. Their results showed that the strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) between supporting materials and Pt NPs could obviously promote the electrocatalytic activities of Pt. It is generally believed that SMSI can greatly affect the activity and durability of by electronic state or Fermi level of Pt NPs to move up and down [71]. For instance, Hwang and coworkers reported a novel functionalized catalytic Pt supported on $\text{Ti}_{0.7}\text{Mo}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ [71]. The $\text{Ti}_{0.7}\text{Mo}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ carrier had an electron transfer mechanism from $\text{Ti}_{0.7}\text{Mo}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ to Pt. Moreover, $\text{Pt}/\text{Ti}_{0.7}\text{Mo}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ possessed much higher stability than Pt/C due to the presence of SMSI between $\text{Ti}_{0.7}\text{Mo}_{0.3}\text{O}_2$ and Pt. Although many non-carbonaceous materials have great promise in the preparation of ORR high-efficiency electrocatalytic systems, some obstacles that inhibit the catalytic performance of oxygen reduction (such as low specific surface area and poor conductivity) still need to be under further investigation. As shown in Figure 1.4b, Wei and coworkers reported that the functionalized Ti_3AlC_2 support material (Figure 1.4a) had excellent electrical conductivity comparable to carbon black [72, 73]. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations demonstrated that the changes of electronic structure for Pt NPs in $\text{Pt}/\text{Ti}_3\text{AlC}_2$. The catalytic activity of $\text{Pt}/\text{e-Ti}_3\text{AlC}_2$ (TAC) was not significantly decreased after the durability test by half-wave potential evaluation (Figure 1.4c).

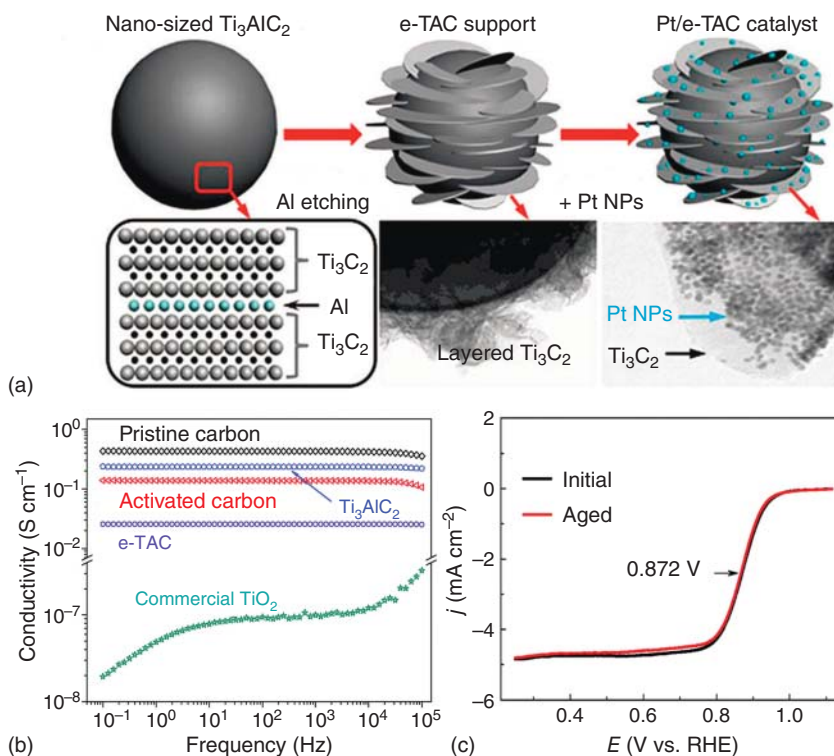
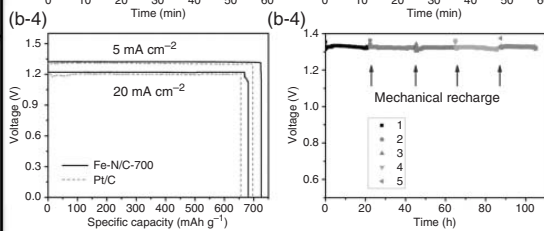
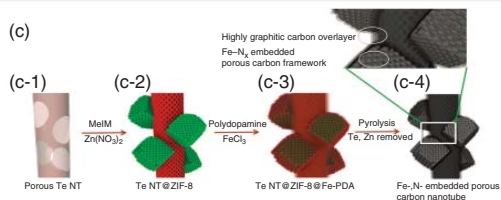
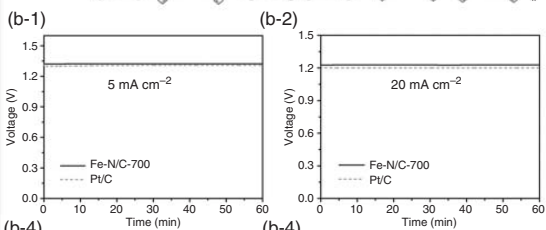
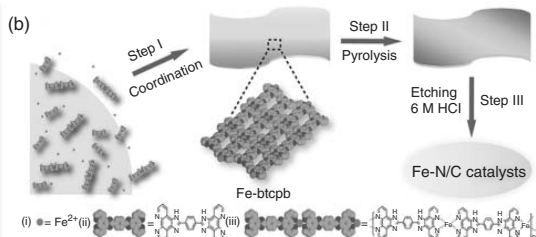
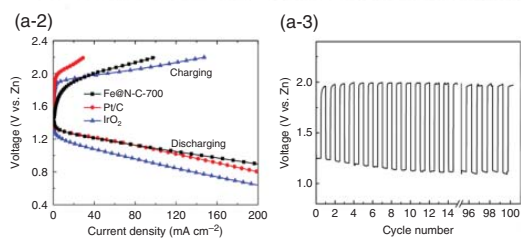
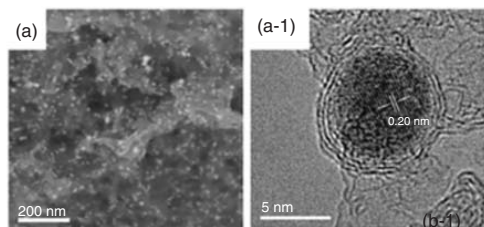


Figure 1.4 (a) Schematic of Pt/e-TAC catalyst formation. (b) Electrical conductivity of pristine carbon, activated carbon, commercial TiO_2 , pristine Ti_3AlC_2 , and e-TAC support. (c) ORR polarization curves for Pt/e-TAC before and after the accelerated durability tests (ADT) cycling (recorded in O_2 -saturated 0.1 M HClO_4 at 1600 rpm and with a scan rate of 10 mV s^{-1}). Source: Reproduced with permission of Xie et al. [72], The Royal Society of Chemistry.

Figure 1.5 (a) Scanning electron microscopic (SEM) and (a-1) high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of Fe@N-C-700. (a-2) Discharge-charge polarization curves of rechargeable ZABs with Fe@N-C, Pt/C, and IrO_2 . (a-3) Cycling performance of rechargeable ZAB with Fe@N-C-700 at 10 mA cm^{-2} . Source: Reproduced with permission of Wang et al. [74], Elsevier. (b) Schematic illustration of the preparation process for the Fe-N/C catalyst. (i) An iron ion (ii) btcpb ligand (iii) coordinated Fe-btcpb precursor was formed through a simple solvothermal method (Step I); for clarity, a piece of the 2D network building block is shown in the enlarged view. Then, the Fe-btcpb precursor was pyrolyzed in argon at different temperature for 1 h (Step II), followed by etching in 6 M HCl solution to produce the self-supporting Fe-N/C catalysts (Step III). Galvanostatic discharge curves of primary ZABs with Fe-N/C-700 and Pt/C as cathode catalysts at current density of (b-1) 5 mA cm^{-2} and (b-2) 20 mA cm^{-2} . (b-3) Specific capacities of the ZABs using Fe-N/C-700 and Pt/C as ORR catalysts, which are normalized to the mass of the completely consumed Zn. (b-4) Long-time durability of the primary ZAB using Fe-N/C-700 catalyst at a current density of 5 mA cm^{-2} . The battery was recharged by refueling the Zn and the electrolyte for five cycles. Source: Reproduced with permission of Yang et al. [75], WILEY-VCH. (c) Schematic illustration of the synthetic method for Fe, N embedded interconnected MOF-derived porous carbon nanotubes based on tellurium nanotubes as a sacrificial template. (c-1) Porous tellurium nanotubes (Te NT), (c-2) ZIF-8 wired Te NT (Te NT@ZIF-8), (c-3) Fe, N embedded, polydopamine coated Te NT@ZIF-8, and (c-4) Fe, N-embedded, highly graphitic layer coated porous carbon nanotubes after the pyrolysis process at 950°C for 3 h under argon flow. Source: Reproduced with permission of Ahn et al. [76], WILEY-VCH.



1.3 Transition-Metal-Based Materials

1.3.1 Metals and Alloys

Although Pt-based nanocatalysts have the best ORR activity, the high cost, and scarcity, Pt hinders their wide practical applications. Therefore, in recent years, high electrocatalytic activity, low cost, and durability of non-noble metal catalysts have been extensively studied. Among them, materials based on Fe, Co, and Ni are the most widely used in ORR catalysts. Xinhe Bao et al. reported a solid-phase precursor's pyrolysis method for the synthesis of Fe NPs encapsulated within N-doped carbon nanoshell with ammonium ferric citrate and dicyandiamide as the precursors (Figure 1.5a, a-1) [74]. In application to ZABs, the Fe@N-C material showed high activity for ORR (Figure 1.5a-2) and excellent durability (Figure 1.5a-3) in the alkaline medium. An-Wu Xu and coworkers developed a pyrolysis strategy of iron coordination complex to prepare a highly active self-supporting Fe-N/C catalyst (Figure 1.5b) [75]. Compared with Pt/C, the Fe-N/C-700 showed the remarkable ORR activity under both alkaline and acidic electrolyte, as well as the excellent ZAB performance when used Fe-N/C-700 as the cathode catalyst (Figure 1.5 (b-1)–(b-4)). Arumugam Manthiram et al. synthesized hierarchically porous 1D carbon nanotube (CNT) with the metal–organic framework (MOF) engaged using porous tellurium nanotubes as a template (Figure 1.5 (c-1)–(c-4)) [76]. Furthermore, the highly effective FeN_xC active sites combined with the hierarchically porous 1D structure were in charge of superior ORR catalytic activity and excellent ZAB discharge performance. Shichun Mu and coworkers prepared Fe, N, and S-codoped carbon nanotubes (Fe/N/S-CNTs) for an efficient ORR catalyst from MOFs treated with hydrazine hydrate and ferrous sulfate [77]. The resulted Fe/N/S-CNT catalyst exhibited a more positive half-wave potential of 0.887 V than that of Pt/C (0.845 V) in the alkaline medium.

Co NPs supported on nanocarbon have also been widely developed as ORR electrocatalysts. Guang Li and coworkers developed a one-pot pyrolysis strategy of the mixture of Co precursor to in situ synthesize Co, N encapsulated carbon nanotubes between the carbon nanosheets (Co-NCNT/Ng) with dicyandiamide and glucose as precursors [78]. The Co-NCNT/Ng with hierarchical porous and high specific surface area exhibited remarkable ORR catalytic activities, including long-term stability, and the high half-wave potential of 0.825 V. When used Co-NCNT/Ng as the air cathode catalyst for ZABs, it exhibited better performance in these respects of long-term stability and power density. Xinhe Bao and coworkers developed a simple strategy to synthesize N-doped carbon nanotube (NCNT) encapsulating Co NPs using dicyandiamide and cobalt-substituted perfluorosulfonic acid/polytetrafluoroethylene copolymer (Co@N-CNT) [79]. In application to ZABs as air cathode catalyst, the Co@N-CNT-8 catalyst exhibited excellent performance and durability due to its great ORR catalytic activity and strong stability in the alkaline medium. Ji-Cai Liang and coworkers demonstrated a simple one-step pyrolysis process to encapsulate Co NPs into N-doped graphene nanoshells [80]. The optimized Co-30@N-G catalyst exhibited an excellent ORR activity comparable

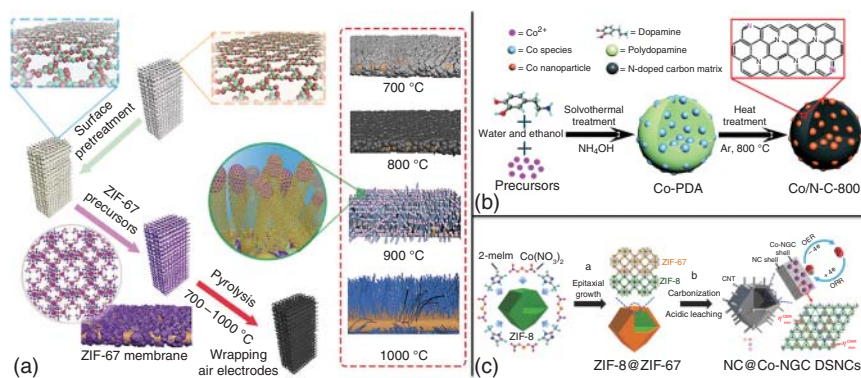


Figure 1.6 (a) Illustration of the synthesis process for the melamine sponge (MS) zeolite imidazolate framework (ZIF)-T (T = thermal treatment temperature) electrocatalysts. Source: Reproduced with permission of Jia et al. [81], Wiley-VCH. (b) Illustration of the fabrication process for Co/N-C-800. Source: Reproduced with permission of Su et al. [82], The Royal Society of Chemistry. (c) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of NC@Co-NGC DSNCs. Source: Reproduced with permission of Liu et al. [83], © WILEY-VCH.

to Pt/C in an alkaline medium. Moreover, ZAB assembled with Co-30@N-G as the air cathode electrocatalyst showed a high peak power density of 227 mW cm^{-2} with a large current density of 131 mA cm^{-2} , as well as a superior specific capacity of $671 \text{ mAh g}_{\text{Zn}}^{-1}$. Degang Fu and coworkers presented a simple pyrolysis strategy of a ZIF-67 thin film on a macroporous polymeric substrate with 3D hierarchical architectures (Figure 1.6a) [81]. They synthesized vertically aligned NCNTs from a surface-mounted MOF as electrocatalysts for ORR and overall water splitting. Zhu Yihua and coworkers reported a hybrid composite material in which Co NPs were encapsulated in N-doped carbon (Co/N-C) [82]. Co/N-C exhibited high catalytic activity for ORR due to the synergistic effect of Co NPs and N-doped carbon in the hybrid material (Figure 1.6b). Jieshan Qiu and coworkers reported a novel process to synthesize double-shelled hybrid nanocages in which N-doped microporous carbon (NC) as inner shells and Co-N-doped graphitic carbon (Co-NGC) as outer shells [83]. When the NC@Co-NGC nanocages were used in ZABs as air electrode catalysts, it exhibited superior electrocatalytic properties to Pt/C with enhanced diffusion kinetics due to its high bifunctional catalytic activity (Figure 1.6c).

Furthermore, transition metal alloys with well-defined electronic structures have also been widely used as high-efficiency electrocatalysts. Tian-Yi Ma and coworkers developed a novel oxygen electrocatalyst in which the bamboo-like N-doped graphitic carbon nanotubes (N-GCNTs) were grown in situ with the bimetal FeCo NPs encapsulated in [84]. In the carbonization process, the metal salts ($\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ and $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) were decomposed and turned into alloy nucleus with the temperature reaching 500°C . Meanwhile, glutamic acid and melamine were pyrolyzed into graphitic carbon and $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. With the temperature further increases to 800°C , the N-GCNTs grew on the graphitic carbon with heteroatom doped under the catalysis of the active metal nucleuses to generate N-GCNT/FeCo. This catalyst demonstrated a high half-wave potential of 0.92 V vs. RHE toward ORR. Furthermore, when

the synthesized N-GCNT/FeCo was used as the air electrode in ZABs, it showed superior discharging–charging potential performance, high flexibility, and long life-time. Francis Verpoort and coworkers synthesized Co-N-CNT catalyst using a facile, low-cost, and scalable approach that pyrolyzing 2D leaf-like ZIF-L [85]. ZABs using the resultant Co-N-CNTs as air electrodes exhibited excellent performance due to their ultrahigh activity for ORR (Figure 1.7a). Wei Xing and coworkers prepared an oxygen catalyst in which the thin graphene nanosheets were coupled with transition metal NPs (TMs@NC_x) with a high-loading (~25 wt%) using a unique two-stage encapsulation strategy [86]. The optimal NiFe@NC_x catalyst exhibited high activity with an onset potential of 1.03 V for ORR (Figure 1.7b). John B. Goodenough and coworkers synthesized an oxygen catalyst (NiCo/porous fibrous carbon [PFC] aerogels) in which NiCo NPs immobilized on fibrous carbon aerogel (Figure 1.7c) and showed excellent performance when applied in ZABs [87].

1.3.2 Transition Metal Oxides/Sulfides

Transition metal compounds including sulfides, oxides, etc. are considered as alternative non-noble metal catalysts because of their environmental friendliness, low cost, and considerable high activity in alkaline electrolytes. Transition metal oxides are a series of promising non-noble metal catalysts for ORR in alkaline electrolyte. Zhongwei Chen and coworkers synthesized an oxygen catalyst (MnO₂-NCNT) derived from NCNTs and manganese dioxide (MnO₂) nanotubes for ORR [88]. When the MnO₂-NCNT composite having excellent ORR activities in the alkaline medium was used as an air cathode of a ZAB, it exhibited excellent discharge performance as well as strong stability. Rongfang Wang and workers embedded MnO NPs in nitrogen-doped mesoporous carbon (MnO/NC) as catalysts for the ORR and ZABs [89]. NaCl used as template has significant effect on mesoporous carbon material. The assembled ZAB exhibited an open-circuit voltage of 1.49 V, and a peak power density of 168 mW cm⁻² at a current density of about 200 mA cm⁻².

In terms of cobalt-based oxides, Dai and coworkers found that covalent hybridization of cobalt oxide (e.g. CoO, Co₃O₄) with CNT or graphene oxide could significantly increase ORR activity [90, 91]. The strong coupling between the highly graphitized carbon support and the oxidized NPs promoted the high catalytic activity of such composite materials. Jun Lu and coworkers fabricated an oxygen catalyst consisting of a layer of atomic thin mesoporous Co₃O₄/N-doped reduced graphene oxide (rGO) (N-rGO) nanosheets [92]. The oxygen catalyst had mesoporous structure, high specific surface area, strong synergistic effects between Co₃O₄ and N-rGO nanosheets, and high activity and strong durability for ORR. Moreover, the assembled knittable fiber-shaped ZAB exhibited enhanced and stable electrochemical performance (Figure 1.8). Metal oxide nanoarrays are considered to be alternative options for the affordable, efficient electrocatalysts of PEMFCs and ZABs. As shown in Figure 1.9a an alternative strategy for preparing ORR catalysts by coating three-dimensional CoO_x nanoarrays with porous N-doped carbon layer (CoO_x@NC nanoarray) was proposed by Xiaoming Sun and coworkers [93]. Porous NC not only provided a conductive coating that facilitated charge

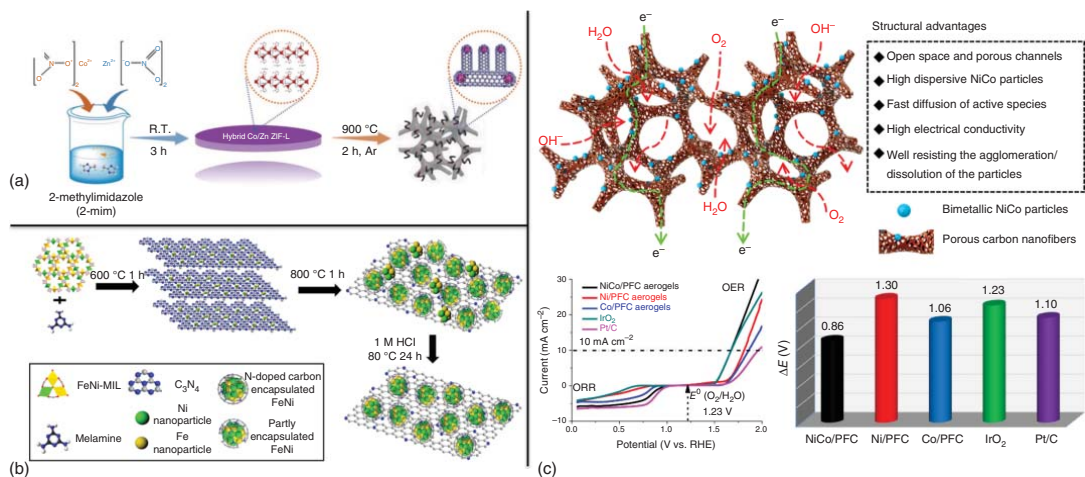


Figure 1.7 (a) Schematic illustration toward the synthetic process of Co-N-CNTs. Source: Reproduced with permission of Wang et al. [85], WILEY-VCH. (b) Schematic illustration of the synthetic strategy of the TMs@NC_x composite. Source: Reproduced with permission of Zhu et al. [86], American Chemical Society. (c) Schematic illustration of the advantages of the NiCo/PFC aerogels as electrocatalysts. Source: Reproduced with permission of Fu et al. [87], American Chemical Society.

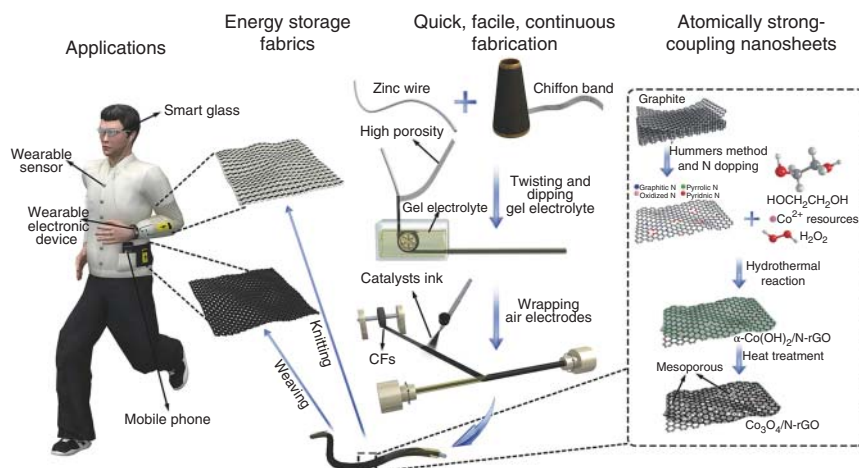


Figure 1.8 Schematic illustration to the fabrication process of a flexible fiber-shaped ZAB as well as atomically thin mesoporous $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{N-rGO}$ hybrid nanosheets with 2D layer-by-layer structure. Source: Reproduced with permission of [92], WILEY-VCH.

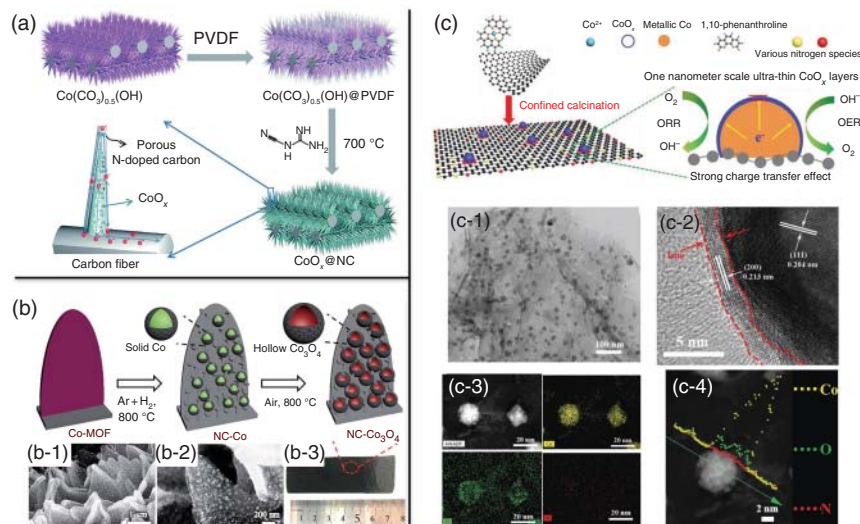


Figure 1.9 (a) The schematic diagram of the preparation of the $\text{CoO}_x@\text{NC}$ nanoarray. Source: Reproduced with permission of Hao et al. [93], Royal Society of Chemistry. (b) Schematic illustration of the fabrication process for hierarchical $\text{NC-Co}_3\text{O}_4$ arrays on flexible carbon cloth. (b-1, b-2) SEM and (b-3) digital images of $\text{NC-Co}_3\text{O}_4$ nanoarrays on carbon cloth. Source: Reproduced with permission of Guan et al. [94], WILEY-VCH. (c) Schematic illustration of 1 nm- CoO_x layer on the metallic substrate of Co/N-rGO . (c-1) TEM image. (c-2) HRTEM image. (c-3) high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) image and corresponding elemental images. (c-4) Line-scan energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) elemental distribution curves of Co, O, and N in the 1 nm- CoO_x layer on the Co/N-rGO catalyst. Source: Reproduced with permission of Zhou et al. [95], WILEY-VCH.

transfer and retention of electrolyte diffusion channels but also greatly increased the electrochemical surface area. In application to rechargeable ZABs as an air cathode, the electrode exhibited better durability than Pt/C. John Wang and coworkers embedded hollow Co_3O_4 nanosphere into nitrogen-doped carbon nanowire arrays on flexible carbon cloth to prepare a highly efficient oxygen catalyst (NC- Co_3O_4 /CC) derived from a Co-based MOF precursor (Figure 1.9b) [94]. The irregular hollow Co_3O_4 nanospheres having a fine scale NP structure (Figure 1.9b-1, b-2) were formed by the Kirkendall effect. When NC- Co_3O_4 /CC was used as a self-supporting air cathode catalyst (Figure 1.9b-3) for a flexible ZAB, it exhibited high capacity (387.2 mAh g^{-1}), outstanding stability, and remarkable flexibility. As shown in Figure 1.9c, Changzheng Wu and coworkers synthesized a 1 nm-scale CoO_x layer on a metallic Co/N-doped graphene (Figure 1.9(c-1)-(c-4)) [95]. The results showed that the ultrathin CoO_x layer enabled accelerated electron conduction and provided abundant active sites. Besides, the N-doped graphene substrate and metallic Co core also promoted electron transfer, resulting in remarkable electrocatalytic activity for ORR in alkaline medium.

Mixed valence oxides of transition metals with a spinel structure are considered to be a vital class of metal oxides. In particular, substituted Co_3O_4 with Mn, Ni, and Cu has shown excellent activity and strong stability toward ORR [96]. Yucheng Lei and coworkers developed NiCo_2O_4 nanosheet with spinel structure and oxygen defects [97]. This catalyst with the oxygen vacancies and numerous active sites exhibited remarkable ORR performance with an onset potential of 0.85 V vs. RHE. When used in ZABs, it exhibited the high power density of $102.08 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$ comparable to Pt/C. Yuan Chen and coworkers synthesized a series of hybrid materials composed of amorphous bimetallic oxide NPs immobilized on the surface of N-rGO [98]. With the aid of N-containing polyethyleneimine (PEI) polymer binder, Prussian blue or FeCo Prussian blue analog nanocrystals having a size of about 5 nm were first grown on the surface of graphene oxide (GO). At the optimized oxidative decomposition temperature, the Prussian blue (PB)/Prussian blue analogue (PBA) nanocrystals were converted into amorphous $\text{Fe}_a\text{Co}_{1-a}\text{O}_x$ nanocrystals ($0 \leq a \leq 1$) and the polymer/graphene oxide was simultaneously converted into N-rGO. $\text{Fe}_{0.5}\text{Co}_{0.5}\text{O}_x$ exhibited excellent oxygen catalytic activity with a large limiting current density for ORR. The assembled ZAB had a specific capacity of $756 \text{ mAh g}_{\text{Zn}}^{-1}$ and a peak power density of 86 mW cm^{-2} . Haipeng Yang and coworkers prepared a NiCoO_2 /graphene complex having a highly ordered 3D porous cellular network as ORR/oxygen evolution reaction (OER) electrocatalysts with the presence of the sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) anion surfactant [99]. The as-prepared catalyst demonstrated durable catalytic activities with a high half-wave potential for ORR. The experimental results exhibited that the catalyst had a high specific surface area due to its highly ordered three-dimensional structure and there was a strong bridging bond between NiCoO_2 nanosheets and flake graphene, which resulted in the good electrocatalytic activity.

Transition metal sulfides, various combinations of transition metal sulfides, and transition metals (Fe, Co, etc.) have been confirmed to have high activity for ORR. Furthermore, the surface electronic structure configuration can be optimized by doping the heteroatoms (such as S, N, P) into the carbon framework to promote

the adsorption/desorption behavior of the oxygen intermediate, thereby promoting the electrocatalytic kinetic processes [100]. Among them, cobalt sulfides have drawn more attention in ORR [101–103]. Yang Yang and coworkers prepared TiO_2 nanoporous film material embedded in N, P codoped CoS_2 nanoclusters ($\text{N, P/CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$) (Figure 1.10a-(a-3)) to enhance electrochemical activities for ORR [104]. They found that both N and P doping can improve the properties of the material, wherein the conductivity and electrochemical activity of the nanoporous film can be effectively improved by N-doping, while P-doping can passivate the surface of the electrode and improve stability. In application to two tandem ZABs, the $\text{N, P/CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ nanoporous films (NPFs) exhibited the excellent discharge potential (2.19 V), open-circuit voltage (2.37 V), and a strong stability for discharge over 130 hours (Figure 1.10a-4). The combination of carbonaceous nanomaterials and active species has been proven to improve the electrical conductivity by improving overall conductivity and coupling synergies. Jian Zhang and coworkers synthesized Co_9S_8 NPs loaded onto a N, S co-implanted 3D carbon matrix ($\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8@\text{NSCM}$) as a highly active electrocatalyst for ORR in alkaline solution [107]. The bimetallic zeolite imidazolate framework (ZIF) constructed by reacting Co(II) and Zn(II) ions with 2-methyl-imidazolate (MeIm) in methanolic solution was converted to a uniform heteroatom doped orderly carbon matrix under high temperature calcination.

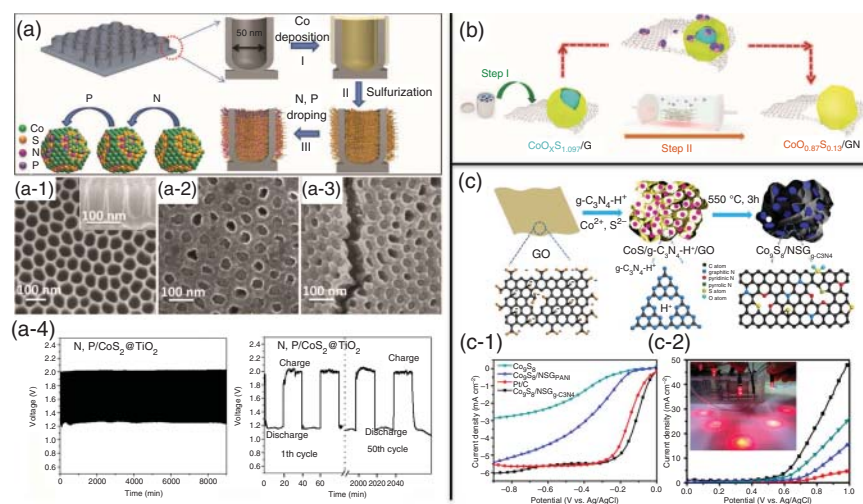


Figure 1.10 (a) Fabrication process of the $\text{N,P/CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ NPFs. SEM images of pristine (a-1) TiO_2 NPFs, (a-2) $\text{CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$, and (a-3) $\text{N,P/CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$, respectively. (a-4) Discharge–charge profiles of ZABs composed with $\text{N,P/CoS}_2@\text{TiO}_2$ catalysts at a current density of 10 mA cm^{-2} at room temperature. Source: Reproduced with permission of Guo et al. [104], WILEY-VCH. (b) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of $\text{CoO}_{0.87}\text{S}_{0.13}/\text{GN}$. Source: Reproduced with permission of Fu et al. [105], John Wiley and Sons. (c) Schematic demonstration of the preparation process for $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4}$. linear sweep voltammograms (LSV) polarization curves for (c-1) ORR and (c-2) OER of $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4}$, $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{PANi}}$, Co_9S_8 , and commercial Pt/C catalysts in O_2 -saturated 0.1 M KOH in the range of $0.0 - 1.0 \text{ V vs. Ag/AgCl}$ (inset shows the digital image of the LEDs lighted by the ZAB). Source: Reproduced with permission of Tang et al. [106], American Chemical Society.

Meanwhile, Co_9S_8 NPs can be grown in situ on the carbon substrate under a sulfur vapor atmosphere. Owing to the optimized synergistic effect between the Co_9S_8 and N, S co-implanted 3D carbon matrix (NSCM) interface, the $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8@\text{NSCM}$ exhibited remarkable stability and discharge performance in ZABs. Zhongwei Chen and coworkers synthesized S-deficient cobalt oxysulfide single crystals immobilized on N-doped graphene nanomeshes ($\text{CoO}_{0.87}\text{S}_{0.13}/\text{graphene nanomeshes [GN]}$), which can be directly used in PEMFCs and ZABs as a freestanding catalyst film [105]. They found that the edge-nitrogen-rich GN produced by ammonolysis not only provided intimate electronic contact with $\text{CoO}_{0.87}\text{S}_{0.13}$ NPs but also provided short diffusion channels and adequate open space for intermediates and reactants in the electrocatalysis process (Figure 1.10b). When compared to Pt/C, $\text{CoO}_{0.87}\text{S}_{0.13}/\text{GN}$ has performed better performance regarding onset potential ($E_{\text{onset}} = 0.94 \text{ V}$ vs. RHE), half-wave potential ($E_{1/2} = 0.83 \text{ V}$ vs. RHE), and the diffusion-limiting current ($4.12 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}@0.7 \text{ V}$). More significantly, $\text{CoO}_{0.87}\text{S}_{0.13}/\text{GN}$ shows better ORR stability than the Pt/C catalyst without significant losses in activity after 3000 cycles of cyclic voltammetry between 0.6 and 1.7 V in O_2 -saturated 0.1 M KOH solution at 50 mV s^{-1} . Dongqing Wu et al. reported a facile ionic assembly strategy to synthesize a hybrid of quasi-hexagonal Co_9S_8 nanoplates and S and N dual-doped graphene ($\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4}$) (Figure 1.10c) [106]. $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4}$ demonstrated excellent ORR activity performance with the large limited current density of 6.05 mA cm^{-2} at -0.9 V vs. Ag/AgCl and the onset potential of -0.02 V vs. Ag/AgCl (Figure 1.10c-1). As shown in Figure 1.10c-2, $\text{Co}_9\text{S}_8/\text{NSG}_{\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4}$ also had significant catalytic activity for OER.

Substituting other dopants for transition metals has proven to be an effective way to enhance the catalytic activity for ORR [108]. John Wang and coworkers synthesized a single-phase bimetallic $(\text{Ni}, \text{Co})\text{S}_2$ as a highly efficient catalyst for ORR [109]. In application to ZABs, a high peak power density of 153.5 mW cm^{-2} , a high open cell voltage of 1.48 V, and strong discharge stability were obtained (the discharge voltage remained at 1.47 V over 20 hours). Han et al. prepared an efficient oxygen electrocatalyst ($\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4/\text{N-CNT}$) in which the homogeneous NiCo_2S_4 nanocrystals were supported on NCNTs (Figure 1.11a) [110]. When used as cathodes in rechargeable ZABs, it exhibited enlarged energy efficiency ($\approx 67.2\%$) (Figure 1.11a-1), high peak power density (147 mW cm^{-2} at 0.77 V) (Figure 1.11a-2), and strong stability (Figure 1.11a-3). Aiping Yu and coworkers synthesized urchin-like NiCo_2S_4 microsphere synergized with S-doped graphene nanosheets (sulfur-doped graphene nanosheets [S-GNS]/ NiCo_2S_4) (Figure 1.11b-(b-2)) [111]. The resulted $\text{S-GNS}/\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4$ exhibited excellent electrocatalytic activities for ORR in the alkaline medium. Furthermore, in application to ZABs, it demonstrated a maximum power density of 216.3 mW cm^{-2} and strong stability for 100 hours (Figure 1.11b-3). Its unique structure and morphology, as well as S-GNS and the synergistic effect of NiCo_2S_4 , led to the remarkable electrocatalytic activity of $\text{S-GNS}/\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4$ catalysts. First, nano-needle with microspherical structure well-assembled urchin-like NiCo_2S_4 , which greatly increased the surface exposure of the active site, giving this morphology an effective mass and charge transport pathway. S-GNS can not only increase the electrical conductivity but also improve

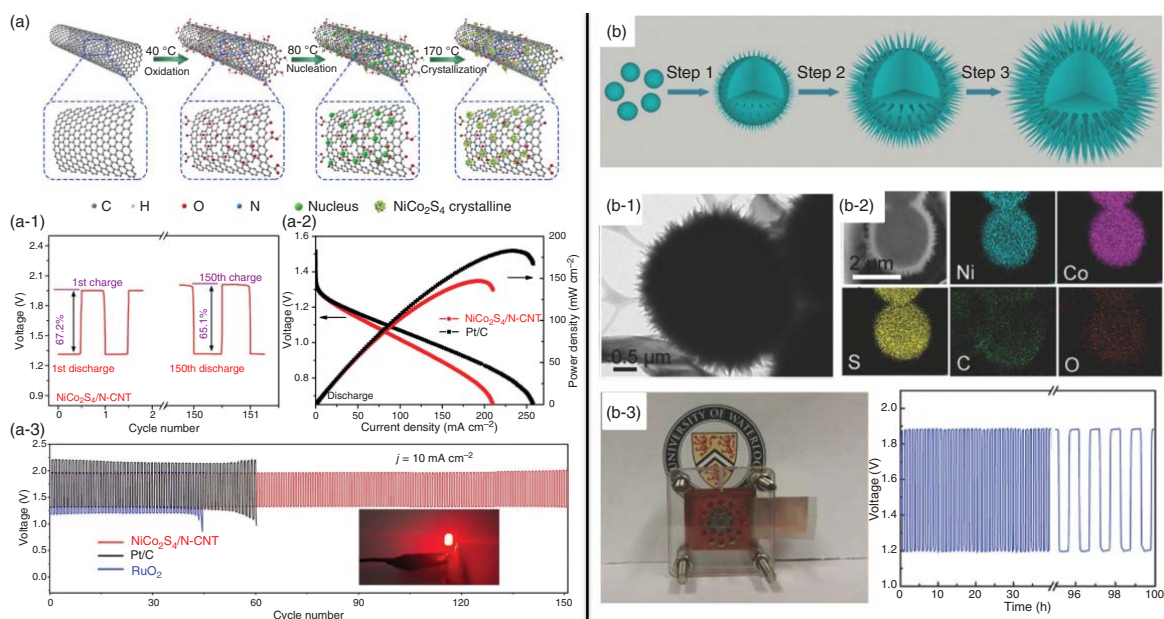


Figure 1.11 (a) Schematic illustration of the preparation of $\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4/\text{N-CNT}$ nanocomposite. (a-1) 1st and 150th discharge/charge curves of $\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4/\text{N-CNT}$ electrode. (a-2) Polarization curves and corresponding power densities of $\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4/\text{N-CNT}$ and Pt/C-based cathodes. (a-3) Discharge/recharge profiles of rechargeable ZABs based on $\text{NiCo}_2\text{S}_4/\text{N-CNT}$, Pt/C and RuO_2 cathode with duration of 400 seconds per cycle at 10 mA cm^{-2} . Inset shows a LED light lit by an assembled ZAB. Source: Reproduced with permission of Han et al. [110], Elsevier. (b) Schematic diagram for the evaluation and formation process of urchin-like NiCo-based carbonate hydroxide microspheres. (b-1) Low-magnification TEM images and (b-2) element mappings of nickel, cobalt, sulfur, carbon, and oxygen in the as-obtained S-GNS/ NiCo_2S_4 nanocomposite. (b-3) Photography of a home-made rechargeable ZABs and galvanostatic charge/discharge test of the home-made ZABs built with S-GNS/ NiCo_2S_4 catalyst at 10 mA cm^{-2} . Source: Reproduced with permission of Liu et al. [111], WILEY-VCH.

the contact between electrolyte and catalyst, and maintain the catalyst integrity during discharge process because of the robustness of graphene nanosheets (GNS), thereby resulting in enhanced the cycle stability. In addition, S-GNS also enhanced the electrocatalytic activity due to the spin density of carbon atoms in the vicinity of heteroatoms caused by sulfur doping (Figure 1.11b).

1.4 Atomically Dispersed Metal in Carbon Materials

Since the ORR only occurs on the surface of the NP catalyst, moreover, the key steps in determining the catalytic efficiency are the adsorption of the reactants and the desorption of the product at the active site. Reaction kinetics have been confirmed to be easy to tune by the shape and size of NPs, and the catalytic activity is mainly contributed by surface atoms while the role of the core is minimal. The atomic dispersion of active sites can enhance the chemical interaction with the support and increase utilization efficiency. Recent researchers have proved that the content of the uncoordinated metal atoms being used as catalytic activity sites is increased by the reduction of the size of NPs to the sub-nanometer range [112]. In recent years, the application of single atomic catalysts in energy conversion and storage has attracted widespread attention. The results showed that support matrices not only provide anchor sites for single metal atoms, provide excellent conductivity, but also manipulate metal atoms, electronic structure, and charge density of adjacent carbon atoms [113–115].

The high cost or large consumption of conventional Pt NP-based catalysts is mainly because of the slow ORR dynamics and low Pt utilization efficiency on per Pt atom. Reducing Pt NP to a single atom is one of the most effective approaches to reduce the high consumption of Pt by increasing the efficiency of Pt utilization. Jing Liu et al. developed a Pt single-atom electrocatalyst supported on carbon black (Figure 1.12a) with efficient activity and durable for ORR via a simple optimization procedure with chloroplatinic acid as Pt precursor and urea as N precursor, respectively [116]. The obtained carbon-supported doped-N triggered Pt single-atom catalyst (SAC) with a Pt content of 0.4 wt% has high oxygen reduction activity (Figure 1.12 (a-1)–(a-3)), stability, and tolerance to poisoning in both acid solution and alkaline solution (Figure 1.12a). Ronghai Yu and coworkers reported a new active moiety of $\text{Pt}_1\text{-O}_2\text{-Fe}_1\text{-N}_4$ via a precise anchoring a Pt atom to the iron center by bonding with an oxygen molecule (Figure 1.12b) [117]. The results showed that the atomically Pt and Fe-N_4 moieties were uniformly dispersed on the carbon support (Figure 1.12b-1), then the reduced oxidation state of Fe coupled with the Fe-O bond in $\text{Pt}_1\text{@Fe-N-C}$ supported the hypothesis of new $\text{Pt}_1\text{-O}_2\text{-Fe}_1\text{-N}_4$ (Figure 1.12b-2, b-3). The oxygen reduction catalytic activities of $\text{Pt}_1\text{@Fe-N-C}$ showed a half-wave potential (0.80 V), an onset potential (0.93 V) in O_2 -saturated H_2SO_4 (Figure 1.12b-4), and a peak power density of 0.86 W cm^{-2} at 0.49 V in a real acidic PEMFC (Figure 1.12b-5).

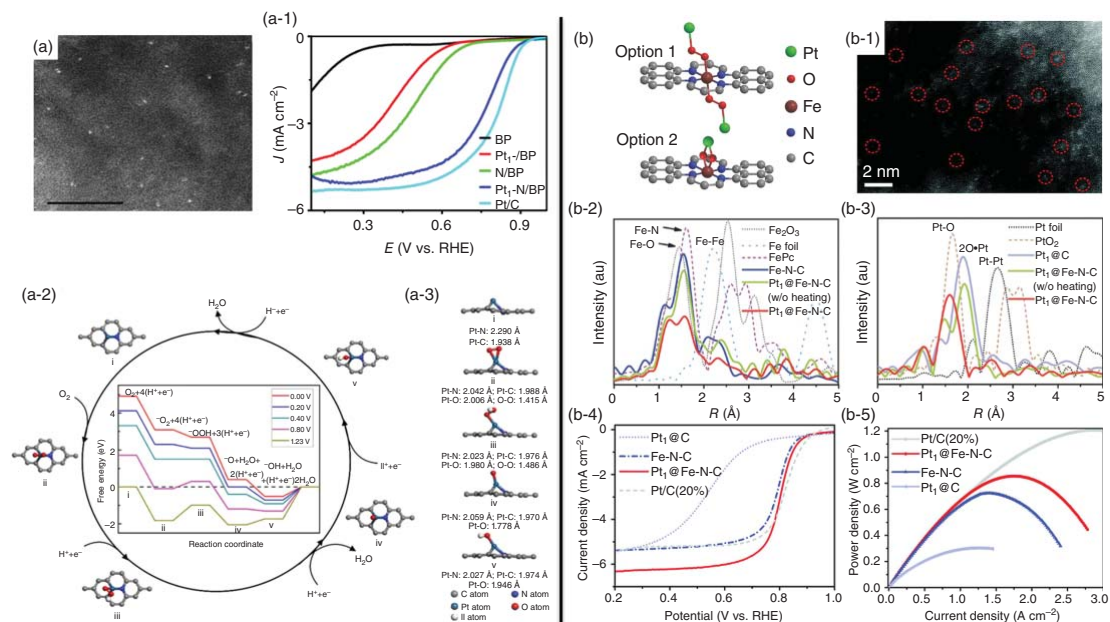


Figure 1.12 (a) HAADF-STEM images of Pt₁-N/black pearls (BP) (carbonblack BP2000), (a-1) rotating ring-disk electrode (RRDE) polarization curves of BP, N/BP, Pt₁/BP, Pt₁-N/BP, and commercial Pt/C in O₂-saturated 0.1 M HClO₄ with a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ and rotation speed of 1600 rpm, (a-2, a-3) the proposed reaction pathways for complete oxygen reduction reaction on the g-P-N₁-Pt₁ catalyst. Source: Liu et al. [116], Springer Nature. Licensed under CC BY 4.0. (b) Proposed schematic diagram of Pt₁-O₂-Fe₁-N₄-C₁₂ as the active moiety of Pt₁@Fe-N-C. (b-1) HAADF-STEM image of Pt₁@Fe-N-C catalyst. (b-2) Magnitudes of k_3 -weighted Fourier-transformed extended X-ray absorption of fine structure XAFS (EXAFS) data of Fe in Fe-N-C, Pt₁@Fe-N-C (w/o heating), and Pt₁@Fe-N-C with references of FePc, Fe₂O₃, and Fe foil. (b-3) Fourier-transformed EXAFS data of Pt in the catalysts with references of PtO₂ and Pt foil, (b-4) LSV curves of the indicated catalysts measured by RRDE technique in O₂-saturated 0.5 M H₂SO₄, (b-5) power density curves of membrane electrode assemblies (MEAs) with Fe-N-C, Pt₁@Fe-N-C, Pt₁@C, and Pt/C (20%) as the cathode catalyst, respectively. Source: Reproduced with permission of Zeng et al. [117], WILEY-VCH.

The metal-N_x configuration is generally considered to be the active site in metal-doped carbon. Transition-metal-based materials have a wide range of applications in ORR electrocatalysis [118, 119]. Yadong Li and coworkers synthesized isolated single atomic sites anchored on hollow N-doped carbon spheres (ISAS-Co/HNCS) with uniformly dispersed single Co atomic sites by a template-assisted pyrolysis method (Figure 1.13a) [120]. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) proved ISAS-Co/HNCS retained spherical shape (Figure 1.13a-1) with the wall thickness of roughly 5 nm (Figure 1.13a-2) and the existing form of cobalt single atoms (Figure 1.13a-3, a-4). It possessed excellent oxygen reduction catalytic activity in H₂SO₄ solution ($E_{1/2} = 0.773$ V) due to its uniformly dispersed single atom cobalt sites, increasing exposure to active sites and hollow substrate resulting in accelerating the mass transfer of related species. Furthermore, a series of ISAS-M/HNCS (M = Fe, Cu, etc.) can be synthesized. Yadong Li and coworkers also synthesized atomic-dispersed Fe anchored on sulfur and nitrogen-codoped carbon (Fe-ISA/SNC) (Figure 1.13b) [121]. The contents of S, N can be broadly adjusted by the initial ratio of polymeric monomers. The oxygen reduction reactivity of Fe-ISA/SNC exhibited a trend of increasing first and then decreasing with the increase of S doping. The optimal Fe-ISA/SNC showed excellent ORR performance that half-wave and onset potentials were more positive than Pt/C (Figure 1.13b). Yadong Li and coworkers also developed a simple pyrolysis process of predesigned bimetallic Zn/Co MOFs to synthesize atomic-dispersed Co on N-doped porous carbon [122]. In this process, the carbonization of the organic linking agent can reduce Co and selectively evaporate Zn. The results of the structural analysis indicated the Co single atoms stabilized by as-resulted N-doped porous carbon (Figure 1.13c).

Jin-Song Hu and coworkers used a cascade anchoring strategy to manufacture M-NC SACs in which M included Co, Mn, Mo, Fe, Cu, Ni, Pt, etc. and metal loadings up to 12.1% [123]. Figure 1.14a shows the preparation procedure of the M-NC SAC electrocatalyst, metal ions were first sequestered by a chelating agent, then anchored onto high surface area porous carbon which had the rich oxygen-containing functional group. Metal ions can be effectively isolated by chelating agents, and chelating agents can also bind to carbon support by the interaction with hydrogen bonding. Excessive chelating agents attached to the surface of support physically separate the metal complex. Then, melamine as a nitrogen source was mixed with the complex bond carbon for subsequent pyrolysis to achieve M-NC SACs. During the pyrolysis process at high temperature (>~600 °C), the carbon-nitrogen species (CN_x) (such as C₃N₄, etc.) decomposition from melamine can then be combined with metal atoms to form M-N_x to the prevention of metal atom polymerization (Figure 1.14a-1, a-2). The atomically dispersed Fe-NC SAC showed ultrahigh ORR catalytic activity with a kinetic mass current of 100.7 A g⁻¹ at 0.9 V and a half-wave potential of 0.90 V (vs. RHE) in 0.1 M KOH. As shown in Figure 1.14b, Yadong Li and coworkers used an encapsulated-precursor pyrolysis approach to prepare an isolated single-atom Fe-N-C catalyst (Figure 1.14 (b-1)–(b-4)) with excellent ORR reactivity [124]. The half-wave potential of Pt/C appeared at 0.842 V, while the half-wave potential of as-obtained catalyst reached 0.90 V, which manifested that the single-atom Fe-N-C catalyst showed high ORR catalytic activity.

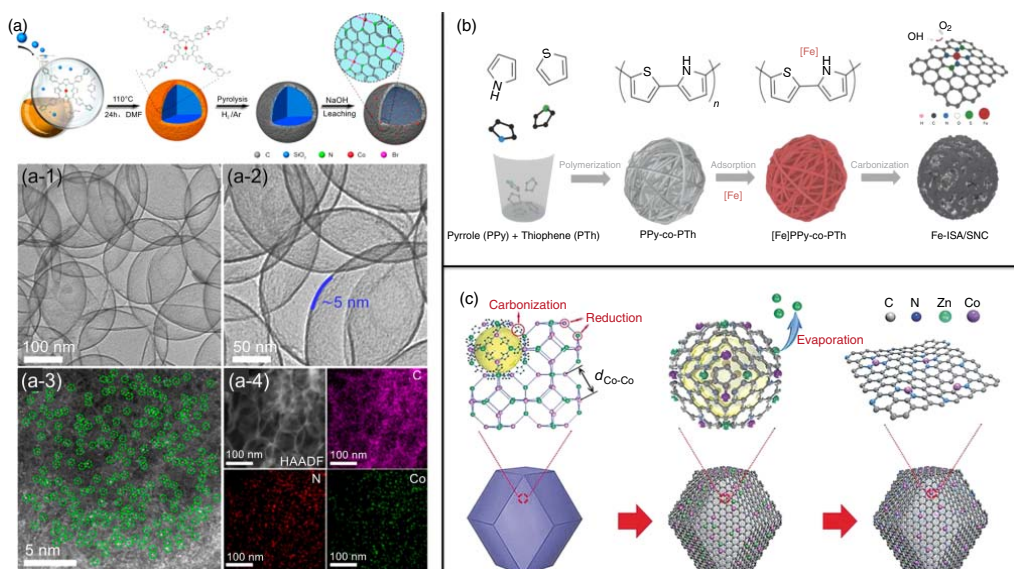


Figure 1.13 (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of ISAS-Co/HNCS. (a-1, a-2) TEM images of ISAS-Co/HNCS. (a-3) AC HAADF-STEM image of ISAS-Co/HNCS; isolated bright dots marked with light-green circles are cobalt atoms. (a-4) HAADF-STEM image and corresponding EDX element mapping of ISAS-Co/HNCS: C (violet), N (red), and Co (green). Source: Reproduced with permission of Han et al. [120], American Chemical Society. (b) Illustration of the synthetic process of Fe-ISA/SNC. Source: Reproduced with permission of Li et al. [121], WILEY-VCH. (c) Scheme of the proposed formation mechanisms for Co SAs/N-C [122]. Source: Reproduced with permission of Yin et al. [122], WILEY-VCH.

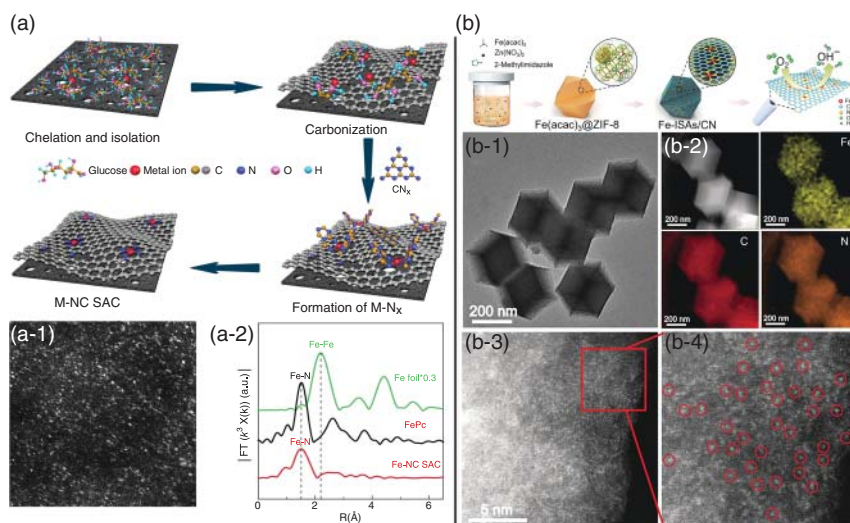


Figure 1.14 (a) The cascade anchoring strategy for the synthesis of M-NC SACs. (a-1) HAADF-STEM image of Fe-NC SAC. (a-2) Fourier transform of Fe K-edge EXAFS spectra of Fe-NC SAC and reference samples (FePc and Fe foil). Source: Zhao et al. [123], Springer Nature. Licensed under CC BY 4.0. (b) Schematic illustration of the formation of Fe-ISAs/CN, (b-1) TEM, (b-2) HAADF-STEM images, corresponding element maps showing the distribution of Fe (yellow), C (red), and N (orange), (b-3) HAADF-STEM image, and (b-4) enlarged image of the Fe-ISAs/CN. Single Fe atoms are highlighted by red circles [124]. Source: Reproduced with permission of Chen et al. [124], Wiley-VCH.

1.5 Metal-Free ORR Electrocatalysts

Graphene, carbon nanotubes, and nanocarbon are by far the most available heteroatom-doped carbon for metal-free ORR electrocatalysts [125]. For instance, since the vertically aligned N-doped carbon nanotubes (VA-NCNTs) for metal-free ORR catalysts were first reported by Dai and coworkers, a large number of other carbon materials related to heteroatom-doped were extensively reported [126–128]. For example, Zhang and coworkers developed an approach for synthesizing two-dimensional N and S double-doped porous carbon nanosheets (N/S-2DPCs) [129]. The N/S concentration determined the ORR catalytic performance of 2DPCs and exhibited the optimal ORR performance when the S/N ratio was 0.05 (N/S-2DPC-60). In addition, they assembled ZABs using N/S-2DPC-60 as an air cathode catalysts. Notably, the results showed that it had remarkable cycling stability for 12 hours at 20 mA cm⁻². Furthermore, in acidic solution, these nitrogen-sulfur double-doped carbon nanomaterials also had excellent ORR activity [130]. Mullen and coworkers exploited a series of N-doped carbon nanosheets with a pore size of ≈ 22 nm [131]. This carbon nanosheets displayed significant ORR activities in an acidic solution with an onset potential of 0.72 V vs. RHE and a 4e pathway.

Recently, carbon nanomaterials derived from biomass applying in ORR catalysts have also attracted great attention [132]. For instance, the banana peel was used

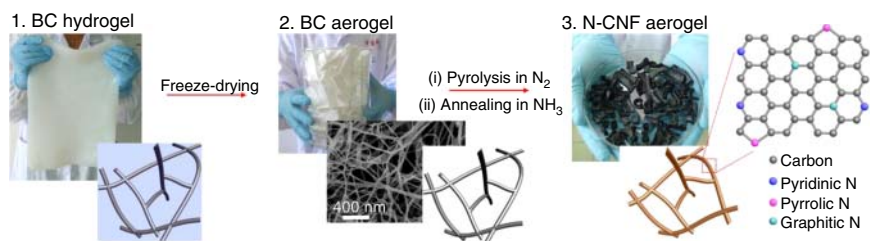


Figure 1.15 Synthesis and morphologies of N-CNF aerogels. Source: Reproduced with permission of Liang et al. [134], Elsevier.

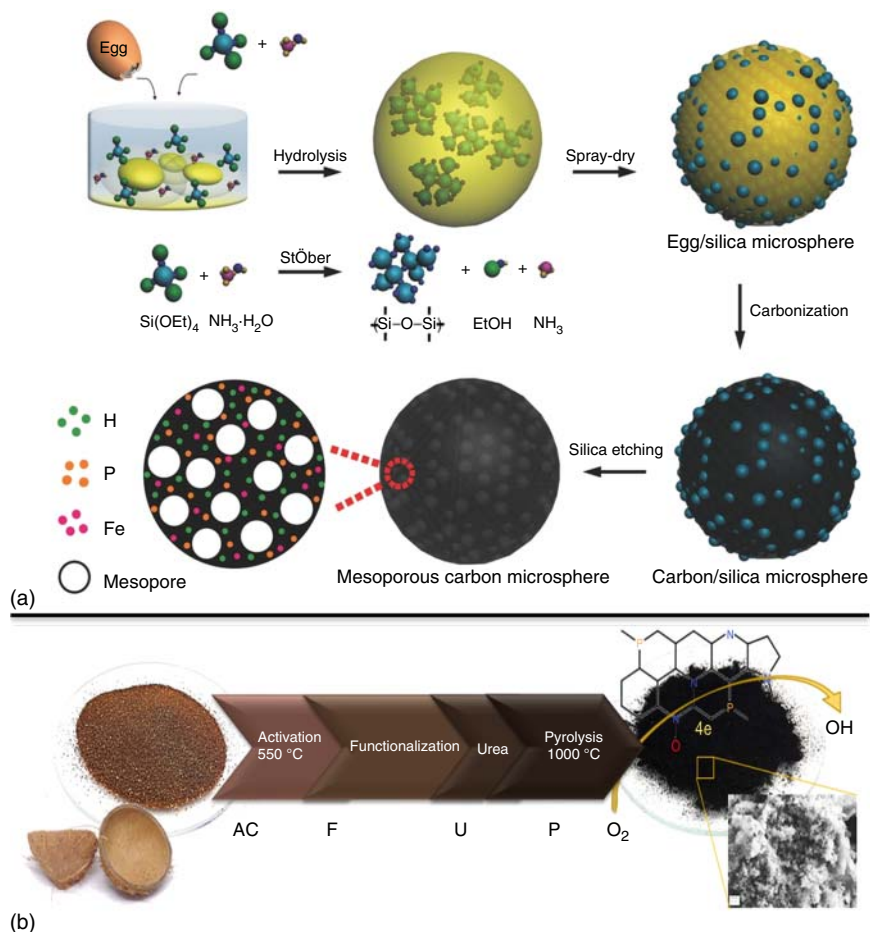


Figure 1.16 (a) Schematic illustration of the fabrication of egg-CMS. Source: Reproduced with permission of Wu et al. [135], WILEY-VCH. (b) Schematic of the synthesis of N, P-doped porous carbon from coconut shells. Source: Reproduced with permission of Borghei et al. [136], Elsevier.

to prepare 3D porous carbon nanosheets through calcination and KOH activation [133]. In application to a ZAB, the resulting carbon nanosheets had excellent ORR performance and high power density (208 mW cm^{-2}). Bacterial cellulose (BC) was also applied to prepare the N-doped carbon nanofiber (N-CNF) aerogels [134]. As Figure 1.15 showed that lyophilized bacterial cellulose was directly pyrolyzed to fabricate the N-CNF [134]. The ORR half-wave potential of the obtained N-CNF was only 50 mV lower than that of the Pt/C. Furthermore, when applying the N-CNF in ZABs, the N-CNF showed remarkable performance which had a high specific capacity (615 mAh g^{-1}) and energy density of 760 Wh kg^{-1} .

Gengfeng Zheng and coworkers used a high-throughput spray-drying technique to synthesize multiple elements (Fe, P, and N) co-doped carbon microspheres with a mesopore dominated (egg-carbon microspheres [CMS]) derived from eggs without the extrinsic doping sources (Figure 1.16a) [135]. They first mixed tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS) with eggs and spray-dried and then etched to obtain mesoporous structures. It was worth noting that the resulting co-doped egg-CMS having a high pore volume and a large specific surface area exhibited comparable catalytic activities for ORR. In addition, when used egg-CMS electrocatalyst as the air cathode in ZABs, it showed that the battery discharge voltage can be well maintained at about 1 V after 30 cycles. Orlando J. Rojas and coworkers used coconut shell residues to prepare N, P-doped porous carbon applying to the ORR in alkaline solution (Figure 1.16b) [136].

1.6 Conclusion

In summary, we reviewed the latest advance in the research of Pt-based materials, transition metals/alloys, transition metal oxides/sulfide, atomically dispersed metal in carbon materials, and metal-free carbon materials as ORR electrocatalysts, especially the mechanistic understanding of these catalysts and their performance in the air cathode discharge process of ZABs. To increase the active site of the metal-based catalysts under a limited mass loading, the catalyst size is typically reduced to the nanoscale. For metal-free carbon materials, to increase the exposure of the active sites and promote the diffusion of reactants and oxygen, hierarchical porosities are required. In general, dopants and structure internal defects can effectively increase the catalytic activity by modifying the electronic structure. At present, composite catalysts are composed of metal, alloys, metal oxides, metal sulfide, atomically dispersed metal in carbon, and metal-free carbon materials, such as heteroatom-doped carbon and defective carbon, exhibit promising properties due to their synergistic effects. Although many advances have been made in the ORR electrocatalysts for PEMFCs and ZABs, there are still challenges that require further development. For example, modifying metal-based NPs with organic or inorganic materials and supporting metals on robust support can optimize the surface electronic structure of the metal to increase the activity of the catalyst and stability, which provides a practical direction for preservation of the structural integrity of metal-based electrocatalyst in the future. Moreover, the metal-free catalysts have an effective catalytic ORR in alkaline electrolyte, but low activity and poor durability

in acidic. Therefore, more research works on optimizing the synthesis conditions of the catalysts to achieve high catalytic activity and efficient use of active sites, thus improving ORR performance in both acidic and alkaline media.

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2

Electrocatalytic Oxygen Evolution Reaction

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2.1 Introduction

Solar-to-chemical energy conversion is a promising and sustainable approach to address the growing energy demand and environmental issues in the twenty-first century. This conversion is naturally performed by green plants known as photosynthesis, during which, driven by sunlight, oxygen and carbohydrates are produced from CO₂ and H₂O [1]. Nowadays, photovoltaic cells have been commercially available to convert solar energy to electricity. Therefore, highly efficient electricity-driven production of value-added chemicals or fuels is critical to realize the overall solar-to-chemical conversion. These production processes can be achieved via various pathways, such as electrochemical hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), N₂ reduction reaction (NRR), and CO₂ reduction reaction (CO₂RR) [2–4]. Their products, such as hydrogen, ammonia, ethylene, ethanol, and propanol, are important feedstocks in chemical and sustainable energy industry. These reactions are reduction processes occurring at the cathode, while electrochemical oxygen evolution reaction (OER) can be the oxidation process at the anode, i.e. $2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$ (Figure 2.1). Moreover, the OER also plays a crucial role in the charge process for rechargeable metal–air batteries [5, 6]. However, as a four-electron transfer reaction, the OER is kinetically sluggish. Therefore, catalysts are widely utilized to lower its activation energy. So far, various OER catalysts have been developed ranging from homogeneous molecular catalysts to heterogeneous solid catalysts (e.g. metals, metal oxides, sulfides, and phosphides).

In this chapter, the latest definitions, proposed mechanisms, and emerging domains of the electrocatalytic OER are first discussed. State-of-the-art molecular and heterogeneous OER electrocatalysts and their catalytic properties are subsequently showcased. Last, remaining challenges toward practical catalytic electrodes for oxygen evolution reaction and related future perspectives are summarized.

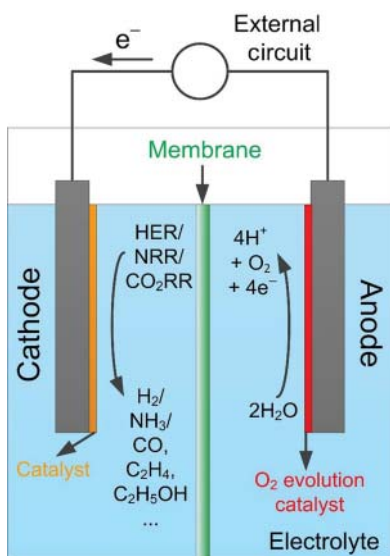


Figure 2.1 Schematic illustration of electrocatalytic OER at the anode and HER/NRR/CO₂RR at the cathode.

2.2 Bioinspiration: OER in Photosystem II

Photosystem II (PSII), as a membrane protein complex located in the thylakoid membrane of plants, algae, and cyanobacteria, is involved in a series of light-induced electron transfer reactions, resulting in the water oxidation to produce protons and molecular oxygen (Figure 2.2) [7, 8]. It is worth noting that the cellular machinery responsible for water oxidation is unique and demonstrates the same mechanism across all photosynthetic organisms, although there are differences in second coordination sphere between higher plants and cyanobacteria [9]. The structure of PSII was first revealed at resolutions from 3.8 to 2.9 Å in two closely related thermophilic cyanobacteria, *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* [10–12] and *Thermosynechococcus vulcanus* [13]. The oxygen evolving catalyst of PSII is a protein-bound Mn₄CaO₅ cluster. To uncover its electronic properties is also crucial to understanding its catalytic activity, thus providing insights into design of highly active OER catalysts beyond nature. In 2011, Umena et al. reported the detailed structure at a resolution of 1.9 Å, functions, and cofactors of the Mn₄CaO₅ cluster [14]. They pointed out that the most significant structural feature of the Mn₄CaO₅ cluster is its distorted chair form, which might be critical to unraveling the mechanism of the OER.

2.3 Fundamentals of Electrocatalytic OER

In addition to catalyst material for OER, other parameters can also have a significant influence on the OER performance. These parameters and their effects on the performance are discussed below.

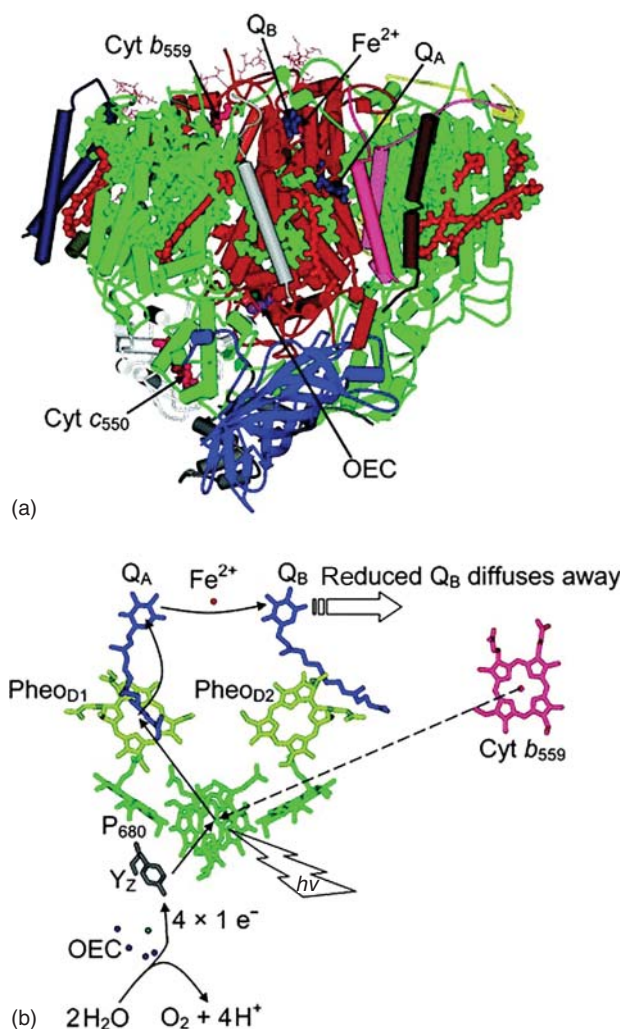


Figure 2.2 Structure of photosystem II. (a) Schematic diagram of the polypeptide subunits and cofactors of a PSII monomer. (b) The principal electron transfer cofactors. Source: Reproduced with permission McEvoy et al. [7], American Chemical Society.

2.3.1 Electrode Substrate

The electrode substrates are widely utilized as supports for OER catalysts. Their properties, such as conductivity, structure, and wettability, can influence the overall OER performance. Based on the surface structure, electrode substrates are categorized as flat substrate and 3D substrate. The flat substrates include glassy carbon, metal foil, and transparent conductive oxide (TCO)-coated glass, while the 3D substrates consist of carbon cloth/paper and nickel foam. Flat substrates usually correspond to lower mass loading of catalysts per unit of geometric surface area than 3D substrates. Binders are also used to mechanically stabilize the catalysts, resulting

in increased resistance, blockage of active catalytic sites, and slow diffusion of ions [15]. Therefore, to achieve a binder-free electrode, research efforts have been focused on direct growth of catalysts on the substrates, such as Ni foam, carbon paper, and carbon cloth, which also leads to excellent electrical contact between the catalyst and current collector. However, peeling of catalyst from the substrate still happens due to mismatched growth, which can be addressed by pre-modification of the substrate surface. Recently, the effect of three different substrates on the electrocatalytic OER performance has been investigated, namely Ni foam, Au(111), and gold-plated Ni foam [16]. It turned out that catalysts on gold-plated Ni foam demonstrated much better performance than other two substrates, which was attributed to its higher conductivity.

2.3.2 Electrolyte

To date, various electrolytes have been developed for different applications, such as solid electrolyte, organic electrolyte, and aqueous electrolyte. Solid electrolyte can be found in polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) electrolyzers. This membrane in the PEM electrolyzers permits the transport of protons between the anode and cathode. Moreover, it also separates the gas products of H₂ and O₂ to prevent them from forming an explosive mixture. Aqueous electrolyte includes alkaline solution, neutral solution, and acidic solution. Alkaline electrolyser has been commercially available with numerous efficient OER catalysts developed under this condition. On the contrary, similarly efficient and affordable catalysts for the OER in acidic electrolyte are rarely reported [17].

2.3.3 Onset Potential and Overpotential

Onset potential is the potential at which the current starts rising, indicative of the starting point of the OER. Overpotential is the difference between an applied potential and the standard oxidation potential of the OER, i.e. 1.23 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). One of the key factors to evaluate the OER performance is the overpotential needed to achieve a current density of 10 mA cm⁻². Generally, an excellent OER catalyst demonstrates overpotential ranging from 300 to 400 mV, and few catalysts have been reported with overpotential of much lower than 300 mV.

2.3.4 Tafel Analysis of the Rate-Determining Step

Rate-determining step (RDS) with the highest activation barrier is the “bottleneck” for OER [18]. Tafel slope-based kinetic analysis is commonly conducted to determine the RDS. Tafel slope related to the catalytic activity is independent on the surface area of the catalyst. It represents the relationship between logarithmic current (j) and overpotential (η), indicative of the increment of applied potential needed to enhance the anodic current flow by an order of magnitude. The kinetics based on Tafel slope is derived from the Butler–Volmer equation (Eq. (2.1)).

$$j = j_0 \left[e^{\frac{(1-\alpha)n e \eta}{k_B T}} - e^{\frac{-\alpha n e \eta}{k_B T}} \right] \quad (2.1)$$

where j is the current, j_0 is the exchange current, α is the exchange coefficient, n is the number of electrons involved in the reaction, e is the electron charge, η is the overpotential, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, and T is the absolute temperature. Notably, j_0 is dependent on three parameters including the initial concentrations of the oxidized species, the surface area of electrode, and the kinetic rate constants of the reactions.

Equation (2.1) can be linearized at low overpotential, where $\eta \ll k_B T/ne$, as shown below.

$$j \sim \frac{ne\eta}{k_B T} \quad (2.2)$$

At high overpotential, where $\eta \gg k_B T/ne$, the Butler–Volmer equation can be demonstrated in another linearized form (Eq. (2.3)).

$$\ln |j| \sim \frac{(1 - \alpha)ne\eta}{k_B T} \quad (2.3)$$

This is the anodic branch of the Tafel plot.

Tafel slope that is experimentally determined can be categorized into two regimes: A Tafel slope of around 60 mV dec^{-1} usually corresponds to one electrochemical pre-equilibrium step before RDS, while a Tafel slope of 120 mV dec^{-1} is in line with a mechanism involving a rate-limiting one-electron transfer, without kinetically relevant electrochemical pre-equilibria [19]. Regarding RDS, it has been reported that the RDS involves the ligation of a hydroxide ion to the active metal surface site in basic media, thus increasing the oxidation state of the metal ion by one unit [20]. Tafel studies on perovskite catalysts showed that the RDS involves desorption of $-\text{OH}$ or another oxygenated species from the surface of the catalyst [21]. Due to the complexity of the multi-electron transfer reaction accompanied with the rapid formation and further transformation of intermediate products, it was suggested that time-resolved in situ molecular orbital approaches could be helpful to determine the actual RDS within a certain OER mechanism [22].

2.3.5 pH Dependence: The Nernst Equation

Mechanistic analyses can also be carried out based on the pH dependence of the onset potential for OER [18, 23]. The Nernst equation (Eqs. (2.4) and (2.5)) is key to determining the pH dependence of the OER and HER processes.

$$E = E^0 + \frac{RT}{nF} \ln \frac{\alpha_{\text{ox}}}{\alpha_{\text{red}}} \quad (2.4)$$

where E is the electrode potential, E^0 is the standard electrode potential, R is the gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, n is the number of electrons involved in the redox reaction, F is the Faraday constant, α_{ox} is the activity of the oxidized species, and α_{red} is the activity of the reduced species. Generally, in dilute solutions, the concentration of the corresponding oxidized and reduced species equals to their activity. Therefore, $\alpha_{\text{ox}} = c_{\text{ox}}$ and $\alpha_{\text{red}} = c_{\text{red}}$,

$$E = E^0 + \frac{0.059}{n} \log_{10} \frac{c_{\text{ox}}}{c_{\text{red}}} \quad (2.5)$$

During both reactions on anode (OER) and cathode (HER), same quantity of electrons and protons is involved in the corresponding half-cell reactions. Consequently, the Nernst equation for both reactions can be transformed as follows:

$$E = E^0 - 0.059\text{pH} \quad (2.6)$$

where E^0 equals to 1.23 V vs. SHE for OER and 0 V vs. SHE for HER. When displayed as a Pourbaix diagram (E vs. pH), both reactions demonstrate the same slope of 0.059 V/pH. The diagram shows thermodynamic decomposition potentials at a given pH.

The Pourbaix diagram presents the stability of materials during electrochemical processes on an E vs. pH plane, which is commonly utilized for corrosion studies [24]. Based on the diagram, the stability of OER and HER catalysts can be predicted compared to the stability of water. This can determine the pH and applied potential range where the catalysts are thermodynamically stable for long-term operation without decomposition [25]. Taking manganese as an example, its Pourbaix diagram including the boundaries of the stability of water is shown in Figure 2.3.

The pH dependence of the onset potential for OER reveals the number of protons involved in the RDS. As predicted by the Nernst equation, the derived plots with a slope of $\sim 59 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$ involve equal numbers of protons and electrons, typically one proton and one electron; a slope of $\sim 120 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$ indicates that the RDS involves two protons and one electrons; a 90 mV dec^{-1} slope corresponded to a three-proton and two-electron process [27].

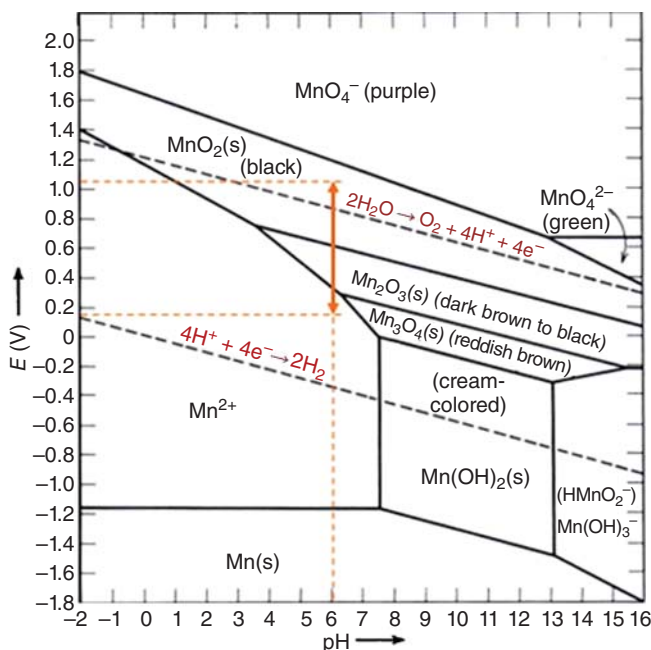


Figure 2.3 Pourbaix diagram of manganese. Source: Reproduced with permission Wei et al. [26], Elsevier Ltd.

2.3.6 Long-Term Stability

As there is no standard protocol for long-term stability test of OER catalysts, most researchers evaluate their stability for a period ranging from dozens of hours to hundreds of hours. This stability test is usually carried out via chronopotentiometry at a constant current or chronoamperometry at a constant potential. It is worth noting that some commercial electrolyzers have demonstrated excellent long-term stability with the detected performance loss of $<4\mu\text{V h}^{-1}$ under constant current operation; therefore, at least 1000 hours of testing would be required to achieve a voltage loss of only $\sim 4\text{ mV}$ [28]. Notably, Li et al. reported an 8000 hours of electrolysis using $\gamma\text{-MnO}_2$ at a pH of 2, showing no signs of deactivation [29]. However, as other non-catalyst-related variables such as temperature fluctuations or membrane failure can result in small changes of overall performance over several thousands of hours, an ultralong-term stability test is not feasible, thus dramatically slowing down the development and implementation of novel OER catalysts. Therefore, accelerated stress tests are necessary to mimic operation conditions and trigger certain degradation mechanisms on a shorter time scale [30]. Furthermore, ex situ and in situ characterization techniques are indispensable for determining the structural and compositional changes of OER catalysts during stability test along with potentiometric studies [31].

2.3.7 Other Parameters

In addition to the above-mentioned factors, turnover frequency (TOF) and mass activity are also commonly used to evaluate the activity of OER catalysts. TOF is calculated based on Eq. (2.7),

$$\text{TOF} = (j \times A) / (4 \times F \times n) \quad (2.7)$$

where j (mA cm^{-2}) is the current density at a particular applied potential, A is the area of the working electrode, F is the Faraday constant ($96\,500\text{ C mol}^{-1}$), and n is the number of moles of the active catalysts. The mass activity is obtained by Eq. (2.8),

$$\text{Mass activity} = j/m \quad (2.8)$$

where j is the current density (mA cm^{-2}) at given potential and m is the mass loading (mg cm^{-2}) of catalysts on the substrate.

2.4 Reaction Mechanisms

There are two different OER mechanisms proposed for the O—O bond formation that are widely accepted, namely the water nucleophilic attack (WNA) mechanism and the interaction of two metal-oxo entities (I2M) mechanism, as shown in Figure 2.4 [32].

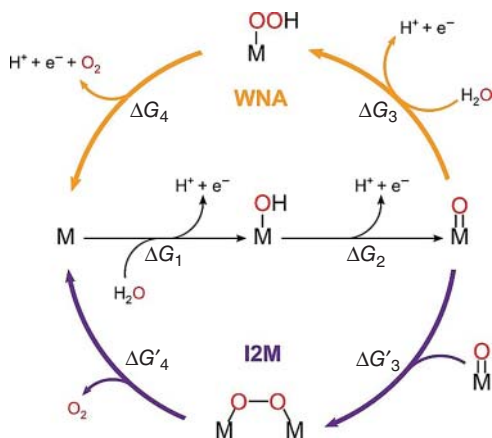


Figure 2.4 Catalytic cycles for the two main reaction mechanisms proposed for the OER. Source: Reproduced with permission Soriano-López et al. [32], Elsevier Ltd.

2.4.1 WNA Mechanism

The WNA reaction path first begins with two proton–electron transfer (PET) steps, forming a metal-oxo intermediate. Subsequently, the metal-oxo species are under the nucleophilic attack of a solvent water molecule. At the final PET step, O—O bond was generated. These four reaction steps centered on the metal and metal oxide surfaces are described in Eqs. (2.9)–(2.12) [33–35], where * denotes a metal active site, α_{H^+} is the activity of the proton, and U is the applied potential.



Moreover, the reaction free energies for these four steps can be calculated as below:

$$\Delta G_1 = \Delta G_{HO^*} - \Delta G_{H_2O} - eU + k_B T \ln \alpha_{H^+} \quad (2.13)$$

$$\Delta G_2 = \Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{HO^*} - eU + k_B T \ln \alpha_{H^+} \quad (2.14)$$

$$\Delta G_3 = \Delta G_{HOO^*} - \Delta G_{O^*} - eU + k_B T \ln \alpha_{H^+} \quad (2.15)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta G_4 &= \Delta G_{O_2} - \Delta G_{HOO^*} - eU + k_B T \ln \alpha_{H^+} \\ &= 4.92 \text{ eV} - \Delta G_{HOO^*} - eU + k_B T \ln \alpha_{H^+} \end{aligned} \quad (2.16)$$

Based on the computational hydrogen electrode model [36], the chemical potential of the $H^+ + e^-$ is calculated to be the chemical potential of $1/2H_2$ in the gas phase, as these two species are in equilibrium at 0 V vs. RHE. The experimental

value of ΔG_{O_2} is 4.92 eV. The most positive value of the relative Gibbs energies in Eqs. (2.13)–(2.16) determines the potential limiting step of OER:

$$\Delta G_{\text{OER}} = \max \{ \Delta G_1, \Delta G_2, \Delta G_3, \Delta G_4 \} \quad (2.17)$$

The theoretical overpotential at standard conditions is then given by Eq. (2.18):

$$\eta_{\text{OER}} = (\Delta G_{\text{OER}}/e) - 1.23 \text{ V} \quad (2.18)$$

An ideal OER catalyst with $\eta_{\text{OER}} = 0 \text{ V}$ is impossible to achieve, as it requires the same change in reaction free energy throughout all the four OER steps, i.e. $\Delta G_1 = \Delta G_2 = \Delta G_3 = \Delta G_4 = 1.23 \text{ eV}$. Furthermore, the binding energies of HO^* and HOO^* (ΔG_{HOO^*} and ΔG_{HO^*}) on metals or oxide surfaces scale linearly with a constant difference of $3.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ eV}$ (Figure 2.5a). According to this OER scaling relation, there are three important implications as follows: (i) the value of ΔG_{HOO^*} can be directly obtained from the calculated ΔG_{HO^*} and vice versa, thus reducing the computational time needed to assess the OER activity of a given catalyst. (ii) Because the difference between ΔG_{HOO^*} and ΔG_{HO^*} is larger than the expected value for an ideal catalyst ($2 \times 1.23 = 2.46 \text{ eV}$), the minimum theoretical overpotential of 370 mV [$(3.2 - 2.46 \text{ eV})/2$] can be determined. This is in line with the experimental studies of the benchmarked electrocatalysts [38]. (iii) Because ΔG_1 or ΔG_4 is rarely the potential limiting step, the difference between ΔG_{O^*} and ΔG_{HO^*} ($\Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{\text{HO}^*}$) can be employed as a reaction descriptor to predict the OER activity of catalysts (Figure 2.5b) [37]. The overpotential can be obtained by $\eta_{\text{OER}} = \{ \max[(\Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{\text{HO}^*}), 3.2 \text{ eV} - (\Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{\text{HO}^*})]/e \}$. From the Sabatier principle, for an ideal catalyst, the adsorption strength of the key intermediates should be neither too strong nor too weak. Consequently, the plot of η_{OER} as a function of $(\Delta G_{O^*} - \Delta G_{\text{HO}^*})$ results in the volcano-shaped relationship.

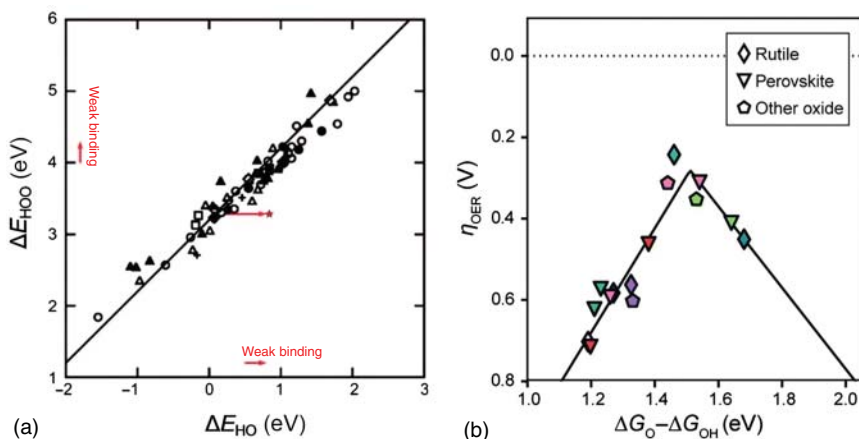


Figure 2.5 (a) Binding energy of HOO^* plotted against the adsorption energy of HO^* on perovskite, rutile, anatase, Mn_xO_y , Co_3O_4 , and NiO . Source: Reproduced with permission Man et al. [35], Wiley-VCH. (b) OER volcano plot for rutile, perovskite, and other oxides. Source: Reproduced with permission Montoya et al. [37], Macmillan Publishers Limited.

2.4.2 I2M Mechanism

In I2M mechanism, two neighboring metal sites are involved, instead of a single metal site in the WNA mechanism [39]. Two HO* on the metal sites first undergo deprotonation, generating two metal-oxo species. Subsequently, the O—O bond is formed through coupling of two neighboring metal-oxo moieties. Finally, O₂ is released, leaving two vacant metal centers. As HOO* is not an intermediate in the I2M cycles, OER following I2M mechanism is independent on the limitation (minimal overpotential of ~370 mV) of the scaling relation between HO* and HOO*. This process has been reported for certain molecular catalysts [40], perovskites [41], and other materials [42].

2.5 OER Catalysts

2.5.1 Molecular OER Catalysts

Here, we use the unifying term “molecular” instead of “homogeneous,” as not all molecular OER catalysts work in truly homogeneous systems, such as immobilized molecular catalysts or their colloidal aggregates [43]. Molecular catalysts follow similar scaling relations to those established for heterogeneous ones, which was confirmed by an investigation of 17 of state-of-the-art molecular OER catalysts with different transition metals (Ru, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, and Cu) centers (Figure 2.6) [40]. As shown in Figure 2.7, Binding energy of HOO* (ΔG_{HOO^*}) plotted against the binding energy of HO* (ΔG_{HO^*}) shows that the energetics of these two intermediates are

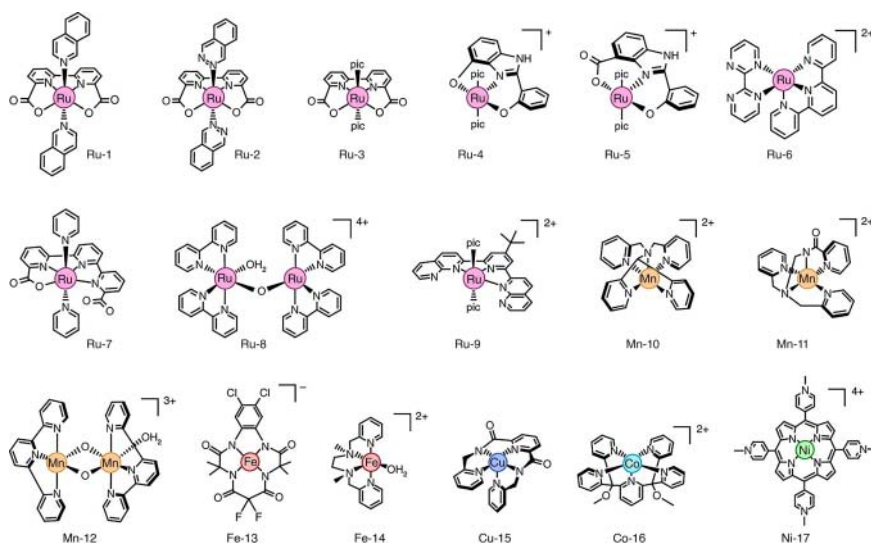


Figure 2.6 Various Molecular OER catalysts. The 4-picoline ligands in Ru-3, Ru-5, and Ru-9 have been replaced by “pic” for clarity. Source: Craig et al. [40]. Licensed under CC BY 4.0.