Hierarchically Structured Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN Air Cathodes for Rechargeable Zinc–Air Batteries

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: For the realization of the large-scale deployment of rechargeable Zn–air batteries, it is crucial to develop cost-effective, efficient, and stable bifunctional electrocatalysts for both oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER). In this work, an integrated electrocatalyst consisting of Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN was developed to enable both ORR and OER reactions for Zn–air batteries. The hierarchical Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN electrocatalyst has desirable electrochemical properties, with comparable activity and better durability than commercial Pt/C for ORR and improved activity and long-term stability than commercial IrO₂ catalyst for OER. When implemented as air–cathode for rechargeable Zn–air batteries, Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN exhibited a high power-density of 171 mW cm⁻², a specific capacity of 812 mA h g⁻¹, and a robust cycling life. Interestingly, the hierarchical structure remained intact upon charge and discharge tests, suggesting potential long-term use in the Zn–air battery technology. The material development strategy presented here can enrich the toolbox for the design and construction of cost-effective, efficient, and robust bifunctional electrocatalysts for ORR and OER toward rechargeable Zn–air battery applications.

KEYWORDS: Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN, bifunctional electrocatalyst, hierarchical structure, oxygen evolution reaction, oxygen reduction reaction, rechargeable zinc–air batteries

1. INTRODUCTION

The global increasing energy demand has driven the rapid development of alternative energy harvesting and conversion devices that require meaningful energy storage solutions with high energy densities. Rechargeable Zn–air batteries are currently attracting worldwide attention because of their low-cost, high theoretical energy density (1084 Wh kg⁻¹), and safe operation.¹⁻³ The electrochemical reactions of rechargeable Zn–air battery in alkaline electrolyte can be summarized by their discharging and charging reactions. During discharging, the Zn electrode is oxidized to ZnO while O₂ is reduced [oxygen reduction reaction (ORR)]. Conversely, the charging process involves that the ZnO on the negative electrode is reduced to zinc while the hydroxyl ions on the positive electrode is oxidized to oxygen [oxygen evolution reaction (OER)].¹ These reactions are summarized as follows

Zinc electrode: 2Zn + 4OH⁻ \[\text{discharge}\] \[\rightarrow\] 2ZnO + 2H₂O + 4e⁻

Air electrode: O₂ + 4e⁻ + 2H₂O \[\text{charge}\] \[\rightarrow\] 4OH⁻
Overall reaction: $2\text{Zn} + \text{O}_2 \xrightarrow{\text{charge}} 2\text{ZnO}$

OER and ORR are the two key reactions occurring at the cathode of rechargeable Zn–air battery, which represents the charging and discharging process, respectively. To date, a large overpotential is required for OER and ORR and thus must be remarkably decreased for Zn–air batteries to serve as meaningful energy storage devices. Moreover, the current commercial standard electrocatalysts for OER and ORR still rely on noble metal-based materials (e.g., IrO$_2$/RuO$_2$ for OER, Pt for ORR). Aside from obvious cost/scarcity issues, these catalysts are also plagued with inefficient activity and undesirable long-term stability. Therefore, to realize the commercialization of next-generation rechargeable Zn–air batteries, developing a dual-functional electrocatalyst with high stability, excellent activity, and low cost is imperative.

Recently, layered double hydroxides (LDHs) consisting of inexpensive metals have emerged as an alternative candidate to replace Ir/Ru-based catalysts for OER because of their excellent OER activity and ease of large-scale accessibility. For instance, Fan et al. reported a monolayer of nickel–vanadium-LDH (NIV LDH) that showed a current density of 27 mA cm$^{-2}$ at an overpotential of 350 mV for water oxidation. By employing a one-pot coprecipitation method at room temperature, ultrathin nanoplates of cobalt–manganese LDH (CoMn LDH) was fabricated by Song and Hu, and such LDH exhibited 9 times higher than the TOF of a precious IrO$_2$ catalyst for OER. Tang and Guo group developed a novel and straightforward strategy to fabricate Ni–Co double hydroxides nanocages, where reactivity to OER could be altered by optimizing the Ni–Co composition. Such LDHs often displayed excellent OER activity that surpasses the performance of IrO$_2$ catalysts. However, the inclusion of LDHs as Zn–air battery catalysts failed to achieve satisfactory discharge performance, mainly because of their limited ORR activity.

In this regard, Pt-based materials are still the commercial standard for ORR, yet there is a strong push away from Pt-based materials to lower cost while trying to improve/maintain the intrinsic activity of Pt. To this end, one effective approach is to alloy Pt with 3d transition metals. Stamenkovic et al. demonstrated that alloying Pt with 3d transition metals can tune its electronic structure and consequently enhances its performance toward ORR. For example, PtCo electrocatalysts have been demonstrated to possess superior ORR activity and markedly higher long-term durability than commercial Pt/C catalyst.

As such, coupling layered hydroxide with PtCo as a hierarchical electrocatalyst is expected to endow both advantageous OER and ORR performance toward Zn–air battery applications. To further improve the electric conductivity and provide additional electrochemically active sites, a hierarchical electrocatalyst consisting of nitrogen-doped porous carbon nanosheets (N-CN) is desirable, as N-CN can be introduced as the support. N-CN possessed high surface area, excellent conductivities, and abundant active sites for electrocatalytic reactions. The most critical feature related to the electrocatalytic activity of N-CN is the charge delocalization of the carbon skeleton induced by nitrogen doping, which results in the nonelectroneutrality of the catalysts and consequently facilitates oxygen adsorption and reduction. By hierarchically combining material components that exhibit desirable OER and ORR activity and are electrically conductive, new electrocatalysts for Zn–air batteries can be obtained which may also enable synergistic property enhancements.

Herein, we developed a facile strategy to integrate layered Co(OH)$_2$ with CoPt nanoparticles and N-CNs in a hierarchical fashion with desirable electrocatalytic properties for Zn–air batteries. The Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN electrocatalysts were found to have a well defined hierarchical structure through various characterization methods. Electro-catalytic tests indicated that its ORR activity was comparable with Pt/C catalyst along with outperformed durability, while its OER activity and long-term stability was superior than IrO$_2$ catalyst. The inclusion of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as air–cathode in a rechargeable Zn–air battery resulted in a high power-density, capacity, and long cycling life. Furthermore, the well-defined hierarchical structure remained intact after long cycles of charge–discharge process.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

2.1. Preparation and Structural Characterizations of the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN. The typical preparation procedure of the resulting catalysts is depicted in Scheme 1. Briefly, NaCl was first added into a urea (as the nitrogen source) and glucose (as the carbon skeleton) solution. After lyophilization, the mixture was used to synthesize a nitrogen doped carbon nanosheets (N-CN) in the carbonizing process in Ar atmosphere. CoPt/N-CN formed is formed by replacing NaCl with Pt ions and Co$^{2+}$ ions into the solution, following by the reduction through NaBH$_4$. Finally, KOH and L-ascorbic acid (LA) were added into the solution to synthesize Co(OH)$_2$, where LA serves as a morphology-directing agent. The OH$^-$ ions first reacted with LA leading to the formation of dehydroascorbic acid (DAA) through the reaction LAA $\rightarrow$ DAA $+ \text{H}_2\text{O}$. With the presence of Co$^{2+}$ ions, small Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheet seeds can easily form. Driven by DAA, small Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheet seeds can further experience an epitaxial lateral overgrowth process, and finally evolved into thin nanosheets and covered onto CoPt/N-CN to eventually form a sandwich-like structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN.

The morphology and surface structure of the samples were first observed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). As shown in Figure 1a,b, N-CN and Co(OH)$_2$ exhibited a thin sheet structure that is a vital prerequisite for preparing the hierarchical structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN. The typical
SEM image of CoPt/N-CN can be found in Figure S1, where CoPt nanoparticles lie on the surface of N-CN. Furthermore, the representative high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images and corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) patterns of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN are shown in Figure 1ef. It can be noted that, there are several CoPt nanoparticles building blocks with size approximately of 10−20 nm on the surface of N-CN (Figure 1e). Each building block may contain several CoPt nanocrystals, and based on more than 100 individual nanocrystals, the average diameter of CoPt nanocrystals is 4.70 ± 1.75 nm (inset in Figure 1e). A lattice spacing of 2.13 and 2.64 Å can be easily identified in Figure 1f and the insert FFT patterns which are ascribed to the CoPt(111) and Co(OH)$_2$(100) planes, respectively. Both CoPt nanoparticles and Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheets lie onto the surface of N-CN, some CoPt nanoparticles might be covered by Co(OH)$_2$, suggesting the formation of a hierarchical structure which likely have implications for electrocatalytic properties. Moreover, the surface area and pore size distribution measured by Brunauer−Emmett−Teller (BET) can be found in Figure S2. All of the N$_2$ adsorption−desorption isotherms exhibited a type-IV isotherm with a H3-type hysteresis loop, suggesting disordered slit and wedge shape pores are probably stacked between the lamellar materials. The BET pattern agrees well with the SEM features, further confirming that the hierarchical structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was successfully obtained. The BET surface area of N-CN was calculated to be 223 m$^2$ g$^{-1}$, larger than that of CoPt/N-CN (118 m$^2$ g$^{-1}$), indicating that CoPt nanoparticles have been adsorbed into the pores of N-CN. Interestingly, once Co(OH)$_2$ was covered on CoPt/N-CN, the specific
surface area of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN increased to 178 m$^2$ g$^{-1}$, which can be attributed to the contribution from Co(OH)$_2$. Additionally, the energy-dispersive system spectrum of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN can be found in Figure S3, where the weight percentage of each element can be quantified. From the inset pie chart, it can be noted that, C is over 50%, O is over 20%, while Co and Pt are only 11.46 and 9.23%, respectively.

Figure 2a shows the Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) spectra of the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN in the wavenumber range of 400−4000 cm$^{-1}$. The twin peaks at 3496 and 3398 cm$^{-1}$ can be assigned to the stretching vibrations of hydrogen-bond from hydroxyl groups (−OH) in the Co(OH)$_2$ and adsorbed water. A couple of vibration bands located at 2921 and 2851 cm$^{-1}$ are observed at 2921 and 2851 cm$^{-1}$ can be associated with the C−H antisymmetric stretching and symmetric stretching. The peaks at 1550, 1506, 1350, 1057, and 833 cm$^{-1}$ are assigned to the (C=O) stretching vibration, and (CO$_3$) scissoring vibration, respectively. The Co−OH stretching vibration can be observed at 515 cm$^{-1}$. As a comparison, the peaks of −OH vibration at 3496 and 515 cm$^{-1}$ are absent for the CoPt/N-CN samples (Figure S4). The above characteristic peaks in FT-IR confirmed that Co(OH)$_2$, CoPt, and N-CN were well integrated and a composite sample of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was formed. The Raman spectra of N-CN are shown in Figure S5, where the typical D and G bands are observed at 1360 and 1557 cm$^{-1}$, respectively. The intensity ratio of D band to G band (I_D/I_G) can be used to evaluate the degree of defect and disordered structures. Given the I_D/I_G ratio for N-CN is 1.02, a highly defective structure is likely for N-CN. The crystalline phase of Co(OH)$_2$ and Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN were then detected by X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements. As shown in Figure 2b, the diffraction peaks at 18.6° and 17.4° can be assigned to the (001) planes of Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheets (JCPDS file no. 45-0031), whereas the peaks at 40.0°, 46.6°, 68.0°, and 82.0° correspond well with (111), (200), (220), and (311) planes of CoPt nanoparticles (JCPDS file no. 29-0499), respectively. In comparison to Co(OH)$_2$, the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN(001) plane slightly left shifted, as an indicative of interlayer spacing expansion. Note that, it has been demonstrated that the interlayer expansion of layered structures for cobalt hydroxide could substantially enhance the OER catalytic performance.

The elemental composition and chemical valence state of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was subsequently investigated by X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) measurements. The high-resolution XPS spectra of Pt 4f and Co 2p electrons are presented in Figure 2c,d. As shown in Figure 2c, the core-level spectra of the Pt 4f (Figure 2c) electrons exhibit two peaks, which can be further deconvoluted into two doublets. The peaks with binding energies at 71.27 and 74.78 eV can be ascribed to metallic platinum, while the other two peaks at 72.19 and 76.36 eV belong to Pt$^{2+}$ ions from PtO$^2$. On the basis of the integrated peak area, Pt(0) is dominant in the Pt species. As a note, Pt(0) can afford more appropriate active sites for ORR than Pt$^{2+}$. The core-level XPS spectra of Co 2p electrons is presented in Figure 2d. The peaks with binding energy at 781.0 and 796.9 eV can be attributed to the Co 2p$_{3/2}$ and Co 2p$_{1/2}$, respectively. The binding energy gap between the Co 2p$_{3/2}$ and Co 2p$_{1/2}$ electrons reached a value as large as 15.9 eV, which is a characteristic signature for the Co(OH)$_2$ with laminar structure. It further confirms that the Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheets were likely lying onto the surface of CoPt/N-CN, which could play a role in electrocatalytic properties.

2.2. Electrocatalytic Performance. The electrocatalytic performance toward ORR and OER were first studied by linear scanning voltammetry (LSV). As presented in Figure 3a, the Co(OH)$_2$ nanosheets and N-CN exhibited insufficient ORR activities. With Co(OH)$_2$ as the substrate, CoPt nanoparticles supported on Co(OH)$_2$ (CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$) still displayed an undesirable ORR activity, likely because of the possible coverage of hydroxide material on the bimetallic electrocatalyst. Although Co/N-CN exhibits fair ORR performance, the activity is not that desirable for Zn−air battery applications. Excellent functionalities toward both OER and ORR is the prerequisite for engineering catalyst toward Zn−air battery. Interestingly, CoPt/N-CN exhibited markedly superior ORR performance and showed an onset potential of 0.97 and 0.94 V, respectively. Such close onset potential, along with almost identical diffusion-limited current densities, indicates that the two samples possessed good and comparable ORR activities attributed to the alloyed CoPt nanoparticles, as well as, the well-defined porous structure of N-CN, as the substrate can prevent the coalescence, aggregation of the CoPt nanoparticles, and boost the local oxygen concentration on the surface of the CoPt nanoparticles. The OER polarization curves are presented in Figure 3b. To afford a current density of 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, the required overpotential (shown in Table S1) was 510 mV for CoPt/N-CN, 510 mV for N-CN, 420 mV for Co/N-CN, 350 mV for Co(OH)$_2$, 340 mV for CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$, and 320 mV for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN. Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN possessed the best OER activity among the series, while
Co(OH)$_2$ also demonstrated excellent OER performance. Note that, previous investigations have documented that such OER activity for LDH including Co(OH)$_2$ can be attributable to its multifarious chemical composition and unique two-dimensional laminar structures.43,44

By keeping the amount of CoPt nanoparticles constant (10%), we further attempted to optimize the ratio of Co(OH)$_2$-to-N-CN. As shown in Figure S6 and Table S1, when the mass ratio of N-CN decreased to 20% [the mass ratio of Co(OH)$_2$ increased to 70% correspondingly], the OER activity was lower than the originally discussed material [mass ratio of N-CN-to-Co(OH)$_2$ is 45%:45%], while the onset potential for ORR significantly shifted negatively. Conversely, when the mass ratio of N-CN increased to 70% [the mass ratio of Co(OH)$_2$ decreased to 20% correspondingly], the required overpotential at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$ for OER increased drastically to 380 mV, albeit the onset potential for ORR was slightly positive than the original sample. In addition, we also explored the ORR and OER performance of the physical mixture of Co(OH)$_2$, CoPt, and N-CN. The polarization curve (Figures S7a and S8a) indicated that the ORR and OER activities of the physical mixture is not comparable with Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN through hydrothermal treatment. The durability (Figures S7b and S8b) of the mixture is also very low, as the ORR and OER current decayed to 80 and 55% of its initial value after 8.3 h, respectively. This is likely because the physical mixture could not form a steady hierarchical structure.

The ORR performance of the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN sample was further examined and compared with the commercial Pt/C catalyst (Figure 4). As shown in Figure 4a, in N$_2$-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution, no redox peak can be observed for both Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN and Pt/C. In O$_2$-saturated 0.1 M KOH, an obvious cathodic peak at about 0.84 V appeared for both samples, as expected. From the LSV curves in Figure 4b, the onset potential of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN can be estimated as 0.94 V, slightly lower than that of Pt/C (0.97 V). However, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN possessed the identical half-wave potential value (0.83 V) with the Pt/C catalyst. Subsequently, the LSV measurements at different rotation rates from 400 to 2500 rpm were conducted and presented in Figure S9. The inset Koutecky–Levich plots in Figure S9 exhibited a highly linear trend, suggesting that a first reaction kinetics with regard to oxygen concentration in the solution was adopted. Further reaction insights can be acquired by analyzing the Tafel plots, where corresponding Tafel slopes can be extrapolated (Figure 4c). It should be noted that the Tafel plots displayed two linear regions at low and high overpotentials, where such a phenomenon has been described in several previous reports.26,45,46 In the low overpotential range, the slope was calculated to be 66 and 76 mV dec$^{-1}$ for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN and Pt/C, respectively. The value for
Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN is smaller than that of Pt/C but close to 60 mV dec$^{-1}$, suggesting that the rate determining step during the ORR process is probably a pseudo two-electron reaction. While in the high overpotential range, the slope was 98 and 104 mV dec$^{-1}$ for Pt/C and Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, respectively. It indicates that the reaction rate was predominantly governed by the first electron transfer to oxygen molecule. The electron-transfer number and yield of H$_2$O$_2$ can be further calculated through eqs S1 and S2 in the Supporting Information, and the calculated results are illustrated in Figure 4d. In the potential range of 0.2−0.8 V, the electron-transfer number was 3.81−3.95 for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, comparable with that of Pt/C (3.85−3.86), indicating an ideal four-electron-transfer pathway. Correspondingly, the yield of H$_2$O$_2$ was 2.20−9.48%, close to that of Pt/C (6.37−7.16%), suggesting that only very little undesired peroxide intermediates were generated during the ORR process. Furthermore, durability is one of the major concerns in current alkaline fuel cell and Zn−air battery technologies. The amperometric $i$−$t$ curves (Figure 4e) show that Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN maintained 93% of its initial current density, higher than the Pt/C (∼79%) catalyst after about 11 h of continuous operation at the potential of 0.8 V. Accelerated durability test (ADT) is another important approach to evaluate the long-term stability. ADT measurements were carried out by cycling the catalyst in the potential range of 0.5−1.0 V in O$_2$-saturated 0.1 mol L$^{-1}$ KOH solution at the scan rate of 50 mV s$^{-1}$ for both Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN and Pt/C. As shown in Figure 4f, after 5000 cycles of continuous potential scans, the half-wave potential of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN only shifted 10 mV, however, a 39 mV shift was observed for the Pt/C catalyst. It further attests that the sample of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN had markedly superior long-term durability than Pt/C. The desirable ORR performance of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN is probably ascribed to the CoPt intrinsic activity enhanced by the alloying effects, as well as the well-defined porous structure of N-CN can prevent the coalescence, decomposition, and aggregation of the CoPt nanoparticles and boost the local oxygen concentration on the surface of the CoPt nanoparticles.

The OER performance of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was further examined and compared with the standard IrO$_2$ catalyst. Figure 5a depicts the OER polarization curves, and at the current density of 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN had an overpotential of 320 mV, outperforming than IrO$_2$ (350 mV). The Tafel slopes also confirmed this superior OER activity of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN than IrO$_2$. As shown in Figure 5b, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN afforded a lower Tafel slope (73.4 mV dec$^{-1}$) close to that of IrO$_2$ (85.4 mV dec$^{-1}$), indicating an outstanding OER reaction kinetics. CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$ also exhibited a low Tafel slope value of 76.8 mV dec$^{-1}$, while in sharp contrast, Co(OH)$_2$ and CoPt/N-CN displayed a much higher Tafel slope of 110.6 and 124.6 mV dec$^{-1}$, respectively (Figure S10a). To further elucidate the reasons for the outstanding OER performance from Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, the electrochemical impedance test was performed. As shown from the Nyquist plots in Figure 5c, the semicircle at high frequency corresponds to the formation of an electric double layer, and the semicircle at low frequency can be ascribed to the Faradaic reaction of oxygen evolution. Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN displayed a much smaller semicircle than IrO$_2$, and the charge transfer resistance was 31 Ω, much lower than that of IrO$_2$ (55 Ω). The Nyquist plots of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, and CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$ can be found in Figure S10b, where all of the samples exhibited a higher charge-transfer resistance than Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN. The stability toward OER was then assessed by $i$−$t$ chronoamperometric response and presented in Figure 5d. After continuous operation for about 8 h, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN retained 85% of the initial current, while IrO$_2$ retained only 73% under the same conditions. The combined above results demonstrate that Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN had superior OER properties than the IrO$_2$ catalyst. Such an excellent performance can be accounted for several reasons: first of all, the laminar Co(OH)$_2$
structure possessed high OER catalytic performance; second, N-CN intrinsically had good conductivity, and their well-defined mesopore and micropore can facilitate electron transfer and mass transport, as well as increasing the amount of active sites.

2.3. Zn–Air Battery Performance. Moving forward for practical applications, the samples were tested as the air–cathode of a self-assembled rechargeable Zn–air battery. As shown in Figures 6a and S11a, the maximal power density of Co(OH)$_2$, CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, and Pt/C + IrO$_2$ was 150, 168, 171, and 163 mW cm$^{-2}$, respectively. The charge–discharge polarization curves (Figures 6b and S11b) revealed that the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN displayed a smaller voltage gap compared with Co(OH)$_2$, CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$, and Pt/C + IrO$_2$, signifying a much better charge–discharge capability. The stability of air–cathode was then evaluated by continuous galvanostatic charge–discharge at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$ with each cycle of 10 min. As presented in Figures 6c and S11c, the initial voltage gap of Co(OH)$_2$, CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, and Pt/C + IrO$_2$ was 0.94, 0.90, 0.82, and 0.83 V, respectively. However, after 30 h, the voltage gap of Co(OH)$_2$ and CoPt/Co(OH)$_2$ increased to 1.23 and 1.04 V, intriguingly, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN and Pt/C + IrO$_2$ kept a small gap of 0.85 and 0.91 V. When the current density increased to 50 mA cm$^{-2}$ (Figure S12), the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN still maintained a relatively small charge–discharge voltage gap of 0.95 V. As shown in Figure 6d, the round-trip efficiency of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN and Pt/C + IrO$_2$ was 60 and 58% in the initial charge–discharge process, after 40 h, the round-trip efficiency of Pt/C + IrO$_2$ has decayed to 50.1%, encouragingly, Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN still maintained 58%, and continued to cycle until after 80 h, the round-trip efficiency decayed to 48%. Figure 6f depicts the typical galvanostatic discharge profile at the current density of 10, 20, and 50 mA cm$^{-2}$ for Zn–air battery using Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as the air–cathode. The specific capacity normalized to the weight of consumed zinc plate was 812 mA h g$^{-1}$ at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, 682 mA h g$^{-1}$ at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$, and 656 mA h g$^{-1}$ at 50 mA cm$^{-2}$ for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN; however, the Pt/C + IrO$_2$ was only 688 mA h g$^{-1}$ at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$. Figure 6f shows the two-electrode water-splitting device powered by two consecutive rechargeable Zn–air batteries using Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as the air–cathode. The carbon cloth (1 × 2 cm$^2$) precoated with the Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN catalyst was employed as the electrodes (OER and HER) in the water-splitting device, and the catalyst loading mass was 2 mg. One can see that, when the Zn–air batteries were connected, a large number of bubbles (H$_2$ and O$_2$, with a bubbling rate of ~2:1 from bubble observations) overflowed from electrodes. It demonstrated that the rechargeable Zn–air battery using Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as the air–cathode was capable to power the water-splitting device. Note that, the performance of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as the air–cathode is at least comparable, if not exceeding, the...
Table 1. Reported Performance of Rechargeable Zn–Air Batteries with Various Bifunctional Electrocatalysts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>catalysts</th>
<th>electrolyte</th>
<th>peak power density (mW cm$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>charge–discharge voltage gap (V)</th>
<th>specific capacity (mA h g$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>stability</th>
<th>references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>0.82 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>812 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>10 min/cycle for 300 cycles at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, voltage gap increased $\sim$0.05 V</td>
<td>this work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co@C–N</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>0.82 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>741 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>20 min/cycle for 90 cycles at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, voltage gap increased $\sim$0.02 V</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co–N–C</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M ZnCl$_2$</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>1.0 at 2 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>750 at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>20 min/cycle for 180 cycles at 2 mA cm$^{-2}$, voltage gap increased $\sim$0.12 V</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag–Cu on Ni foams</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M ZnCl$_2$</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0.96 at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>572 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>20 min/cycle for 100 cycles at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$, negligible change</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-CMS/BNC</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>0.72 at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>550 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>4 h/cycle for 50 cycles at 20 mA cm$^{-2}$, no significant change</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co$_3$N/NCW/CC</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>0.84 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>774 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>20 min/cycle for 400 cycles at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, no visible change</td>
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<tr>
<td>CuS/NiS$_2$INs</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>0.57 at 25 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>678 at 25 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>10 min/cycle for 500 cycles at 25 mA cm$^{-2}$, negligible change</td>
<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Co$_3$O$_4$ NS/CC</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M Zn(Ac)$_2$</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>0.7 at 5 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>535 at 10 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>4 min/cycle for 400 cycles at 5 mA cm$^{-2}$, negligible change</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3C-900</td>
<td>6 M KOH + 0.2 M ZnCl$_2$</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0.8 at 5 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>727 at 25 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td>22 min/cycle for 180 cycles at 5 mA cm$^{-2}$, no voltage drop</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co(OH)$_2$ + N-rGO</td>
<td>6 M KOH</td>
<td>1.2 at 15 mA cm$^{-2}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40 min/cycle for 75 cycles at 15 mA cm$^{-2}$, no voltage drop</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7. Characterizations before/after the charge–discharge test of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN, (a) XRD patterns, (b) core-level XPS spectra of the Pt 4f electrons and (c) core-level XPS spectra of the Co 2p electrons. (d,e) Typical TEM images of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN after the charge–discharge test. (f) High-resolution TEM and corresponding FFT patterns of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN.
recently reported electrocatalysts. For comparison, recent results from the literature are summarized in Table 1. For instance, with the same electrolytes employed, the peak power density for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was higher than Co@C−N, Co−N−C, Ag−Cu on Ni foam, Co$_3$O$_4$ NS/CC, and 3C-900. At the current density of 10 mA cm$^{-2}$, the specific capacity for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was also larger than all of the above-mentioned materials and Co$_3$N/CNW/CC, CuS/ Ni$_2$S$_2$/N, R-CMS/BNC as well, while the charge−discharge gap was also comparable with Co@C−N, Co$_3$N/CNW/CC, and lower than Co(OH)$_2$ + N-rGO. More intriguingly, the long-term stability for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN was in the same level or outperformed than the above composites.

2.4. Structural Characterizations of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN before and after Charge−Discharge. To better understand the reasons for the stability of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN in the Zn−air battery, the structure and composition of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN before and after the charge−discharge test were detected by XRDR, XPS, and TEM measurements. Figure S13 presents the XRD patterns of CoPt/N-CN before and after charge−discharge test. It can be recognized that the (111) plane of CoPt nanoparticles exhibited a downshift slightly, indicating that the CoPt/N-CN could not be steady in the electrolyte for Zn−air battery operation. In sharp contrast, no discernible transformation can be observed for the crystal phases of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN (Figure 7a), suggesting an excellent stability upon charge−discharge process. Moreover, the binding energies for the Pt 4f and Co 2p electrons were further probed before and after the charge−discharge test for Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN. From Figure 7b, it can be noted that the binding energy of Pt 4f$_{7/2}$ decreased slightly with a value of 0.18 eV, indicating the electronic structure of Pt altered during the charge−discharge process. Note that, such binding energy variation is closely related to the shift of d-band center relative to Fermi level, which affects the ORR kinetics eventually. The positive binding energy shift normally signify the downshift of a d-band center, which could weaken the interaction between the oxygenated intermediate and the surface of the catalyst hence promotes the ORR activity. The slight decrease of the binding energy indicates that, the electrocatalytic activity of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN slightly diminished. Moreover, the binding energy of Co 2p electrons (Figure 7c) shifted negatively from 796.9 and 781.0 to 796.3 and 780.4 eV, and the binding energy gap between the 2p$_{1/2}$ and 2p$_{3/2}$ electrons decreased from 15.9 to 15.8 eV, corroborating a little part of Co(OH)$_2$ was gradually oxidized into Co$_3$O$_4$ under prolonged exposure anodic potential region. The above results proved that the foam-like hierarchical structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN underwent a minor change in the structural characteristics and chemical composition after long-term charge−discharge test therefore exhibited an excellent stability. Furthermore, the morphology and surface-structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN after charge−discharge test was probed by TEM, as shown in Figure 7d,e. Interestingly, the CoPt building blocks remained isolated and individually discernible without aggregation (Figure 7d) upon charge−discharge process. Figure 7e shows the size of the CoPt building block kept almost identical without apparent change. More importantly, in Figure 7f and insert FFT patterns, the lattice spacings of CoPt (2.15 Å) and Co(OH)$_2$ (2.68 Å) remained almost unchanged, further confirming that the hierarchical structure of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN had super-robust long-term stability. Such excellent stability can be probably attributed to the foam-like hierarchical structure, as previous studies have shown that such structure can provide well-defined pores to preserve the active sites and offer ideal pathway for liquid-to-gas (OER process) and gas-to-liquid (ORR process) conversions.

These encouraging results have shown the advantages of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as an efficient air−cathode for Zn−air battery in terms of high power density, specific capacity and long-term durability. The possible reasons can be ascribed to its unique foam-like structures which impart the following merits: (1) the CoPt alloyed nanoparticles offered desirable intrinsic ORR activity, while Co(OH)$_2$, laminar structure is very active in OER, and the integration of these two endows the composite great electrocatalytic bi-functionalities; (2) the N-CN not only provides excellent conductivity but also offers additional electrochemically active sites for both ORR and OER, and its well-defined porous structure can prevent coalescence, decomposition, and aggregation of the CoPt nanoparticles hence enhance the long-term stability; and (3) most importantly, the three active components can be integrated as a composite with foam-like morphology, in which not only both ORR and OER activities can be simultaneously engineered but also robust stability with super-long cycling life can be achieved.

3. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, an integral composite of Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN with excellent ORR and OER dual functionalities as the air−cathode of rechargeable Zn−air battery has been fabricated. Its hierarchical structural features were revealed by multiple techniques, where such a well-defined hierarchical structure imparts the composite with comparable activity and superior durability than Pt/C toward ORR, as well as outperformed OER activity and long-term durability than IrO$_2$ toward OER. When engineered as the air−cathode for rechargeable Zn−air battery, it shows a high power-density of 171 mW cm$^{-2}$, a specific capacity of 812 mA h g$^{-1}$, and a robust cycle life. Using Co(OH)$_2$/CoPt/N-CN as air−cathode, we demonstrate that two consecutive Zn−air batteries can power a water splitting device. This work enriches the toolbox for the design and construction of more cost-effective bi-functional electro-catalysts for metal−air battery systems.

4. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

4.1. Materials. Sodium chloride (NaCl), cobalt nitrate hexahydrate (Co(NO$_3$)$_2$·6H$_2$O), glucose, and urea were purchased from Guangzhou Chemical Reagent Factory (Guangzhou, China). Sodium borohydride (NaBH$_4$), zinc acetate (Zn(Ac)$_2$·2H$_2$O), potassium hydroxide (KOH), l-ascorbic acid (L-AA), and chloroplatinic acid hexahydrate (H$_2$PtCl$_6$·6H$_2$O) were obtained from Energy Chemicals (Shanghai, China). Iridium oxide (IrO$_2$) and commercial 20% Pt/C were acquired from Alfa Aesar. All aqueous solutions were prepared using deionized water with a resistivity of 18.3 MΩ cm.

4.2. Preparation of Nitrogen-Doped Carbon Nanosheets (Denoted as N-CN). Nitrogen-doped porous carbon was synthesized by following Scheme 1. In a typical preparation, One gram of glucose, 1 g of urea, and 20 g of NaCl were first co-dissolved in 60 mL deionized water, freezing-dried at −50 °C under vacuum, and then manually grinded in an agate mortar for 20 min. Subsequently, the obtained sample was carbonized at 300 °C for 1 h, and then 800 °C for 1 h (heating rate 2 °C min$^{-1}$) under Ar atmosphere with a steam rate of 20 sccm. Once cooled down to room temperature, the sample was dissolved in deionized water and filtered to remove NaCl. Finally,
240 mg of N-CN sample was obtained by drying at 35 °C in a vacuum oven for 12 h.

4.3. Preparation of Co(OH)₂ Nanosheets. Co(OH)₂ nanosheets were synthesized through the following approach: typically, 20 mL of KOH (0.27 M) aqueous solution was dropwise added into 60 mL of Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (0.025 M) and L-AA (0.01 M) mixed aqueous solution. After stirring at 40 °C for 4 h, the mixture was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 24 h. Followed by cooling down at room temperature, the sample was washed with deionized water and dried at 35 °C for 12 h in the vacuum oven. The collected solid was the Co(OH)₂ nanosheets. The yield of Co(OH)₂ is ~86%.

4.4. Preparation of CoPt/N-CN and CoPt/Co(OH)₂. CoPt/N-CN was synthesized by an in situ reduction method (Scheme 1). To achieve this, 0.1 mmol H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O and 0.033 mmol Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O were co-dissolved in 10 mL of deionized water, and then the dispersed 180 mg N-CN sample was added into the above solution under stirring for 4 h to ensure that Co²⁺ and Pt⁴⁺ were fully adsorbed into the pores of N-CN. Subsequently, 20 mL of NaBH₄ (30 mmol L⁻¹) was added dropwise into the mixture under a constant stirring for 6 h at 40 °C. Finally, the sample was washed with deionized water and dried at 35 °C in a vacuum oven (the yield of CoPt/N-CN is ~92%). CoPt/Co(OH)₂ electrocatalysts were prepared in a similar manner by replacing N-CN with Co(OH)₂ while the weight percentage of CoPt remained unchanged (the yield of CoPt/Co(OH)₂ is ~92%). The method for preparing Co/N-CN is same as that for CoPt/N-CN without adding Pt precursor (the yield of Co/N-CN is ~93%).

4.5. Preparation of Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN. The Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN sample was prepared through a two-step process (Scheme 1). Typically, the CoPt/N-CN was first prepared by following the above method. CoPt/N-CN was then dispersed into 10 mL of deionized water and ultrasonicated for 5 min, while 1 mmol Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 0.4 mmol LAA acid were co-dissolved in 20 mL of deionized water and added into the CoPt/N-CN dispersion. Subsequently, 30 mL of KOH (0.15 mol L⁻¹) aqueous solution was added into the above mixed solution dropwise and kept stirring for 4 h at 40 °C. Then, the mixture was transferred into a 100 mL Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and heated at 180 °C for 24 h. Followed by cooling down at room temperature, the sample was washed with deionized water and dried at 35 °C for 12 h in the vacuum oven. The collected solid was the Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN sample (the yield of Co(OH)₂/CoPt/N-CN is ~92%).

4.6. Electrochemical Measurements. Electrochemical measurements were carried out via a CHI 760E electrochemical workstation (CH Instruments) within a three-electrode cell and rotating ring disk electrode (Pine Instruments) under ambient conditions. The working electrode was prepared by drop-casting a catalyst ink on a prepolished glass carbon electrode (GCE, 5 mm in diameter). To prepare homogeneous catalyst ink, 2 mg of as-synthesized sample was dispersed into 0.4 mL of Nafton/ethanol (the weight percentage of Nafton is 0.05%) solution under ultrasonic treatment for 30 min, and then 4 µL of above catalyst ink was drop-cast onto GCE and dried at ambient temperature (the loading of catalyst on GCE was 102 µg cm⁻²). A platinum plate (1.5 cm × 1.5 cm) was used as the counter electrode, and the Ag/AgCl with saturated KCl was employed as the reference electrode. All potentials were converted to a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) via the equation of \( E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.196 + 0.059 \times \text{pH} \). The ORR activity was evaluated by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) and cyclic voltammetry (CV) with the potential ranging from −1 to 0.2 V (vs Ag/AgCl) at a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹ under different rotation rates (400, 625, 900, 1225, 1600, 2025, and 2500 rpm) in a O₂-saturated 0.1 mol L⁻¹ KOH electrolyte. The durability was performed via the amperometric i-t curve in O₂-saturated 0.1 mol L⁻¹ KOH electrolyte with the rotation speed of 900 rpm at potential of 0.5 V for 30,000 s. The OER performance was tested using LSV at a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹ with 1600 rpm rotation speed in N₂-saturated 1 mol L⁻¹ KOH solution. Electrochemical impedance spectra of OER were conducted on the GCE at 1.55 V (vs RHE) with the ac amplitude of 5 mV with the frequency ranging from 100 kHz to 0.01 Hz in N₂-saturated 1 mol L⁻¹ KOH solution.

4.7. Rechargeable Zn–Air Battery. A rechargeable Zn–air battery was self-assembled by adopting a zinc plate as the anode, while the dual-functional catalyst loaded on hydrophobic carbon cloth was employed as the air–cathode and diffusion layer. The air–cathode was fabricated by following the following method: 2 mg of catalyst was first dispersed into 400 µL of Nafion solution (0.5 wt %) and subject to ultrasonic treatment for 30 min, and then, the above mixture was drop-cast onto the hydrophobic side of the carbon cloth, ensuring the effective catalyst geometric area was 1 cm² (the catalyst loading was 2 mg cm⁻²). The electrolyte employed was 6 M KOH and 0.2 M Zn(NO₃)₂·2H₂O. The galvanostatic charge–discharge and discharge capacity measurements were performed by LAND CT2001A battery program-control test system. The discharge and charge polarization curves were recorded by CHI 760E working station.

4.8. Characterization. The morphology and surface structure of the samples were observed by a high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM, JEOL-2010, operated at 200 kV) and field-emission scanning electron microscope (SEM, Merlin, operated at 10 kV). The crystal structural feature of the electrocatalysts was identified by XRD (Empyrean) with Cu Kα (λ = 1.5406 Å) radiation at a scanning rate of 2θ = 2° min⁻¹. XPS were recorded on a Phi X-tool instrument with an Al Kα (hν = 1486.6 eV) source. An incident X-ray beam was focused on an analysis area of 200 μm in diameter with the take-off angle of 45° to the sample surface, and the pass energy is 55.0 eV with the energy step of 0.1 eV. The charge correction was performed the carbon C 1s peak at 285 eV as the reference value. The specific surface area and the pore size distribution of the samples were estimated from nitrogen adsorption isotherm (Quantachrome Autosorb-iQ instrument at 77 K) by means of the BET equation and the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda model. FT-IR was conducted on Nicolet 6700 with the wavenumber of 400–4000 cm⁻¹. The detection mode is the transmission ESP, the spectra were collected at 32 scans with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The Raman spectra measurement was performed using a laser Raman spectrometer (Jobin Yvon, model T6400).

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsami.8b18424.

SEM image, N₂ adsorption–desorption curves, FT-IR spectra, Raman spectra, LSV curves, additional Tafel plots and electrochemical impedance spectra, and additional XRD spectra (PDF)

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The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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