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**Shungite as a Catalyst Support for Highly
Active Bifunctional Oxygen Electrocatalyst**

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Abstract:

Metal-air batteries (MABs) and regenerative fuel cells (RFCs) are based on oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). Creating efficient bifunctional oxygen electrocatalysts to promote both OER and ORR simultaneously is highly desirable but full of great challenges. The major limitation is that active ORR catalysts are often not efficient for OER, and vice versa. Therefore, the development of novel bifunctional oxygen electrocatalyst should ensure the exhibition of high activity for both reactions. In this work, electrochemically active and stable bifunctional catalyst materials were prepared from naturally occurred shungite-derived carbon material doped with nitrogen, iron, and cobalt. Prior doping, the purification of raw shungite powder was optimized and the surface morphology, structure and porosity of all samples were extensively investigated by SEM, HRTEM, XRD, Raman spectroscopy, and the BET method. Bifunctional electrocatalytic activity and stability of shungite-based materials were examined toward ORR and OER in 0.1 M KOH solution by the rotation disk electrode (RDE) method. Shungite-based catalyst doped with iron and cobalt had much lower OER overpotentials compared to commercial RuO₂ benchmark and the overall oxygen electroactivity parameter (ΔE) was close to that obtained for noble metal-based commercial electrocatalysts (Pt/C + RuO₂). Electrochemical stability of bimetallic shungite-based catalysts examined by the chronoamperometry technique was superior to that obtained with commercial electrocatalysts.

Keywords:

Shungite, Bifunctional electrocatalyst, Nitrogen doping, Oxygen reduction reaction, Oxygen evolution reaction

CERCS: P401 Electrochemistry

Šungiidil põhinevad aktiivsed bifunktsionaalsed hapniku elektrokatalüsaatorid

Lühikokkuvõte:

Metall-õhk akudes (MAB) ja regeneratiivsetes kütuseelementides (RFC) on olulised hapniku eraldumisreaktsioon (OER) ja hapniku redutseerumisreaktsioon (ORR). Tõhusate bifunktsionaalsete ORR/OER katalüsaatorite loomine on suur väljakutse. Peamine piirang on see, et aktiivsed ORR-katalüsaatorid ei ole OER-i jaoks sageli efektiivsed ja vastupidi. Seetõttu peaks uudsete bifunktsionaalsete hapniku elektrokatalüsaatorite väljatöötamine tagama kõrge aktiivsuse mõlemale reaktsioonile. Selles bakalaureusetöös valmistati elektrokeemiliselt aktiivsed ja stabiilsed katalüsaatorid kasutades looduslikult esinevast šungiidist saadud süsinikmaterjali dopeerimist lämmastiku, raua ja koobaltiga. Eelnevalt optimeeriti šungiidipulbri puhastamisprotseduuri ning seejärel uuriti materjalide pinna morfoloogiat, struktuuri ja poorsust kasutades SEM, HRTEM, XRD, Ramani spektroskoopia ja BET meetodit. Šungiidipõhiste materjalide bifunktsionaalset elektrokatalüütilist aktiivsust ja stabiilsust uuriti pöörleva ketaselektroodi (RDE) meetodil ORR ja OER suhtes 0,1 M KOH lahuses. Raua ja koobaltiga dopeeritud šungiidipõhistel katalüsaatoritel oli OER-i ülepinge palju madalam kui kommertsiaalsel RuO₂ katalüsaatoril ja hapniku elektroaktiivsuse parameeter (ΔE) oli lähedane väärismetallidel põhinevate kommertsiaalsete elektrokatalüsaatorite (Pt/C + RuO₂) omale. Kronoamperomeetria meetodil uuritud bimetalsete šungiidil põhinevate katalüsaatorite elektrokeemiline stabiilsus oli parem võrreldes kommertsiaalsete elektrokatalüsaatorite stabiilsusega.

Võtmesõnad:

Šungiit, Bifunktsionaalne elektrokatalüsaator, Lämmastikuga dopeerimine, Hapniku redutseerumise reaktsioon, Hapniku eraldumise reaktsioon

CERCS: P401 Elektrokeemia

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TERMS, ABBREVIATIONS AND NOTATIONS

BET – Brunauer-Emmett-Teller

CoCl₂ – cobalt (II) chloride

CV – cyclic voltammetry

DCDA – dicyandiamide

E – electrode potential

$E_{1/2}$ – half-wave potential

EDS – energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

E_{onset} – onset potential

FC – fuel cell

Fe(OAc)₂ – iron (II) acetate

GC – glassy carbon

HER – hydrogen evolution reaction

j – current density

K-L – Koutecký–Levich

MABs – metal-air batteries

MEL – melamine

OER – oxygen evolution reaction

ORR – oxygen reduction reaction

PVP – polyvinylpyrrolidone

RHE – reversible hydrogen electrode

η – overpotential

SEM – scanning electron microscopy

SHE – standard hydrogen electrode

TEM – transmission electron microscopy

XRD – X-ray diffraction

INTRODUCTION

New technologies for sustainable energy production, storage and conversion have gained considerable interest in academia and industry, due to the accelerated exhaustion of fossil fuels along with environmental pollution. Rechargeable metal-air batteries (MABs), fuel cells (FCs), and water splitting are the next-generation clean power devices. The oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER), which are main reactions in these electrochemical energy devices, require a catalyst to be functional in a wide range of applications. Nowadays, the precious-metal-based catalysts (Pt/IrO₂, RuO₂) show the best electrocatalytic performance toward ORR and OER. Major drawbacks of current *state-of-the-art* noble metal catalysts are their scarcity, high price, and poor electrochemical stability [1]. Moreover, current precious-metal-based electrocatalysts are non-bifunctional toward ORR/OER and do not meet practical requirements for energy technology applications. Consequently, the design of an efficient and inexpensive alternative, which will be able to catalyze both reactions simultaneously, is highly crucial for large-scale applications. One of the most promising alternatives, which demonstrate excellent electrocatalytic behavior is high-surface-area carbon-based materials that are co-doped with transition metals and heteroatoms. Extensive research has been conducted on exploring different carbon sources and metal and nitrogen precursors to create the most efficient and practical electrocatalyst with high activity for both ORR and OER. Graphene has been mainly studied as a catalyst support, but also it plays an important role in the development of non-precious metal catalysts, particularly in pyrolyzed transition metal–nitrogen–carbon composites.

Shungite is a natural carbon-rich mineraloid deposited mainly in the Karelia region (Russia) and its total reserve is estimated more than 250 gigatons [2]. The graphene-based basic structure of shungite provides a good reason to consider this material as a promising alternative to synthetic graphene in various applications. Moreover, the production of synthetic graphene oxide flakes is much less environmentally friendly than that compared to shungite-derived graphene oxide.

Herein, for the first time, shungite-derived carbon material was doped with nitrogen, cobalt, and iron. Surface morphology, porosity and structure of the prepared catalysts was studied by SEM, HR-TEM, BET, XRD, and Raman spectroscopy. Shungite-based materials were tested in 0.1 M KOH solution toward oxygen reduction reaction and oxygen evolution reaction. Chronoamperometry was used to evaluate the stability of the prepared electrocatalysts.

1 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Oxygen electrocatalysis

Growth of global energy demand and carbon-neutral energy economy are among the matter of interests in the 21st century. Nowadays, most of the energy originates from unsustainable fossil fuels, meaning finite resources [3]. This drives to the development of new, eco-friendly, and cost-effective technologies that produce renewable and sustainable energy. Fuel cells (FCs), water splitting, and metal-air batteries (MABs) are the most efficient and simple devices of different conversion energy systems running through electrochemical reactions.

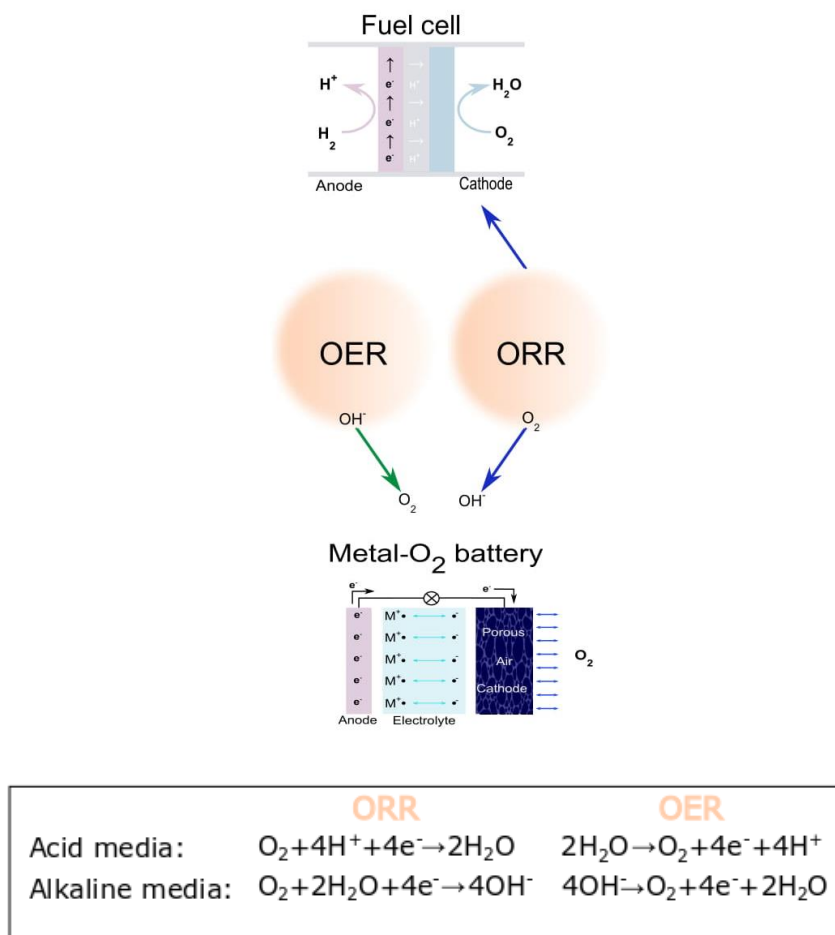
Electrochemical reduction and evolution of oxygen (O_2) are the key reactions in renewable energy technologies. During the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) oxygen molecule combines with electrons to form a product, whereas during oxygen evolution reaction (OER) oxygen is produced by consuming electrons from a reactant (Scheme 1).

Both OER and ORR are vital in rechargeable metal-air batteries, where during the discharge process, oxidation reactions occur on the metal anode with metal dissolved in the electrolyte and ORR is induced on the air cathode [4,5].

ORR is the main reaction in the fuel cell cathode and is a major limiting factor of fuel cell performance [6]. Moreover, the OER is an anodic reaction, which, in conjunction with the cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), is crucial for the electrochemical water splitting [7].

The ORR and OER have sluggish kinetics, thus requiring an efficient electrocatalyst to be practical in numerous applications. To date, noble-metal-based catalysts are the most active for both ORR and OER [8–10]. Platinum-based catalysts show the best ORR activity, while being inefficient toward OER, whereas, Ru/Ir-based catalysts are best for OER [11]. Platinum (Pt) is not suitable metal for OER due to the oxidation of Pt surface at high positive potentials. Apart from high electrochemical performance, noble metal-based catalysts have certain disadvantages such as scarcity, high cost, poor electrochemical stability, and low selectivity [12]. Therefore, the design of alternative stable, and highly efficient bifunctional electrocatalysts, eligible of catalyzing the ORR and OER simultaneously, is crucial for wide-scale applications. The design of advanced bifunctional oxygen electrocatalysts is only possible if the nature of the electrochemical reaction active sites is fully understood [11].

By varying different physicochemical parameters during the synthesis of catalyst materials such as valence state, phase composition, morphology, surface defects, surface area, conductivity, etc., it is possible to increase the density of the electrocatalytically active sites and to tune the intrinsic electrocatalytic activity [11,13]. In the following paragraphs, the main up-to-date progress in the studies of ORR/OER electrocatalysis will be reviewed.

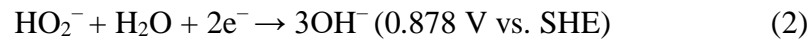
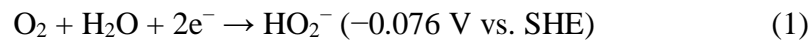


Scheme 1. Schematic representation of OER and ORR reactions.

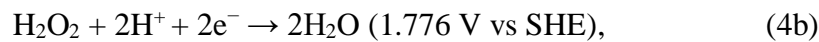
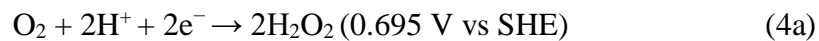
1.1.1 Oxygen reduction reaction

Oxygen is the most abundant element on the Earth and the reduction of O₂ is important not only in crucial life processes, such as biological respiration but also in energy conversion devices, such as fuel cells [14]. In aqueous solutions, the ORR can proceed via two different reaction pathways where the four-electron (4e⁻) reduction occurs from oxygen to water (H₂O), and two-electron (2e⁻) reduction from O₂ to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) [15]. Typically, the 4e⁻ pathway prevails on noble metals, and the 2e⁻ pathway mainly occurs on carbonaceous materials [5,12]. In fuel cells, the ORR occurs at the cathode including following steps: (1) the diffusion and adsorption of O₂ molecules at the electrocatalyst surface, (2) e⁻

are transported from electrode to adsorbed oxygen molecules, (3) weakening and breaking of O = O bonds, and (4) removing the produced OH⁻ ions into the electrolyte solution [10]. Depending on electrode material, the ORR proceeds through either a direct four-electron pathway or via indirect 2-step 2e⁻ pathway with intermediate formation of hydrogen peroxide, which reduces further to water. For a direct four-electron pathway, the reactions in acid and alkaline electrolytes are shown in Scheme 1. For indirect 2-step 2e⁻ pathway in alkaline solution after the formation of hydrogen peroxide (Eq. 1), 2-electron reduction of H₂O₂ (Eq. 2) or chemical disproportionation of peroxide occurs (Eq. 3) [10]:



In acidic media, indirect 2-step 2e⁻ pathway includes the following steps (Eqs. 4a, 4b) [10]:



where SHE stands for standard hydrogen electrode.

Since the O=O bond is exceptionally strong (bond energy of 498 kJ mol⁻¹), it is necessary to use electrocatalysts to lower the energy barrier and break the bond [16]. Currently, carbon-supported Pt has the highest ORR electrocatalytic activity, however, it has many drawbacks limiting its wide application [17]:

- (1) Pt is a finite resource and thus expensive;
- (2) ORR on Pt proceeds partly by 2-step 2e⁻ pathway and intermediate hydrogen peroxide effects negatively on the cathode and membrane stability;
- (3) Pt catalysts are highly sensitive to impurities in the FC feed system. Pt surface adsorbs easily NO_x and SO_x species present in FC air stream and this leads to decrease of the FC performance [18];
- (4) In case if organic compounds are used as a fuel (for example, indirect methanol fuel cells (DMFC)), Pt cathode catalyst can easily be poisoned [19,20];

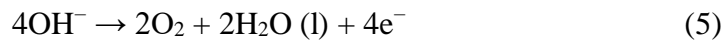
Significant effort is being made to develop Pt-free electrocatalysts for ORR, that would be efficient to catalyze oxygen by direct four-electron reduction without intermediate H₂O₂ production with low overpotential, be highly tolerant to contaminants and degradation [17].

Up to date, the most promising alternatives are metal-nitrogen-carbon (M-N-C, where M = Fe, Co, Ni, Mn, etc.) materials, where abundant metal and nitrogen are incorporated into nanocarbon [21–26]. In general, to prepare such M-N-C catalysts carbon, nitrogen and metal precursors are treated at high temperatures to yield conductive material with M-N_x sites, which are active toward ORR [27]. Pyrolyzed M-N-C catalysts obtained by heat-treatment in an inert gas atmosphere showed promising electrocatalytic activity and stability [27–29]. For further ORR activity and stability enhancement of pyrolyzed catalysts, modification of various factors such as nitrogen source and content, transition metal type and loading, heat treatment temperature and duration and variation of carbon supports are being conducted [28,30].

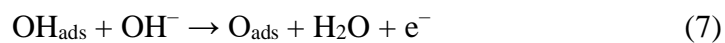
1.1.2 Oxygen evolution reaction

The oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is the process of generating O₂ usually from H₂O through an electrochemical reaction at the anode [31]. OER is the main reaction responsible for converting renewable electricity into storable fuels, however, due to the complicated multielectron transfer process it is kinetically sluggish [32]. The general OER mechanism over metal oxides in alkaline solutions is as follows [31]:

On the anode:



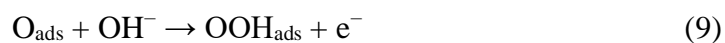
Following two intermediate processes:

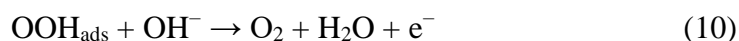


where * designates the active sites of the catalyst surface and “ads” stands for the adsorption on the catalyst surface. The generation of O₂ is possible *via* two pathways. First is through the direct combination of two O_{ads} intermediates to form O₂ (g):



Another pathway involves the formation of the OOH_{ads} intermediate first by the interaction of O_{ads} with OH⁻, with subsequent combination with OH⁻ and decomposed to O₂ gas. Here, the thermodynamic barrier of reaction (8) is always larger than those of reactions (9) and (10) [31]:





Even though there are some differences in the reaction routes, it is widely accepted that the active sites for OER are the surface metal cations (M). Also, the metal-oxygen bond in the intermediates (M–OH, M–O and M–OOH) plays a crucial role in the electrocatalytic activity [32]. Strong metal-oxygen bond hinders the product desorption from the anode and weaker metal-oxygen bond prevents the binding of the intermediate on the surface of the anode [32]:

Platinum is not suitable for catalyzing OER, because, at the high positive potentials required for OER, the surface of Pt undergoes oxidation. Generally, iridium (Ir) and ruthenium (Ru) based catalysts possess very prominent performance [9,33–36]. However, similarly to platinum in ORR, these noble metals have their disadvantages to be widely implemented in practical applications.

The rapid increase in the amount of research on alternative and affordable catalyst with long-term stability and high activity have been established [37–40]. Transition metal phosphides [41], oxyhydrates [42], oxides [42–44], nitrides [45–48], perovskites [49,50], sulfides [51] were proposed as alternative OER catalysts. Fortunately, some of the non-noble metal-based electrocatalysts are capable to catalyze OER by outperforming noble-metal-based electrocatalysts in alkaline environment [44,52]. As an example, nickel, cobalt, and copper oxides show excellent catalytic performance toward OER [44]. Exhibiting promising OER electrocatalytic behavior, however, most of the materials are not capable to catalyze both OER and ORR simultaneously.

1.2 Bifunctional ORR/OER catalysis

1.2.1 Transition metal-based catalysts

Up to date, the most popular materials that have been explored as bifunctional oxygen electrocatalysts are metal oxides, hydroxides and sulfides, nanostructured carbon materials and different composite materials [4]. Due to their intrinsic activity and relatively high stability in oxidative electrochemical environments, transition metal oxides including Fe, Co, Ni, and Mn, have gained great attention as potential bifunctional ORR/OER catalysts [53]. The crystalline structure and chemical composition of such materials have great influence on the electrocatalytic performances [4]. For example, Jaramillo et al. demonstrated excellent bifunctional activity of Mn(III) oxide (Mn_3O_4), their observations confirmed that a disordered $\text{Mn}_3^{\text{II,III,III}}\text{O}_4$ phase contributes to the ORR, while a mixed $\text{Mn}^{\text{III,IV}}$ oxide is related to the OER performance [54]. Variations in morphology within the same phase also possess different

activity. For example, a mesoporous Co_3O_4 nanowire array showed highly efficient bifunctional ORR/OER electrocatalytic behavior compared to other morphologies [55]. Co_3O_4 nanowire arrays grown on Cu foil, exhibited higher OER and ORR activity (10 mA cm^{-2} at 1.52 V and half-wave potential of 0.78 V vs. RHE) in 0.1 M KOH solution and better stability in comparison to commercial IrO_2/C [55]. Atomic-level surface structure design can be used to fine-tune the exposure of active sites responsible for the electrocatalytic activity. Creating active facets with desirable atomic arrangement and coordination is the most efficient route in catalyst design [4]. Facet-dependent electrocatalytic performance of well-defined Co_3O_4 nanoparticles was investigated by Liu et al. who found that Co_3O_4 (111) has a lower activation barrier of O_2 desorption than Co_3O_4 (001) sites [56].

Various surface doping and metal-mixing can affect the electronic and/or surface structures of the catalyst materials toward better electrocatalytic activity. Therefore, spinel and perovskite structures with multi-metal components are widely used for ORR and OER electrocatalysis [4]. For example, highly active cubic $\text{Co}_x\text{Mn}_{3-x}\text{O}_4$ materials were prepared and assembled in Zn-air batteries with a high energy density of about 650 W h kg^{-1} at 10 mA cm^{-2} normalized to consumed Zn anode [57]. Similarly, other spinel oxides, such as NiCo_2O_4 and LiCoO_2 have also shown excellent ORR/OER electrocatalytic performance caused by the active sites originated from the Co_4O_4 cubane subunits [58,59].

Perovskite oxides (ABO_3) are also promising bifunctional ORR/OER catalyst in alkaline electrolytes because their composition can be finely tuned by substituting A and B components by different metal cations [4]. In general, A-site mainly is responsible for oxygen adsorption capability, and B-site typically affects the activity of the adsorbed oxygen. Yamada et al. synthesized quadruple $\text{CaMn}_7\text{O}_{12}$ and $\text{LaMn}_7\text{O}_{12}$ perovskites which resulted in high OER onset potentials (up to $\approx 0.9 \text{ V}$ vs RHE) and OER overpotential (η) values (0.27 and 0.30 V, respectively) comparable to that of RuO_2 ($\eta = 0.31 \text{ V}$) [60].

1.2.2 Carbon-based composites

High-surface-area carbon is widely used material in preparation of non-precious catalysts for energy-related applications. The superiority of nanostructured carbon material is due to its high conductivity and high surface area [61]. Rational design of carbon-based nano-materials with multiple active centers is one of the most promising ways to prepare multifunctional catalysts for the ORR/OER. Therefore, heteroatom-doped carbon (preferably nitrogen-doped carbon (C-N)), and nitrogen and transition metal “co-doped” carbon (M-N-C, M = Fe or/and Co) composites have been widely investigated in recent years [62]. There are

three different reasons why nitrogen is preferred heteroatom as a doping agent. Firstly, if one carbon atom is replaced with one nitrogen in the carbon network then the total amount of electrons can be adjusted to one electron at a time. Secondly, nitrogen has a similar atomic radius with carbon. Thirdly, doping with nitrogen can cause an electronic modification of the carbon structures, allowing the use of these carbon-nitrogen structures in further major electronic applications [62]. Recently, Wang and coworkers synthesized hollow frameworks of N-doped carbon nanotubes (NCNTs) using ZIF-67 as a precursor [63]. Co nanoparticles in NCNTFs were removed by acid treatment and the obtained metal-free NCNTFs exhibited higher electrocatalytic activity and stability for ORR and OER than commercial Pt/C [63]. Porous N-doped carbon microtube (NCMT) sponge was prepared by pyrolyzing facial cotton and obtained micron-scale hollow core and well-graphitized porous structure of NCMT sponge exhibited excellent electrocatalytic activity for ORR and OER with ΔE value of 0.63 V vs RHE [64].

By optimizing transition metal and heteroatom precursors, different carbonization conditions, degree of graphitization, it is possible to finely tune the porosity of material and oxidation state of the metal. Zheng et al. obtained highly effective ORR/OER Co-N-C electrocatalyst by carbonizing bimetallic CoZn-MOFs precursor [65]. The highest ORR (comparable to Pt/C) and OER ($E_{10} = 1.67$ V vs RHE, better than IrO₂/C of 1.72 V) activities were obtained after carbonization precursors at 1100 °C. Electrochemically durable Co-N-C composite was prepared by carbonization of ZIF-67/polypyrrole nanofiber network rooted on carbon cloth exhibited low overpotential of 0.31 V at 10 mA cm⁻² for OER, and a half-wave potential of 0.8 V for ORR [66]. Due to enhanced electrical conductivity, facilitated mass transport, improved dispersion, and exposure of catalytic sites, transition metals supported on nitrogen-doped carbonaceous materials (such as carbon nanotubes, graphene and porous carbon) have shown superior electrocatalytic activity [31]. When transition metal active species, such as metallic nanoparticles, metal oxide, and metal phosphides, are combined with carbon materials (*e.g.* graphene and carbon nanotubes), they practically always show promising electrocatalytic activities for potential applications in energy conversion and storage based technologies [31].

1.3 Shungite

Shungite is a natural carbon-rich amorphous mineraloid that is mainly found in Karelia, Russia, and its total reserve is estimated more than 250 gigatons [67]. Shungite has a heterogeneous structure in which carbon exists in irregularly distributed nanosized globules made of curved graphene layers [68,69]. Shungite has high electrical conductivity, and a relatively high specific surface area (200 to 400 m² g⁻¹) [70]. The basic structure of shungite offers a strong reason for considering this material as a viable alternative to synthetic graphene in various applications. Since, few-layer graphene platelets require high volume production, today, one of the main challenges is to develop technologies for expanding the preparation process while preserving properties [71]. A detailed experimental study confirmed that shungite is composed of spherical bundles of curved graphene layers, which makes shungite a great source of nature-derived carbon nanomaterials [72]. Based on carbon content shungite is classified into 5 types: I) 84-89 %, II) 42-84 %, III) 30-37 %, IV) 15-20 %, V) 3-6 % [70]. In addition to carbon, raw shungite also contains pyrite, quartz, mica, carbonates, chlorites, zircon, and other minerals [73]. Due to its abundance and unique properties, shungite has a great perspective for application in technology and medicine [74]. Today, shungite is utilized in water purification and treatment systems, as a filler for various purpose composite materials and in other industrial applications [72]. Shungite powder is very popular in alternative medicine and is often used for sanitary and therapeutic purposes due to its antiseptic properties [72].

Moreover, shungite shows exclusive electrochemical properties due to its high conductivity and resistance to harsh electrochemical conditions [75]. Gusmão et al. tested the electrocatalytic activity of raw shungite powder toward OER and HER in 1.0 M KOH solution [69]. As a result, due to the different impurities present in shungite, it outperformed other tested carbon materials such as carbon black, carbon nanotubes, fullerene, and glassy carbon [69]. The current density of 10 mA cm⁻² on shungite modified electrodes was achieved at 1.09 V vs RHE [69]. Shungite's catalytic effect on OER can be influenced by the presence of different metals including transition metals in the composition of raw shungite. Chou et al. introduced carbon-rich shungite as an effective electrode material for Li-ion batteries [67]. Resulted energy density exceeded the one obtained for graphite, which makes shungite a promising candidate material for high energy density electrode in Li-ion batteries.

In this bachelor thesis, shungite-based catalyst materials were prepared and their electrocatalytic behavior was evaluated toward both oxygen reduction and oxygen evolution reactions.

2 THE AIMS OF THE THESIS

The aims of this thesis are:

- Aim 1. To define the optimal purification protocol for raw shungite material.
- Aim 2. To dope the processed shungite powder with nitrogen and transition metals.
- Aim 3. To evaluate the electrocatalytic activity of shungite-based catalysts toward OER and ORR in 0.1 M KOH solution.
- Aim 4. To compare the electrochemical activity of prepared shungite-based catalysts with commercial benchmark catalysts.
- Aim 5. To explore the electrochemical stability of the most promising shungite-based catalysts toward ORR and OER.

3 EXPERIMENTAL PART

3.1 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1.1 Materials

Shungite powder used in this work was purchased from Strecker UG (Würzburg, Germany). Dicyandiamide (DCDA), melamine (purity 99 %), CoCl_2 (purity 97 %), $\text{Fe}(\text{OAc})_2$ (purity 95 %), concentrated nitric (HNO_3) and hydrofluoric (HF) acids, 2-propanol (purity 99.8 %) and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) were purchased from Aldrich. The electrolyte solution was prepared daily using Milli-Q water and KOH pellets (p.a. quality, Merck) and saturated with pure O_2 (99.999%, AGA) and with Ar gas (99.999%, AGA). Commercial 20 wt.% Pt/C (E-TEK) and 99.9 % RuO_2 (Alfa Aesar) were used as electrochemical benchmark catalysts for ORR and OER, respectively. Nafion ionomer dispersion (5 wt %, Alfa Aesar) was used for the preparation of catalyst inks. All chemicals and reagents (except shungite powder) were used without further purification.

3.1.2 Purification of shungite material

In this work, a systematic morphological examination was performed in order to define the optimal purification protocol for raw shungite material (SH_1). Due to its geological nature, unprocessed shungite powder typically contains different phases, such as amorphous carbon, silica, iron pyrite, and other minerals. Impurities, such as transition metals can have a strong effect on the electrocatalytic activity of shungite, even if they are in the form of traces [69]. In order to adequately evaluate the electrocatalytic behavior of shungite carbon, it is necessary to perform its chemical purification and make the composition of shungite more homogeneous. First, SH_1 was washed with plenty of deionized water and 2-propanol using vacuum filtering and subsequent drying in air. The resulting material was designated as SH_2 . For more comprehensive purification SH_1 was acid-treated in the mixture of concentrated hydrofluoric and nitric acids (1:1 HF/ HNO_3) by stirring for 12 h at room temperature, following by filtering with water and 2-propanol (SH_3) [71].

3.1.3 Preparation of shungite-based catalysts

SH_3 was doped with nitrogen, cobalt, and iron. Two different nitrogen sources such as melamine (MEL) and dicyandiamide (DCDA) were used for this purpose. For doping, 100 mg of shungite powder, 2 g of nitrogen source and a certain amount of metal precursors (4 mg of $\text{Fe}(\text{OAc})_2$ and 10 mg of CoCl_2) were suspended in 2-propanol and 10 mg of PVP was

added to each suspension. Doping suspensions were sonicated for 2h at room temperature and dried overnight at 60 °C. After evaporation of the solvent, materials were transferred into the ceramic boats and pyrolyzed in a quartz tube furnace at 800 °C for 2h under N₂ gas flow. As a result, six different shungite samples were prepared and labeled according to the elements they were doped with SH₃DCDA-Co, SH₃DCDA-Fe, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co, SH₃MEL-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe.

3.1.4 Physical characterization

The microstructure of prepared samples was investigated by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM, JEOL 2200FS FEG at 80kV). Catalyst powders were dispersed in 2-propanol using sonication and drop-casted onto amorphous carbon film with the copper grid. The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) measurement were carried out using a scanning electron microscope (HeliosTM NanoLab 600, FEI) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscope (INCA Energy 350, Oxford Instruments). Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area was measured with NOVAtouch LX2 (Quantachrome Instrument). Prior to measurements all samples were degassed overnight at 200 °C. Crystallinity and phase purity of the samples was examined by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis (SmartLab, Rigaku). Raman spectra were recorded by Horiba's LabRam HR800 spectrometer with a laser line of 532 nm, which was focused on the sample with a spot size of 5 μm.

3.1.5 Electrochemical measurements

The rotating-disk electrode (RDE) method was used to investigate the performance of prepared electrocatalysts toward ORR/OER. Major performance indicators of reaction kinetics were recorded using cyclic voltammetry (CV) by loading electrocatalyst onto the working electrode (Teflon-embedded glassy carbon (GC) disc with a geometric area of 0.126 cm²). The RDE measurements were performed by EDI101 rotating disk electrode system and CTV101 speed control unit (Radiometer) in a typical electrochemical 3-electrode cell connected to an electrochemical workstation Autolab potentiostat/galvanostat PGSTAT30 (Eco Chemie B.V.). The counter electrode was GC rod and all potentials were measured against a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) connected to the cell via a Luggin capillary.

Prior to modification, GC disks of the working electrodes were polished to a mirror finish with 1 and 0.3 μm alumina slurries (Buehler) and sonicated in 2-propanol and Milli-Q water for 5 min to remove polishing residues.

The catalyst ink was prepared by dispersing the mixture of 5 mg of catalyst in 1 mL of 0.05 wt.% Nafion solution in 2-propanol with the aid of sonication. 4 μL of the catalyst suspension was pipetted onto the electrode. The catalyst loading was $0.153 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. Comparison experiments were performed with commercial 20 wt% Pt/C (loading $0.115 \mu\text{g}_{\text{Pt}} \text{cm}^{-2}$) and 99.9 % RuO₂ (loading $0.120 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$).

Main kinetic parameters of ORR, such as onset potential (E_{onset}), half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$), diffusion-limited current density (j_d), number of transferred electrons (n), kinetic-limiting current density (j_k) and Tafel slopes were carefully extracted from measured polarization curves.[76] The electrocatalytic properties of prepared materials were evaluated using the Koutecky-Levich (K-L) equation [77]:

$$\frac{1}{j} = \frac{1}{j_k} + \frac{1}{j_d} = -\frac{1}{nFkC_{O_2}^b} - \frac{1}{0.62nFD_{O_2}^{2/3}\nu^{-1/6}C_{O_2}^b\omega^{1/2}} \quad (11)$$

where j is the overall measured current density and j_k is the kinetic current density, j_d represents the diffusion-limited current density, F is the Faraday constant ($96,485 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$), k denotes the rate constant for electrochemical reduction of oxygen, $C_{O_2}^b$ is the concentration of O₂ in the bulk of 0.1 M KOH solution ($1.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$) [78], D_{O_2} denotes the diffusion coefficient of O₂ ($1.9 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$) [78], ν is the kinematic viscosity of the solution ($0.01 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$) [79] and ω is the rotation rate of the electrode (rad s^{-1}).

The chronoamperometry measurements were conducted by holding the rotating electrodes at a constant potential of 0.75 (for ORR) and 1.6 V vs. RHE (for OER) and lasted for 10,000 seconds in total.

All electrochemical experiments were performed at room temperature ($23 \pm 1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$).

3.2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.2.1 Morphological characterization

As-received and processed shungite samples were first analyzed by scanning electron microscopy to evaluate the surface morphology and elemental composition. Fig.1 presents SEM images of shungite samples evidencing the presence of micro-clusters that are composed of multilayer structures. All the samples exhibited hierarchical porous structure with a high amount of interconnected graphene-like sheets. SH₁ sample exhibits high inhomoge-

neity due to the presence of a high amount of different phases. According to SEM examination accompanied by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis, as-received shungite SH₁ contained 44 wt. % of carbon. Acid-washing yielded SH₃ with a carbon content of 88 at. %. Based on the EDS results the shungite material used in this work can be classified as type II shungite.

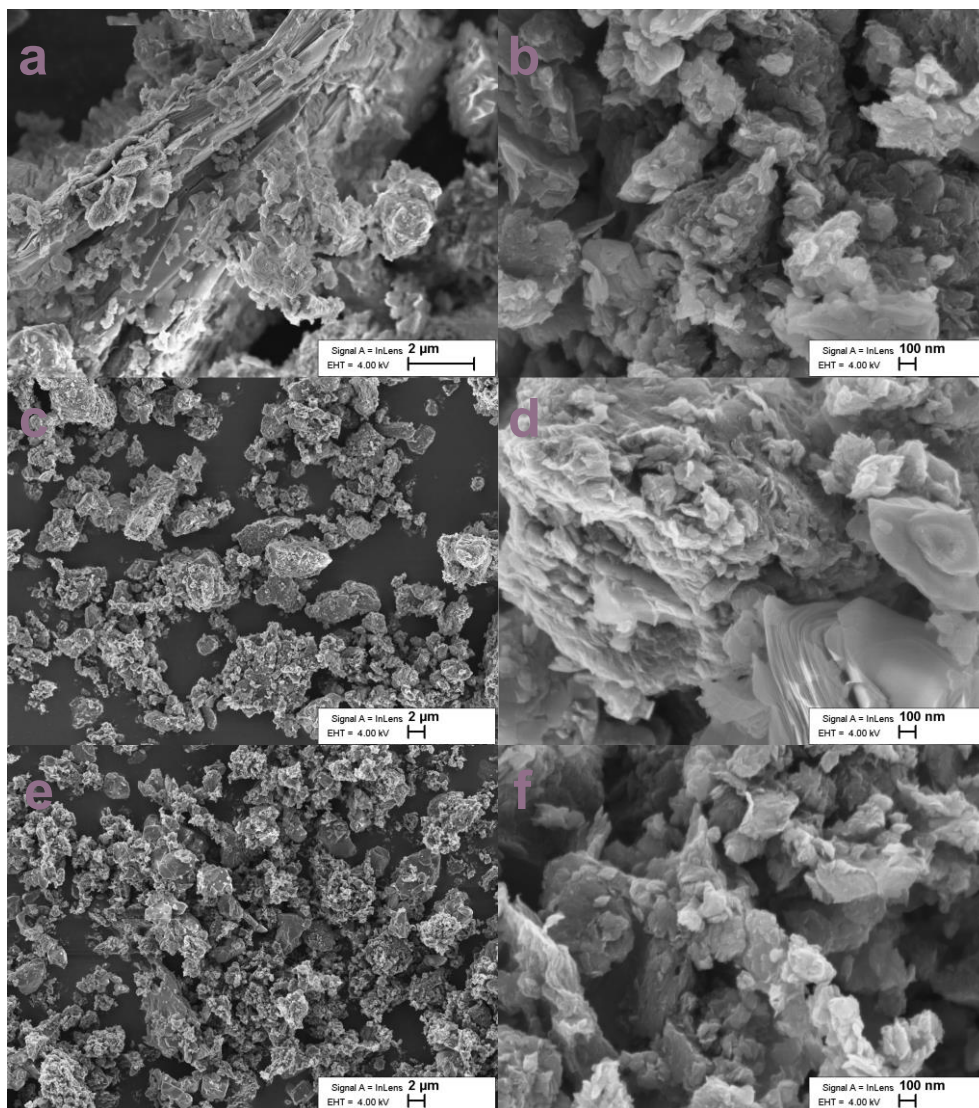


Figure 1. SEM micrographs of (a,b) as-received SH₁ and processed (c,d) SH₂ and (e,f) SH₃ samples at different magnification.

Furthermore, Fig. 2 shows TEM images of shungite before (a) and after (b,c) purification. Pristine shungite material forms an amorphous structure with the presence of additional phases. As confirmed by EDX analysis (Fig. 2d) non-processed shungite material contained a high amount of amorphous carbon, silica, iron, alumina, and sulfur impurities. Washing with water helps to get rid of amorphous carbon, also to wash out iron and sulfur compounds, which probably exist in the form of iron sulfite (Fig. 2e, confirmed later by XRD). After

SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe shows a typical particle present in the structure of the catalyst. The distribution of iron and cobalt metal within the particle can be clearly seen due to the difference in color intensity. Area with higher intensity is attributed to iron and is with lighter intensity corresponds to cobalt metal. It is also visible that the catalyst particles are surrounded by several graphitic carbon layers. The EDX elemental mapping of SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe indicates a homogeneous distribution of C, N, Fe, and Co atoms in the STEM image (see Fig. 3e). According to EDX spectrum, the Fe:Co ratio in the particle was 20:80 at.%.

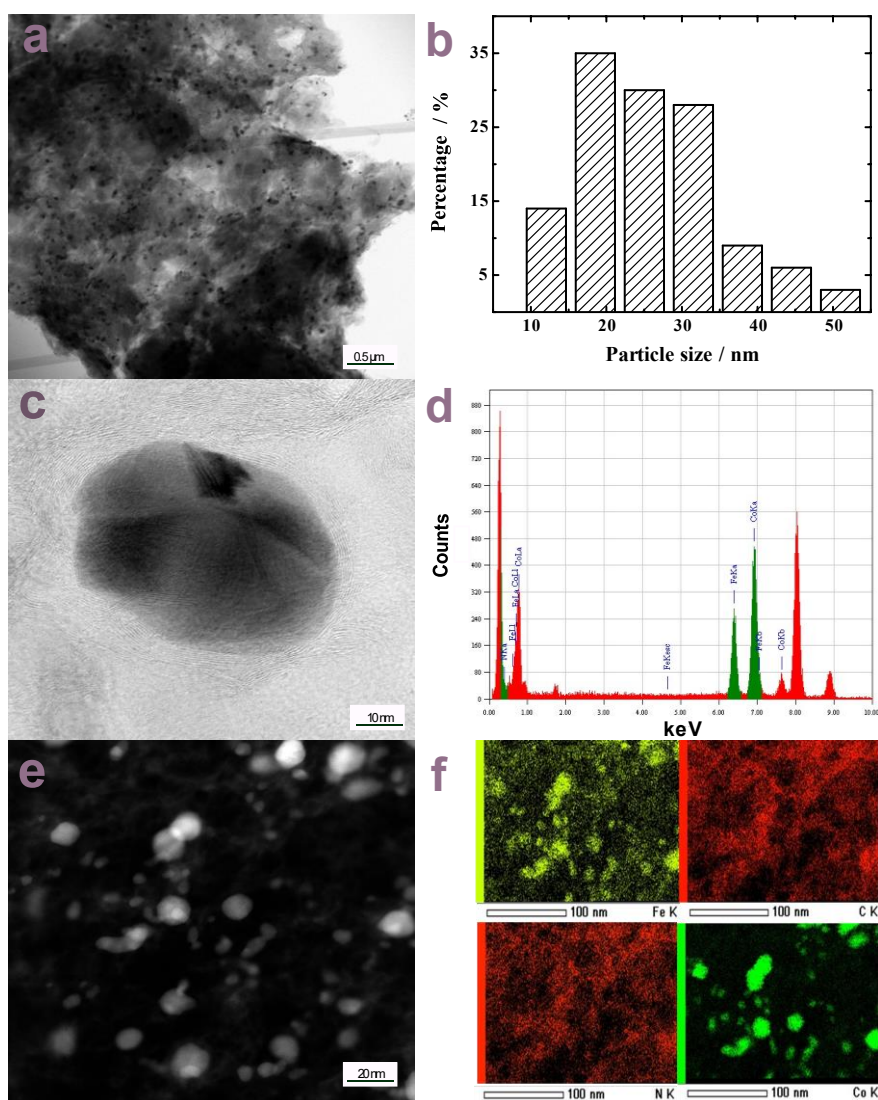


Figure 3. (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM image of SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe catalyst material; (b) statistical histogram of particle-diameters; (e) STEM image and (f) corresponding element mappings of SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe.

Since both the ORR and OER are heterogeneous reactions, the specific surface area is of great importance and all samples prepared in this work were examined by the dinitrogen adsorption-desorption analysis to ascertain their porosity. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET)

surface areas of shungite-based samples were calculated and summarized in Table 1. The BET surface area (S_{BET}) of raw shungite powder was calculated to be ca. $102 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. Specific surface area values decrease slightly after purification of shungite. The S_{BET} of $\text{SH}_3\text{MEL-Fe}$ reaches up to $127 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, nevertheless, it remains almost unchanged for bimetallic powders. According to Fig. 4, all materials in this study had similar pore diameter distribution with a typical pore size of 3-5 nm.

Table 1. Specific surface area and porosity of shungite-based materials determined from dinitrogen physisorption analysis.

Catalyst	$S_{\text{BET}} (\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1})$	$S_{\text{DFT}} (\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1})$	$V_{\text{tot}} (\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1})$	$V_{\mu} (\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1})$
SH_1	101	70	0.17	0
SH_2	102	74	0.17	0
SH_3	94	70	0.15	0
$\text{SH}_3\text{MEL-Fe}$	127	84	0.18	0.01
$\text{SH}_3\text{DCDA-Co}$	47	25	0.08	0
$\text{SH}_3\text{MEL-Co}$	69	44	0.11	0.01
$\text{SH}_3\text{DCDA-Co-Fe}$	97	66	0.13	0.02
$\text{SH}_3\text{MEL-Co-Fe}$	83	55	0.13	0.01

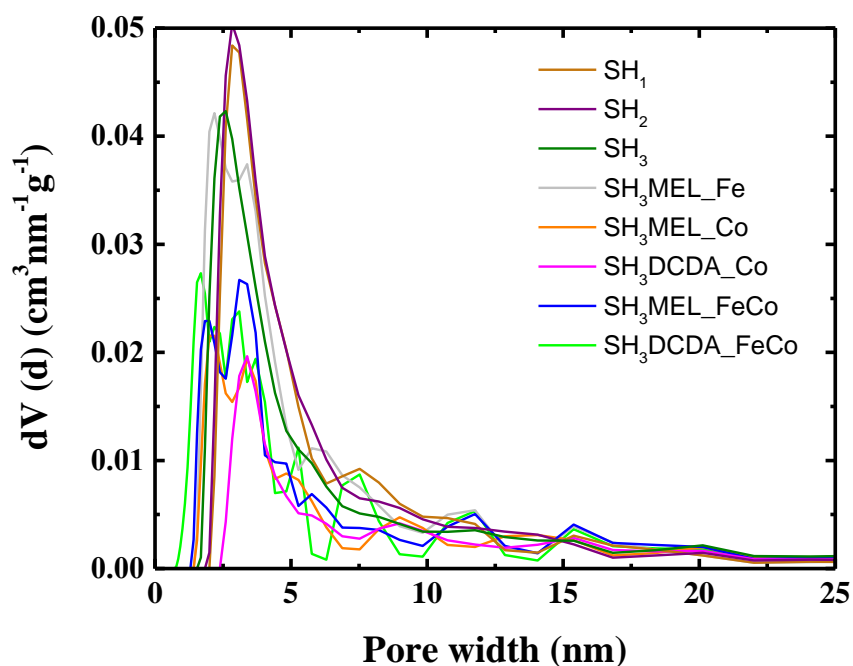


Figure 4. Pore size distribution of prepared materials.

The structure and composition of the samples were further investigated by X-ray diffraction analysis. Fig. 5a presents a typical diffraction pattern obtained for all shungite-based samples. According to the XRD peaks, carbon components are described as models of graphite–2H (hexagonal, 2-layer structure). There is also a possible mix of both graphite – 3R structure and graphite – 2H structure ($42\text{--}45^\circ 2\theta$). In SH₁ and SH₂, the peak at a $45^\circ 2\theta$ indicates the presence of coarse-grained graphite. Other peaks of graphite are overlapping with quartz. The small amount of SiO₂ as mineral quartz is present in all samples. Raw shungite sample contains a high amount of pyrite (FeS) which disappears after treatment with the acid mixture. Micras are described in the models with two different minerals just because some bigger flakes of mica are giving a sharp basal peak in top of the more diffuse peak of fine mica between 8 and $9^\circ 2\theta$ and around $18^\circ 2\theta$. Furthermore, the addition of Co alone does not show up any difference in XRD pattern, while the addition of Fe alone alters the structure of carbon in a very interesting way. The highest peak (0 0 2) of graphite is shifting from the d value of 3.36 \AA to 3.26 \AA and the new peak arises at 6.8 \AA . The addition of Co and Fe together raised two peaks at about $44\text{--}46^\circ 2\theta$. The same interesting Fe peak can be noticed in the bimetallic sample as well.

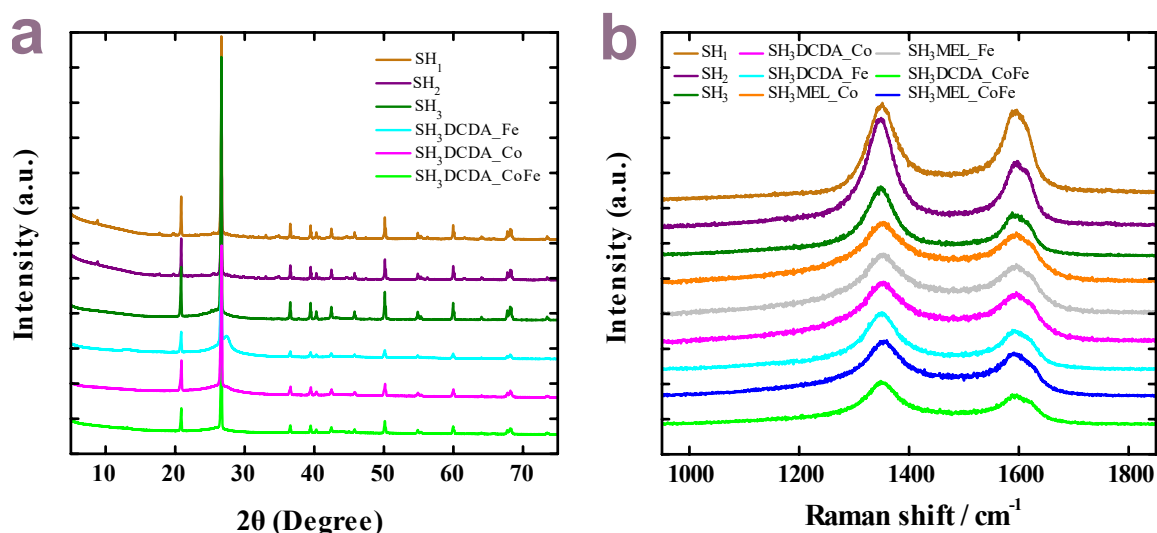


Figure 5. (a) XRD patterns of as-received, purified, and doped shungite powders; (b) Raman spectra of all shungite-based catalysts.

All shungite samples prepared in this study were explored by Raman spectroscopy. Fig. 5b compares the Raman spectra of prepared samples in the frequency range from 1000 to 1800 cm^{-1} . In the spectrum of amorphous carbon typically two peaks are observed – G (graphite) with the wave frequency at about 1560 cm^{-1} and D (diamond) at frequency of 1350 cm^{-1} , which corresponds to sp^2 bonds. An estimate of the total structural order in the carbon sample is given by the ratio of $\text{Intensity}_{\text{Dband}}:\text{Intensity}_{\text{Gband}}$ ($I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$). The $I_{\text{D}}/I_{\text{G}}$ ratio of SH₁, SH₂, SH₃, SH₃DCDA-Co, SH₃DCDA-Fe, SH₃DCDA-CoFe, SH₃MEL-Co, SH₃MEL-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe materials were 2.37, 2.31, 2.24, 2.65, 2.23, 2.37, 2.73, 1.87 and 2.38, respectively. These ratios can be used for comparison of the degree of defects and disorders of the 2D sp^2 carbon [80]. For all samples the intensity of D peaks are higher than G peaks, suggesting the higher concentration of sp^3 carbon content thus graphitic structure with a certain amount of disorder.

3.2.2 Electrochemical measurements

The electrocatalytic behavior of all materials in this work was first examined by cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements in argon-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution. CV curves were recorded for as-received and purified shungite (Fig. 6a) and compared to CV curves obtained for doped shungite samples (Fig. 6b). As shown in Fig. 6a, SH₁ and SH₂ have similar surface oxidation peaks at about 0.3 V vs RHE, after acid-treatment, no obvious redox peaks are observed, evidencing the absence of electrocatalytic sites on the surface of SH₃ material.

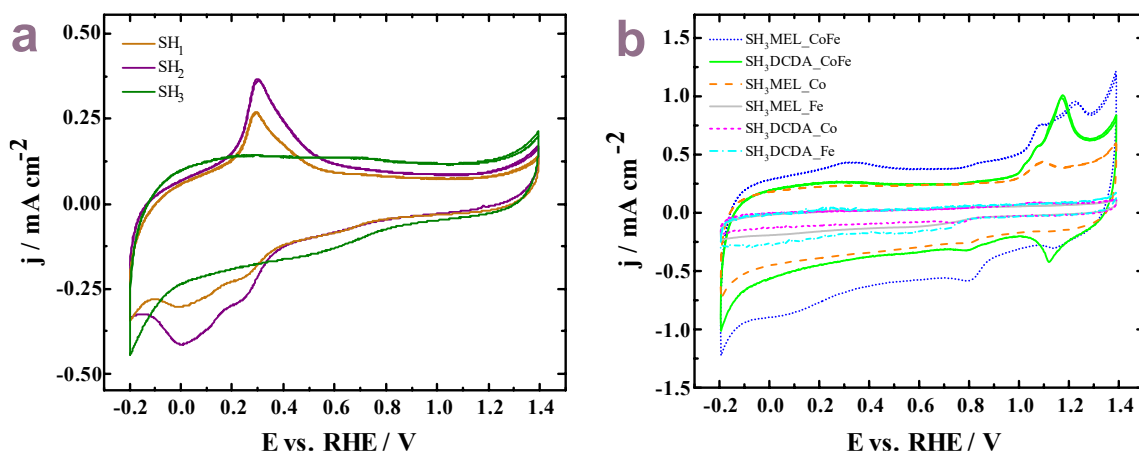


Figure 6. Cyclic voltammetry curves for (a) undoped shungite and (b) all the shungite-based powders modified GC electrodes in Ar-saturated 0.1 M KOH, scan rate 50 mV s⁻¹.

RDE measurements in O₂-saturated electrolytes were further used to investigate the ORR kinetics of prepared shungite-based catalysts. The background current was measured in O₂-free electrolyte at identical scan rate and was subtracted from the RDE data. The ORR polarization curves recorded at a single rotation rate of 1600 rpm and a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹ are summarized in Fig. 7a. For the sake of comparison, the ORR on commercial Pt/C electrocatalyst was also examined in identical conditions. Each catalyst was tested at least three times to warrant good reproducibility. The ORR activity of raw and treated shungite alone is also presented in Fig. 7a. The diffusion-limited current density of Pt/C, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe, and SH₃MEL-Co was -6.17, -4.49, -6.34 and -5.61 mA cm⁻², respectively. The highest onset potential (E_{onset}) of 0.95 V and half-wave potential ($E_{1/2}$) of 0.80 V were observed for SH₃MEL-Co-Fe, which is very close to the commercial Pt/C (1.00 and 0.85 V vs. RHE, respectively). These results suggest that oxygen is more easily reduced on the SH₃MEL-Co-Fe catalyst. The detailed RDE characterizations of all the samples are presented in Fig. 7a and 8 and RDE full series for the bimetallic shungite-based catalyst are presented in Fig. 7b and 7d. Due to its unique hierarchically porous structure, shungite acts not only as a support but also as a facilitator of ORR promoting the transport of O₂ molecules to the catalytic sites.

The average number of electrons transferred per oxygen molecule (n) during the ORR was calculated using the Koutecky–Levich (K–L) equation in the potential range between 0.1 and 0.6 V vs. RHE (insets in Fig. 7c and 7e). Obtained values were close to 4 for almost all the doped shungite materials (Table 2). The lowest n value of 3.6 and 3.8 were found for SH₃DCDA-Co and SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, respectively. These values indicate that shungite-supported catalysts are favorable for a 4-electron ORR pathway and the n values are very similar

to those obtained for the commercial Pt/C catalyst. The formation of hydrogen peroxide during the 2-electron ORR process is poisonous for catalyst materials and the 4-electron is desired in FC applications.

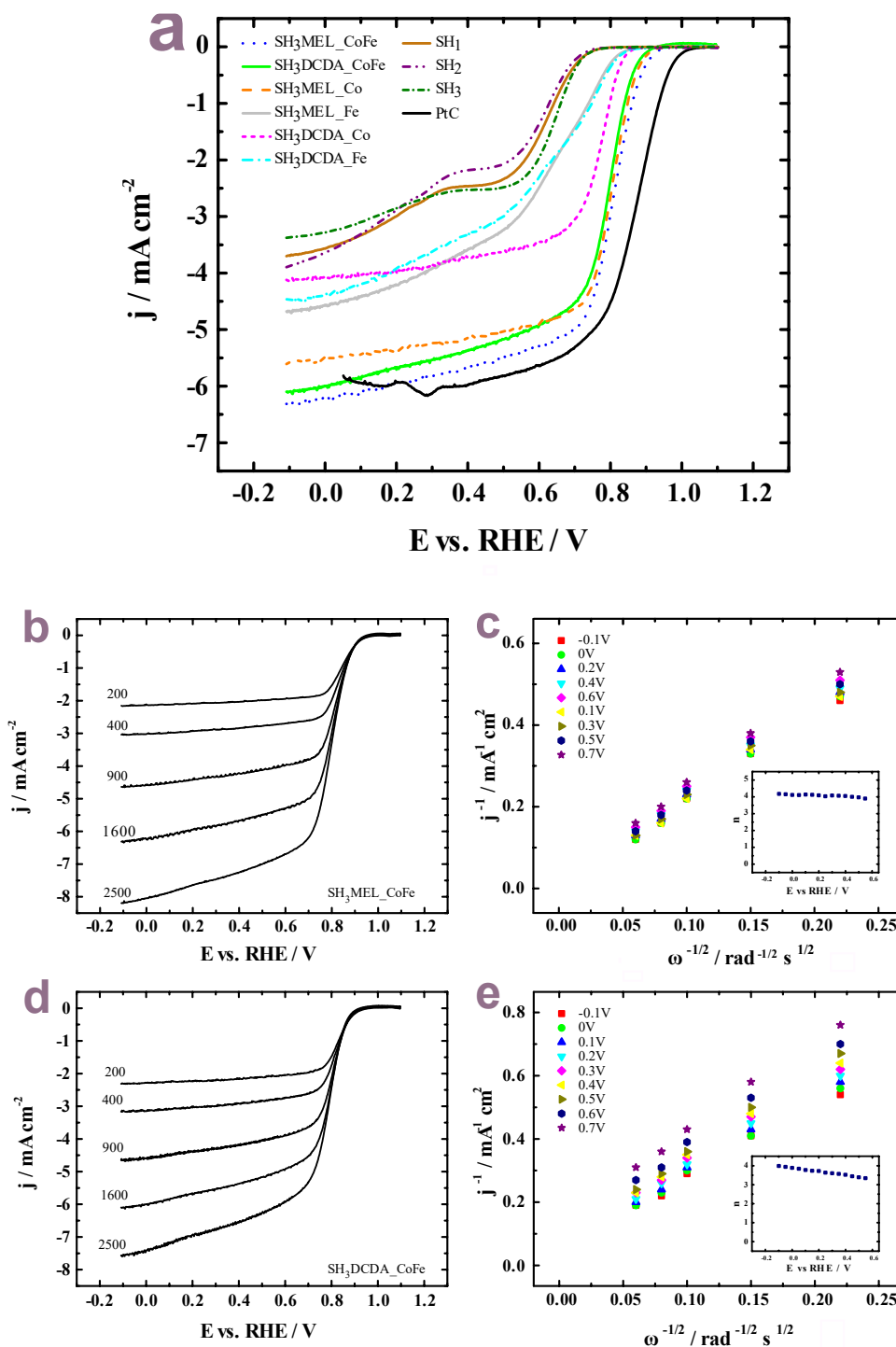


Figure 7. (a) Comparison of ORR polarization curves at 1600 rpm, scan rate $\nu = 10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$. (b,d) RDE polarization curves obtained for SH₃MEL-Co-Fe and SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe modified GC electrodes at different rotation rates in O₂ saturated 0.1 M KOH; (c,e) K-L plots, insets: n as a functional potential.

The performance of shungite-based catalysts was also examined toward OER in the Ar saturated 0.1 M KOH electrolyte. To obtain OER data the polarization RDE curves were measured from 1.0 to 1.8 V vs. RHE at a scan rate of 10 mV s⁻¹ in O₂-saturated electrolyte. The electrode was rotated at 1600 rpm in order to avoid the detachment of the catalyst evolved by O₂ adhesion. Apart from the exceptional ORR activity, the bimetallic shungite-based catalysts also exhibited very good OER activity. Corresponding OER polarization curves obtained are shown in Fig. 8. Commercial RuO₂ electrocatalyst was also tested as a benchmark. Clearly, the SH₃MEL-Co-Fe and SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe catalysts exhibited much lower overpotential and a higher current density in the specified potential range compared to the commercial RuO₂ benchmark (Fig. 9).

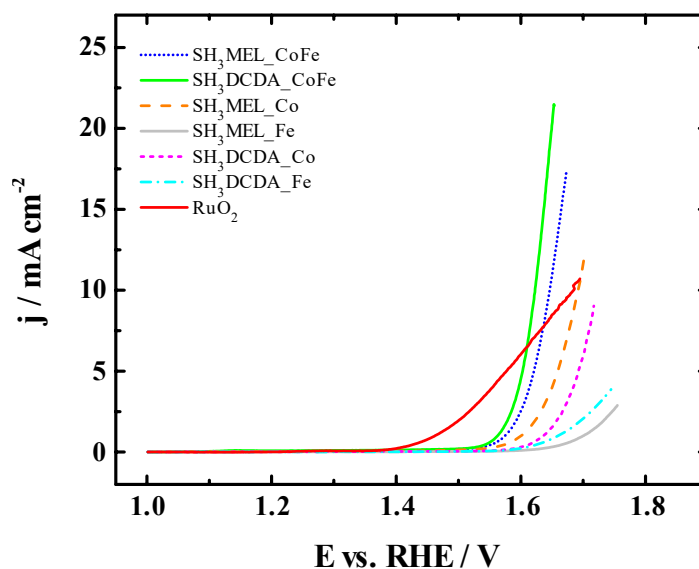


Figure 8. iR-corrected OER in Ar -saturated 0.1 M KOH

The overpotential values for SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe, and commercial RuO₂ at a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² were 0.39, 0.42, and 0.45 V, respectively (Fig. 9). The overpotential values obtained for bimetallic catalyst materials are outperforming the *state-of-the-art* RuO₂ catalyst. These results indicate that shungite-based bimetallic systems have superior OER electrocatalytic activity. Both single metal Fe-based catalysts showed poor OER response, indicating that Fe alone is not able to work as an active catalytic site for the OER. The excellent OER activity of bimetallic catalysts probably arises from their synergistic interaction affecting OER properties.

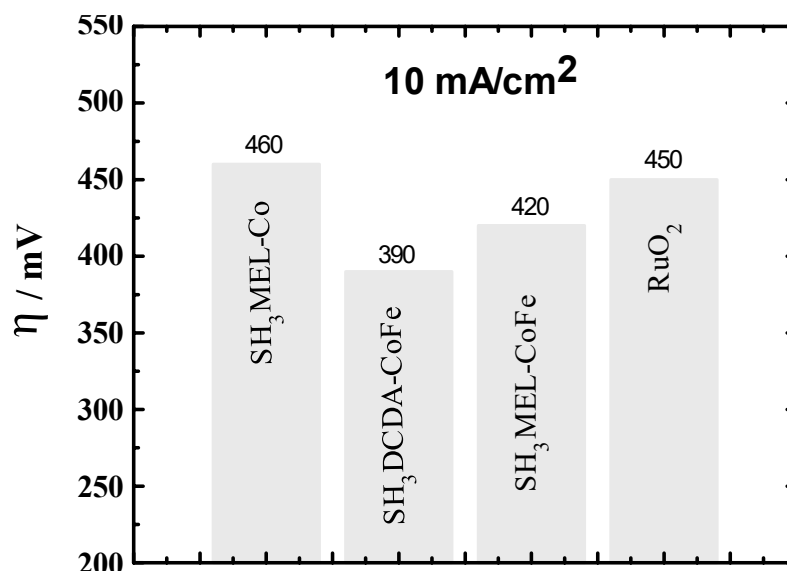


Figure 9. Bar plots of the OER overpotential.

The Tafel slopes derived from the ORR and OER polarization curves at 1600 rpm at a scan rate of 10 mV s^{-1} are shown in Fig. 10a and b. As shown in Fig. 10b, the OER Tafel plots for SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe exhibit a slope of 53 mV dec^{-1} , lower than that of the SH₃MEL-Co-Fe (74 mV dec^{-1}), SH₃DCDA-Fe (96 mV dec^{-1}), and RuO₂ (256 mV dec^{-1}) catalysts. SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe had the lowest Tafel slope value, which makes this material the most active OER electrocatalyst in this study.

The overall oxygen electrode bifunctional activity was evaluated by the difference in the potential (ΔE) between an ORR current density of -3 mA cm^{-2} ($E_{1/2}$) and an OER current density of 10 mA cm^{-2} (E_{10}) (Figure 10c) [4]:

$$\Delta E = E_{10} - E_{1/2} \quad (12)$$

The main kinetic parameters obtained in this study are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of electrocatalytic performance of all shungite-based catalysts.

Catalyst material	$E_{1/2}$ (V)	E_{onset} (V)	E_{10} (V)	ΔE (V)	n	η (V)
SH₁	-	0.77	-	-	3.2	-
SH₂	-	0.77	-	-	3.3	-
SH₃	-	0.78	-	-	2.5	-
SH₃DCDA-Fe	0.60	0.87	-	-	4.0	-
SH₃MEL-Fe	0.62	0.87	-	-	4.2	-
SH₃DCDA-Co	0.76	0.87	-	-	3.6	-
SH₃MEL-Co	0.80	0.93	1.69	0.89	4.0	0.46
SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe	0.78	0.92	1.62	0.84	3.8	0.39
SH₃MEL-Co-Fe	0.80	0.95	1.65	0.85	4.0	0.42
Pt/C	0.86	1.02	-	-	3.9	
RuO₂	-	-	1.68	-	-	0.45

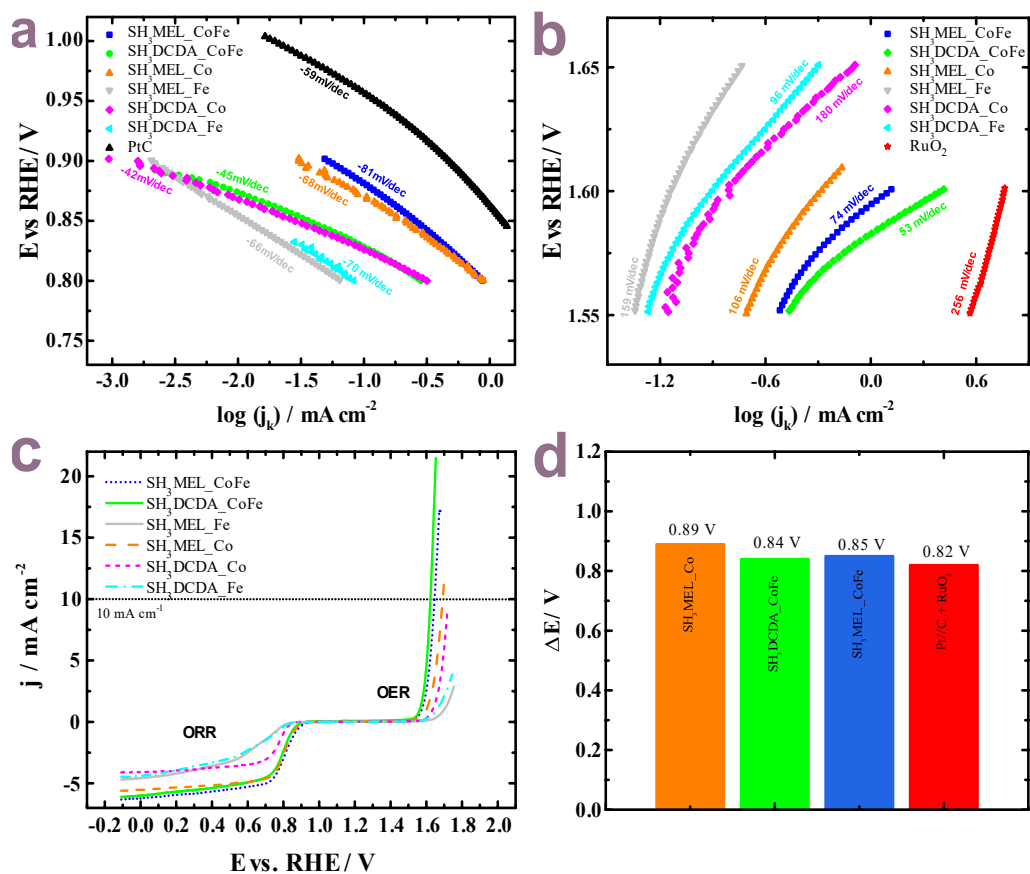


Figure 10. ORR (a) and OER (b) Tafel plots of the catalysts, (c) the overall oxygen polarization curves of shungite-based catalysts; (d) ΔE of samples SH₃MEL-Co, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe.

In order to compare the bifunctional oxygen electrocatalytic behaviour of SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe and SH₃MEL-Co-Fe with the recent developments, the major kinetic parameters (such as j_{10} and ΔE) were screened in recent publications on bifunctional electrocatalysts (Table S1).

The stability of SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe and SH₃MEL-Co-Fe as bifunctional catalysts were examined using the chronoamperometric method. The stability measurement for OER and ORR was conducted in Ar-saturated and O₂-saturated 0.1 M KOH solution, respectively. For ORR stability, the electrode was held at 0.75 V vs. RHE, while for OER stability, the potential was held at 1.6 V vs RHE during 10,000 s. As a result, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe catalyst showed the best stability performance either in ORR or in OER by exceeding precious metal catalysts. SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe showed better electrocatalytic stability during both the ORR and OER than commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ catalysts after 10,000 s (Fig. 11a,b).

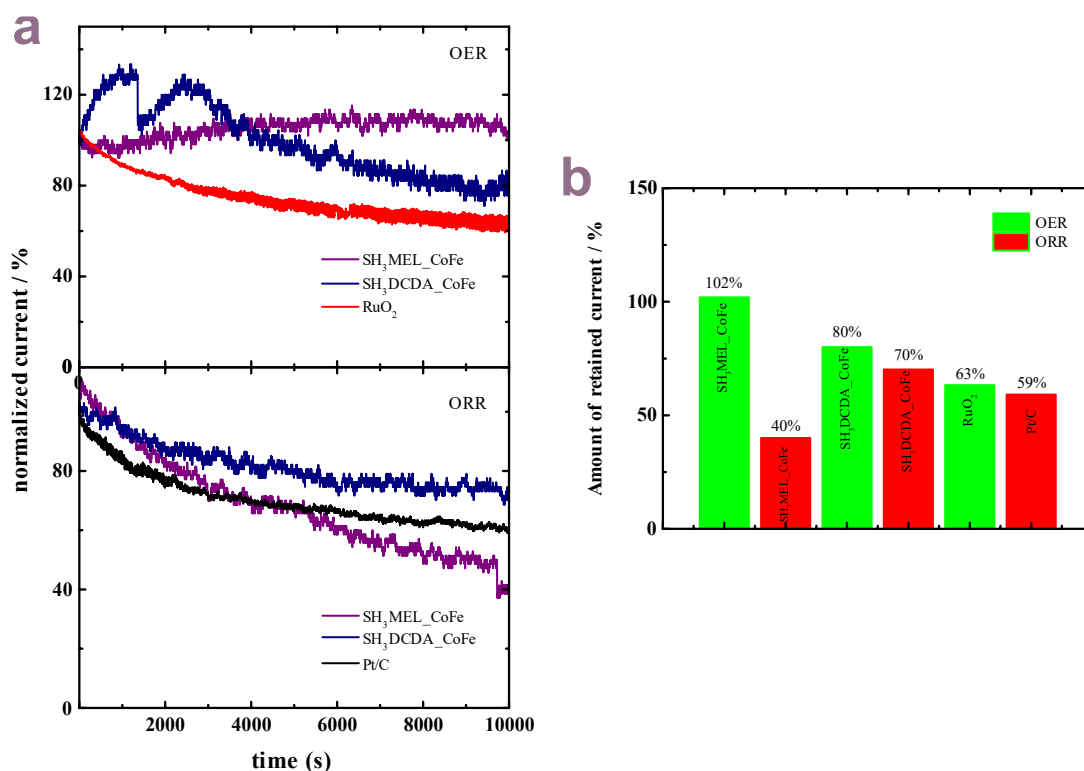


Figure 11. (a) Current-time chronoamperometry response for the ORR at 0.75 V and the OER at 1.60 V vs. RHE; (b) normalized current of the catalysts for the ORR and the OER after stability experiments.

M-N-C composites are widely reported as bifunctional catalysts. For example, Xiao et al. reported electrochemical activity of FeCo_x alloy nanoparticles encapsulated in N-doped porous carbon/carbon nanotubes composites (FC_x-NC/CNTs) in alkaline environment. As a result, $E_{1/2}$ (0.79 V), E_{onset} (0.9 V) and E_{10} (1.59 V) [81], which is very close to the results obtained in this work for shungite supported bimetallic and Co catalysts. Similarly, Liu et al. synthesized transition metal nanoparticles (cobalt and iron) encapsulated in N-doped CNTs and bifunctional electrocatalyst activity ΔE for Co/N-CNTs and Fe/N-CNTs were 0.78 and 0.94, respectively [82]. Sun et al. reported *in situ* synthesized Co₃O₄/NPC for oxygen electrode in alkaline medium. For ORR, it showed half-wave potential of 0.82 V which is close to the electrochemical performance of commercial SH₃MEL-Co-Fe (0.80 V), SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe (0.79 V), SH₃MEL-Co (0.80 V). For OER, the catalyst shows a low overpotential of 0.39 V at 10 mA cm⁻² and the Tafel slope value is 45 mV dec⁻¹ [83], which is very close to the observed OER Tafel plot in this study (SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe, 53 mV dec⁻¹).

Improved bifunctional oxygen activity is mainly the result of the fact that: firstly, shungite support provides better mass transport of O₂ within the structure of catalyst; secondly, due to rich source of N atoms melamine and DCDA increase nitrogen content in catalysts, and

the amount of nitrogen containing active sites on the carbon support. Thirdly, introduction of transition metal increases the ratio of C-N and M-N_x sites, which are responsible for good oxygen electrocatalytic activity.

It was confirmed that the composition of catalyst material plays a crucial role in the overall bifunctional activity, and materials with multiple electroactive sites are great candidates for efficient ORR/OER electrocatalysis. Catalyst materials consisting of multiple elements generally exhibit a synergistic effect, some centers are active toward ORR and others are beneficial for OER, hence lowering the overall overpotential [84].

SUMMARY

In this work, low-cost highly active shungite-based oxygen electrocatalyst materials were fabricated using simple and efficient strategy. The synergistic integration of cobalt and iron metals along with nitrogen endows shungite-based materials with a superior bifunctional electrocatalytic performance.

The composition and structure of as-received, and processed shungite was performed by combined use of several techniques (scanning electron microscopy, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy, BET, X-ray diffraction and Raman spectroscopy). The electrocatalytic behavior of prepared materials was investigated in alkaline electrolyte toward ORR and OER.

As a result, the purification of shungite with HF/HNO₃ acid mixture was very effective, and pure shungite material was obtained for further synthesis procedures. As expected, the doping of shungite with nitrogen, iron, and cobalt increased the electrocatalytic activity. Shungite-supported bimetallic catalysts showed remarkable bifunctional electrocatalytic activity by catalyzing ORR via 4-electron pathway and outperforming commercial RuO₂ benchmark in OER. Specifically, SH₃MEL-Co, SH₃MEL-Co-Fe, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe demonstrated the highest electrochemical performance as bifunctional catalysts toward OER and ORR. The half-wave potentials of SH₃MEL-Co and SH₃MEL-Co-Fe catalysts were very close to the commercial Pt/C catalyst, while SH₃MEL-Co-Fe and SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe outperformed commercial RuO₂ catalyst by exhibiting lower overpotential and higher current density. Moreover, SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe showed the lowest Tafel slope value and the highest stability for both OER and ORR than other prepared catalysts. The prepared catalysts exhibited comparable combined ORR and OER overpotential to those obtained for commercial catalysts Pt/C (0.82 V) vs SH₃DCDA-Co-Fe (0.84 V). Commercial Pt/C and RuO₂ are active for only one of this two reactions, while shungite carbon supported catalyst material prepared in this thesis is highly active for both reactions.

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SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

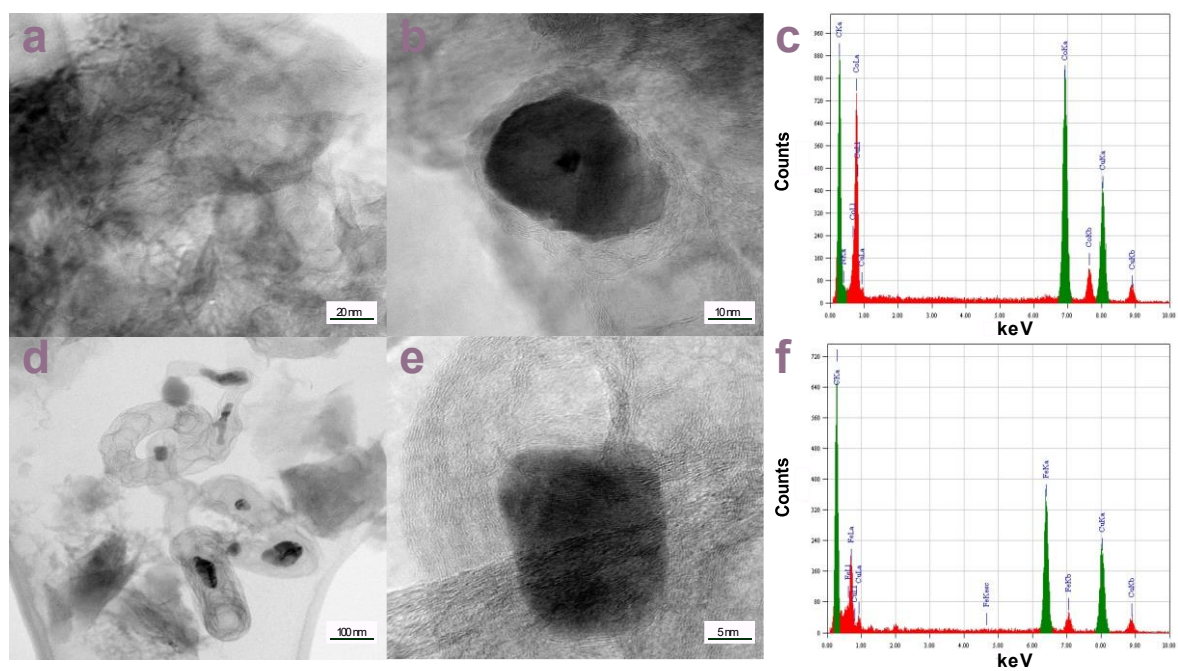
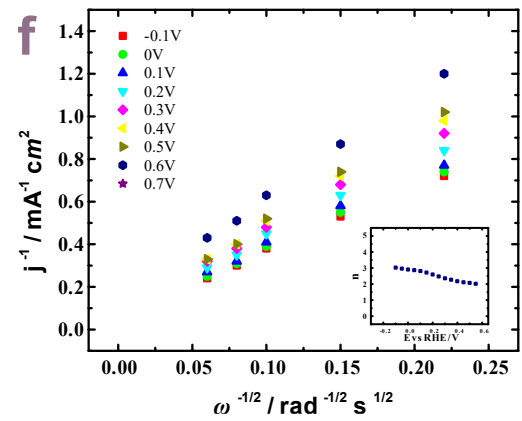
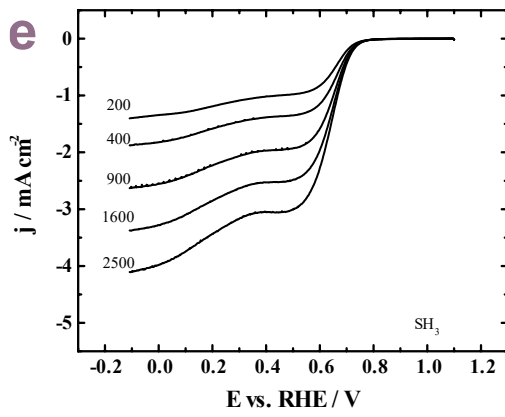
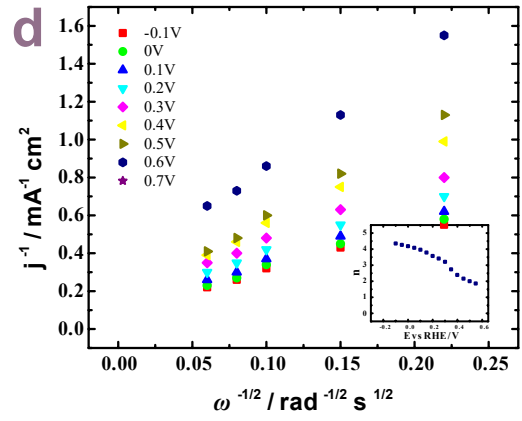
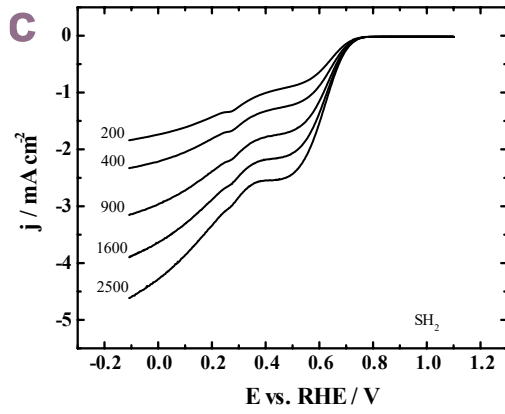
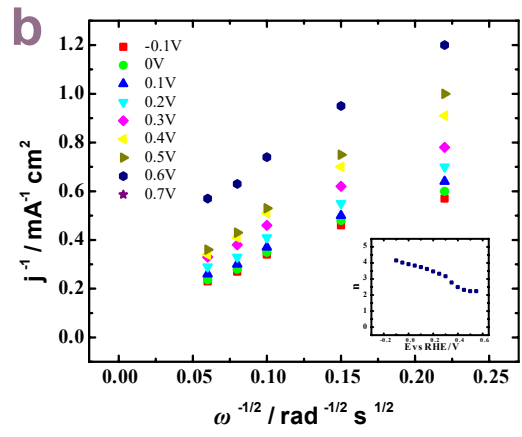
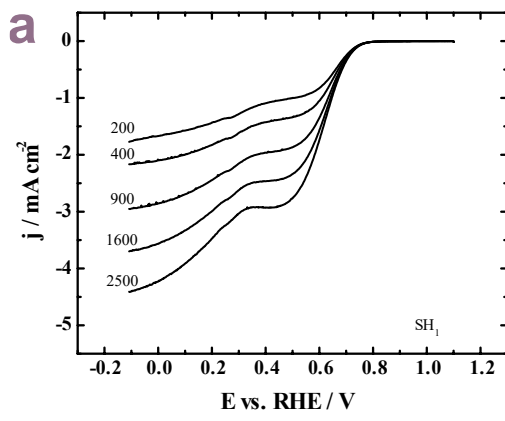


Figure S1. TEM/HRTEM images and EDS spectra of (a-c) SH3DCDA-Co and (d-f) SH3DCDA-Fe samples.



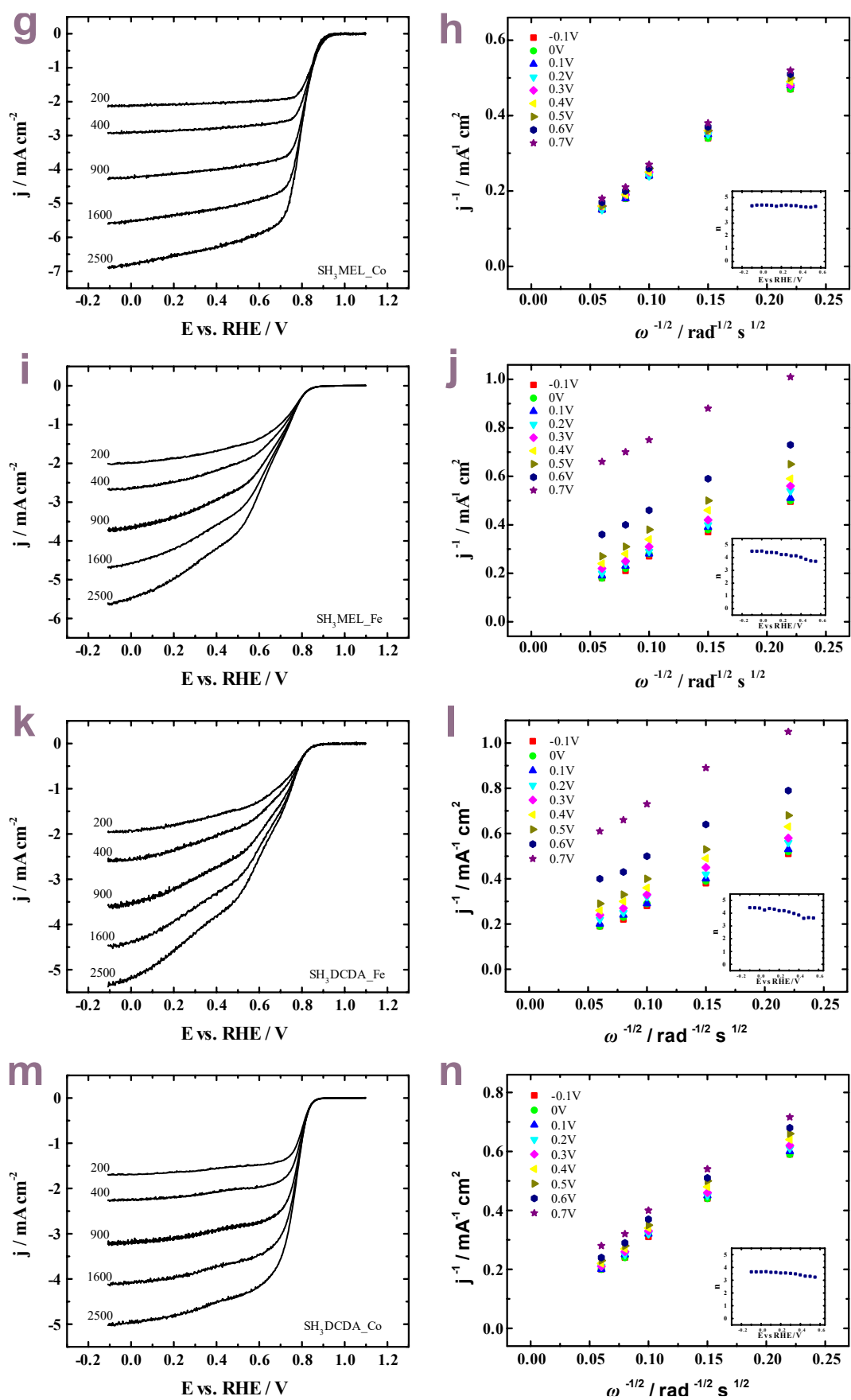


Figure S2. ORR polarization curves and K-L plots; insets: n as a function of potential.

Table S1. Some state-of-the-art bifunctional ORR/OER catalyst in 0.1 M KOH.

Catalyst	Loading, electrolyte	$E_{1/2} / \text{V}$	E_{10} / V	$\Delta E / \text{V}$	Ref.
Fe-N-C	0.4 mg cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.84	1.60	0.76	[85]
RuSn ₇₃	0.1 mg cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.52	1.49	0.97	[86]
Co-N-C	0.2 mg cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.80	1.54	0.74	[66]
<i>meso</i> - Co ₃ O ₄ -100	0.1mg _{cat} cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.61	1.66	1.05	[87]
S,N-Fe/N/C- CNT	- 0.1 M KOH	0.85	-	0.75	[48]
Co ₃ O ₄ /NPC	0.77 mg cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.82	-	0.8	[83]
FeNi ₃ @NC	2.0 mg·cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.86	-	0.65	[84]
Co _{0.85} Se@C NFs	0.2264 mg _{cat} cm ⁻² 0.1 M KOH	0.82	-	0.74	[88]

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I, Nargiz Kazimova

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“Shungite as a catalyst support for highly active bifunctional oxygen electrocatalyst”

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