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# A metal free electrocatalyst for high-performance zinc-air battery applications with good resistance towards poisoning species

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## ABSTRACT

The trace amount of poisoning species in air, such as  $SO_x$  and  $NO_x$ , greatly degrade the performance of zinc-air battery, as they block the active sites of conventional metal containing electrocatalysts. To overcome this challenge, a catalyst with enhanced electrocatalytic properties and good resistance towards the small molecular poisons should be prepared. In this work, we synthesized a P, N dual-doped porous carbon nanospheres (DDPCN), which showed an  $E_{onset}$  and  $E_{1/2}$  of 0.98 V and 0.87 V for ORR reduction in alkaline solution, and a Tafel slop of 72 mV/dec, over-performing all the other metal-free catalysts and comparable with the performance of state-of-the-art Pt/C (20 wt%). Moreover, the  $E_{1/2}$  for DDPCN showed negligible change towards poisoning species; while the  $E_{1/2}$  for Pt/C and typical CoO<sub>x</sub>/ CNTs displayed 10/10 mV and 24/13 mV decay by adding trace amount of  $SO_3^-/NO_2^-$  into the electrolyte solution. By using DDPCN as the electrocatalyst for zinc-air battery application, the device showed the highest open circuit voltage (1.48 V), the highest power density (224 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>) and the highest energy density (874 W h kg<sup>-1</sup>) among all metal-free catalysts, and their performances are even better than the Pt/C catalyst. Moreover, these performances showed negligible influence by the poisoning species for DDPCN based Zn-air battery, while the performances for Pt/C and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNTs based Zn-air batteries were greatly deteriorated by the poisoning species up to 25% and 40%.

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1. Introduction

Metal-air batteries are considered as a promising device among various renewable energy storage systems [1–4]. Among them, zinc-air batteries have become foci of research due to their great theoretical energy density (1084 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>), low cost as well as environmental benignity [5–11]. Currently, the main problem for the zinc-air battery is the lack of a superior electrocatalyst to promote the oxygen related reaction in the cathode. The ideal catalyst needs to show comprehensive performances, including low overpotential for oxygen related reaction in alkaline solution, long term

stability, good resistance towards the environmental poisoning, low cost and mass production [12].

By far, a lot of materials have been used to promote oxygen related reaction in the alkaline solutions, such as precious metal/metal oxides, non-precious metal-based catalysts (NPMCs, Fe/Co-N<sub>x</sub>-C, layered double hydroxides, oxides, *etc.*) and non-metallic carbon materials [3,13–15]. Among them, precious metal catalysts (PMCs), such as Ru, Ir, Pt, and their alloys stand to be the best choice for oxygen related reactions, which show very low overpotential and low slop of Tafel plots [16–18]. However, their real uses are limited by their scarcity, poor durability, high cost, and low resistance towards poisoning species (SO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, PO<sub>x</sub>) [19,20]. NPMCs are considered as the possible alternative to PMC as they show excellent electrocatalytic performance in alkaline solutions [13,21,22]. Nevertheless, several problems degrade the stability of NPMCs, such as the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and the proton/anion binding [23–28]. In the meantime, their performances would also be





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greatly deteriorated by the adsorbed poisoning species in the solution [29,30]. The small molecules, such as  $SO_x$  and  $NO_x$ , have a strong interaction with the metallic active sites, and tend to block them. Therefore, the poisoning effect is the common problem for both precious metal and non-precious metal-based catalysts to satisfy all the requirements for zinc-air battery applications.

The metal-free carbon materials without the metal catalytic centers may be much less influenced by the trace amount of toxic small molecules in air. The main problem for this type of catalysts is their sluggish reaction kinetics due to low activity of catalytic sites. Recent studies revealed that doping of nonmetallic elements, such as P, B, S, and N, into the carbon materials greatly tuned the electronic and physicochemical properties of carbon materials, improving their electrocatalytic activity [31–37]. Among them, the nitrogen dopants in carbon showed an active role for ORR [37–39]. In the meantime, theoretical analysis indicated that co-doping of nonmetallic elements will further enhance the ORR performance [40]. P, N co-doping are particularly attractive for ORR as they induced defects that can lead to highly localized state nearby Fermi level [37,40]. The doping of P creates a lot of defects in carbon framework which would benefit the doping of nitrogen to form P and N co-doped structure during the pyrolysis. The larger atomic size and lower electronegativity of P than N lead to better adsorption of oxygen through occupying the vacant 3d orbitals of P/ N by valence electrons [41]. Therefore, the co-doping of N and P into the carbon materials may show excellent performance for ORR in alkaline solution with good resistance towards the poisoning species. such as NO<sub>v</sub> and SO<sub>v</sub>.

Herein, we prepared a porous P, N dual-doped carbon nanospheres (DDPCN) with plenty of edges through a highly modest and fast polymerization and pyrolyzing route with gram quantities. The DDPCN electrocatalyst shows superior ORR-activity in 0.1 M KOH with 0.98 V and 0.87 V of onset and half-wave potentials ( $E_{onset}$  and  $E_{1/2}$ ), better than any other reported nonmetallic catalysts. When the DDPCN was used as electrocatalysts for O<sub>2</sub>-cathode for zinc-air battery application, it exhibited 224 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> of peak power density, 786 mA h g<sup>-1</sup> of specific capacitance at 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> and long-term stability, better than the state-of-the-art Pt/C (20%). Moreover, it displayed great tolerance towards SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> while Pt/C (20%) and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNTs showed drastic performance degradation towards these poisoning species.

## 2. Result and discussion

The DDPCN was synthesized by a polymerization and pyrolysis procedure as our previously reported method with some modifications [42]. The stable and uniform spherical polydiaminopyridine (PDAP, ~300 nm in diameter) particles with high percentage of nitrogen dopants, were synthesized via polymerization of diaminopyridine (DAP, Fig. 1a). Then, P-source was added onto the surface of PDAP to form P-doped poly-diaminopyridine (P-PDAP) through self-assembly procedure with a phytic acid/PDAP molar ratio of 8/1. Finally, the P-PDAP was pyrolyzed at 1000 °C in nitrogen gas to get the DDPCN.

We firstly characterized the structure and morphology of asprepared DDPCN. The scanning electron microscopic (SEM) images indicated that P-PDAP inherited the uniform spherical structures (Fig. 1b–c). After pyrolysis procedure, the surface of as formed DDPCN was slightly contracted. As shown in TEM images (Fig. 1d–e), the as formed DDPCN possesses edge-like porous structures, which should be beneficial for enhancing the catalytic properties.

The  $N_2$  sorption isotherms were then used to analyze the pore structure and the corresponding surface area of as-synthesized products. All the materials showed a steep  $N_2$  gas uptake curves in low pressure region, which is the characteristic feature of isotherm Type-IV [43], specifying the mesoporous nature with pore size around 4–6 nm (Fig. 2a–b). The observed specific area (894 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) of DDPCN (1000 °C) is much higher than that of 687 and 179 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> for nitrogen doped carbon (CN) and phosphorous doped carbon (CP) (supporting information, Table S1). This result means that the co-doping of N and P produced more defective sites in DDPCN than single dopants of N or P in the carbon material, which should also be the reason for larger surface area of DDPCN than CN and CP. Therefore, we concluded that a defective spherical DDPCN with 4–6 nm porous structure inside was obtained, which showed very high specific surface area. In principle, such a conductive mesoporous carbon material should be beneficial for the electrons and mass transportation during the gas-related electrocatalytic process.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to analyze the composition and bonding structure of N and P in DDPCN (Fig. 2c-f). The survey XPS analysis demonstrated that doping of P increased the N and O contents in C from 2.18 wt% and 3.81 wt% to 2.92 wt% and 4.47 wt% in the DDPCN, while the contents of P remains same as in CP. According to previous study, oxygen has no influence on the final electrical performance [42]. Compared to CN and CP, the increased oxygen contents in DDPCN should be due to better absorption of co-doping strategy. The main difference of N1s spectra for CN and DDPCN is the increased contents (atomic %) of pyridinic-N from 25% to 37% after P doping, and the carbon atoms connected to them are claimed to be the main active sites for the ORR [44]. For P2p spectra (Fig. 2f), the peak width for DDPCN was much broader than CP, which was due to the formation of P-C-N bonding structure because of N-doping, except the P-O and P-C bonds. Therefore, compared with CN and CP, the DDPCN has a higher amount of pyridinic N and a newly formed P-C-N bonding structure, which is the main difference from the CP and CN.

The ORR performance of as-synthesized electrocatalysts were monitored in an alkaline solution with 0.1 M KOH by rotating disk electrode (RDE) and rotating ring disk electrode (RRDE) test. Based on RRDE-LSV results (Fig. 3a), DDPCN and Pt/C (20%) showed a similar onset potential (Eonset) of 0.98 V vs RHE and diffusion limiting current density of ~5.2 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. While CN and CP showed very low Eonset values of 0.77 and 0.65 V and low current densities of 4.16 and 2.16 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> at 0.4 V. Furthermore, the half-wave  $(E_{1/2})$ potential of DDPCN (0.87 V) is similar to Pt/C (0.87 V), however far greater than CN (0.73 V) and CP (0.55 V). This further confirmed that dual-doping strategy is more effective to enhance ORR performance. To understand the ORR pathway, the electron transferred number (n) of the catalysts were calculated at different voltage based on the equation of  $n = 4I_{disk}/(I_{disk}+1/2I_{ring})$  (Fig. 3b). The value *n* for DDPCN was above 3.9 at any applied voltage (0.2–0.7 V vs RHE), a little bit higher than the Pt/C, much better than the CN and CP, indicating the efficient reduction of oxygen to OH<sup>-</sup> by DDPCN through 4 e' pathway. The peroxide production for DDPCN was < 3%, slightly lower than that for Pt/C (>4%), but much lower than that for CP and CN (~25%). The Tafel slope shown in Fig. 3c revealed 76, 74, 115 and 139 mV/dec for the Pt/C, DDPCN, CN and CP, respectively. Additionally, the stability of DDPCN and Pt/C (20%) were investigated by CV-cycling test between 0.6 and 1.2 V (RHE) at a sweeping rate of 50 mV/s in 0.1 M KOH (Fig. 3d). After 10,000 CVcycles, the DDPCN showed only 5 mV decrease in  $E_{1/2}$ , in contrast  $E_{1/2}$  difference of 20 mV was displayed by Pt/C. Therefore, all these features confirmed the DDPCN as a good ORR catalyst in alkaline medium, even slightly better than Pt/C(20%). When compared with the reported results by using the metal-free catalysts for ORR in alkaline medium (Table S3), the DDPCN even showed the best comprehensive performance.

The good performance of DDPCN could be understood from the



Fig. 1. (a) Schematic illustration for the synthesis of DDPCN, (b–c) SEM images of P-PDAP & DDPCN, (d–e) TEM images of DDPCN. (A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)

microstructure and the bonding structure difference from the CN. First, compared with nitrogen doped carbon, P, N dual doping showed a much larger surface area due to the defects, which means more active sites were exposed to the O<sub>2</sub>. Second, the P doping increased the contents of N from 2.18% to 2.92% inside the carbon materials and the ratio of active pyridinic N from 25 atm% to 37 atm %. The carbon atoms close to pyridinic N in carbon materials are claimed to show excellent catalytic properties in alkaline solution. In addition, the optimized P/N ratio in the carbon substrate should also have a big influence on the ORR performance of DDPCN. We have prepared the DDPCN with different phytic acid/PDAP molar ratio, and the ORR activity of all these catalysts were much better than the CN and CP (Fig. S2). Among them, the phytic acid/PDAP ratio of 8/1 was the optimized ratio, which showed the best ORR performance rather the one with the highest phosphorous contents. The possible reason is that the over-doped P atoms may destroy the original P, N co-doped carbon framework, leading to a decreased activity for ORR. Therefore, the great ORR property in the DDPCN should be ascribed to the high content of pyridinic carbon, the large specific surface area and optimized heteroatom doping strategy.

The performance degradation due to the presence of small molecules or radicals is a main challenge for the use of many conventional metal containing catalysts, such as the Pt/C and  $COO_x/CNT$  [20,24,28,30]. We studied the anti-poisoning effect of the metal-free DDPCN towards small molecular poisons like SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> in 0.1 M KOH (Fig. S3). The Pt/C and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNT (prepared according to our previously reported method [3]) were used as comparison catalysts. The DDPCN catalyst exhibited almost no activity decrease in the presence of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> (50 mM) and NO<sub>2</sub> (50 mM) while drastic performance loss was shown by Pt/C (20%) and CoO<sub>x</sub>/

CNTs. The highest degradation was detected in case of SO<sub>x</sub> by Pt/C and  $CoO_x/CNTs$  with  $E_{1/2}$  decay of 10 mV and 25 mV, respectively. The probable cause for activity loss was due to the strong adsorption of poisoning species on the surface of catalysts, which tends to block the metallic active sites [28-30,42]. Since previous reported results indicated the poisoning effect on the nitrogen doped carbon materials [19,29], the excellent resistance towards SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> for DDPCN in the alkaline solution should be related with the newly formed P-C-N bonding structure. Our previous studies identified the preferred locations of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> molecules on the surface of these nonmetallic catalysts by analyzing the distribution of relative electron concentration along graphene model surface [42]. The NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> molecules tend to adsorb on carbon atoms near the P/N atoms for CP and CN. As shown in Fig. 4, the high transfer of electrons from carbon to P and N in purely P-doped carbon and Ndoped carbon, lead to the strong polarization of the P-C and N-C bonds. The positively charged carbon sites tend to adsorb the anionic  $SO_3^{2-}$  and  $NO_2^{-}$  on them, blocking the active sites. For the codoped carbon material, the doped P atoms would introduce defects nearby and the N atoms would take up these positions, which means the active carbon site were connected with one P and one N atom. This carbon site is the active sites for ORR reactions, which needs to give electrons to both the P and N atom, leading to a balanced polarization [42]. This result means the anionic poison species in the solution would have lower tendencies to deposit on the carbon material. The repulsion force of the P and N atoms from both sides to the anionic poison species protected the carbon atoms from being blocked. Hence, P, N co-doping played a crucial role for maintaining the durability and tolerance of the DDPCN catalyst.

Motivated by the superior ORR activity, the DDPCN was used as the cathode catalyst for Zn-air battery application (Fig. 5). First, the



**Fig. 2.** (a) Comparative analysis of N<sub>2</sub> adsorption–desorption isotherms, (b) Pore size distribution of CN, CP, DCPN, (c) XPS survey spectrum of PC, DDPCN, NC; High-resolution XPS spectra (d) N1s, (e) O1s & (f) P2p. (A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)



**Fig. 3.** (a) LSV comparison Plot at 1600 rpm in 0.1 M KOH and peroxide%, (b) The number of transferred electrons, (c) Tafel plot, (d) ORR stability test of Pt/C (20%) & PNC in 0.1 M KOH, (e) The J<sub>k</sub> value calculation from ORR-LSV curves and elemental content derived from XPS analysis. (A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)



**Fig. 4.** Schematic illustration for the structural resistance of DDPCN, CN, and CP for the incoming small molecules  $NO_x$  and  $SO_x$ .(A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)

key performance parameters for Zn-air battery, such as power density, energy density, open circuit voltage, have been studied. The commercially used Pt/C(20%) catalyst was taken as a reference. As shown in Fig. 5a, the peak power density for DDPCN was 224 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>, similar to that of Pt/C (223 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>). In the meantime, the specific capacity for DDPCN, and Pt/C were 786 mA h/g, and 725 mA h/g by normalizing the consumed zinc mass at a current density of 20 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 5b). The open circuit voltage of 1.48 V for Zn-air battery was produced with DDPCN electrode and 874 Wh/kg of energy density at 10 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> was obtained, thus comparatively higher than other reported non-previous metal based electrocatalysts (Fig. S5 and Table S4). The stability of the catalysts was examined by galvanostatic charge-discharge cycling test at 20 mA/ cm<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 5c). The DDPCN catalyst showed excellent stability by preserving the charge-discharge voltage gap even after 30 h whereas Pt/C (20%) revealed drastic stability loss by increasing charge-discharge voltage gap. As shown in Fig. 5d, the rate performance of DDPCN was checked by the comparative analysis of voltage gap with Pt/C at various discharge currents. The voltage gap has increased from 7.6 mV to 18.1 mV as the current density increased from 5 to 50 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, which indicated the better conductivity of DDPCN than Pt/C (20%). Hence, DDPCN showed a better comprehensive performance than the Pt/C (20%) as the cathode electrode for Zn-air battery application.

As the air containing trace amount of molecular species  $(SO_x/NO_x)$  may affect the performance of zinc-air batteries. Therefore, the resistance of DDPCN as air-cathode towards small molecular poisons was monitored (Fig. 6a–f). The state-of-the-art Pt/C (Fig. 6b



**Fig. 5.** The performance of Zinc-air battery based on cathode made of DDPCN and Pt/C (20%) catalysts, respectively; (a) Comparative analysis of discharge voltage curve (v-i) and the corresponding power density plot, (b) Specific capacitance curves obtained at 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, (c) Charge/discharge cycling curves at a current density of 20 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> (5 min/cycle), (d) Galvanostatic discharge curves at 5, 10, 20, and 50 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. (A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)



Fig. 6. Comparative analysis of discharge voltage curve (v-i) and the corresponding power density plot of Zinc-air battery test for DDPCN, Pt/C (20%) and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNTs under pristine conditions and in the presence of; (a–c) NO<sub>x</sub> (50 mM of KNO<sub>2</sub>), (d–f) SO<sub>x</sub> (50 mM K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>). (A colour version of this figure can be viewed online.)

and e) and  $CoO_x/CNTs$  (Fig. 6c and f) were used as the cathode catalyst for comparative analysis. In the presence of  $SO_3^{2-}$ (50 mM K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>) and NO<sub>2</sub> (50 mM KNO<sub>2</sub>), the Zn-air battery displayed negligible performance change by using the DDPCN as a catalyst while drastic performance degradation was shown by using the Pt/C (20%) and  $CoO_x/CNTs$  as the catalysts. Especially, in the presence of  $NO_2^-$  species, the peak power density for Pt/C (20%) and  $CoO_x/CNTs$  decreased over 57 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> and 107 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>, which are around 25% and 40% decay of performances. Such large degradation would greatly impede their real applications. These results signify the potential of DDPCN as the cathode catalyst for Zn-air battery application compared to other precious and nonprecious metallic electrocatalysts, such as Pt/C and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNT. However, in-depth studies are needed to further explore the mechanism behind the antipoisoning effect of P, N co-doped nanocarbon and the poisoning effect of PMCs and NPMCs in alkaline medium.

## 3. Summary

An efficient DDPCN catalyst for ORR was synthesized by a facile polymerization and pyrolysis procedure. The as obtained material has a mesoporous structure and a large specific surface area  $(894 \text{ m}^2/\text{g})$ . Such a microstructure could expose more active sites on the surfaces and facilitates the mass transfer. In the meantime, P doping increased the N contents in the DDPCN and the ratio of pyridinic N inside, boosting the ORR performance. Moreover, the newly formed P-C-N structure could impede the blocking of catalytic sites by the anionic poison species due to the weaken polarization and steric hindrance effect by N/P co-doping. Therefore, DDPCN showed excellent ORR performance with high  $E_{1/2}$  value (0.87 V), low Tafel slop (72 mV/dec), long cycling stability and good resistance towards the  $SO_3^{2-}$  and  $NO_2^{-}$ , which stands as a milestone for ORR catalysts with the best comprehensive performance. For Zn-air battery applications, DDPCN showed a peak power density of 224 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>, energy density of 874 Wh kg<sup>-1</sup>, and open circuit

voltage of 1.48 V, which are comparable or slightly better than the Pt/C catalyst. Most importantly, DDPCN showed negligible performance degradation in the presence of  $SO_3^{2-}$  and  $NO_2^{-}$  for Zn-air battery, while sharp performance degradation up to 25% and 40% was shown by typical catalysts, such as Pt/C and CoO<sub>x</sub>/CNT. This work may open up a new avenue to use the nonmetallic catalysts for Zn-air battery applications, which could exclude the poisoning effect in metal containing catalysts.

## **Declaration of competing interest**

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.

## **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

Tayyaba Najam: Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. Syed Shoaib Ahmad Shah: Formal analysis, Supervision. Hassan Ali: Resources, Methodology. Zhaoqi Song: Data curation, Formal analysis. Haohao Sun: Data curation, Formal analysis. Zhengchun Peng: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Xingke Cai: Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2020.03.036.

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