# **Inorganic Chemistry**

# Abundant Surface Defects in Cobalt Hydroxides/Oxyhydroxides Induced by Zinc Species Facilitate Water Oxidation

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**ABSTRACT:** The complex process of the anodic oxygen evolution reaction (OER) severely hinders overall water splitting, which further limits the large-scale production and application of hydrogen energy. In this work, one type of bimetallic coordination polymer of ZnCoBTC using the MOF-on-MOF strategy has been synthesized where both Co(II) and Zn(II) cations exhibit the same coordination environment. By applying an electric potential, the predesigned bimetallic MOF precursor can be conveniently degraded into  $CoO_xH_y$  as an active species for efficient OER. Owing to the dissolution of  $ZnO_xH_y$  species, in situ formed disordered defects on the external surface of the catalyst increase the specific surface area as well as expose abundant active materials. Therefore, the  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  nanosheet shows excellent OER performance and reaches an overpotential of only 334 mV at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> with a Tafel slope of 66.4 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, indicating fast reaction kinetics. The results demonstrate that metals with the same coordination environment can undergo in situ replacement or secondary growth on the pristine MOF, and they can be electrochemically degraded into highly efficient catalysts for future energy applications.



# INTRODUCTION

The depletion of fossil fuels has become a pressing issue that necessitates collective action by human society. The development and implementation of renewable, clean energy are considered the most direct and effective approach to tackling this problem.<sup>1,2</sup> Hydrogen, with its exceptionally high combustion calorific value and absence of combustion byproducts that damage the environment, is regarded as one of the best clean energy sources.<sup>3-56</sup> Water electrolysis has been considered an efficient technique for hydrogen production, but the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode with a complex four-electron transfer process has posed a bottleneck in the overall water-splitting process.<sup>7–9</sup> Although commercial IrO2 and RuO2 are excellent catalysts for OER, their high cost and limited natural reserves have restricted their widespread use.<sup>10-12</sup> Consequently, researchers have progressively investigated the development and use of highly efficient, stable, and inexpensive OER catalysts for practical applications.

On the other hand, microporous metal–organic frameworks (MOFs) are formed by the self-assembly between metal cations and organic ligands and are deemed effective precursors or templates for OER catalysts.<sup>13–1516</sup> Due to their high specific surface area, large pore volume, and adjustable pore size, MOF materials and their derivatives have immense potential in gas storage and separation,<sup>17,18</sup> host–guest recognition,<sup>19,20</sup> electro/photocatalysis,<sup>21–23</sup> and more. As the coordination environments of different metals may be similar within isostructures, it is highly possible to rationally design and synthesize multimetal MOFs.<sup>24–26</sup>

Furthermore, different metal sites in MOFs can exhibit different functions through appropriate treatment, enabling them to transform into highly active and stable catalytic nanomaterials.<sup>27–293031</sup> In recent years, there has been extensive research on MOF-derived transition metal species, which are considered to be ideal OER catalysts that can replace noble metal catalysts.<sup>32–3435</sup> Different types of metal derivatives play a crucial role, such as MOF-derived metal sulfides,<sup>36</sup> nitrides,<sup>37,38</sup> selenides,<sup>39</sup> phosphates,<sup>40</sup> and hydroxides,<sup>41</sup> which ensure effective resorption and desorption of reaction intermediates during catalysis, thereby reducing the energy required for OER reactions. However, the poor conductivity and small active area of metal hydroxides/ oxyhydroxides limit their widespread use in OER.

In this work, we have prepared one type of bimetallic MBTC (BTC = benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylate) using the same coordination environment of the metals Zn(II) and Co(II). The introduction of a second metal can competitively substitute the original metal in initial MOFs,<sup>42,43</sup> thereby creating the core–shell CoZnBTC and ZnCoBTC through secondary growth. The obtained bimetallic precursors are then transformed into CoZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> and ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>, which significantly improve the

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Figure 1. (a, b) AU and SBU and (c, d) two different channels of MBTC; and (e) Microscopic crystal morphologies of CoBTC and ZnBTC, and visualization of crystal growth over time.



Figure 2. (a) PXRD patterns, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) FT-IR curves of MBTC; the stable CV curves of (d)  $CoO_xH_y$  (e)  $CoZnO_xH_y$  and (f)  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  at 10 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in 1.0 M KOH at 0.95–1.60 V.

electrical conductivity and mass transfer capacity. It is worth noting that  $ZnO_xH_y$  species are generated during electrochemical degradation and dissolve in the electrolyte simultaneously. Among them, the resulting  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  catalyst shows a small overpotential of 334 mV, a Tafel slope of 62.6 mV  $dec^{-1}$ , and a high current retention rate of 97.8% after 10 h. This work demonstrates the possibility of synthesizing multimetal MOFs through rational coordination design and



Figure 3. (a) PXRD patterns; (b) Raman spectra; and (c) FT-IR curves of  $CoO_xH_{y}$ ,  $CoZnO_xH_{y}$ , and  $ZnCoO_xH_{y}$ ; TEM images and lattice fringes of (d)  $CoO_xH_{y}$ ; (e)  $CoZnO_xH_{y}$ ; and (f)  $ZnCoO_xH_{y}$ .

obtaining high-efficiency OER catalysts for efficient energy storage and conversion applications.

The monometallic MBTC can be synthesized by heating a mixture of H<sub>3</sub>BTC and a metal salt, where the secondary building unit (SBU) presents a paddle-wheel structure as shown in Figure 1a,b. The high symmetry of MBTC is confirmed by observing the asymmetric unit (AU) in the dashed purple region, where the three carboxylic acids exhibit consistent coordination environments along the (-11-1)crystal plane. The presence of water molecules at the ends of the metal centers leads to the existence of two different coordination modes, resulting in 1D tubular channels with a diameter of 7.5 Å along the three axes and another pore nanostructure with a size of 8.3 Å (Figures 1c,d, S1, and S2). However, the entrapment of solvents into the pores leads to a lower adsorption capacity and specific surface area (Figure S3). The two isostructures enable the successful growth of MOFon-MOF heterostructures (Tables S2 and S3),44 where  $Zn(NO_3)_2$  is added to the synthetic CoBTC solution, and the thickness of the generated ZnBTC is visualized as a function of time (Figures 1e and S4). ZnBTC crystallizes on the surface of CoBTC easily under the action of the remaining H<sub>3</sub>BTC and replaces Co in CoBTC to give bimetallic ZnCoBTC with a preserved morphology. To further prove the in situ released metal or ligand for binary MOF growth, the synthesized CoBTC gradually transforms from dark purple to colorless and transparent without H3BTC, and the centrifuged ZnBTC shows a similar trend after the addition of Co(II) salt (Figure S5). The crystal structures are first analyzed using

powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), where the (111) and (300) planes at 10.8 and 18.8° are observed, and the original structures of MBTC are retained after secondary growth (Figure 2a). The Raman tests show a reduced signal at 81.0 cm<sup>-1</sup> for ZnCoBTC compared with pure CoBTC, verifying partial substitution by ZnBTC (Figure 2b). Meanwhile, the benzene and carboxylate vibrations of BTC<sup>3-</sup> are attributed to 3700-3300 and 1700-1300 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the FT-IR spectra, respectively, with one weak signal at 3233.9 cm<sup>-1</sup> from the terminally coordinated hydroxide (Figure 2c). It is worth mentioning that the two sharp peaks at 1600 and 1710 cm<sup>-1</sup> correspond to the stretching vibrations of the C=C bond in the benzene ring and the C=O bond in the carboxylate groups, respectively. To expose more catalytic sites, largeparticle CoBTC could be electrochemically degraded into the CoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> species with two obvious oxidation peaks at 1.11-1.13 and 1.45-1.48 V (Figures 2d, S6, and S7). For CoZnBTC, the oxidation peak positively shifts to 1.15-1.21 V due to the presence of Zn, limiting the oxidation of Co species (Figures 2e and S8a-c). The situation in ZnCoBTC is almost the same as that in CoBTC (1.08-1.15 V, Figures 2f and S8d-f). During electrolysis, the conversion position of Co(III) to Co(IV) does not change significantly in the three materials, and ZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> could not be generated owing to the rapid dissolution of ZnBTC. The corresponding SEM images of the three electrolysis products are depicted in Figure 2g-i. The obtained CoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> exhibits binary hexagonal nanosheets consistent with previous reports,<sup>45,46</sup> but CoZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> reveals a disordered 2D structure with a slight tendency to form a

Article



Figure 4. Deconvoluted XPS spectra of (a) O 1s, (b) Co 2p, and (c) Zn 2p for  $CoO_xH_{\psi}$   $CoZnO_xH_{\psi}$  and  $ZnCoO_xH_{\psi}$ .



Figure 5. (a) Polarization curves; (b) Tafel plots; (c) EIS spectra; (d) linear fitting of  $C_{dl}$  with different scan rates; (e) RRDE voltammogram, and its inset shows the electron-transfer number; and (f) i-t curves.

hexagonal structure because Zn sites are easily dissolved (Figures 2g,h and S9a-d). The electrolysis product of ZnCoBTC maintains a hexagonal structure, and its morphological defects expose abundant active sites that would further improve the electrochemical performance (Figures 2i and S9e,f).

The absence of clear diffraction peaks in the degradation products indicates complete decomposition of the precursors (Figure 3a). In Figure 3b, the reduced characteristic peak at 693 cm<sup>-1</sup> in Raman spectra suggests fewer  $CoO_xH_y$  species in ZnCoBTC and CoZnBTC than in CoBTC. The coexisting peaks at 181 and 450–550 cm<sup>-1</sup> exhibit  $Co(OH)_2$  and CoOOH as the main substances in the electrolyzed product.

The weak FT-IR peaks at  $412-480 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in Figure 3c indicate a small amount of residual Zn-based species, and Co–O peaks are observed at  $845-583 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for all samples, suggesting the presence of generated metal oxide/hydroxide. The hexagonal nanosheets with lattice fringes of 0.47 and 0.28 nm to the (001) plane of Co(OH)<sub>2</sub> and (130) plane of CoOOH, respectively, are revealed, while the defective hexagonal CoZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> with numerous small particles of active species is shown in Figure 3d,e. The lattice fringes of CoOOH (0.23 nm) correspond to the (111) crystal plane, which is also accompanied by a blurred (211) crystal plane of 0.25 nm for ZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>. For ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub>, its TEM image and EDS analysis show a low Zn content, indicative of its complete dissolution, resulting in more Co active sites and noticeable particles on the surface (Figures 3f and S10). Similarly, lattice fringes correspond only to the (121) plane of CoOOH (0.21 nm) and the (001) plane of Co(OH)<sub>2</sub> (0.47 nm). Element mapping in Figure S11 shows that the content of Zn significantly affects the final morphological characteristics of the electrolyzed materials.

It is further employed to investigate the chemical states in these MOF derivatives by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Figure S12). The deconvoluted O 1s spectra reveal a predominant C–O peak at ~530.5 eV in Figure 4a, along with two other peaks at 529.1 and 532.5 eV corresponding to M-Oand C=O, respectively. The M-O peak position shows no shift to indicate that the dissolution of Zn does not affect the coordination between Co and O. Figure S13 exhibits a shift in the C 1s peak position of  $CoO_xH_y$  compared to  $CoZnO_xH_y$ and ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>v</sub>, suggesting that the coordination environment of C species could be disrupted. The two higher peaks at 292.4 and 295.2 eV correspond to the C-K bond to verify the effect of KOH during the degradation process.47,48 The deconvoluted N 1s spectra are almost indistinguishable and mainly come from the N,N-Dimethylformamide (DMF) solvent (Figure S14). Figure 4b shows that  $Co(II) 2p_{3/2}$  at 781.0 eV and Co(II)  $2p_{1/2}$  at 796.2 eV originate from Co(OH)<sub>2</sub>, and another pair of peaks at 779.7 and 794.7 eV are assigned to Co(III)  $2p_{3/2}$  and  $2p_{1/2}$ , respectively. The presence of Zn in  $CoZnO_xH_y$  and  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  results in a higher binding energy of Co(II), making it easier for electrons to be biased toward Zn. Clearly, a small amount of Zn in ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> also affects the coordination environment of Co, but it remains almost unchanged with  $CoZnO_xH_y$ . The shift in the peak position in the Zn 2p spectra in Figure 4c also corresponds to this phenomenon. The XPS data support the speculation that the presence of heterometals in the original MOFs could adjust the coordination environment of various elements, resulting in the exposure of more active materials for electrochemical performance improvement (Table S4).

The OER performance is first evaluated in Figure 5a, and the LSV curve of ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> presents the best OER activity, requiring only an overpotential of 334 mV to reach 10 mA  $cm^{-2}$ , which is lower than those of CoZnO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> (383 mV) and  $CoO_{x}H_{y}$  (353 mV). In Figure 5b, the Tafel slopes of the three materials are relatively close, with  $CoO_xH_y$  at 65.3 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>  $CoZnO_xH_y$  at 69.5 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>, and  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  at 62.6 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>. Furthermore, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) reveals that  $CoO_xH_y$  has the lowest charge transfer resistance of about 2.41  $\Omega$  in alkaline, attributable to its wellpreserved hexagonal morphology (Figure 5c). In this case,  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  and  $CoZnO_xH_y$  have defects caused by Zn species with higher resistance, but the difference in the value is not significant. The double-layer capacitances  $(C_{dl})$  of  $CoO_xH_y$  $CoZnO_xH_y$  and  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  are calculated to be 0.249, 0.119, and 0.260 mF cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively, further proving that defects reduce the electrochemically active surface area and expose more active materials (Figures 5d and S15). To evaluate the reaction mechanism, the RRDE electrode is further used to calculate the electron-transfer number (N), with the ring current  $(I_r)$  being almost negligible compared to the disk current  $(I_d)$ , demonstrating its high selectivity for the fourelectron process (Figure 5e). In Figure 5f, the long-term stability of the electrolyzed electrocatalysts is evaluated to give a 97.8% current density retention through a 10 h i-t test for  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  indicative of its satisfactory stability of catalytic OER activity.  $CoO_xH_y$  and  $CoZnO_xH_y$  also demonstrate moderate stability, indicating that defects introduced by Zn not only increase the exposure of active materials but also prevent

the loss of active materials, improving the long-term stability of

#### CONCLUSIONS

these materials.

In conclusion, this study presents an approach for designing and synthesizing heterometallic ZnCo-MOF precursors using transition metals with the same coordination environment. Under continuous electrolysis, these precursors can be easily converted to ultrathin nanomaterials with synergistic metal sites and structural defects. Specifically, the study demonstrated that pure CoBTC could be transformed into ultrathin hexagonal  $CoO_xH_y$  nanosheets, while the conversion of ZnCoBTC into  $ZnCoO_xH_y$  with abundant active sites of different valence states achieved efficient OER. The optimal ZnCoO<sub>x</sub>H<sub>y</sub> required an ultrasmall  $\eta_{10}$  value (334 mV), much smaller than its control samples, with satisfactory stability, indicating its potential as an efficient electrocatalyst for practical applications. The approach demonstrated in this work can be extended to designing other MOFs and their derivatives, offering a promising strategy for developing efficient and cost-effective electrocatalysts for the transition to a sustainable energy future.

# ASSOCIATED CONTENT

#### **Supporting Information**

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.3c02210.

Experimental material characterizations; electrochemical measurement and method; SEM/TEM images; PXRD patterns, FT-IR spectra, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) data, and XPS curves of control samples; and additional electrochemical test (PDF)

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#### **Author Contributions**

J.Q. conceived the research project. S.X., X.Z., and C.H. conducted the experiments, performed the characterizations, and wrote the manuscript. S.X. revised the main article. All authors have checked and given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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