

# Interface engineering of porous Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub> catalyst with oxygen vacancies for highly active and stable large-current oxygen evolution and overall water splitting

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## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 26 March 2021

Revised 17 June 2021

Accepted 26 June 2021

Available online 15 July 2021

### Keywords:

Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>

Interface engineering

Oxygen vacancy

Oxygen evolution

Overall water splitting

## ABSTRACT

Constructing a low cost, and high-efficiency oxygen evolution reaction (OER) electrocatalyst is of great significance for improving the performance of alkaline electrolyzer, which is still suffering from high-energy consumption. Herein, we created a porous iron phosphide and tungsten oxide self-supporting electrocatalyst with oxygen-containing vacancies on foam nickel (Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF) through a facile *in-situ* growth, etching and phosphating strategies. The sequence-controllable strategy will not only generate oxygen vacancies and improve the charge transfer between Fe<sub>2</sub>P and WO<sub>2.92</sub> components, but also improve the catalyst porosity and expose more active sites. Electrochemical studies illustrate that the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst presents good OER activity with a low overpotential of 267 mV at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, a small Tafel slope of 46.3 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, high electrical conductivity, and reliable stability at high current density (100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for over 60 h in 1.0 M KOH solution). Most significantly, the operating cell voltage of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF || Pt/C is as low as 1.90 V at 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> in alkaline condition, which is one of the lowest reported in the literature. The electrocatalytic mechanism shows that the oxygen vacancies and the synergy between Fe<sub>2</sub>P and WO<sub>2.92</sub> can adjust the electronic structure and provide more reaction sites, thereby synergistically increasing OER activity. This work provides a feasible strategy to fabricate high-efficiency and stable non-noble metal OER electrocatalysts on the engineering interface.

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## I

With the rapid development of the global economy, the contin-

Additionally, tungsten-based materials and their various dopants are usually regarded as promising oxygen-evolving electrocatalysts under alkaline conditions [21]. Besides, oxides and phosphides have been extensively used for electrocatalytic oxygen-evolving, since metal oxides can effectively promote the dissociation of water, while phosphides have strong corrosion resistance, large electron density, and high electrical conductivity [22]. It is worth noting that the OER intrinsic activity of Tungsten oxide can be boosted significantly by increasing the oxygen vacancies, which can be adjusted by changing its band gaps and surface morphology [23,24]. Most importantly, self-supported tungsten oxide is proven to be a reliable electro-catalyst, due to the abundant active sites and porosity that promotes gas diffusion and effective electron transfer in the electrochemical reaction process [25]. Moreover, the self-supported tungsten oxide has a robust structure and stable in an alkaline medium [26]. Based on the above consideration, we can safely assume that self-supported and transition metal phosphate doped tungsten oxides have the potential to be an efficient OER catalyst.

Here, we constructed a porous Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst through a controllable method, including conventional hydrothermal *in-situ* growth, soaking and gas phase phosphating treatments. We have used a variety of techniques to characterize the hybrid catalyst in detail, and confirmed the composition, crystal structure, porosity, microscopic morphology and electronic structure of the catalyst. Electrochemical studies demonstrate that Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF exhibits good OER properties with an impressively low overpotential of 215 mV to yield 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and a small Tafel slope of 46.3 mV dec<sup>-1</sup> comparable to commercial RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Moreover, the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst also performs robust overall water splitting activity both at low and high current densities. For instance, the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF<sup>(+)</sup> || Pt/C<sup>(-)</sup> two-electrode system can reach 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.49 V and 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at 1.90 V, even better than the state-of-the-art RuO<sub>2</sub><sup>(+)</sup> || Pt/C<sup>(-)</sup>. In addition, the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF<sup>(+)</sup> || Pt/C<sup>(-)</sup> electrolyzer also shows a long-term stability at 400 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> with almost no degradation under simulated industrialization conditions, indicating a significant potential for industrial application.

## E a

### Materials and chemicals

Sodium tungstate dihydrate (Na<sub>2</sub>WO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O, 99.5%), potassium hydroxide (KOH, 90%), potassium ferricyanide (K<sub>3</sub>[Fe(CN)<sub>6</sub>], 99.5%), ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, 99.7%), sodium hypophosphite monohydrate (NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O, 99%), and hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%) are analytical grade and were used without further purification. Nickel foam (NF, thickness: 1.6 mm) was obtained from commercial source. Nafion solution (5 wt%) and commercial Pt/C (20 wt% for

sweep voltammetry (LSV) were recorded at a low scan rate of  $0.2 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  in the range of 1.0–1.8 V (vs. RHE). The overpotential ( $\eta$ ) of OER can be calculated by the following equation:  $\eta \text{ (V)} = E_{\text{RHE}} - 1.23 \text{ V}$ . Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted at 0.5 V (vs. SCE) with the frequency range from 0.1 Hz to 200 kHz. The long-term stability test of the catalysts were achieved by chronopotentiometry and chronoamperometry measurements at different current densities of 10 and  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. All potentials (vs. SCE) were calibrated by the equation of  $E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{SCE}} + 0.242 + 0.059 \times \text{pH}$  (Fig. S1). The overall water splitting test was performed in 1.0 M KOH and 30 % KOH (78.2 mL) electrolyte, separately, and the two electrode system in the potential range of 0–2.5 V (vs. SCE) with a scan rate of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . All reported curves had been corrected by *iR* compensation.

## R a

### Catalyst preparation

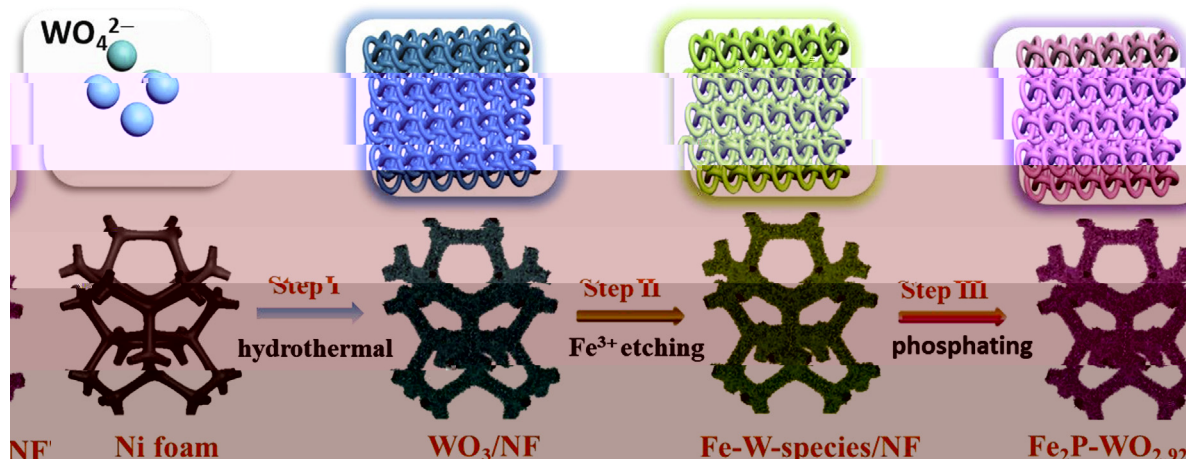
A facile consecutive three-step synthesis (*in-situ* hydrothermal growth, soaking, and phosphating) of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  is illustrated in Scheme 1. Specifically, the dark navy blue  $\text{WO}_3$  is initially grown *in-situ* on the nickel foam by conventional hydrothermal treatment of  $\text{Na}_2\text{WO}_4$  acid solution. Afterwards, the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{NF}$  was immersed in the  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  aqueous solution to obtain a yellow Fe-W-species/NF component. Ligand exchange happens between  $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{3+}$  and  $\text{WO}_3$  that dissolves the  $\text{WO}_3$ , while the  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$  is deposited on the  $\text{WO}_3$  in the water. This is consistent with the results obtained by ICP-MS test that the content of W decreases continuously with the prolonging of etching time (Table S1). Finally, Fe-W-species/NF is transformed into black  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  composite through gas phase phosphating treatment (Fig. S2). The  $\text{PH}_3$  gas was generated through the decomposition of  $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [28]. During the phosphating, the  $\text{PH}_3$  not only becomes a source of phosphorus but also acts as a reducing agent. In this process, part of the high-valence W (VI) in the precursor is reduced to W (V), accompanied by the generation of oxygen vacancies, meanwhile, the iron species is phosphatized into  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$ . The loading of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}$  on NF is about  $1.25 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ , which is obtained by accurately weighing the mass before and after loading.

### Crystallinity, microstructure and porosity analysis

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected to explore the chemical composition and crystallinity of the as-prepared cata-

lysts. Fig. 1(a) exhibits the seven distinct diffraction peaks at  $14.0^\circ$ ,  $22.7^\circ$ ,  $28.2^\circ$ ,  $36.6^\circ$ ,  $50.0^\circ$ ,  $55.3^\circ$  and  $58.3^\circ$  are attributed to (100), (001), (200), (201), (220), (202) and (400) lattice planes of the hexagonal  $\text{WO}_3$  phase (JCPDS: 33–1387), respectively. The  $\text{WO}_3$  sample is scraped from the surface of NF because the diffraction peak of NF is too strong to observe the diffraction peak of  $\text{WO}_3$  species. As shown in Fig. 1(b), after the  $\text{WO}_3$  component is treated by  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  and subsequent phosphating treatment, the representative three diffraction peaks at  $23.3^\circ$ ,  $40.8^\circ$  and  $54.4^\circ$  can be indexed to the (010),  $(-4112)$  and (325) lattice planes of monoclinic  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  (JCPDS: 30–1387) [29,30], as well the other diffraction peaks located at  $47.3^\circ$  and  $54.6^\circ$  are matched well with the (210) and (211) lattice planes of the hexagonal  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  phase (JCPDS: 51–0943). The  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  structure was identified by XRD pattern as reported by other studies [29–31]. As a comparison, when a single  $\text{WO}_3/\text{NF}$  and  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  soaked hydrothermal NF were phosphatized, they were converted into  $\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$  (Fig. S3), respectively. However, the diffraction intensity of  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  phase in  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  is significantly higher than that of  $\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$ , indicating the increased crystallinity caused by the interaction between Fe and W species [32]. Moreover, the Fe-W-species/NF component corresponds to  $\text{WO}_3$  (JCPDS: 33–1387) and  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$  (JCPDS: 38–0032) (Fig. S4).

The morphological and microstructure of the catalysts were analyzed by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Fig. S5(a) shows that the surface of cleaned NF is a smooth three-dimensional structure. The SEM image in Fig. 2(a) indicates that the  $\text{WO}_3$  was successfully grew on the NF surface, displaying a nanowires structure. Yet, after the  $\text{WO}_3/\text{NF}$  precursor is treated by  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ , there are a lot of particulate materials on the surface of the porous structure, and the structure became more dense (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, after the phosphatization, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  surface becomes smoother (Fig. 2c). Fig. S5(b – d) shows that the low-magnification SEM images of  $\text{WO}_3$ , Fe-W-species/NF and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$ , respectively, showing that they grow uniformly on NF. To investigate the effect of morphological changes, the different Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area was measured by  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption-desorption isotherm, and the isotherms of the catalysts display the typical III-type hysteresis loop in Fig. 1(c and d). The porous structured  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}$  illustrate a comparatively large BET surface area of  $6.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , which is larger than that of  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  ( $5.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). Besides, we also calculated the adsorption average pore diameters of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}$  (11.1 nm) and  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  (6.5 nm) by BJH method, which were mainly caused by cracks and porous structures in the composite [27]. The  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}$  composite exhibits a larger



S 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation process for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  catalyst.

BET surface area and average pore diameter could provide more active sites and faster mass transfer rate than  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  subsequently boosting OER catalytic activity. Besides, We also studied the morphologies of the contrast samples without  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  and W, named  $\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  and  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$ . The  $\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  also has a porous structure, while the morphology of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}/\text{NF}$  looks like a bulk structure (Fig. S6). The Table S3 is the summary of OER performance of catalysts with different soaking time, we have found that the performance varies with the soaking time. In addition, the influence of hydrothermal and soaking time on the morphology of the catalysts are shown in Figs. S7 and S8. When the hydrothermal time is 4 h, the morphology of the precursor is a nanoflower formed by nanowires, and when the hydrothermal time is over 6 h, the morphology of the precursor is interlinked porous nanowires. The soaking time has no great influence on the morphology of the catalyst. After phosphating, the morphology is slightly changed, but the overall structure is porous, which is conducive to improving the catalytic activity of OER. The microstructure of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}-\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  were further observed by TEM and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM). Fig. 2(d) also shows that  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}-\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  has a porous structure, which is consistent with the SEM results. The HRTEM image clearly reveals a series of lattice spacing such as 0.382 and 0.192 nm, corresponding to the (010) lattice plane of  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  and (210) lattice plane of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  (Fig. 2e). At the same time, the inset of Fig. 2e illustrates that the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern also confirms the existence of (010) lattice plane for  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}-\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  [33]. Due to the low crystallinity of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  in the catalyst, the presence of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  is not observed in the SAED pattern, indicating the polycrystalline characteristic of the catalyst. Energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) pattern (Fig. 2f) shows obvious signals of W, Fe, C, O

and P in  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}-\text{WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$ . The high-angle annular dark-field scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM) and EDX mapping images demonstrate that W, Fe, C, O, and P are uniformly distributed in the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}-\text{WO}_{2.92}$

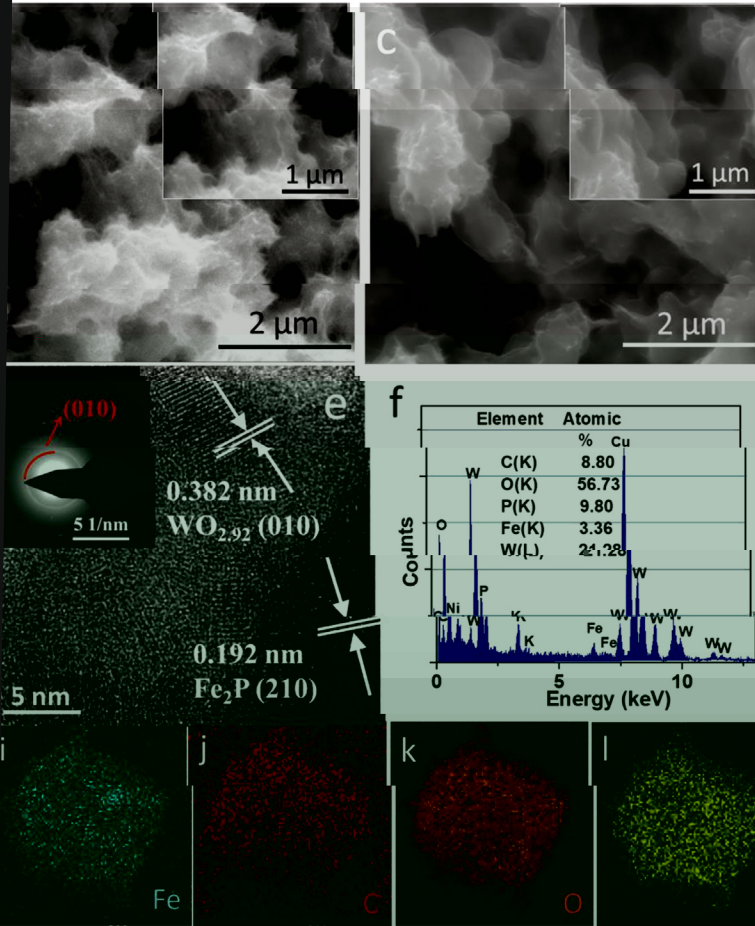
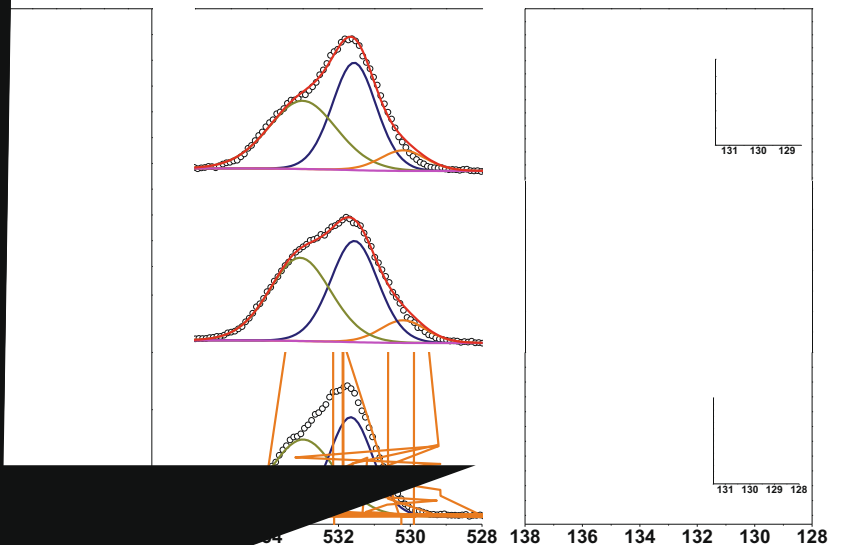


Figure 1. (a) TEM image of Fe-W-species/NF, (b) Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. (d) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and (e) high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. (f) EDX pattern of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. (g) HAADF-STEM image of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. (h-l) the HAADF-STEM images of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF showing the Fe (green) and W (red) species.



the oxidation of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF and the formation of the Fe-O-W bond formed during the etching

process [37]. The average valence state of W is 5.84 that composed of W<sup>5+</sup> and W<sup>6+</sup>. Generally, the binding energy of Fe 2p in Fe<sub>2</sub>P is

higher than 707 eV [38], so the low binding energy of Fe 2p in Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF composite indicates charge transfer between WO<sub>2.92</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>P component. Besides, the high-resolution spectra of W 4f (Fig. 3b) can be deconvoluted into five peaks, corresponding to the different oxidation states of W species such as W<sup>6+</sup> (36.0 and 38.2 eV), W<sup>5+</sup> (35.0 and 37.2 eV) and another small loss feature peak of WO<sub>3</sub> located at 41.2 eV [30]. The lower chemical valence of W<sup>5+</sup> is formed during the phosphating of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. Hence, the above results confirm the formation of tungsten oxide (WO<sub>2.92</sub>) [31]. The W<sup>6+</sup> species are partially reduced to W<sup>5+</sup> by PH<sub>3</sub> during phosphatization. For comparison, Figs. S10 and S11 show that the high-resolution W 4f of WO<sub>3</sub>/NF together with Fe 2p and W 4f of Fe-W-species/NF, the high-resolution spectra of W 4f can be deconvoluted into two peaks, corresponding to the oxidation states of W<sup>6+</sup>. And the high-resolution Fe 2p spectra of Fe-W-species/NF are composed of Fe 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Fe 2p<sub>3/2</sub> regions. The XRD (Fig. S4) and XPS (Fig. S11) indicated that W in the precursor WO<sub>3</sub> and Fe-W-species exist in the same form before and after Fe<sup>3+</sup> etching meaning the etching step has no effect on oxygen vacancies. The oxygen vacancies formed during the phosphatization process through two steps, including metal ion reduction and phosphorous insertion (Figs. S4 and S11).

Besides, the high-resolution O 1s spectra are used to examine the changes of oxygen species on the surface of different catalysts. The O 1s XPS spectrum consists of three peaks with binding energies at approximately 530.2 eV, 531.5 eV and 533.0 eV, attributing to lattice oxygen (O<sub>l</sub>), oxygen vacancies (O<sub>v</sub>) and surface adsorbed oxygen species (O<sub>A</sub>), respectively (Fig. 3c) [39]. Notably, from the O 1s XPS spectrum, it can be concluded that there are certain oxygen vacancies in Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF, indicating that the strong interaction between W and Fe can increase the concentration of O<sub>v</sub>. The reason for the generation of O<sub>v</sub> is that excessive PH<sub>3</sub> gas will take away part of the O atoms in WO<sub>3</sub> component to form compounds containing oxygen vacancies [37]. As a result, the hexagonal WO<sub>3</sub> transform into monoclinic WO<sub>2.92</sub> in order to minimize the lattice stress. The WO<sub>2.92</sub> was formed through the lattice rearrangement because of the lattice stress resulted from oxygen vacancies. Moreover, a certain proportion of O<sub>v</sub> in Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF is consistent with the transfer of part of the electrons from WO<sub>2.92</sub> to the Fe<sub>2</sub>P component. As shown in Fig. 3(d), the high-resolution P 2p spectrum mainly includes P 2p<sub>3/2</sub> (129.6 eV) and P 2p<sub>1/2</sub> (130.5 eV), as well as a typical broad peak of P-O bond at 134.3 eV [40]. These confirmed that the metal phosphide (Fe<sub>2</sub>P) formed in the composite was partially oxidized on the surface. In short, XPS analysis suggests that the valence states of the catalyst elements have undergone subtle changes, demonstrating that the introduction of Fe<sub>2</sub>P component is beneficial to enhance electronic interaction and redistribution, thereby synergistically improving OER activity.

### Electrochemical performance analysis

The OER performance of different catalysts was evaluated by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) in 1.0 M KOH solution with a typical three-electrode electrochemical system. We first optimized the effect of reaction conditions on the catalytic performance of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. The study found that the best catalytic performance was obtained by hydrothermal time of 6 h (Figs. S12 and S13 and Table S2) and soaking time of 4 h (Table S3). As shown in Fig. 4(a), the LSV polarization curves clearly demonstrated that the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst requires only 215 mV of overpotential at current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, comparable to that of RuO<sub>2</sub> (213 mV), which is significantly lower than those of WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF (250 mV), Fe<sub>2</sub>P/NF (235 mV) and NF (306 mV) (Table 1), indicating that the synergy between WO<sub>2.92</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>P components is the key to improving OER activity. In particular, the overpotentials required for Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst at higher current densities

of 50 and 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> are 249 and 267 mV respectively, and the advantages are more prominent compared with all other catalysts (Fig. 4b). To further evaluate the intrinsic catalytic activity, the corresponding Tafel slope calculated from LSV polarization curve was used to investigate the OER kinetics. As shown in Fig. 4(c), Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst manifests a comparatively small Tafel plot of 46.3 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, which is much lower than those of WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF (93.8 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), Fe<sub>2</sub>P/NF (62.7 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), RuO<sub>2</sub> (85.5 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>) and NF (100.0 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting a fast OER kinetic reaction and high charge transfer coefficient of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF [41,42]. Notably, this work is better than most of the previous reports in terms of both electrocatalytic OER overpotential and Tafel slope (Fig. 4d, Table S4), indicating that it has a significant contribution to the related field.

The electrochemically active surface area (ECSA), which is proportional to the double-layer capacitance (C<sub>dl</sub>), is a critical parameter for studying the interfacial dynamics of electrode. The C<sub>dl</sub> values of different catalysts are obtained from the CV curves using various scan rates in non-Faradaic potential regions (Figs. S15 – S18). As shown in Fig. 4(e), the C<sub>dl</sub> of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst is 24.8 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, which is much higher than that of all control catalysts (Table 1). Meanwhile, the ECSA values are calculated according to the equation (1):

$$ECSA = C_{dl}/C_s \quad (1)$$

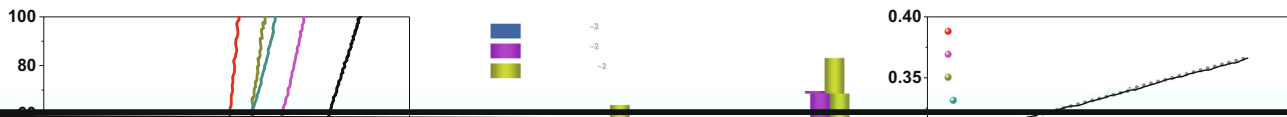
where the C<sub>s</sub> is 40 μF cm<sup>-2</sup> [43,44]. The results revealed that the ECSA value of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF is 620 cm<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 5a), which is 2.3-, 2.3-, 1.6- and 3.8-fold higher than those of WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF, Fe<sub>2</sub>P/NF, RuO<sub>2</sub> and NF, respectively. This largest ECSA means the most active sites, which is the intrinsic reason for the excellent OER performance of the catalyst.

In addition, we also compared Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF and WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF with Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>3</sub>/NF and WO<sub>3</sub>/NF in terms of their performance and ECSA. Fig. S14 shows that Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>3</sub>/NF and WO<sub>3</sub>/NF require overpotentials of 244 mV and 263 mV at current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Moreover, the ECSA values of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>3</sub>/NF and WO<sub>3</sub>/NF are 258 cm<sup>2</sup> and 163 cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively, which is significantly lower than Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF. These results further illustrate that the presence of oxygen vacancies can greatly increase OER activity and ECSA.

Moreover, the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was used to explore the electrode kinetics. In general, the charge transfer resistance (R<sub>ct</sub>) of the catalyst refers to the semicircle diameter of the Nyquist plots, and the solution resistance (R<sub>s</sub>) refers to the intersection of the semicircle and the x-axis. As shown in Figs. S19 and S20, the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF has the lowest R<sub>ct</sub> (0.32 Ω) among the all catalysts, demonstrating high charge transfer efficiency and good conductivity.

Stability testing is an important criterion for evaluating the practical application of catalysts. The chronopotentiometry curve was used to explore the long-term stability of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst in a three-electrode system. We observed that the potential of the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst only increased by about 8.4% after 100 h of continuous operation at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 4f), reflecting the robust stability and good activity retention under continuous operation. Besides, when the catalyst was operated at a high current density of 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for 60 h, a potential loss of about 7% was observed, indicating a great potential for industrial application (inset Fig. 4f). Moreover, we also used chronoamperometry to test the stability of the catalyst. Fig. S21 shows that the steady current density of Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF over a long period of 50 h in 1.0 M KOH. This degradation of catalytic performance may be caused by catalyst exfoliation and morphological agglomeration after long-term operation (Fig. S22).

The turnover frequency (TOF) was calculated to further evaluate the intrinsic OER activities of electrocatalysts using Eq. (2) [45]:



$$\text{TOF} = \frac{j \times A}{4Fn}$$

where  $j$  is the current density,  $A$  is the area of the electrode,  $F$  is the Faraday constant, and  $n$  is the number of active sites. [46,47]. Fig. 5(b) indicates that the

The two-electrode water splitting experiment is a key indicator to decide whether the catalyst can be commercialized [49]. The two-electrode water splitting system was constructed using the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  as anode and commercial Pt/C as cathode as shown in Fig. 6(a). Surprisingly, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  electrolyzer only needs a cell voltage of 1.49 V to reach the current density of  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 6b), which is a better result than the  $\text{RuO}_2^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  (1.51 V) benchmark. The inset of Fig. 6(b) shows the stability of the catalyst for water splitting, which can be stable for 36 h at  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  without significant attenuation. In addition, we compared the as-prepared electrolyzer with the recently reported two-electrode catalytic configuration, the result elucidates that the cell voltage of the as-prepared catalyst is significantly lower than the most two-electrode systems (Fig. 6c, Table S5). Furthermore, the catalyst was evaluated under industrial relevant condition of  $500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  current density in 30% KOH solution. As shown in Fig. 6(d), the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  electrolyzer only needs cell voltages of 1.90 V and 1.95 V to drive high current density of 400 and  $500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. Surprisingly, under this condition, the electrolyzer still shows no voltage increase after 42 h at  $400 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Inset of Fig. 6d), indicating a great industrial perspective.

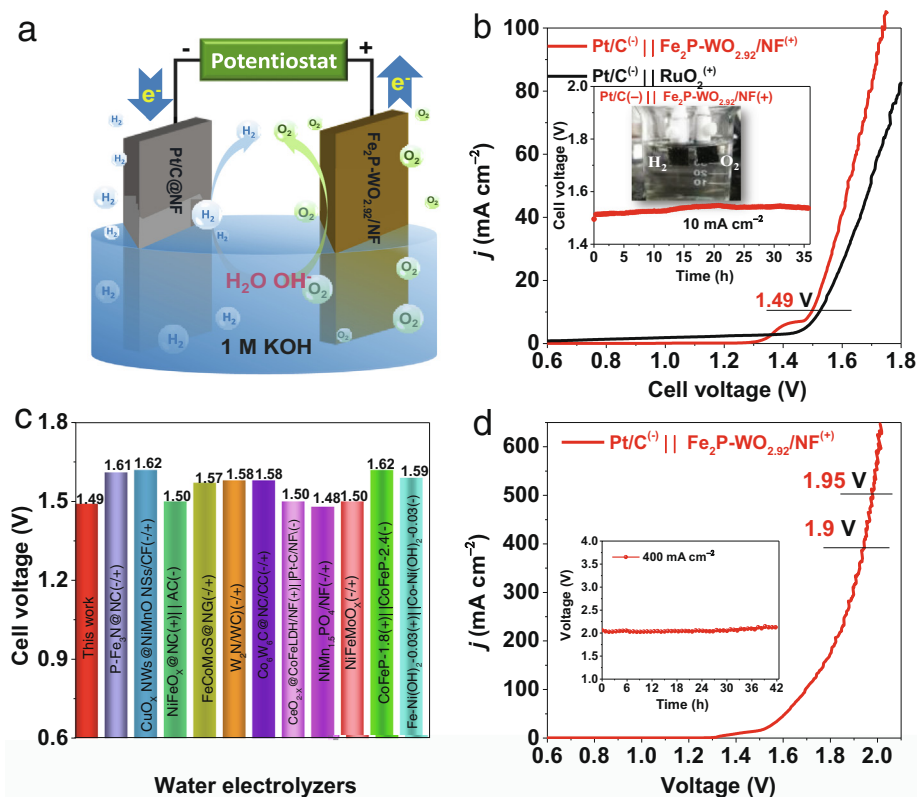
#### Catalytic mechanism analysis

As discussed above, the excellent OER electrocatalytic activity and stability, as well as the outstanding overall water splitting performance of the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  catalyst are considered to be caused by the following reasons. (1) The porous structure can accelerate the transport of electrolyte and gas emission. (2) A higher proportion of oxygen vacancies implies a stronger interac-

tion between  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  and  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  components, a faster electron transfer rate and better hydrophilic properties [50]. (3) A larger ECSA value means more active sites, which can promote higher electrocatalytic OER and overall water splitting performance. (4) Electrocatalytic OER involves a four-step process and three intermediates ( $\text{OH}^*$ ,  $\text{O}^*$  and  $\text{OOH}^*$ ) on the active site in alkaline electrolyte [51]. Previous studies revealed that the introduction of a second component in a hybrid catalyst can optimize the adsorption energy of the active site [52]. In the OER process, part of the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  component surface will be initially oxidized to Fe oxide/hydroxide, making the contact between  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$  and  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  components closer [53]. As part of the electrons in the hybrid catalyst are transferred from  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  to  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P}$ , the electron-deficient  $\text{WO}_{2.92}$  component (Lewis acid) is more easily to interact with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  molecules (Lewis base) [54], thereby synergistically enhancing the catalytic activity of OER process.

#### C

In summary, a high-performance catalyst  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  was successfully prepared by a simple hydrothermal, soaking and subsequent phosphating treatment. The optimized  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  catalyst possesses a porous structure with smooth and interconnected surface, which is able to expose more active sites. In addition, the oxygen vacancies in the catalyst can accelerate electron transfer and optimize adsorption characteristics. The 3D porous NF is used as the substrate for the catalysts growth creating sufficient porosity for releasing the gas bubbles. As a result, the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}$  catalyst exhibited an excellent OER activity, requiring overpotentials of 215 and 267 mV to achieve current densities of 10 and  $100 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  respectively, and a small Tafel slope of  $46.3 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$



**Fig. 6.** (a) Schematic description of overall water splitting in two-electrode system. (b) Polarization curves by two-electrode system in 1.0 M KOH electrolyte (Insert: Chronoamperometric curve of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  with the current density of  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  in two-electrode system and experimental phenomenon during catalyst stability test). (c) Comparison of the voltages at  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  with previously reported catalysts in 1.0 M KOH. (d) Polarization curve by two-electrode system of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  in 30% KOH electrolyte (Insert: chronopotentiometry curve of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{P-WO}_{2.92}/\text{NF}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt}/\text{C}^{(-)}$  with the current density of  $400 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  in two-electrode system).



manifests a fast reaction kinetics. Particularly, the Fe<sub>2</sub>P-WO<sub>2.92</sub>/NF catalyst possesses a robust stability at 100 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> for 60 h without significant attenuation. In addition, the catalyst also exhibits good overall water splitting performance, which is better than most previously reported catalysts. In short, this work provides a rational approach for designing low-cost, high-efficiency and non-noble metal-based electrocatalysts for industrial water splitting.

## D a a C I

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## A

This work has been supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (no. 21965005), the Natural Science Foundation of Guangxi Province (2018GXNSFAA294077, 2021GXNSFAA076001), the Project of High-Level Talents of Guangxi (F-KA18015), and Guangxi Technology Base and Talent Subject (GUIKE AD18126001, GUIKE AD20297039).

## A A S a a a

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jechem.2021.06.037>.

## R

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