Materiales

Cobalt and copper nanoparticles on partially reduced graphene oxide interlayer spacing carbon nanotubes or carbon black as catalysts for oxygen reduction reaction

Nanopartículas de cobalto y cobre sobre óxido de grafeno parcialmente reducido con espaciadores de nanotubos de carbono o carbón vulcano como catalizadores para la reacción de reducción de oxígeno

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Abstract

In this paper, we reported the synthesis of Co and Cu nanoparticles (NPs) supported on partially reduced graphene oxide (M/rGO), with the incorporation of spacers as multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) and carbon black (CB) among graphene interlayers to generate carbon nanocomposites. The oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) polarization curves show that the use of MWCNT as spacer improves the current density up to 6.9 times for Co NPs and up to 3.5 times for Cu NPs materials. Also, the charge transfer resistance decreases using CB: 950 times for Co NPs and 68 for Cu NPs materials. All carbon-nanocomposites present upgraded stability comparing to the commercial platinum catalyst (Pt/C).

Keywords: ORR, spacers, graphene, nanocomposites, Pt-free catalysts, fuel cells, alkaline, power generation.

Resumen

En este trabajo, reportamos la síntesis de nanopartículas (NPs) de Co y Cu soportadas sobre óxido de grafeno parcialmente reducido (M/rGO), con la incorporación de espaciadores como nanotubos de carbono de pared múltiple (MWCNT) y carbón vulcano (CB) entre las láminas de grafeno para generar nanocompositos de carbono. Las curvas de polarización de la reacción de reducción de oxígeno (RRO) muestran que el uso de MWCNT como espaciadores mejora la densidad de corriente hasta 6.9 veces para los materiales de Co NPs y hasta 3.5 veces para Cu NPs. Además, la resistencia a la transferencia de carga disminuye usando CB: 950 veces para los materiales Co NPs y 68 para Cu NPs. Todos los nanocompositos de carbono presentaron una mejor estabilidad comparada con el catalizador de platino comercial (Pt/C).

Palabras clave: RRO, espaciadores, grafeno, nanocompositos, catalizadores libres de Pt, celdas de combustible, alcalina, generación de energía.

1 Introduction

Fossil fuel energy consumption as a primary energy source is inviable, generating the air, soil, and water pollution (Ediger, 2019; Flores *et al.*, 2008; Ortiz-Salinas *et al.*, 2012). Nowadays, protecting and preserving our environment is a priority.

One alternative is the energy generation using environment-friendly technologies. Where the fuel cell can play an essential role in the solution. This device converts the chemical potential energy into electrical energy by means a continuous supply of reagents, getting only water and heat as sub-products (Arshad *et al.*, 2019). For the alkaline membrane fuel cells (AMFC), the involved reactions are the oxygen

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reduction (ORR, cathodic) and hydrogen oxidation (HOR, anodic) (Pan *et al.*, 2018).

For instance, the cathodic reaction is dominated by the electron transfer and the bonding energy to oxygen, where Pt⁰ is the cathodic catalyst that presents the best performance (Norskov et al., 2004). However, its high-cost and low abundance limit its application on a large scale (Valdez-Ojeda et al., 2014). There is an essential need to develop efficient methodologies to get Pt free catalysts, where the support selection is vital. The supported catalyst must be chemically stable in order to prevent corrosion as well as a good electrical conductor. The graphene is one most used carbonaceous supports (Akhina et al., 2019; Akhina et al., 2017). However, the large surface area provided by graphene can decrease, and this can be promoted by the high surface energy of the dangling bonds this need to restacking in a large number of sheets (Wu et al., 2020; Korkmaz and Kariper, 2020). One strategy to prevent the restacking is the use of spacers, e.g., carbon black (CB) and multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) interlayer graphene sheets, which are known as carbon nanocomposites (Yurtcan and Daş, 2018; Yilmaz et al., 2019; Song et al., 2019; Mukherjee et al., 2019). These nanomaterials have an increase in the specific surface area and conductivity; enhanced electrochemical performance; and decrease the Pt use (Marinkas et al., 2013). For example, Park et al. (2011) reported a Pt catalyst supported on graphene-carbon black hybrids; they found that CB changes the array of graphene supports, resulting in more Pt nanoparticles (NPs) available as a catalyst. Also, Yang et al. (2019) established that the CB spacer use has a lower charge transfer resistance than CNT. Huang et al. (2012) and Li et al. (2018) informed that the use of carbon spacers improved the activity of the Pt catalyst and its stability.

Another strategy is the use of non-noble metals. In the literature, several reports have been confirmed that Pt can be substituted using non-noble metals in alkaline media (Vanýsek, 2009; Shahid *et al.*, 2017). These works have attracted the attention of the researchers, who have proposed a range of non-noble metals to substitute Pt content in ORR (Garapati *et al.*, 2019; Yan *et al.*, 2018). However, few studies have investigated non-noble metals NPs in any systematic way in carbon nanocomposites. In this work, we reported an eco-friendly method to synthesize carbon nanocomposites of Co NPs or Cu NPs on partially reduced graphene oxide (rGO) using as spacers MWCNT and CB, testing them as a catalyst for ORR in alkaline media.

2 Experimental

All chemicals reagents received without further purification copper sulfate (CuSO₄·5H₂O, 98%), ferrocene (Fe(C5H5)2, 98%), Nafion® 117 solution (5%), sodium borohydride (NaBH₄, 99%), sodium nitrate (NaNO₃, ≥99%) and cobalt (II) chloride anhydrous (CoCl₂, 97%) were purchased from Aldrich. Ethanol (CH₃CH₂OH, 95%), acetone (CH₃COCH₃, 99.5%), sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄, 98%), nitric acid (HNO₃, 70%) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂, 30%) were acquired from Faga Lab. Graphite. manganese (II) sulfate (MnSO₄ \cdot H₂O, 100%), toluene ($C_6H_5CH_3$, 99.5%), potassium permanganate (KMnO₄, 98%), and carbon black were supplied from Fisher Chemical, Fermont, JT Baker®, Alfa-Aesar and Fuel Cell Store[®], respectively. All aqueous solutions were prepared with Milli-Q® water (18 MQ, Millipore). Also, we synthesized MWCNT following the procedure proposed by Reyes-Cruzaley et al. (2019).

2.1 Carbon nanocomposites

GO was prepared according to the procedure reported by Tour *et al.*, (2010) with slight modifications proposed to improve the Hummers method (Hummers and Offeman 1958). Briefly, 3 g of graphite were oxidized using NaNO₃ and KMnO₄ in H₂SO₄ (conc.) The product was washed using water and H₂O₂. The purification process was modified, only HCl (5% v/v) was used to wash. Followed, the precipitate was washed with water until it reached a pH of 7. The final product was collected and dried in stove for 12 h at 60 °C.

We proposed a novel green method to synthesize nanocomposites of M/rGO (M = Co, Cu). 10 mg of GO were placed in a vial of 30 mL and dispersed in 10 mL of water at an ultrasound bath (BRANSON 3800, 40 kHz). For Co NPs, 0.308 mmol of CoCl₂ were dissolved in 10 mL of water and added to the before solution. Afterward, the metallic ions were reduced with 0.196 mmoles of NaBH₄, and the mixture was left to react for 60 min, maintaining the reaction temperature at 25 °C. For Cu NPs, 0.044 mmol CuSO₄·5H₂O were added, following the same procedure. The final product was filtered and washed with water and acetone. All reactions were carried at an ultrasound in this method. A similar procedure was reported by our research group to nanocomposites of M/MWCNT (Cu NPs) (RiveraLugo *et al.*, 2018). Subsequent, 2 mg of M/rGO was dispersed in an ultrasound bath in a mixture of 550 μ L of ethanol and 150 μ L of Nafion® for catalytic inks (Pollet 2014). The same procedure was done for each spacer. Next, M/rGO ink was kept at volume constant, adding the spacer ink in a proportion of 25, 50, 75 and 100 (% v/v). The final inks were sonicated to homogenize and labeled as Co/rGO/MWCNT, Co/rGO/CB, Cu/rGO/MWCNT, and Cu/rGO/CB.

2.2 Physicochemical and electrochemical characterization

The thermal behavior of nanocomposites was studied by thermogravimetric analysis (TA Instruments, TA-2960-DSC), heating at 20 °C·min⁻¹ in airflow of 40 mL·min⁻¹. The identification of the crystalline phases was analyzed using a diffractometer (D8 Advance, Bruker) in Bragg-Brentano configuration. The intensity data were collected with 2θ ranging from 20 to 80° with 0.018 of step-size and 190 s of step-time. The morphology of NPs was determined by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM JEOL, JSM-7500F) and complemented using a high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (TEM JEOL JEM 2200FS+CS). A potentiostat/galvanostat (Biologic, VMP-300) was used for all the electrochemical tests. A threeelectrode cell was occupied at room temperature (25 ± 1 °C) with 0.1 M of NaOH as the electrolytic solution. The working electrode (WE) was a glassy carbon rotating disk electrode (RDE, area: 0.2 cm²), the reference electrode was $Hg/HgO/NaOH_{(1M)}$ and the counter electrode a Pt wire. The WE surface was modified using catalytic inks, keeping the ratio of 0.11 mg M/rGO. Cyclic voltammograms (CV) were performed in the potential range from -0.6 to 0.6 V vs.

Hg/HgO/NaOH_(1*M*) at a scan rate of 50 mV·s⁻¹ (not shown). Catalytic activity for ORR was evaluated by linear sweep voltammetry at 0, 100, 250, 500, 750, 1000 and 1600 rpm controlled by Pine Instrument model AFMSRCE rotator, where the electrolyte was saturated with O₂. The electrochemical evaluation was done in the potential range from 0.5 to -1.2 V at a scan rate of 10 mV·s⁻¹. All potentials were reported vs. the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE). Finally, we carried out the accelerated durability tests (ADT), the procedure comprised continuous CV with ORR measurements at 0 and 3000 cycles (under the same conditions as described above).

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Physicochemical characterization

Fig. 1a shows the thermograms of carbonaceous species. For GO, the analysis of the curves of weight loss (%w) indicates three decomposition stages. The first stage comprises the range from 33 to 127 °C and corresponds to 2.0%; which is related to the desorption of moisture (Jeong et al., 2008; Ren et al., 2011). The second stage starts 156 °C and ends around 175 °C, which has the highest weight loss (96.2%) attributed to the decomposition of graphene layers containing labile oxygenated groups (Jeong et al., 2009). The third stage limits between 400 °C - 443 °C that has been related to the loss of stable oxygenated groups (Shen et al., 2009), presenting the lowest weight loss (1.2%). The final residue is 0.6% that attributed to potassium salts. For MWCNT, only one slope is observed between 525 °C and 700 °C. The metallic residue was 7.7%, which is associated with Fe₂O₃ of iron growth seed of MWCNT.



Fig. 1. Thermogravimetric curves of a) carbon nanotubes and graphene oxide; b) Co/rGO and Cu/rGO.

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Fig. 2. XRD patterns of M/rGO nanocomposites and carbon spacers.

Fig. 1b shows the thermal behaviors of nanocomposites. Both materials presented the three weight losses, the first is related to the decomposition of graphene oxide at 200 °C (Jeong *et al.*, 2009), following the second associated with the decomposition of rGO at 400 °C (Wilson *et al.*, 2009), and the graphite decomposition at 600 °C. For Co/rGO, the metal deposition (i.e., the percentage of M^0 was calculated from the subtraction of MO_x) was 26.81%, while 14.60% for Cu/rGO.

Fig. 2 shows XRD patterns of supports, spacers and M/rGO nanocomposites. The graphene supports (GO and rGO) showed three diffracted intensity peaks at 24.66 (002), 42.57 (100) and 44.48° (101) that indexed to the graphite structure (JCPDS card No. 75-1621). Besides, the XRD patterns of used carbon spacers: MWCNT and CB indexed the identical graphite structure. The nanocomposite of Cu/rGO also showed five diffracted intensity peaks that can attribute to the structure of Cu₂O (JCPDS card No. 00-005-0667, space group Pn-3m (224) cubic, a = 0.426960 nm). In contrast, the intensity peaks of the cobalt phases were indiscernible; however, similar synthesized materials have been shown CoO (Rashad *et al.*, 2020; Liang *et al.*, 2020). The result suggests that the rGO surfaces were covered with nanoparticles of copper or cobalt oxide.

Fig. 3 shows the HRTEM image of Cu NPs and the FE-SEM image of Co NPs. Both nanoparticles were grown on the rGO sheets surface with a spherical shape. The Cu NPs covered all surfaces showing a small number of agglomerations (Fig. 3a); in contrast, the Co NPs were well-defined and isolated (Fig 3b). The average particle diameter (d_p) was 2.5±0.3 nm for Cu NPs and 7.2±1.4 nm for Co NPs. Fig. 3c shows the Gaussian probability density curves for d_p (p > 0.05) there is clear that the distribution of Cu NPs is denser than Co NPs. Likewise, the crystallite size (D_v) was calculated by the Scherrer's formula: $D_v = K\lambda/\beta\cos\theta$. Where K = 0.94 is a dimensionless shape factor, $\lambda = 1.54$ nm is the X-ray wavelength, β is the line broadening at half the maximum intensity (FWHM) and θ is the Bragg angle. The crystallite size was 2.2 nm, using the diffracted intensity peak at 36.2 (111) for Cu/rGO.



Fig. 3. Particle analysis: (a) Cu NPs, (b) Co NPs, and (c) density histograms of particle diameter for Co and Cu NPs.



Fig. 4. Polarization curves of a) Co/rGO, b) Co/rGO with spacers, c) Cu/rGO and d) Cu/rGO with spacers at 1600 rpm.

3.2 Electrochemical characterization

We analyzed ORR for all treatment (M/rGO/MWCNT and M/rGO/CB) and levels (0, 25, 50, 75, and 100%). From data, the highest current densities $(mA \cdot cm^{-2})$ were -9.43 (Co/rGO/MWCNT, 75%), -7.91 (Co/rGO/CB, 100%), -8.48 (Cu/rGO/MWCNT, 75%), -4.23 (Cu/rGO/CB, 75%), also the free spacers catalysts -1.36 (Co/rGO) and -2.39 (Cu/rGO) and the commercial platinum catalyst -5.23 (Pt/C). All evaluated nanomaterials were referenced at -0.1 V vs. SHE. Fig. 4 shows the polarization curves, comparing catalysts of carbon nanocomposites and free spacers. The number of electrons transferred (*n*) was four for all evaluated nanomaterials, which was determined through Koutecký-Levich (K-L) equation (Bard and Faulkner 2001).

Moreover, the Faradic charge resistance (R_{CT}) was calculated from the Butler-Volmer equation at $|F\eta| \ll RT$ (Rivera-Lugo *et al.* 2018). The R_{CT} values ($\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$) of the carbon nanocomposites were 0.46 × 10⁻³ (Co/rGO/MWCNT, 75%), 0.22 × 10⁻³ (Co/rGO/CB, 100%), 4.26 × 10⁻³ (Cu/rGO/MWCNT, 75%) and 0.78 × 10⁻³ (Cu/rGO/CB, 75%). Besides, the RCT values for free spacers catalysts were 209.28×10⁻³ (Co/rGO) and 53.61×10⁻³ (Cu/rGO). The spacers incorporation improved the conductivity



Fig. 5. Stability results of all evaluated nanomaterials.

of the cathode, where CB was outstanding up to 950 times for Co NPs and 68 times for Cu NPs. Fig. 5 shows a bar chart about the ADT comparison of the ORR performance evaluated at 0 and 3000 cycles. The spacers use provided higher stability in Cu NPs; only 12% of catalytic activity was a loss for MWCNT and unchanged for CB after 3000 cycles. In Co NPs, both spacers non-contribute to the stability of the catalytic activity.

The results indicate that the use of carbon spacers to separate graphene layers increments current density and decreases the Faradic charge resistance allowing the electrons flow in M/rGO/MWCNT Rivera-Lugo et al./ Revista Mexicana de Ingeniería Química Vol. 20, No. 1 (2021) 67-75

Ref.	Material	Particle size (nm)	Catalyst loading in WE (mg·cm ⁻²)	Current density (mA·cm ⁻²)
Cobalt system				
Yang et al. (2018)	Co-N, S-G	~2.0	0.15	~-5.6
Niu et al. (2019)	Co@G/N-GCNs	17.0-18.0	0.25	~-5.7
Wang et al. (2017)	Co-N/G	20.0-50.0	0.24	~-5.1
This work	Co/rGO/MWCNT	7.0	0.55	-9.4
Copper system				
Han et al. (2019)	Cu/G	Single atom	0.40	-5.6
Lv et al. (2014)	Pd-Cu NCs/rGOs	6.8	0.24	-4.6
Zheng et al. (2015)	G-Cu3Pd NCPs	5.3	_	-3.0
This work	Cu/rGO/MWCNT	2.2	0.55	-8.5

Table 1. Cobalt-graphene and copper-graphene systems previously reported in literature.

and M/rGO/CB. Likewise, the stability on the ORR performance increases in Cu/rGO/MWCNT and Cu/rGO/CB. These findings are consistent with that of Şanli et al. (2017) who show that CB into graphene layers reduces total resistance in the mass transport, improves the diffusion rate of oxygen to the catalytic sites and avoids graphene restacking. so incrementing their performance. Huang et al. (2012) indicate that CB increases the durability of the catalyst, agreeing with our results. About the use of MWCNT as a spacer, Cheng et al. (2013) reported the increasing mechanical stability and higher electrical conductivity, facilitating the electron transport, providing a large surface area and chemical stability, so the enhancing catalyst (Li et al. 2019). Another important finding was that the ORR performance of carbon nanocomposites was kept or improved comparing to free spacers catalysts or Pt/C.

In literature, there are a few reports about cobaltgraphene and copper-graphene systems (Table 1). For Co NPs, the size reported varied from 2 nm to 50 nm, showing current densities from -5.1 to 5.7 mA·cm⁻², as can be seen in Table 1. Our Co NPs presented a diameter of 7 nm, which lead us to infer that the improvement in the current densities reported compared to ours is the use of MWCNT spacer instead of particle size. In the case of copper system, we investigate that besides nanocomposites there is also graphene doping with Cu atoms, where an atom of copper substitutes an atom of carbon in graphene network (Yang et al., 2018), obtaining a current density of -5.6 mA·cm⁻². Also, we studied two reports of copper NPs, where the noble metal Pd was used, with particle size of 6.8 and 5.3 nm,

and current densities of -4.6 and -3.0 mA·cm⁻², being lower than our ORR results. In this system, our Cu NPs are smaller than reported (less than twice of size), demonstrating that a Cu NP of 2 nm in diameter along with MWCNT spacer shows higher performance for ORR.

Conclusions

In summary, we prepared carbon nanocomposites using MWCNT and CB spacers from nanocomposites of Co and Cu NPs on rGO. The results showed that the use of spacers increases the current density, conductivity, and lifetime of the catalyst. The ORR performance can be equal to or better than that of Pt catalysts. The findings will be of interest for the generation of Pt free catalysts and more stable for ORR in alkaline media.

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