



Article Ce–Metal–Organic Framework-Derived CeO₂–GO: An Efficient Electrocatalyst for Oxygen Evolution Reaction

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Abstract: The oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is a crucial half-reaction in water splitting. However, this reaction is kinetically sluggish owing to the four-electron $(4 e^{-})$ transfer process. Therefore, the development of low-cost, stable, highly efficient, and earth-abundant electrocatalysts for the OER is highly desirable. Metal oxides derived from metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are among the most efficient electrocatalysts for the OER. Herein, Ce–MOF-derived CeO_2 /graphene oxide (GO) composites were successfully prepared using a facile method. The composites with 0, 25, 50, and 100 mg GO were named CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3, respectively. The physicochemical characteristics of the electrocatalysts were assessed using several analytical techniques, including X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) analysis. The TEM results revealed that the CeO₂ had a sheet-like morphology and that a GO layer was noticeable in the synthesized CeO2-GO-3 composite. The characterization results confirmed the formation of impurity-free CeO2-GO composites. The OER activity and stability were measured using cyclic voltammetry (CV), linear sweep voltammetry (LSV), chronoamperometry (CA), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The CeO_2 -GO-3 electrocatalyst has a smaller Tafel slope ($176 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{dec}^{-1}$) and lower overpotential (240 mV) than the other electrocatalysts. In addition, it exhibited high cyclic stability for up to 10 h. Therefore, the inexpensive CeO2-GO-3 electrocatalyst is a promising OER candidate.

Keywords: cerium oxide–graphene oxide composite; room-temperature synthesis; electrocatalyst; oxygen evolution reaction

1. Introduction

Electrochemical water splitting is a promising method for producing pollution-free, clean hydrogen [1]. Water electrolysis consists of two half-reactions (OER and HER): the oxygen evolution reaction at the anode and the hydrogen (H₂) evolution reaction at the cathode [2]. However, the OER is kinetically slow owing to its four-electron transfer process [3]. Therefore, highly effective and reliable OER electrocatalysts must be developed to address this limitation. Noble metal oxide catalysts, such as RuO₂ and IrO₂, are among the most efficient electrocatalysts for OER activity; however, their high prices and scarcity limit their large-scale application [4]. Therefore, the development of OER electrocatalysts with high activity, long-term stability, and low cost is essential.

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are a new class of porous materials composed of metal ions or clusters connected to organic ligands via coordination bonds to form one-dimensional, two-dimensional, and three-dimensional (1D, 2D, and 3D) structures [5]. Recently, MOFs have emerged as promising candidates for energy- and environmentrelated applications [6,7] owing to their unique characteristics, such as high porosity, high



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Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). specific surface areas, good thermal stability, and ease of modification [8,9]. However, the poor electrical conductivity of pure MOFs limits their use in electrochemistry applications [10]. To overcome these limitations, the conversion of MOFs (MOFs as precursors or templates) into metal oxides, porous carbon materials, metal hydroxides [11], metal phosphides [12], metal sulfides [13], selenides [14], or their composites [11,15] has been widely investigated for electrochemical applications.

MOF-derived materials exhibit unique properties, such as tailorable morphologies, hierarchical porous structures, chemical and structural stabilities, high electrical conductivity, and simple surface functionalization [16]. Moreover, they play significant roles in various energy-related applications, such as lithium-ion batteries [17], OER [18], methanol oxidation reactions [19], urea oxidation reactions [20], fuel cells [21], and HER [22]. Gao Han et al. [23] synthesized a bimetal oxide CuCoO₂ using ZIF-67 and Cu-BTC (Co and Cu sources) through a single-step solvothermal procedure. The synthesized CuCoO₂ was used as an electrocatalyst for the OER. With a low overpotential, a smaller Tafel slope, and good durability in a 1.0 M KOH solution, the synthesized CuCoO₂ exhibited higher OER activity.

Cerium oxide, also known as ceria (CeO₂), has drawn considerable attention owing to its low cost, non-toxicity, earth-abundance, and tunable oxygen vacancies via a reversible transition between the Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ oxidation states, and high oxygen (O₂) storage capacity [24,25]. These properties make CeO₂ a promising material for various applications, such as photocatalytic, forensic, electrochemical [26], and humidity sensors [27], as well as catalytic oxidation [28], supercapacitors [29], and biological [30] applications. However, pure CeO₂ exhibits limited OER/ORR performance owing to its weak electronic conductivity [25,31]. The best method to improve the dispersibility and conductivity of CeO₂ is through deposition on conducting carbon-based materials [31].

Graphene oxide (GO) is the oxidized form of graphene with a layered structure and shows good mechanical, electrical, and thermal properties due to its structural and morphological characteristics [32,33]. GO structures comprise oxygen-based functional groups, such as hydroxyl (–OH), carboxyl (–COOH), epoxide (C–O–C), and carbonyl (C=O), that enable the dispersibility of the material in water [33,34]. In addition, as these oxygenated functional groups are chemically active, GO can be decorated with a variety of materials [35], such as metals, metal oxides, ZIFs, MOFs, and MOF-derived metal oxides. GO-based composites have a high potential for various applications in energyand environment-related fields, including dye removal (GO/SiO2NH2) [36], heavy metal removal (TiO₂/GO) [32], photochemical degradation of toluene (GO-TiO₂) [37], proton exchange membrane fuel cell (CeO₂–GO) [38], supercapacitors (GO, GO–CuO, and GO– ZnO) [39], OER (CeO₂/Cu-MOF/GO) [40], HER (Pd@GO/MOF) [41], OER, ORR, and Zn-air batteries (ZnCo–ZIF@GO) [42]. Malik et al. [43] synthesized CeO₂ from a GO@Ce– MOF precursor and used it as an electrocatalyst for OER applications. According to Dongyang et al. [44], a simple chemical co-precipitation process was used to produce CeO_2 nanoparticles decorated on GO. CeO_2/GO is used as an electrode material in supercapacitor applications; the CeO₂/GO electrode demonstrated exceptional supercapacitive behavior with high specific capacitance. Kasinath and Byrappa [45] synthesized hexagonal CeO2@nitrogen-doped GO composites for OER and ORR studies. The CeO2/NGO composites revealed a high anodic onset potential for ORR and OER activity (0.925 V vs. RHE for ORR and 1.2 V for OER) with a high current density in 0.5 M KOH.

In this study, we successfully synthesized Ce–MOF-derived CeO₂–GO composites using a simple, room-temperature synthesis method followed by annealing at 400 °C in the air for 1 h. The as-synthesized composites were used as electrocatalysts for the OER. Compared with the CeO₂–GO-1 and CeO₂–GO-2 composites, the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst exhibited higher OER activity and stability. The synthetic process is illustrated in Scheme 1.



Scheme 1. Schematic of the synthesis of the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. Characterization of the Electrocatalysts

Figure 1a displays the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the pristine CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO electrocatalysts. The XRD data of Ce–MOF, as shown in Figure S1, exhibit sharp and narrow peaks. All diffraction peaks matched the XRD patterns of previous reports [46,47]. After calcination, the Ce–MOF was fully converted into cubic-structured CeO₂. The four characteristic peaks at 28.4°, 33.1°, 47.3°, and 56.3° can be attributed to the (111), (200), (220), and (311) planes (Figure 1a) [48], which are in good agreement with JCPDS 00-004-0593. The average crystallite size was found using the Debye–Scherrer equation [49],

$$D = \frac{k\lambda}{\beta\cos\theta} \tag{1}$$

where *D* is the average crystallite size (nm), *k* is constant (0.9), λ is the wavelength of X-ray radiation (1.5416 Å), θ is diffraction angle, and β is the full-width half maxima of diffraction peaks. From XRD data, the average size was found to be in the range of 10 to 15 nm. The calculated lattice parameters and volume were found to be (for pure cubic structure a = b = c; $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^{\circ}$) a = 1.5411 Å and V = 161.05 Å³. Malik et al. [43] reported similar results for CeO₂ derived from the GO–Ce–MOF. A GO peak in the CeO₂–GO electrocatalysts was noted at 10.8° (001), indicating the presence of GO in all synthesized samples [50]. Compared with CeO₂–GO-1 and CeO₂–GO-2, the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst showed the peak (10.8°) intensity, increasing with an increase in graphene oxide.



Figure 1. (a) XRD pattern and (b) FT–IR spectra of the electrocatalysts.

The Fourier-transform infrared spectra (FTIR) of the pure CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO electrocatalysts are presented in Figure 1b. The FTIR spectrum of GO exhibits a prominent peak at 3409 cm⁻¹, which is attributed to the O–H stretching; further absorption peaks at 1717, 1606, 1258, and 1051 cm⁻¹ correspond to the C=O stretching vibrations, C=C, C–O–C bending, and C–O stretching groups [51–53], respectively. A Ce–O stretching vibration was observed in the CeO₂–GO composites at 535 cm⁻¹ [43,54]. The bands at 1621 and 1059 cm⁻¹ are related to the bending vibration of the hydroxyl (–OH) groups of water molecules [55] and Ce–O–Ce stretching vibration [56], respectively. Most of the GO peaks were significantly reduced after the CeO₂–GO composite formation.

The surface chemical states of the Ce–MOF-derived CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalysts were studied using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS; Figure 2a). A survey scan revealed the presence of Ce 3d, O 1s, and C 1s in the electrocatalysts. The Ce 3d spectra of the CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalysts were fitted to eight peaks: the Ce $3d_{3/2}$ peaks at 900.1/900.3, 906.7/906.8, and 916.0/916.1 eV; Ce $3d_{5/2}$ peaks at 881.6/881.8, 887.9/888.0, and 897.5/897.6 eV, which are associated with Ce⁴⁺; and peaks at 884.6/884.8 eV (Ce $3d_{5/2}$) and 903.1/903.3 eV (Ce $3d_{3/2}$) associated with Ce³⁺ (Figure 2c). These values are consistent with those reported in the literature [57–59]. The deconvolution of the O 1s spectra displayed two peaks at 528.6/528.8 and 531.0/531.1 eV (Figure 2b), which are attributed to the lattice and adsorbed oxygen [60,61]. In the composite, the C 1s spectrum (Figure 2d) peaks at 284.5/284.4, 285.8/286.1, 288.4/288.1, and 289.5 eV are ascribed to the C=C, C-O bonds, carbonyl (C=O), and carboxyl (HO–C=O) bonds [62–64], respectively. The 289.5 eV small peak vanished in the CeO₂ electrocatalyst but was clearly visible in the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst.



Figure 2. XPS analysis of the CeO₂ (**top view**) and CeO₂–GO-3 (**bottom view**) electrocatalysts: (**a**) survey scans, (**b**) O 1s, (**c**) Ce 3d, and (**d**) C 1s.

The morphologies of the Ce–MOF-derived CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO electrocatalysts were characterized via scanning electron microscopy (SEM; Figure 3). The CeO₂ sample had a rod-like morphology with the appearance of some merging rods having sheet-like structures (Figure 3a-1,a-2). Kohantorabi and Gholami [65] and Ye et al. [66] reported similar morphologies using benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxylic acid, and cerium nitrate hexahydrate, respectively. CeO₂ rods were visible in CeO₂–GO-1 and a few GO sheets were observed. The rods were uniformly spread on the GO sheets (Figure 3b-1,b-2). As the GO weight was increased, layered GO sheets with smooth surfaces were observed in the CeO₂–GO-2 and CeO₂–GO-3 samples (Figure 3c-1–d-2). These results confirmed the successful decoration of CeO₂ on the GO sheets.



Figure 3. SEM analysis of the electrocatalysts; low and higher magnification of: (**a-1,a-2**) CeO₂, (**b-1,b-2**) CeO₂–GO-1, (**c-1,c-2**) CeO₂–GO-2, and (**d-1,d-2**) CeO₂–GO-3.

Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) was performed to identify the elements in the electrocatalyst, and the corresponding results are shown in Figure S2. The EDS spectrum validated the presence of O, Ce, and C in the electrocatalyst. Figure 4a,b shows the TEM images of the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst. The synthesized CeO₂ was confirmed to have a sheet-like morphology in the TEM images, and a GO layer was visible in the synthesized composites. The HR-TEM images (Figures 4c and S3–S5) showed a fringe spacing of 0.311, 0.315, and 0.163 nm, which is consistent with the d-spacing of the (111), (111), and (311) planes of CeO₂. The corresponding selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern displayed the polycrystalline nature of the synthesized catalyst (Figure 4d). The ring pattern of the SAED results suggests a similar plane ((111), (222), and (311)); therefore, the electrocatalyst matched well with the XRD results.



Figure 4. TEM images of the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst at (**a**) low and (**b**) high resolutions; (**c**) HR-TEM; and (**d**) SAED pattern.

2.2. OER Activity

We further explored the OER activity of the synthesized electrocatalysts under alkaline conditions. Figure 5 shows the cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves of the CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalysts under the three-electrode setup at room temperature. The CV curves were measured at a constant potential between 0.1~0.6 V against Hg/HgO at various scan rates (5–100 mVs⁻¹). These CV curves revealed that the current density increased with increasing GO content in the electrocatalyst owing to the increase in ion transport between the electrocatalyst (CeO₂) and GO (CeO₂–GO-3). Similarly, cerium oxide/reduced GO nanocomposites exhibited excellent photocatalytic and supercapacitor activities owing to the increased charge transport between the electrocatalysts [67,68]. Additionally, CeO₂/multi-walled carbon nanotube nanocomposites have higher capacitive performance and long-term stability [69], and the electrocatalytic performance increased after the introduction of carbon-based materials. Comparative CV curves of the electrocatalysts at a standard scan rate (60 mV s^{-1}) are shown in Figure S6. All electrocatalysts exhibited cathodic peaks at approximately 0.472, 0.502, 0.489, and 0.514 V and anodic peaks at approximately 0.304, 0.303, 0.301, and 0.296 V for CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3, respectively. These CV curves reveal that CeO₂–GO-3 exhibits a larger integral area, suggesting its higher electrochemical performance. The CV curves retained faradaic peaks even at higher scan rates, indicating a fast charge transport in the electrode system.



Figure 5. CV curves of the electrocatalysts in 1.0 M KOH at various scan rates for (**a**) CeO₂, (**b**) CeO₂–GO-1, (**c**) CeO₂–GO-2, and (**d**) CeO₂–GO-3.

The electrochemical OER activity was measured in the same electrolyte using linear sweep voltammetry (LSV), as revealed in Figure 6a. However, the GO content, which increased the OER performance, also increased, and the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst showed a higher current density at higher potentials. The overpotential decreased with increasing GO content in the electrocatalysts. The overpotentials of the CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, CeO₂–GO-3, and RuO₂ electrocatalysts were 420, 360, 300, and 240, and 230 mV, respectively, at a fixed current density of 10 mA cm⁻². Among the electrocatalysts, CeO₂–GO-3 exhibited a lower overpotential; however, compared with standard RuO₂, there was not much difference. The electrocatalytic activity trend during the OER process followed the order CeO₂–GO-3 > CeO₂–GO-2 > CeO₂–GO-1 > CeO₂.



Figure 6. Electrochemical investigation of the electrocatalysts: (**a**) LSV curves, (**b**) Tafel slope, (**c**) bar diagram of the ECSA values, (**d**) Nyquist plots, and (**e**) chronoamperometry curves.

The Tafel slope is a crucial parameter for identifying the relationship between the overpotential and steady-state current density of electrocatalysts [66]. Figure 6b shows Tafel slopes of 261, 293, 185, 176, and 101 mV dec⁻¹ for CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, CeO₂–GO-3, and RuO₂ electrocatalysts, respectively. The CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst revealed a smaller Tafel slope than the other electrocatalysts, showing its higher OER activity owing to the higher percentage of GO. However, compared with RuO₂, the CeO₂–GO-3 Tafel slope value was higher. The electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) is directly related to the electrochemical performance of the electrocatalysts [69,70]. A higher ECSA indicates better electrochemical performance. In the present work, the ECSA was measured using the CV curves in the non-faradaic region; the corresponding CVs are shown in Figure S7. The CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst showed a higher ECSA (57.5 mF cm⁻²) than the other electrocatalysts (35.4, 39.4, and 40.5 mF cm⁻² for CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, and CeO₂–GO-2, respectively), as shown in Figure 6c.

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was used to analyze the electrochemical dynamics of the electrocatalysts. Figure 6d and Table S1 show the EIS analysis of the electrocatalysts. The CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst exhibited a smaller R_{ct} than the other electrocatalysts, revealing its lower charge transfer resistance owing to the increased electron transfer rate. The stability of electrocatalysts is a crucial parameter for OER activity. Therefore, chronoamperometry (CA) was used for the room-temperature analysis for approximately 10 h. Figure 6e depicts the CA curves of the electrocatalysts in a 1.0 M KOH solution, where the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalysts show a higher current density than the other electrocatalysts. Additionally, we compared our as-prepared materials to previously published OER electrocatalysts, which are depicted in Table S2.

The surface area plays a key role in electrochemical studies. In the present work, the surface area was measured via two different methods: the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller

(BET) method using nitrogen (N₂) gas adsorption and desorption and ECSA using the CV curves in the non-faradaic region of the electrocatalysts. Figure S8 shows the adsorption and desorption curves of the electrocatalysts. According to the IUPAC classification, these curves exhibit Type IV isotherms; all electrocatalysts showed similar type IV isotherms, which can be observed in mesoporous materials with a pore size of 2–50 nm [71]. The CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst exhibited a higher BET surface area compared with the other electrocatalysts. In particular, the BET surface values for CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3 were 61.58, 80.77, 101.48, and 110.35 m² g⁻¹, respectively. The pore volume and size of the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst were higher than those of the other electrocatalysts. These values are tabulated in the inset of Figure S8. Therefore, the electrocatalyst with a higher surface area exhibits higher electrocatalytic performance. In the present study, the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst showed a higher surface area and better electrocatalytic performance compared with the other electrocatalysts.

3. Materials and Methods

Ce–MOFs were synthesized using a previously reported method with slight modifications [46]. The required quantity of cerium nitrate hexahydrate (50.0 mM) was dissolved in a mixture of deionized water (DI) and ethanol (v/v of 1:1). Subsequently, trimesic acid (50.0 mM) was added to the milk-white suspension, which was stirred for 1 h at room temperature (RT). Thereafter, the temperature was increased until the solution evaporated. After cooling, the residue was collected and annealed at 400 °C in the air for 1 h to obtain the CeO₂ pure phase. The CeO₂–GO composites were prepared in the same manner with different GO contents (0, 25, 50, and 100 mg GO, denoted as CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3, respectively), as shown in Scheme 1. The chemicals, characterization, electrode preparation, and electrocatalytic performance followed are provided in the Supplementary Information (SI).

4. Conclusions

In this study, we successfully synthesized Ce–MOF-derived CeO₂ and CeO₂–GO electrocatalysts for the OER. The morphological and structural properties of the electrocatalysts were characterized. The TEM results indicated that the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst had a sheet-like morphology with an effective attachment to the GO sheets. The electrocatalysts produced using a low-cost, stable, and simple synthesis method demonstrated good OER activity in the 1.0 M KOH electrolyte. The CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst had a low overpotential of 240 mV at 10 mA·cm⁻² and a smaller Tafel slope (176 mV·dec⁻¹) than the CeO₂–GO-1 and CeO₂–GO-2 electrocatalysts. Moreover, the CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst exhibited considerable electrochemical stability over 10 h under alkaline conditions. Thus, this study provides a new method for developing non-noble-metal-based electrocatalysts for clean energy production.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at https: //www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/inorganics11040161/s1: Figure S1: XRD pattern of the pristine Ce–MOF; Figure S2: EDS analysis of CeO₂–GO-3 electrocatalyst; Figure S3: d-spacing line profiles corresponding to the 0.311 (111) plane; Figure S4: d-spacing line profiles corresponding to the 0.315 (111) plane; Figure S5: d-spacing line profiles corresponding to the 0.163 (311) plane; Figure S6: Comparative CV curves at standard scan rate in aqueous 1.0 M KOH electrolyte; Figure S7: CV curves of the electrocatalysts in (a) 1.0 M KOH; CeO₂, (b) CeO₂–GO-1, (c) CeO₂–GO-2, and d) CeO₂–GO-3; Figure S8: N₂adsorption–desorption profiles of CeO₂, CeO₂–GO-1, CeO₂–GO-2, and CeO₂–GO-3; Table S1: EIS fitted values and the equivalent circuit; Table S2: Comparison of OER performance of different electrocatalysts [43,72–81].

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Data Availability Statement: Data are available upon reasonable, by the Corresponding Authors.

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