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High-valence metal-doped amorphous IrO_x as active and stable electrocatalyst for acidic oxygen evolution reaction

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ABSTRACT

Proton-exchange membrane water electrolysis, particularly driven by renewable electricity, is a sustainable strategy for green hydrogen production. However, developing highly active and stable electrocatalysts to accelerate the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) remains challenging. Herein, we introduce an effective strategy for constructing high-valence metal-doped IrO_x with abundant oxygen vacancies, while simultaneously enhancing the catalytic activity and stability of the acidic OER. The synthesized Ta-doped IrO_x (350-Ta@IrO_x) exhibits ultramicroscopic nanoparticle morphology and abundant surface oxygen vacancies, enabling a rapid OER process with a low overpotential of 223 mV at 10 mA cm⁻² and 147.7 times higher mass activity than that of commercial IrO_2 at 1.55 V versus the reversible hydrogen electrode. More importantly, 350-Ta@IrOx affords excellent stability with insignificant potential degradation after 500 h of electrolysis at 10 mA cm⁻², originating from the low operating potential and suppressed dissolution and oxidation of oxygen vacancy active sites via Ta doping. Density functional theory calculations suggest that Ta doping and oxygen defect engineering are effective in facilitating the nucleophilic attack of water molecules, thereby accelerating the rate-determining step toward high catalytic OER activity on Ta-doped IrO_x. We anticipate that this study will provide an effective method to obtain active and stable electrocatalysts via high-valence metal doping.

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1. Introduction

Hydrogen has been regarded as a potential energy carrier instead of fossil fuels, addressing energy demand and environmental issues [1]. Water splitting, powered by renewable electricity from wind or solar energy, is attractive for green hydrogen production because of its high efficiency and cost-effectiveness [2–4]. Among the innovative pathways, polymer electrolyte membrane water electrolysis (PEMWE) is a promising alternative owing to its high operating current densities, hydrogen purity, and fast system response [5–7]. However, its efficiency is limited by the sluggish kinetics of the electrochemical reactions [8,9]. Compared with the cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), which is a two-electron transfer process [10], the anodic oxygen evolution reaction (OER) involves considerably more complex steps in the

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four-electron transfer process, imposing an urgent requirement for effective electrocatalysts [11,12]. In recent years, considerable efforts have been made in improving the catalytic activity of OER electrocatalysts such as Ce-doping of IrO_2 [13] and Ir-based perovskite oxide [14,15]. However, these electrocatalysts remain unstable owing to their high applied potentials and corrosive electrolytes [16]. Therefore, extensive research is required to simultaneously enhance the activity and stability of OER electrocatalysts toward high-efficiency and low-cost PEMWE [17].

Amorphous hydrated IrOx-type electrocatalysts are considered as potential OER candidates with high catalytic performance in acidic media [18,19]. Typically, amorphous IrOx can be obtained by the dynamic surface reconstruction of transition-metal-mixed iridium oxides [20,21], particularly with rare-earth elements [22], because of their thermodynamic instability under acidic conditions. Moreover, alkali metal intercalation [23,24] by thermal treatment can be used to synthesize amorphous IrO_x . In addition, IrO_x can be prepared using a low-temperature sintering method that converts iridium chloride into incompletely oxidized iridium oxide [25]. These IrO_x electrocatalysts with abundant oxygen defects [26] contribute to the reduced Ir valence state and weakened Ir-O binding. These electrophilic oxygen defects of IrO_x are conducive to nucleophilic attack by water, resulting in a significant enhancement in the catalytic activity. Generally, the adsorption of water by the defects has a low activation energy and is considered the source of the high activity of the amorphous oxide structure. The weakened binding between iridium and oxygen accelerates the dissolution of Ir without electron transfer (Ir^{III}(oxide) to $Ir^{3+}_{(aq)}$ [27] during the acidic OER, inducing inferior stability. In most cases, the enhanced activities of Ir-based electrocatalysts are negatively correlated with their stability through an Ir dissolution process during the acidic OER [28]. Few studies have aimed to improve the stability of amorphous IrOx while maintaining its high catalytic activity. However, most studies have focused on improving the catalytic activity of amorphous IrO_x, and only a few studies have aimed at improving its stability. Doping is generally employed to boost the activity and stability of electrocatalysts by regulating the negatively charged states on nearby O sites or by tuning the electronic structures of metal oxides [29,30]. For example, Fe-doped NiOOH successfully enables efficient and stable OER electrocatalytic reactions in alkaline electrolytes [31]. Moreover, high-valence transition-metal doping, with elements such as Hf [32], Re [33], W [34], and Ta [35-37], not only regulates the electronic structure of the catalytic center by accepting electrons, but also stabilizes these catalytic centers owing to their corrosion resistance and strong metal-0 bonds. Inspired by these results, high-valence metal doping is expected to enhance the activity of amorphous IrO_x and reinforce its structural stability toward the acidic OER.

Herein, using the high-valence metal (Ta) doping strategy through a facile molten salt sintering method, we developed Ta-doped amorphous hydrated IrO_x (Ta@IrO_x) with abundant oxygen vacancies as highly active and stable electrocatalysts for acidic OER. As an electron-accepting dopant, Ta optimized the structural morphology and generated surface oxygen vacancies over IrO_x. The resultant 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibited a high acidic OER activity with a low overpotential of 223 mV at 10 mA cm⁻², largely surpassing the commercial IrO₂. Combined with density functional theory (DFT) calculations, Ta-doped IrO_x enabled a rapid electrocatalytic OER by effectively promoting the nucle-ophilic attack of the H₂O molecule and reducing the energy barriers of the rate-determining step (RDS). Importantly, 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibited no obvious potential degradation under 500-h operation at 10 mA cm⁻², owing to the suppressed dissolution of Ir and oxidation of active defects *via* Ta doping. This study sheds light on the development of active and stable amorphous IrO_x *via* high-valence metal doping.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

All the chemicals, including NaNO₃ (99.9%), IrCl₃·xH₂O (99%), TaCl₅ (99.9%), H₂SO₄, C₃H₈O, and commercial IrO₂ were purchased from Aladdin Chemical Reagent Co, Ltd. Deionized water (18 M Ω cm⁻¹) was used to prepare all aqueous solutions. The commercial IrOx (IrO₂·2H₂O, 99.95% metals basis) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. All reagents were of analytical grade and used without further purification.

2.2. Preparation of IrO_x and Ta@IrO_x series electrocatalysts

350-Ta@IrO_x was synthesized using a modified Adams fusion method [38]. Metal precursors (1 mmol of TaCl₅ and 9 mmol of IrCl₃·xH₂O) and excess NaNO₃ (10 g) were added to 10 mL of water, and a homogeneous aqueous solution was prepared *via* stirring and heating. The solvent was then evaporated from the solution and the obtained solid mixture was ground carefully. Subsequently, the ground powder was further calcinated at a specified temperature for 2 h at a heating rate of 1.7 °C min⁻¹. After a quick cooling to room temperature, washing with water, dilution with H₂SO₄ solution, and freeze-drying, the Ta-doped IrO_x electrocatalyst sintered at 350 °C was obtained and named 350-Ta@IrO_x. These samples prepared under various pyrolysis temperatures (350, 400, 450 °C) with and without Ta doping were named as 350-Ta@IrO_x, 400-Ta@IrO_x, 450-Ta@IrO_x, 400-IrO_x, and 450-IrO_x.

2.3. Conventional characterizations

The size and morphology were characterized by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-4800) at 20 kV and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Tecnai G2 F20) at an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected using a Rigaku micro-XRD with Cu K_{α} radiation (40 kV, 15 mA, λ = 1.5418 Å), recorded with 2 θ ranging from 20° to 80°. The bonding configurations of the samples were determined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Shimadzu AXIS Supra). The binding energies were corrected based on the carbon peak at 284.8 eV. The concentration of the metal ions in the electrolyte was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectroscopy

(ICP-MS, Thermo iCAP 7400). All the electrochemical test data were measured using an electrochemical workstation (Bio-Logic VMP-3). Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) patterns were recorded using an electron spin resonance spectrometer (JEOL, JES-FA200).

2.4. Electrochemical measurements

2.4.1. Electrodes preparation

Typically, 10 mg of electrocatalysts were dispersed in 2 mL of mixed solvent with water and isopropanol (1:3, *v*:*v*), and 100 μ L of 5 wt% Nafion solution was added into this mixture. The resulting solution was ultrasonicated for at least 30 min until a well-dispersed ink was obtained. The ink was dropped onto glassy carbon or carbon paper at an electrocatalyst load of ~0.2 mg cm⁻².

2.4.2. Three-electrode system measurements

Electrochemical measurements of the prepared electrocatalysts were performed in 0.5 mol L⁻¹ H₂SO₄ *via* a standard three-electrode system at room temperature. Platinum mesh and saturated Ag/AgCl electrodes were used as counter and reference electrodes, respectively. A catalyst-coated rotating disk electrode (RDE, diameter: 5.61 mm, electrode surface area: 0.2475 cm², Pine Research Instrument) or carbon paper was used as the working electrode (electrode surface area: 0.5 cm²). The polarization curves were normalized to the surface area of the electrode. The saturated Ag/AgCl reference electrode was calibrated using a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE), as described in a previous report (Fig. S1) [39], and the resulting potential of zero net current was found to be -0.213 V in 0.5 mol L⁻¹ H₂SO₄. Before each test, oxygen was injected into the electrolyte for 20 min.

The RDE was used as the working electrode at a rotation speed of 1600 rpm. The electrocatalyst was activated before each electrochemical measurement, as described in previous report [40]. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves were recorded at a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹ with capacitance correction and 80% Ohmic drop correction. The Tafel plots were constructed by sweeping the electrode potential from high to low across a linear Tafel region. Electrochemical AC impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were performed in the frequency range of 0.2–100 MHz at 1.513 V vs. RHE. The electrochemical double-layer capacitances (*C*_{dl}) of the catalysts were assessed by cyclic voltammetry (CV) at various scan rates from 5 to 25 mV s⁻¹. *C*_{dl} values were calculated according to the linear relationship between the current density and the scanning speed based on the equation, *i* = v*C*_{dl} [41].

Electrocatalyst-coated carbon paper was used as the working electrode for stability tests. Chronopotentiometry (CP) was performed at a constant current density of 10 mA cm⁻² in 0.5 mol L^{-1} H₂SO₄ at room temperature.

2.5. DFT method

All computational tasks in this study were performed using the software PWmat [42,43]. The plane wave cutoff energy was 50 Ry, and the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof exchange-correlation functional was applied [44]. The force convergence was set to 0.02 eV Å⁻¹. To simulate the OER on the surface of the electrocatalysts, slab models of a 2 × 3 supercell of IrO₂ with doped Ta or oxygen vacancies were constructed with exposed (110) facets. The vacuum layer in the z direction was set to 15 Å to avoid the periodic effect. The van der Waals correction was also considered using DFT-D3 [45–47]. A Monkhorst-Park 3 × 4 × 1 K-point grid of the Brillouin zone was used for cell relaxation.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and morphology characterization

350-Ta@IrO_x was prepared using a one-step sintering-modified Adams molten salt method [38], and the low calcination temperature of this method favored the formation of ultrasmall amorphous hydrated iridium oxide nanoparticles. As shown in Fig. S2, 350 °C is chosen as the minimum phase formation temperature from the metal precursors to iridium oxide, which is consistent with the melting point of NaNO₃ (307 °C).

The SEM images of commercial IrO₂ and the prepared electrocatalysts with and without Ta doping at various temperatures are shown in Figs. S3 and S4. The results show that $350\text{-Ta}@IrO_x$ has a lamellar morphology that is very different from that of pure rutile IrO₂. As shown in Fig. 1(a), the low-resolution TEM image of 350-Ta@IrO_x confirms the lamellar structure consisting of ultra-small nanoparticles, which is due to the nucleation and growth of iridium oxide nanoparticles on the surface of sodium nitrate. When increasing the pyrolysis temperature from 350 to 450 °C, large-sized iridium oxide bulk with less lamellar structure was generated due to the Ostwald ripening of iridium oxide under high temperatures (Figs. S5–S10). The formation of a lamellar or porous structure originates from the quick cooling operation, and the removed molten NaNO₃ is solidified by water. The transformation of the structure via the Ostwald ripening process upon increasing the temperature resulted in the generation of larger nanoparticles and higher crystallinity of the iridium oxide, which was con-



Fig. 1. Morphology characterization of 350-Ta@IrO_x. (a) TEM image; (b HR-TEM image with lattice spacing; (c) SAED image; (d–g) Elemental mapping images.

sistent with the results of a previous study [48]. Notably, Ta-doping samples better maintained the porous morphology than the undoped samples at the same pyrolysis temperature, suggesting a stabilizing effect of heteroelement doping on the microscopic morphology under high calcination temperatures.

High-resolution TEM (HR-TEM) was used to investigate the nanostructure of 350-Ta@IrO_x. As shown in Fig 1(b), ultrasmall particles with diameters of approximately 2 nm are observed with the clear lattice spacing of 2.20 and 2.24 Å, which are ascribed to the (111) and (200) facets of rutile IrO2 (ICDD-PDF: 97-064-0887) with slightly stray due to the abundant oxygen defects. As shown in Fig. 1(c), the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern shows the (301), (112), and (200) diffraction rings of rutile IrO₂, implying that 350-Ta@IrO_x has a polycrystalline structure [49]. The particle size of Ta@IrOx (Figs. S5-S10) increases and its crystallinity improves with the increase in sintering temperature. Notably, the nanocrystal size of the Ta-doped samples is significantly smaller than that of the undoped samples at the same temperature. In addition, the dopant increases the temperature of crystal formation and induces low crystallinity of IrO_x at a similar synthesis temperature. Consequently, the particles of 350-Ta@IrO_x are smaller than those of 350-IrO_x. The TEM images of commercial IrO₂ are shown in Fig. S11.

TEM coupled with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (TEM-EDX) analysis of the Ta-doped samples was performed. As shown in Figs. 1 (d)–(g), Figs. S7 (c)–(f) and Figs. S9 (c)–(f), the images confirm the homogeneous distribution of Ir, Ta, and

O over all the Ta@IrOx electrocatalysts. Combined with ICP-MS analysis (Table S1), it is verified that the actual ratios of Ir and Ta in 350-Ta@IrO_x are close to the nominal ratios (9:1 molar ratio) in the precursor mixtures. The crystal structures of the prepared samples are examined by XRD, as shown in Fig. 2(a) and Fig. S12. The sharp diffraction peaks of commercial IrO2 at 28.0°, 34.8°, and 54.1° are assigned to the single rutile IrO₂ phase. The XRD patterns of 350-Ta@IrOx, 400-Ta@IrOx, and 350-IrO_x display two broad peaks at approximately 30° and 60°, which are attributed to the ultrafine Ir oxide nanocrystals. However, typical peaks of both rutile-type IrO2 and tantalum oxide are observed for 450-Ta@IrOx because of phase separation at elevated pyrolysis temperatures. Notably, 400-IrO_x has two imperceptible peaks attributed to rutile IrO₂, signifying the critical role of Ta in the synthesis of amorphous iridium oxide nanoparticles. In summary, the XRD results indicate that Ta doping and a low pyrolysis temperature synergistically favor the formation of IrO_x instead of highly crystalline IrO_2 .

XPS was used to probe the surface chemical composition and valence states of the prepared electrocatalysts. The survey scan spectra (Fig. S13) verified the presence of Ta, Ir, and O in all the Ta-doped samples, indicating the successful Ta doping of 350-Ta@IrO_x. Notably, the absence of the signals of Na 1s (1071.4 eV), N 1s (407.4 eV), and C 1s (200.0 eV) for all the prepared samples because of the removal of NaNO₃ and chloride *via* acidic washing, combined with the ICP analysis (Table S1), excluded the possible role of Na, N, or Cl in enhancing the electrocatalytic performance. Two sets of doublets with binding



Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns of Ta@IrO_x electrocatalysts and commercial IrO₂. (b) Ir 4*f* XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrO_x. (c) Ta 4*f* XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrO_x. (d) 0 1*s* XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrO_x, 400-Ta@IrO_x, and 450-Ta@IrO_x.

energies at 62.0 and 65.0 eV, and 63.1, and 66.1 eV in the high-resolution Ir 4f XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrOx (Fig. 2(b)) implied that Ir³⁺ and Ir⁴⁺ co-existed on 350-Ta@IrO_x. For the Ta 4f spectra (Fig. 2(c) and Fig. S14), the doublets signals at 22.37 and 24.27 eV, and 25.76 and 27.66 eV indicated the presence of Ta³⁺ and Ta⁴⁺, respectively, in 350-Ta@IrO_x, 400-Ta@IrO_x, and 450-Ta@IrO_x [35]. As the pyrolysis temperature increased, the proportion of Ta³⁺ content also increased, corresponding to phase separation at higher pyrolysis temperatures. As shown in Fig. 2(d), the O 1s XPS spectra can be deconvoluted into three peaks: the oxygen in adsorbed water (O_{H20}) at 533.2 eV, lattice oxygen (Olat) at 530.2 eV, and coordinatively unsaturated oxygen or oxygen in hydroxyl group at 531.5 eV. Generally, the XPS signal of OOH is considered proportional to the oxygen defects [50], which induce the unsaturated coordination of Ir as active sites for the OER. The peak fit data of the O 1s XPS signal for all electrocatalyst samples are summarized in Table S2. The peak area percentages of OOH relative to Olat for 350-Ta@IrOx, 400-Ta@IrO_x, and 450-Ta@IrO_x are 58.48%, 42.87%, and 37.90%, respectively, suggesting that the number of oxygen defects decreases with increasing calcination temperature. Similarly, the contents of O_{OH} species in the un-doped samples for 350-IrO_x, 400-IrO_x, and 450-IrO_x are 55.16%, 47.80%, and 43.88%, respectively, as shown in Fig. S15 and Table S2. Thus, electrocatalysts obtained at low oxidation temperatures have more oxygen defects, which can effectively promote electrocatalytic reactions [48]. Increasing the pyrolysis temperature also induces a relative increase in the Ir valence states of these IrO_x samples, as verified by the positive shift of the binding energy for the Ir 4f peaks (Fig. S16 and Table S2), owing to the facile formation of crystalline IrO2 with fewer oxygen defects at high oxidation temperatures. However, an insignificant shift is observed as the temperature increases from 350, 400, to 450 °C owing to the electron-constraining effect of the high-valent metal Ta, which minimizes the change in the valence state of Ir

(Fig. S17). Furthermore, EPR spectrum shown in Fig. S18 confirms that the oxygen defects are attributed to oxygen vacancies. Therefore, Ta-doping and low pyrolysis temperatures enable the effective optimization of the electronic structures and induce abundant oxygen vacancies in the electrocatalysts, which can boost the acidic OER activity. Furthermore, the activities of the oxygen species in 350-Ta@IrO_x and commercial IrO₂ were analyzed by H₂-TPR (temperature-programmed reduction. As shown in Fig. S19, 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits a lower reduction temperature with H₂ at 102 °C, revealing that the O species are more reactive in 350-Ta@IrO_x.

3.2. Electrochemical acidic OER analysis

The acidic OER performance of all the prepared electrocatalysts and commercial IrO2 was evaluated using the RDE technique in a 0.5 mol L-1 H₂SO₄ electrolyte. As shown in Fig. 3(a), $350-Ta@IrO_x$ only requires a lower overpotential (223 mV) than that of commercial IrO_2 (440 mV) to achieve a benchmark current density of 10 mA cm⁻². In contrast, 400-Ta@IrO_x and 450-Ta@IrO_x exhibit overpotentials of 245 and 268 mV, respectively, at identical current densities. These results indicate that more oxygen vacancies and smaller particle sizes due to lower pyrolysis temperatures significantly enhance the OER activity. The OER activities of the undoped electrocatalysts are shown in Fig. S20. The electrocatalytic activities of all samples follow the order: $350\text{-}Ta@IrO_x > 350\text{-}IrO_x > 400\text{-}TaF@IrO_x >$ 400-IrO_x > 450-Ta@IrO_x > 450-IrO_x > commercial IrO₂, indicating that a combination of low pyrolysis temperature and Ta doping optimizes the OER activity of IrOx. In addition, 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits higher activity than its commercial counterparts (commercial IrO_2 and commercial IrO_x), as shown in Fig. S21. Among the 350-Ta@IrO_x samples with various Ta contents in the precursor, the sample with 5% doping exhibits the highest OER activity, as shown in Fig. S22. Furthermore, as



Fig. 3. (a) LSV curves of 350-Ta@IrO_x, 400-Ta@IrO_x, 450-Ta@IrO_x and commercial IrO₂. (b) Tafel slope plots. (c) CP curves of 350-Ta@IrO_x and 350-IrO_x. (d) Comparisons of 350-Ta@IrO_x with other representative acidic OER electrocatalysts. (e) Current retention of 350-Ta@IrO_x and commercial IrO₂ after the OER. (f) XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrO_x and 350-IrO_x after the OER.



Fig. 4. (a) Four-step OER proceeding through the formation of *OH, *O, and *OOH on Ta-doped IrO_x. (b) Predicted free energy profiles of acidic OER on Ta-doped IrO_x (* denotes the active site of the catalyst).

shown in Fig. S23, 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits a significantly higher mass activity of 1207.4 A $g_{\rm Ir}^{-1}$ at 1.55 V vs. RHE compared with the counterparts, highlighting the effectiveness of Ta doping in enhancing the intrinsic activity of Ir.

The OER kinetics were investigated by analyzing the Tafel slopes. As shown in Fig 3(b), the Tafel slopes of 350-Ta@IrO_x, 400-Ta@IrO_x, and 450-Ta@IrO_x are 49.6, 58.5, and 73.3 mV dec⁻¹, respectively, all of which are smaller than that of the benchmark commercial IrO₂ (228.4 mV dec⁻¹), demonstrating their accelerated reaction kinetics compared with commercial IrO₂. Moreover, Ta-doped samples exhibit lower Tafel slope values than those of 350-IrO_x, 400-IrO_x, and 450-IrO_x (57.3, 66.4, and 75.4 mV dec⁻¹, respectively) (Fig. S24), indicating the positive role of Ta doping in promoting the acidic OER on amorphous IrO_x electrocatalysts.

The C_{dl} values of all the prepared samples was estimated using CV curves measured at various scan rates to evaluate their electrochemically active surface areas (Fig. S25). The most active 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits the highest C_{dl} value of 192.2 mF cm⁻², suggesting its largest electrochemical active surface area with more active sites. EIS spectra recorded at 1.513 V vs. RHE are shown in Figs. S26 and S27. 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits the smallest charge transfer resistance among the relevant electrocatalyst samples and commercial IrO₂, which is favorable for fast acidic OER processes.

To evaluate the stability of the electrocatalysts toward practical applications, CP was performed in 0.5 mol L-1 H₂SO₄ at 10 mA cm⁻², wherein carbon paper with electrocatalyst loading was used as the working electrode. As shown in Fig. 3(c), no noticeable increase in the potential is observed for 350-Ta@IrOx upon continuous operation for 500 h. However, the 350-IrO_x electrocatalyst without Ta doping suffers from a distinct potential increase of 40 mV, even under a shorter operation time (300 h), suggesting the significant role of Ta in enhancing the stability of amorphous IrO_x electrocatalysts. As shown in Fig. S28, commercial IrO2 exhibits a sharp potential increase of ~100 mV after only 50 h of operation, which is due to the high applied potential required to achieve a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² and its poor stability in the acidic electrolyte, highlighting the long-term stability of $350-Ta@IrO_x$ and 350-IrO_x. The 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits competitive electrochemical performance in terms of activity and stability compared with other representative electrocatalysts for the OER in acidic media (Fig. 3(d)). Additionally, the electrolysis at the high operation potential of 1.8 and 1.9 V vs. RHE was applied on the 350-Ta@IrO_x and commercial IrO₂ for 5 h to further estimate their durability (Fig. S29). Although 350-Ta@IrO_x delivers a higher current density at an identical potential, less current degradation is achieved (Fig. 3(e)), illustrating the higher stability of 350-Ta@IrO_x than commercial IrO₂ toward practical applications. According to the ICP data in Table S3, the Ir dissolution rate of 350-Ta@IrOx (0.141 ppb h-1) is almost half of 350-IrO_x (0.279 ppb h^{-1}), demonstrating the stabilizing and anti-corrosive effects of Ta doping. To further reveal the origin of the stability of 350-Ta@IrOx, XPS, TEM, and XRD were performed to elucidate its corrosion resistance. The XPS results showed that the surface hydroxyl oxygen content of 350-Ta@IrO_x and 350-IrO_x after long-term tests decreased to 26.10% and 16.69%, respectively, suggesting that 350-Ta@IrO_x maintained more oxygen active sites than 350-IrO_x, likely due to the strong Ta–O bonds [50], and their role in stabilizing the oxygen species during the OER process. In addition, the minimal change in the binding energy of the Ir 4f XPS spectra of 350-Ta@IrOx after the OER (Figs. S15 and S16) demonstrated the reduced formation of the high-valent iridium oxide layer and its higher structural stability than 350-IrO_x during the OER process. Moreover, as shown in the TEM images, the corresponding FFT and XRD patterns (Figs. S31-S33), the porous lamellar microscopic morphology and polycrystalline structure of 350-Ta@IrO_x after 500 h of OER and those of 350-IrO_x after 300 h of OER are well maintained. This implies that Ta doping is conducive to stabilizing the IrO_x morphology and effectively alleviating the oxidation and dissolution of the active sites.

3.3. DFT calculations

DFT calculations were performed to better understand the contributions of Ta doping and oxygen vacancies to the high OER activity of Ta-doped IrO_x. Based on the abovementioned detailed structural characterization, the thermodynamically stable rutile IrO₂ (110) facet [35] was selected as a model for these electrocatalysts (Ta-doped IrO_x, IrO_x, and Ta-doped IrO₂) (Figs. 4(a), S34(a), and S35(a)). Here, OER at the applied electrocatalysts proceeded through four consecutive proton and electron transfer steps coupling with forming these *OH, *O, and *OOH intermediates [23], respectively. As shown in Fig. 4(a), these four elementary steps on the catalytic surface include H₂O dissociation (step 1), proton release (step 2), H₂O

nucleophilic attack (step 3), and O_2 molecule release (step 4). The relative free energies for generating various intermediates on the three electrocatalysts are investigated at different potentials (0, 1.23, and 2.25 V), as shown in Figs. 4(b), S34(b), and S35(b). The results show that the RDS associated with the highest energy uptake over all three electrocatalysts is the transformation from *0 to *00H, which is consistent with a previous study [51]. RDS for Ta-doped IrO_x has the minimum energy barrier of 1.02 eV at the theoretical potential (U = 1.23V), which is lower than that of undoped IrO_x (1.23 eV) and Ta-doped IrO₂ (1.16 eV) without oxygen vacancies. The RDS for these samples is the conversion of *0 to *00H because of its higher energy barrier compared with the other steps. 350-Ta@IrO_x exhibits the lowest energy barrier (0.17 eV) for the conversion of *0 to *00H, compared with IrO_x (0.61 eV, Fig. S34), and Ta-IrO₂ (0.55 eV, Fig. S35). In addition, the OER with Ta-doped IrO_x at 2.25 V is thermodynamically downhill because the free energy values of these steps are negative. Combined with the experimental analysis, we speculate that incorporating Ta and oxygen vacancies into iridium oxide enables IrO_x to promote the nucleophilic attack of the H₂O molecule, thus reducing the energy barriers for forming the key intermediate in the RDS and accelerating the overall OER process.

4. Conclusions

Zhang *

In summary, we developed a high-valence metal (Ta)-doping strategy to prepare amorphous IrO_x nanoparticles for simultaneously boosting the catalytic activity and stability of the acidic OER. The optimal $350-Ta@IrO_x$ exhibited high activity with a low overpotential of 223 mV and excellent stability of 500 h at 10 mA cm⁻². Impressively, the $350-Ta@IrO_x$ electrocatalyst afforded significantly higher intrinsic catalytic activity with 147.7 times mass activity than that of commercial IrO2. DFT studies revealed that Ta doping and defect engineering played important roles in enhancing the high activity of IrO_x by promoting the nucleophilic attack of H₂O molecules and reducing the energy barriers of the RDS. In addition, Ta doping stabilized the oxygen vacancy structure and effectively alleviated the oxidation and dissolution of Ir, thereby contributing to the long-term stability of 350-Ta@IrOx. Our work points toward an effective design principle for rational activity and stability enhancement in electrocatalysts with high-valence metal doping engineering, and provides an insightful understanding of electrocatalyst deactivation.

Conflict of interests

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.

Electronic supporting information

Supporting information is available in the online version of this article.

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高价金属钽掺入无定形氧化铱用于酸性氧析出反应

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摘要:氢能作为一种潜在的能源载体,有望取代化石燃料,解决当今社会的能源需求和环境问题.质子交换膜电解水 (PEMWE)因其工作电流密度高、氢气纯度高和系统响应迅速等优点,能够有效地弥补可再生能源波动性等缺点,被认为是 一种利用可再生能源制氢的可持续手段.但其阳极氧析出反应(OER)为四电子/质子转移过程,反应动力学缓慢,同时强氧 化性和强酸性环境会造成对阳极催化剂的腐蚀,导致稳定性差,所以亟需开发高效且稳定的催化剂.其中,无定形氧化铱 被认为是酸性OER的高活性材料. 虽然该类材料特殊的缺陷结构会显著提升催化活性,但也加速反应过程中铱的溶解,从 而导致催化剂稳定性降低,严重限制了其实际应用.

本文采用高价金属掺杂的策略,利用高价金属元素与氧的强成键作用,对无定型氧化铱的整体结构及活性位点起到优化且稳定的作用.优化了无定型氧化铱的合成过程,通过一步烧结法,制备了Ta@IrO_x纳米颗粒,作为高效且稳定的酸性OER催化剂.通过扫描电子显微镜、透射电子显微镜(TEM)和X射线衍射等表征研究了材料的宏观形貌及微观结构,结果表明,掺杂后的材料(350-Ta@IrO_x,在350 °C烧结)表面具有丰富的氧空位贡献的活性位点,且表现出多晶的超小纳米颗粒形貌.电化学测试结果表明,350-Ta@IrO_x具有较好的酸性氧析出活性,在10 mA cm⁻²的电流密度下,过电势仅为223 mV,在1.55 V vs. RHE的电位下质量活性为商业二氧化铱的147.7倍.且该催化剂在稳定性上相较于未掺杂Ta样品及商业二氧化铱有着明显提升,可在0.5 mol L⁻¹的硫酸溶液中稳定反应,且500 h后电位没有明显变化.密度泛函理论计算结果表明,Ta掺杂与构建缺陷有利于OER反应决速步中水分子的亲核进攻,从而提升催化活性并降低反应过电势.为进一步研究材料在酸性OER工作状态下具有较好稳定性的原因,采用TEM和X射线光电子能谱等研究了反应前后的材料,结果表明,350-Ta@IrO_x在反应前后结构保持稳定,Ir溶解速率较未掺杂样品明显降低,证明了Ta掺杂对于无定型氧化铱类材料的稳定性贡献.

本文发展了一步烧结合成高价金属掺杂氧化铱的方法,利用高价金属元素与氧的强成键作用,调控了铱活性位点的电 子结构,同时提升了氧化铱类材料在酸性氧析出反应中的活性与稳定性,简化了此类材料的合成方式,为进一步降低质子 交换膜电解水器件阳极催化剂的成本和提高其催化活性提供了新思路. 关键词:酸性析氧反应;高价金属掺杂;氧化铱;氧缺陷;电催化

入废问. 敌江竹毛汉应, 向历亚两珍水, 毛化瓜, 毛叭桕, 七座也

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