

Full Length Article

Fe-Ce interaction-driven active site modulation in a porous MOF for oxygen evolution reaction

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ABSTRACT

Developing efficient and stable noble-metal-free electrocatalysts for the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is crucial for advancing renewable energy technologies. Herein, we synthesized Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC through a solvothermal approach, which exhibited a hierarchically porous morphology that maximize active site exposure and facilitates rapid mass transport. Synergistic Fe-Ce interactions optimize electronic structure, accelerate charge transfer through dynamic surface reconstruction, and form highly active FeOOH species that ensure long-term catalytic stability. Thus, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC achieves an ultra-low overpotential of 236 mV at 10 mA cm⁻² and Tafel slope of 52 mV dec⁻¹, significantly outperforming conventional RuO₂ catalysts, even though maintaining exceptional stability for 76 h at 100 mA cm⁻². Operando Raman and ATR-FTIR spectroscopy confirm that Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC follows an adsorbate evolution mechanism (AEM), where Ce facilitates Fe stabilization and enhances reaction kinetics. Furthermore, in two-electrode system Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC⁽⁺⁾ || Pt/C⁽⁻⁾ achieves low cell voltage of 1.65 V at 100 mA cm⁻² and maintains stability over 100 h at 100 mA cm⁻², demonstrating durability under practical conditions. These results underscore transformative nature of Fe-Ce interactions in optimizing charge transfer, stabilizing active sites, and enhancing OER efficiency, establishing Fe-based MOFs as remarkably effective, durable, and scalable catalyst for sustainable energy conversion and hydrogen production applications.

1. Introduction

In recent years, electrochemical water splitting has gained attention as a promising approach for efficient and clean hydrogen production, involving two key half-reactions anodic OER and cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). The OER is the rate-determining step for effective water electrolysis [1]. Nevertheless, because of the intrinsic kinetic limitations of the OER, a significant overpotential is often necessary to attain a high catalytic current density [2]. Hence, an effective electrocatalyst is crucial to enhance the OER rate. While precious metals like Ru and Ir demonstrate exceptional OER performance and stability in alkaline condition, their limited availability and elevated expense hinder broad adoption in catalytic applications [3,4]. In light of this, further exploring low-cost, high-performance

electrocatalysts is essential for enhancing OER efficiency and improving the economic viability of this energy conversion process.

MOFs representing an emerging class of porous crystalline substances made up of metallic nodes and carbon-based linker. Owing to their high surface area, varied architectures, accessible pore networks, and tunable active site arrangements make them highly promising for OER electrocatalysis [5–8]. Among them, Ce-MOFs have drawn considerable attention owing to their distinctive properties, such as the ability to facilitate strong interactions between cerium ions and other catalytic sites [9]. These features enable Ce-MOFs to be highly effective in various electrocatalytic reactions, including oxygen and hydrogen evolution. Ceria (CeO₂), an important lanthanide-based compound, features multiple valence states of Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺, allowing for dynamic surface oxygen exchange and efficient electronic conductivity [10]. This

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makes it a suitable platform for enhanced electron coupling in combination with other advanced materials. While CeO_2 on its own is not catalytically active, its ability to transition between Ce^{3+} and Ce^{4+} has recently been utilized as an OER promoter, driving the advancement of efficient electrocatalytic systems [11].

Introducing another metal is a promising approach to tailor the electronic structure of MOFs, enabling improved charge transfer during the OER, create favorable sites for intermediate adsorption and release, and improve catalytic efficiency. Additionally, second can modify the electronic configuration and band gap to fine-tune the binding energy of intermediates, thus accelerating the oxygen evolution [12]. For instance, Liao et al., prepared Co-MOF doped with cerium on carbon substrate (CoCe-MOF/CP), achieving excellent catalytic performance with a minimal overpotential and excellent durability. The study showed that Ce-doping optimized the electronic configuration of cobalt sites, enhancing OER performance [13]. Additionally, Zhao et al. developed ultrathin nickel-iron MOF nanosheets. Their ultrathin structure, hydrophilicity, and Ni/Fe bimetallic synergy result in high OER activity and stability. The study exhibited that Fe doping enhanced the OER activity through optimizing the reaction rate as well as lowering energy barrier [14]. Furthermore, Dai et al., developed a Fe-doped Co-MOF, where iron doping as well as amorphous interfaces enhance electron transfer, expose more active sites, and optimize the electronic configuration of the cobalt active center, resulting in excellent OER performance and remarkable stability [15]. Introducing Fe into the Ce-NDC framework can enhance its electronic structure, redox activity, and catalytic performance. As a transition metal, Fe forms Fe-O bonds that promote faster electron transfer, improved charge transport, and better adsorption of oxygen intermediates, which are key to efficient OER. The synergy between Ce and Fe combines Ce redox stability with Fe surface reactivity, creating new active sites and boosting catalytic efficiency. However, FeCe-NDC has not yet been reported, and we are exploring it for the first time as a potential enhancement for catalytic performance in OER catalysis.

Herein, we fabricated $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce}$ -NDC through solvothermal approach, exhibiting superior electrocatalytic OER activity. The $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce}$ -NDC catalyst demonstrated exceptional OER performance, achieving low overpotentials of 236 mV at 10 mA cm^{-2} and 305 mV at 100 mA cm^{-2} . It showed excellent durability of 76 h at 100 mA cm^{-2} . Dynamic surface reconstruction during OER was observed by *operando* Raman and ATR-FTIR analysis, wherein $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce}$ -NDC transformed into FeOOH , the actual active species, thereby facilitating efficient charge transfer and sustained catalytic activity. Furthermore, the two-electrode electrolyzer system $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ exhibited an impressive performance of 1.65 V at 100 mA cm^{-2} , and maintained robust stability for 100 h. Synergy of Fe, combined with Ce and carbon-rich framework, effectively optimized electronic interactions, enhanced the stability of active sites, and significantly improved OER activity and durability.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Chemical reagents

Ruthenium chloride (RuCl_3), commercial Pt/C (20 wt% Pt), cerium (III) nitrate hydrate ($\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 99 %), and iron (II) nitrate nonahydrate ($\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, ≥ 98 %) were obtained from Inno-chem. Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4 , 98.0 %), potassium hydroxide (KOH, 98.0 %), absolute ethanol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, ≥ 99 %), 2,6-naphthalenedicarboxylic acid (NDC, ≥ 99 %), N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF, ≥ 99 %), Nafion solution (5 wt%), and nickel foam (NF) were bought from Xilong Science Co., Ltd. NF with width of 1.6 mm, was cut into pieces of $1.5 \text{ cm} \times 3 \text{ cm}$. All the chemicals used were of high purity suitable for analysis and were employed as received without additional purification steps.

2.2. Fabrication of Ce-NDC

The fabrication of Ce-NDC was carried out by dissolving 1 mM of Ce ($\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 1.5 mM of NDC in a solution of 30 mL DMF, 5 mL ethanol, and 5 mL water. The solution was sonicated for 20 min to ensure complete dissolution of the reagents. Pre-treated NF, which had been cleaned in 0.5 M H_2SO_4 , ethanol, and deionized water for 10 min each, was immersed in the prepared solution. The solution was then placed into a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave, sealed, and heated at 120°C for 10 h. After cooling to room temperature, the sample was thoroughly washed multiple times with ethanol and dried overnight at 60°C , yielding the Ce-NDC/NF electrocatalyst with a mass loading of 2.4 mg cm^{-2} .

2.3. Fabrication of Fe_xCe -NDC

The fabrication of Fe_xCe -NDC was carried out using the same method as for Ce-NDC, with the addition of varying amounts of $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ($X = 0.5, 1, 1.5$, and 2 mM) to 1 mM $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 1.5 mM NDC in a mixture of 30 mL DMF, 5 mL ethanol, and 5 mL water. The solution was sonicated for 20 min to ensure complete dissolution of the reagents. Pre-treated NF, was immersed in the prepared solution. The solution was then placed into a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave, sealed, and heated at 120°C for 10 h. After cooling to room temperature, the sample was washed with ethanol and dried overnight at 60°C , yielding the Fe_xCe -NDC/NF electrocatalyst with mass loading of 2.1, 1.8, 2.9 and 3.1 mg cm^{-2} .

2.4. Fabrication of RuO_2 and Pt/C electrodes

RuCl_3 was milled in a mortar until a fine, homogeneous powder was obtained, next calcined in air at 400°C for 3 h to produce RuO_2 . To prepare the electrode materials, 2.1 mg of commercial Pt/C powder or 3 mg of RuO_2 was dispersed in a solution of 230 μL deionized water, 230 μL $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, and 5 μL of 5 wt% Nafion. The resulting suspension was subjected to ultrasonication for 30 min to ensure complete dispersion. After sonication, 230 μL of this ink was drop-cast onto a $1 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm}$ piece of NF and allowed to air-dry at room temperature.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and characterization

$\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce}$ -NDC was grown directly onto NF through solvothermal approach (Fig. 1a). Cleaned NF was placed in a Teflon-lined autoclave containing a solution of NDC, $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, then heated at 120°C for 10 h. Once cooled, the foam was lifted out and dried at 60°C overnight. The strong X-ray diffraction (XRD) signals from its $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce}$ -NDC layer obscured any minor phases. To overcome this, the precipitate that had settled in the reactors bottom were collected by centrifugation, dried at 60°C overnight, and used for subsequent XRD analysis.

The coordination environment of the metal ions within the framework plays a crucial role in its structural stability and connectivity. The structural unit of the MOF consists of the Ce and Fe metal ions, which are coordinated to the oxygen atoms of the carboxylate groups in NDC ligands. Ce, with its larger ionic radius, forms a more flexible coordination environment. At the same time, Fe is coordinated to the oxygen atoms of the carboxylate groups, forming Fe-O bonds with a preferred octahedral geometry [16]. Additionally, Fe forms bridging interactions between NDC molecules, linking the Fe centers. The Fe-O-Ce bridging interactions, where both metals coordinate to the same oxygen atoms of the carboxylate groups, create a stable bimetallic framework. These structural units throughout the framework, significantly enhance the structural integrity and connectivity of the MOF (Fig. S1). The structural analysis of the catalysts was conducted using XRD. The pristine Ce-NDC

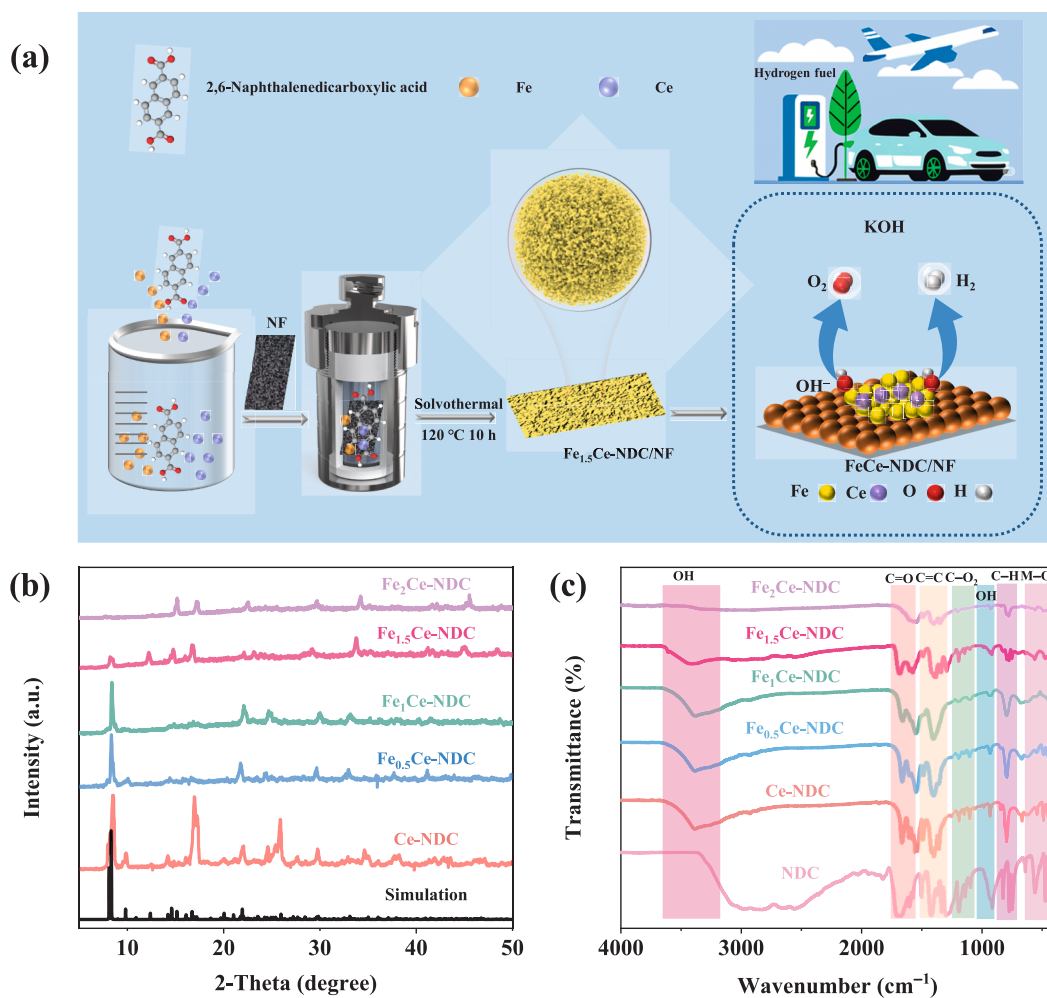


Fig. 1. (a) Scheme of the preparation method and the OER mechanism on the FeCe-NDC/NF surface. (b) XRD patterns of Ce-NDC and Fe_xCe-NDC, along with simulated data from the Ce-NDC crystal structure. (c) FTIR spectra of NDC, Ce-NDC, and Fe_xCe-NDC.

exhibits characteristic diffraction peaks at approximately 8.52° , which align well with theoretical simulations of the Ce-NDC structure, as described in the crystallographic information file (CIF, Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre No. 989479) [17]. Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC, Fe₁Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC retained a similar crystal structure to Ce-NDC, indicating that the introduction of Fe without significant alteration to the overall framework (Fig. 1b). Notably, the diffraction peak intensity diminishes with increasing Fe concentration, signifying successful Fe incorporation into the Ce-NDC. In Fe₂Ce-NDC, the diffraction peaks are almost entirely attenuated, indicating significant structural disruption of the Ce-NDC due to high Fe concentration, as verified by SEM. These findings highlight the effect of diverse concentrations of Fe on the crystallinity and its structural integrity of the Ce-NDC. The Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrum of synthesized catalysts reveals several key functional groups (Fig. 1c). The extended broad peaks at $3000\text{--}3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicate the occurrence of hydroxyl. The C=O stretching vibration around 1674 cm^{-1} and C=C stretching at $1400\text{--}1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ suggest the presence of carbonyl and conjugated C-C bonds from the NDC ligand, which contribute to the structural stability of the framework [18]. Additionally, the C-O₂ stretch around 1200 cm^{-1} shows the existence of carboxylate groups, while the second OH stretch below 918 cm^{-1} reflects hydroxyl groups involved in metal-oxygen interactions [19]. The C-H and metal-oxygen (M-O) stretching below 1000 cm^{-1} further emphasizes Ce-O and Fe-O bonding, affirming the incorporation of Ce and Fe into the structure.

For surface morphology and microstructure analysis, scanning

electron microscopy (SEM) was used to examine the various synthesized materials [20,21]. Figs. 2a-b show the hierarchically porous, nanosheet-based morphology of Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, with a nanostructured or clustered and aggregated appearance. Similarly, Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC and Fe₁Ce-NDC exhibit similar morphologies (Figs. S2a-b). In contrast, Fe₂Ce-NDC presents a more uniform and nanosheet-based morphology (Fig. S2c). The SEM images of Ce-NDC and the various Fe_xCe-NDC catalysts reveal noticeable changes in the morphology as the concentration of Fe increases. Specifically, as Fe concentration increases, the morphology shifts from hierarchically porous, nanosheet to more organized structures. These findings indicate that the Fe concentration is pivotal in influencing the morphology. Higher Fe content facilitates the formation of more uniform less porous structures, especially in Fe₂Ce-NDC.

The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image reveals that Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits a flower-like, nanosheet-based architecture with loosely stacked layers and abundant porosity, indicative of high-surface area and numerous exposed active sites (Fig. 2c). High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) image of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits indistinct lattice fringes, attributed to localized structural defects and its electron beam irradiation sensitivity (Fig. 2d). MOFs are highly susceptible to damage under HR-TEM conditions [22–24]. Furthermore, selected area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC displays diffuse rings, indicating a partially or low crystalline structure (Fig. 2e). This observation and the hierarchically porous morphology seen in SEM, suggests that Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits a partially crystalline

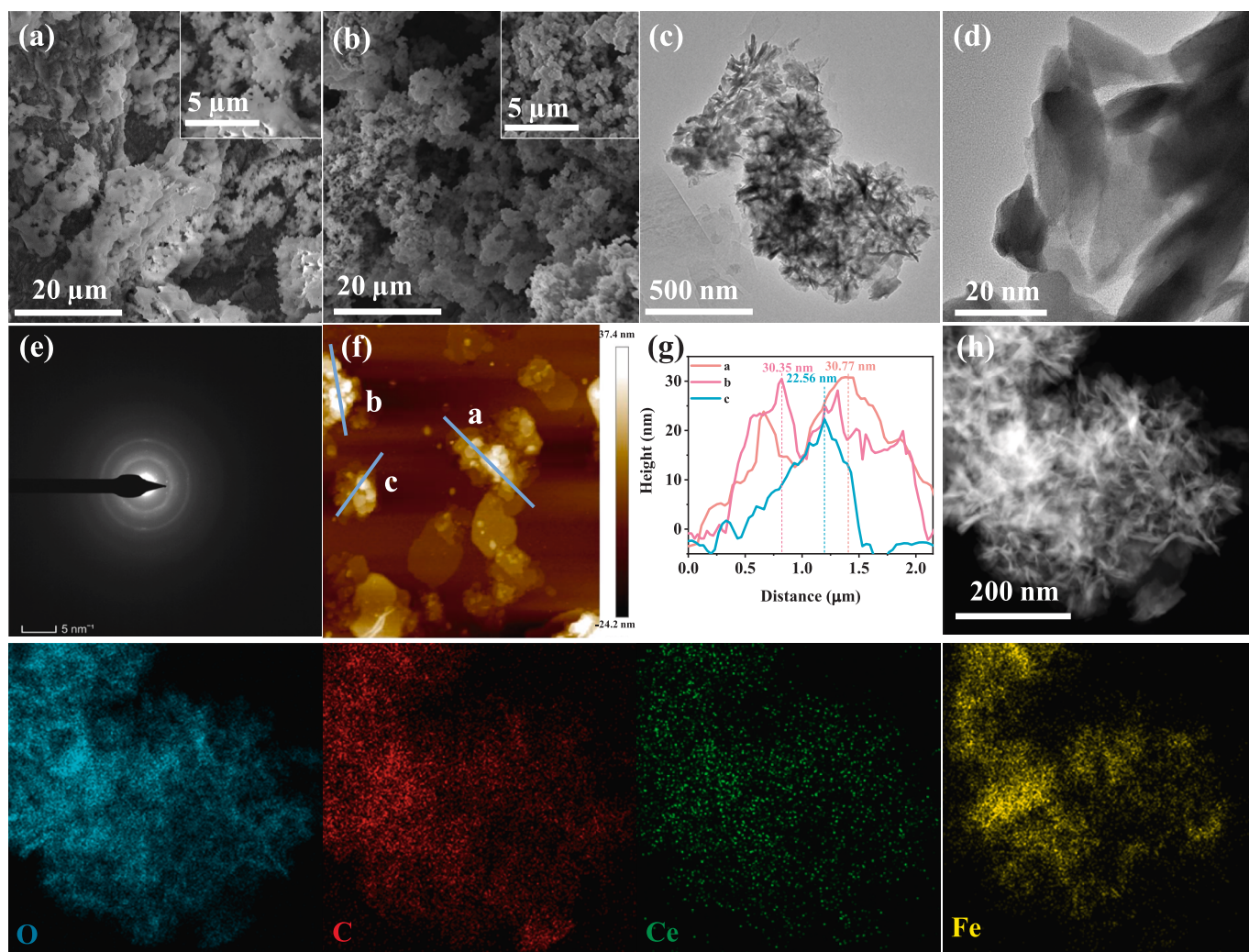


Fig. 2. SEM images of (a) Ce-NDC and (b) Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. (c) TEM, (d) HR-TEM, (e) SAED pattern, (f) AFM, (g) corresponding height profiles, (h) HAADF-STEM and elemental mapping images of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC.

framework with localized structural disorder characteristics commonly found in MOF-based materials [25]. The diffuse nature of the rings further aligns with the observation that the Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC structure is sensitive to electron beam irradiation, which can lead to structural degradation and localized disorder, as seen in the HR-TEM results. The atomic force microscopy (AFM) image shows the surface morphology, showing distinct features with height variations (Fig. 2f). The corresponding height profiles indicate an average thickness of about 27.89 nm of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC (Fig. 2g), highlighting the nanometer-scale surface roughness that contributes to the materials high surface area for catalytic reactions. Additionally, high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) further confirms the flower-like, porous nanosheet architecture of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. At the same time, elemental mapping reveals that O, Ce, Fe, and C are homogeneously dispersed throughout the structure (Fig. 2h) [26,27]. The energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) spectra, confirms the fruitful preparation, structural integrity, and high purity of the Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC catalyst. Prominent peaks for C and O correspond to the organic ligand framework, while distinct peaks for Fe and Ce validate their incorporation into the MOF structure (Fig. S3).

The thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and derivative thermogravimetry (DTG) of Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC show distinct thermal behaviors. For Ce-NDC, the first weight loss of 2.59 % occurs at 113 °C, ascribed to the removal of adsorbed moisture, after that 10.7 % loss at 251 °C, indicating the decomposition of the NDC ligand. A further loss of

2.57 % is observed at 275 °C, and the significant weight loss of 42.87 % occurs around 377 °C, corresponding to the breakdown of the organic linker (Fig. 3a) [28]. In contrast, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits a smaller initial weight loss of 1.99 % at 167 °C, reflecting lower moisture retention [29]. The experiences additional weight losses of 5.03 % at 277 °C, 7.07 % at 354 °C, and 22.16 % at 422 °C, with the latter corresponding to the decomposition of the organic linker (Fig. 3b) [14]. The Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC demonstrates higher thermal robustness compared to Ce-NDC, with a more stable residual mass. The improved thermal stability of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC may enhance its suitability for OER electrocatalysis, as higher thermal stability helps maintain phase integrity and catalytic activity under operating conditions [30].

High resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used to examine the valence states and elemental arrangement of Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC materials. The XPS survey spectrum (Fig. 3c) confirmed the presence of C, O, Ce, and Fe, which aligns with the findings from the EDS analysis. The C 1 s spectra was deconvoluted into 3 different peaks, assigned to C=C/C-C, C-O and C=O at 284.59, 285.51, and 288.3 eV, respectively (Fig. S4) [22,31,32]. As depicted in Fig. 3d, the O 1 s XPS spectra displays peaks, assigned to metal-O, O-C=O, and H₂O_{ads} at 529.88, 531.11, and 532.17 eV [33]. The Ce 3d XPS spectra of Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibit four characteristic spin-orbit doublets, with prominent peaks at 881.10 (1) and 885.05 eV (2) in 3d_{5/2} region, which are assigned to Ce³⁺, confirming the dominant trivalent cerium configuration. Peaks at 889.09 (3) and 894.14 eV (4), assigned to Ce⁴⁺, are

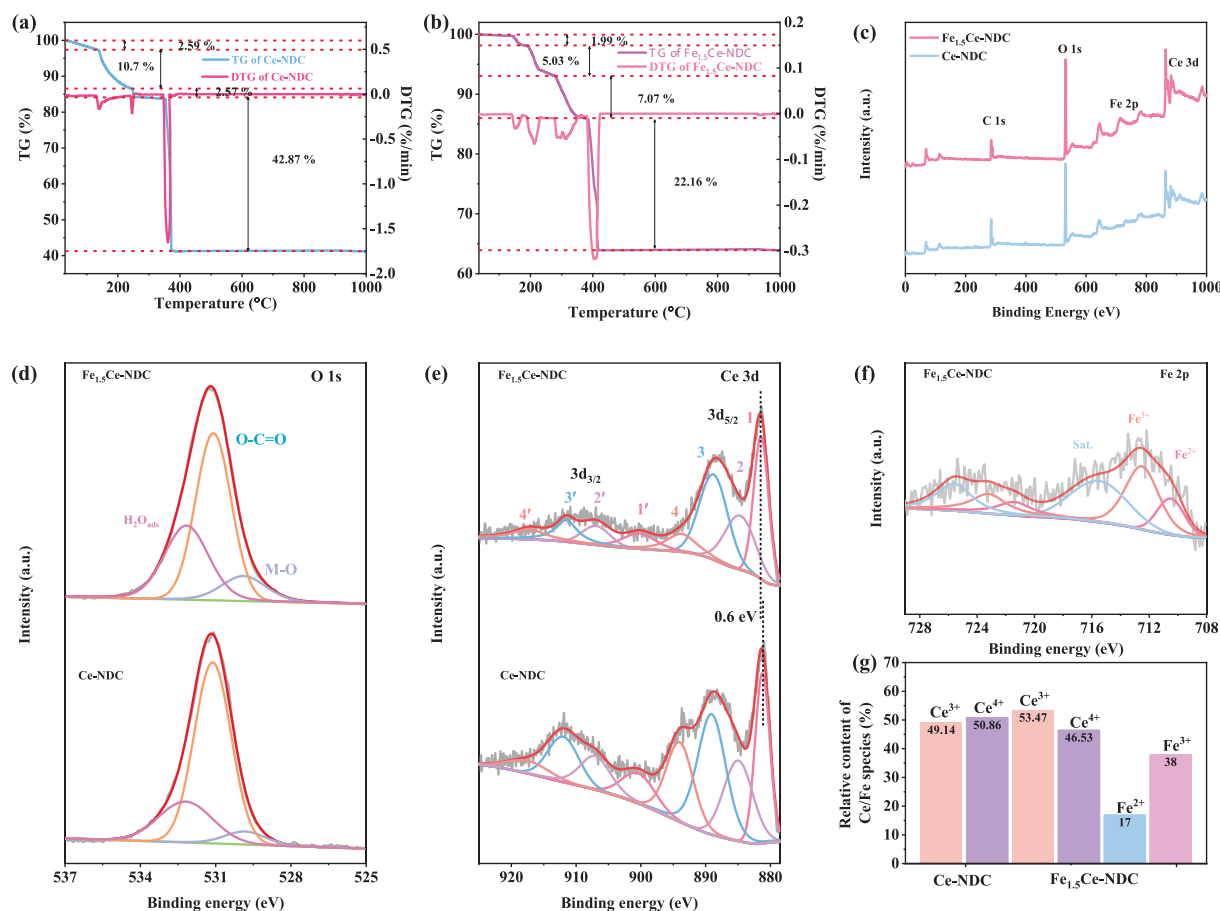


Fig. 3. TG/DTG curves of (a) Ce-NDC and (b) Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. (c) High-resolution XPS survey. (d) O 1s, (e) Ce 3d, (f) Fe 2p, and (g) relative distribution of Ce and Fe species for Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC.

attributed to the 3d_{5/2} region, while the peaks at 900.69 (1'), 907.12 (2'), 912.25 (3'), and 917.45 eV (4') correspond to both Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ species, representing the typical features of the 3d_{3/2} region [34–36]. These observations demonstrate that both Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ are present in the Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, with the presence of Ce³⁺ being significant for the catalytic activity and electron transfer processes [37]. The minor shifts (0.6 eV) in peak positions for Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC suggest that Fe incorporation slightly influences the electronic structure of Ce but does not drastically change the oxidation state distribution of Ce. Fe 2p XPS spectra of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC (Fig. 3f) illustrates peaks at 710.54 eV and 721.45 eV assigned to Fe²⁺ and 712.50 eV and 723.22 eV for Fe³⁺, respectively, confirming the coexistence of both oxidation states. Satellite peaks at 715.77 eV and 725.50 eV is observed [38–40]. Relative contents of Ce³⁺, Ce⁴⁺, and Fe²⁺, Fe³⁺ species in Ce-NDC and Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC determined by XPS analysis (Fig. 3g). In Ce-NDC, Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ account for 49.14 % and 50.86 %, respectively, indicating an almost equal distribution of these oxidation states. However, Ce³⁺ increases to 53.47 % while Ce⁴⁺ decreases to 46.53 % in Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, suggesting that iron introduction favors a higher proportion of Ce³⁺, thereby enhancing catalytic activity. Additionally, the presence of Fe²⁺ (17.10 %) and Fe³⁺ (38.19 %) in Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC creates an efficient Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ redox pair vital for electron transfer during OER.

3.2. OER electrocatalytic efficiency

OER electrocatalytic activity was assessed using a standard three-electrode configuration, including a reference, counter, and working electrode (Fig. 4a). All linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) measurements were adjusted with full (100 %) *i*R compensation. As illustrated in

Fig. 4b, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC demonstrates the most effective electrocatalytic performance among all synthesized catalysts, achieving a low overpotential of 236 mV at 10 mA cm⁻². This value is significantly lower than those of Ce-NDC (316 mV), Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC (303 mV), Fe₁Ce-NDC (293 mV), Fe₂Ce-NDC (250 mV), and also RuO₂ (265 mV). At elevated current densities, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC maintains superior activity, requiring only 281 mV at 50 mA cm⁻² and 305 mV at 100 mA cm⁻², as shown in Fig. 4c, highlighting its outstanding electrocatalytic efficiency. Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits excellent OER kinetics with a Tafel slope of 52 mV dec⁻¹ (Fig. 4d), outperforming Ce-NDC (103 mV dec⁻¹), Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC (88 mV dec⁻¹), Fe₁Ce-NDC (83 mV dec⁻¹), Fe₂Ce-NDC (59 mV dec⁻¹), and RuO₂ (69 mV dec⁻¹). This suggests that improved OER kinetics of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. Notably, the electrochemical performance of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC surpasses that of previously documented OER electrocatalysts, as shown in Fig. 4e and Table S1. To better understand the enhanced OER activity, cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurement was carried out in the non-Faradaic region at several scan rates to calculate the electric double-layer capacitance (*C*_{dl}) (Figs. S5a–e), facilitating for a more detailed investigation of the ECSA. Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC showed a *C*_{dl} value of 3.9 mF cm⁻², surpasses Ce-NDC 1.7 mF cm⁻² (Fig. 4f), indicating its enhanced electric double-layer capacitance. Additionally, the Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibited an ECSA of 97 cm² (Fig. 4g), highlighting the increased exposure of active sites due to its unique porous structure. This enhanced surface area improved mass transfer efficiency and overall catalytic performance [41]. As shown in Fig. 4h, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibited the lowest charge transfer resistance of 1.83 Ω, which highlights its superior electron transfer during the OER. In comparison, Ce-NDC, Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC, Fe₁Ce-NDC, Fe₂Ce-NDC and RuO₂ showed charge transfer resistances of 2.49 Ω, 9.48 Ω, 14.32 Ω, 17.53 Ω, and 3.75 Ω,

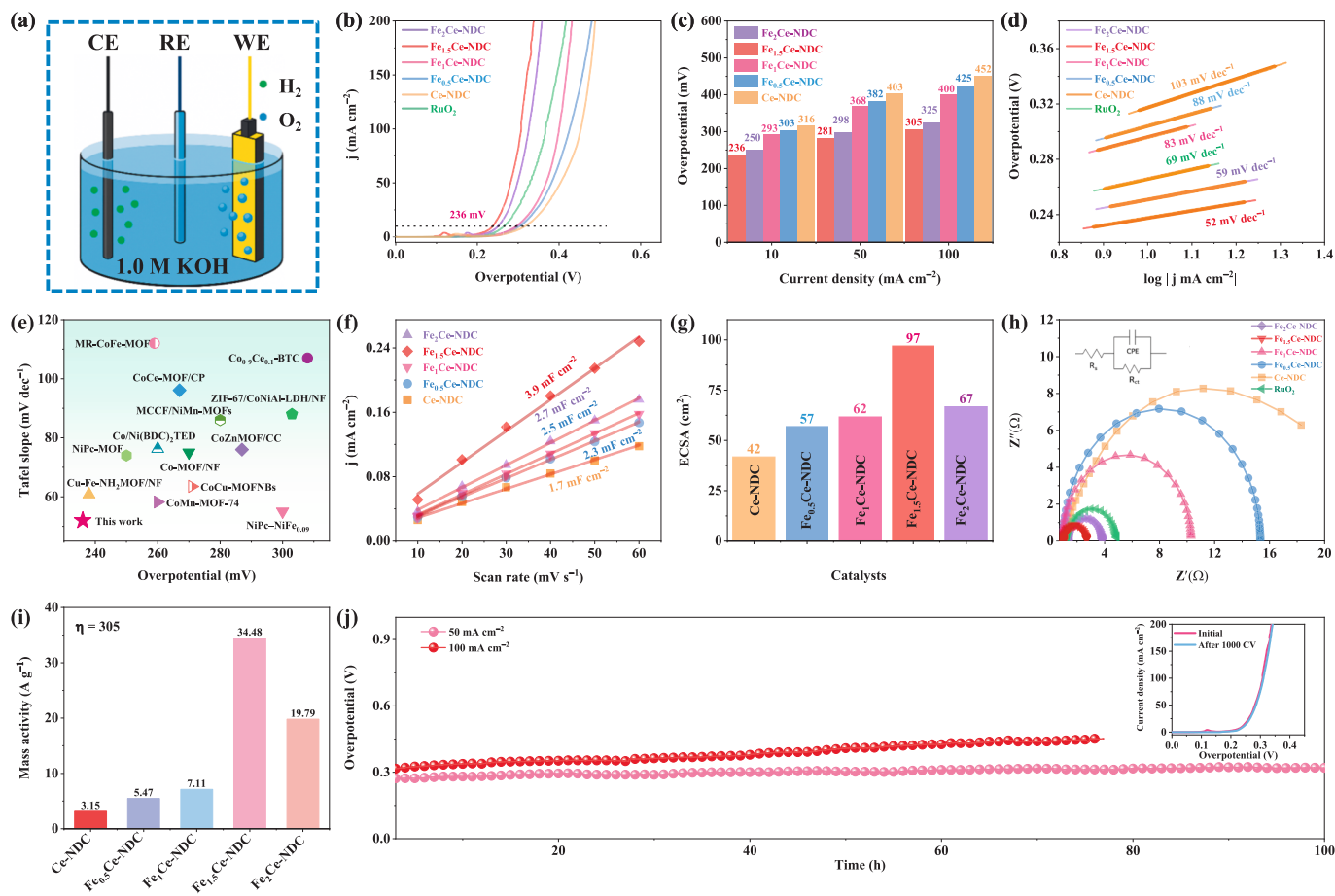


Fig. 4. OER performance in 1.0 M KOH solution. (a) A schematic of an electrochemical cell with distinct electrodes (CE, RE, WE) and gas evolution (O₂ and H₂). (b) LSV polarization curves. (c) Comparison of overpotential at various mA cm⁻². (d) Tafel slopes. (e) Overpotential and Tafel slope comparison with literature. (f) C_{dl} plots. (g) ECSA comparison. (h) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy of prepared catalysts. (i) The mass activity values at overpotential of 305 mV. (j) Long-term durability test at 50 mA cm⁻² and 100 mA cm⁻² (inset: polarization curves before and after 1000 CV cycles).

respectively. These values underscore the efficient electron transfer capabilities of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC [42–44]. The corresponding equivalent circuit diagram, which complements the electrochemical data, is shown in the inset of Fig. 4h. Incorporation of Fe into the Ce-NDC structure enhanced electrical conductivity, leading to improved catalytic performance [45]. The mass catalytic activity of the different catalysts was calculated based on the current density values at a specific overpotential ($\eta = 305$ mV). As shown in the Fig. 4i, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibited the highest mass activity of 34.48 A g⁻¹, followed by Fe₂Ce-NDC with 19.79 A g⁻¹, Fe₁Ce-NDC with 7.11 A g⁻¹, Fe_{0.5}Ce-NDC with 5.47 A g⁻¹, and Ce-NDC with 3.15 A g⁻¹ [46]. These values indicate the superior catalytic performance of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC in comparison to other materials, underscoring its enhanced electron transfer capabilities. For real-world applications, long-term stability is essential for the effective performance of electrocatalysts. To assess the stability of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, polarization curves were recorded as well as showed negligible changes after 1000 CV cycles (inset, Fig. 4j), highlighting its superior cycling stability. Moreover, the catalyst sustained a steady performance at 50 mA cm⁻² for 100 h and 100 mA cm⁻² for 76 h with negligible activity loss (Fig. 4j), affirming its excellent long-term durability.

3.3. Operando electrochemical and spectroscopic insights into the OER mechanism

The electrochemical redox reaction of the active metal species in the system determines the structural evolution of catalysts during OER. This transformation creates highly active sites, which are crucial for

enhancing OER efficiency. *In-situ* electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted to monitor the evolution of the catalysts and assess charge transfer behavior at the catalytic interface, thereby gaining deeper insights into these dynamic changes [47–49]. As the applied potential increases, the phase angle undergoes a noticeable shift (Figs. 5a–b), indicating enhanced reaction kinetics and improved adsorption of reactants. Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits a significant reduction in phase angle across the applied potential range compared to Ce-NDC, suggesting that Fe incorporation facilitates a more efficient charge transfer process and promotes surface activation [12,50]. Notably, the complete transition for Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC occurs at 1.45 V, whereas Ce-NDC undergoes this transition at a slightly higher potential of 1.55 V, further highlighting the improved electrocatalytic kinetics of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC [51,52]. Additionally, the EIS-derived Bode plots (Fig. 5c) provide further insights into the interfacial behavior, revealing phase angle variations at different applied potentials. The peaks in the low-frequency region (10⁻²–10¹ Hz) are associated with the OER process [34]. As depicted in Figs. S6a–b, the consistently lower phase angles of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC relative to Ce-NDC indicate that Fe incorporation enhanced electron transfer efficiency. This enhanced charge transport expedites reaction kinetics and significantly elevates the OER performance. Collectively, these results elucidate the critical role of Fe incorporation in Ce-NDC, enabling superior catalytic activity through enhanced charge transfer dynamics and structural stability.

To explore the electrochemical redox transition of Fe²⁺/Fe³⁺ during OER, *operando* Raman was performed across a range of potentials, from the OCP up to 1.48 V. The *in-situ* Raman spectrum reveal a progressive

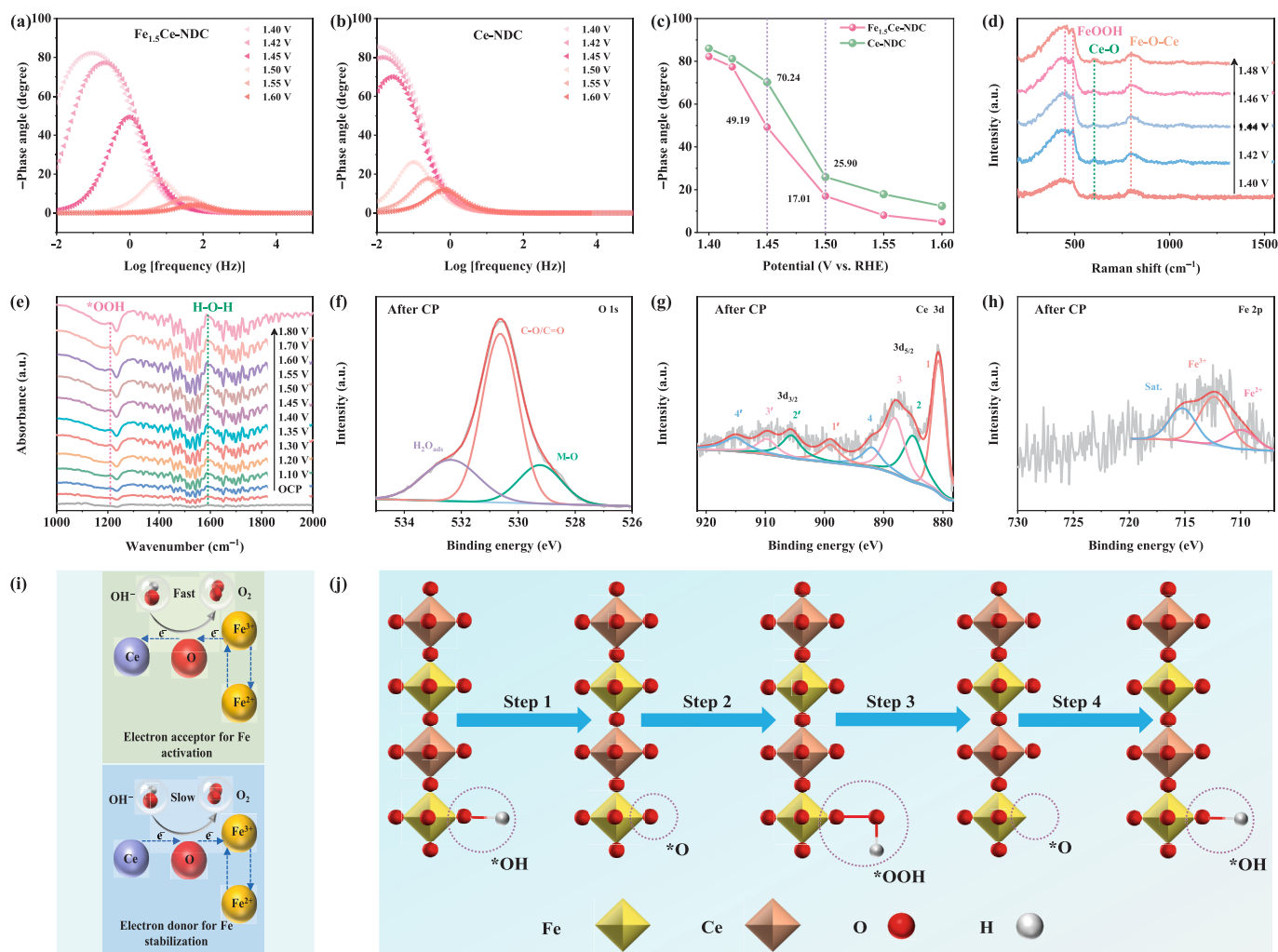


Fig. 5. Operando electrochemical and spectroscopic analysis. (a) Bode plots of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC and (b) Ce-NDC different applied potentials (vs. RHE). (c) Phase angle response as a function of applied potential for Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC and Ce-NDC. (d) Operando Raman spectra of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC at different applied potentials (vs. RHE). (e) ATR-FTIR spectra of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC at various applied potentials (vs. RHE). High-resolution XPS spectra of (f) O 1s, (g) Ce 3d, and (h) Fe 2p of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC after stability test. (i) Schematic illustration of the electron transfer mechanism in Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC during the OER process. (j) Stepwise AEM for Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC during the OER process.

transformation of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, accompanied by the formation of FeOOH, Ce-O, and Fe-O-Ce species as the potential is introduced (Fig. 5d). A broad peak in the 450–500 cm⁻¹ range corresponds to the E_g bending and A_{1g} stretching modes of FeOOH, confirming the formation of an electrochemically active phase during OER [53,54]. Notably, the Ce-O vibration is observed at 604 cm⁻¹ and Fe-O-Ce bonding appears at 785 cm⁻¹, further confirming the interaction between Fe and Ce during the OER process. These observations indicate that FeOOH is the dominant active species, while the presence of Ce is essential for stabilizing the structure and improving electron transfer.

To better understand the OER mechanism, it is essential to identify the intermediate species that form during the catalytic process. Operando attenuated total reflectance Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) was employed to track the evolution of oxygen-containing species. This technique provides real-time experimental evidence of reaction intermediates, offering a clearer understanding of the catalytic pathway. As shown in Fig. 5e, the *in-situ* ATR-FTIR spectra highlight the emergence of key intermediates during the OER. No distinct absorption bands are detected at OCP, confirming the absence of active oxygen species on the catalyst surface. However, as the applied potential increases, characteristic vibrational peaks emerge, forming key intermediates involved in the OER pathway. As the potential

increases within the OER region, distinct peaks appear at 1207 cm⁻¹, corresponding to the formation of *OOH species, a crucial intermediate in the AEM. Additionally, the H-O-H stretching vibration appears at 1596 cm⁻¹ assigned to the interaction of H₂O molecules with the catalytic surface, playing a role in the reaction mechanism [55–59]. These spectral observations validate the AEM, where sequential formation of oxygen species (*OOH). The increasing intensity of these peaks with higher applied potentials indicates the progressive accumulation of reactive intermediates, confirming their active role in enhancing the OER activity of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. This further supports the superior catalytic performance of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, as it efficiently facilitates oxygen evolution by the stabilization and conversion of key reaction intermediates.

After completing the OER stability test, SEM and XPS analyses were conducted to investigate the morphology and surface chemical states of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC. As shown in Fig. S7, the SEM analysis indicated slight changes in the morphology of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC after the stability test. The compositional transformation of Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC after the OER process was further validated (Figs. S8–9). The O 1s XPS spectra shows a negative shift, accompanied by a significant increase in the M–O peak intensity, indicating notable modifications in the oxygen bonding environment (Fig. 5f) [60,61]. This shift suggests stronger M–O interactions and potential structural rearrangements within the Fe–O–Ce framework. The

Ce 3d XPS spectra show a negative shift attributed to the change in the Ce oxidation state and the interaction with Fe/O species (Fig. 5g), suggesting that the enhanced redox activity of $\text{Ce}^{3+}/\text{Ce}^{4+}$ during the OER resulted in a redistribution of electron density. Similarly, Fe 2p XPS spectra reveals a noticeable reduction in Fe^{2+} area, accompanied by an increase in Fe^{3+} area, indicating the oxidation of Fe species to form FeOOH during the reaction (Fig. 5h). A slight negative shift in the Fe 2p peak was observed, suggesting changes in the electronic environment and possible changes in the metal–oxygen interactions [62,63]. These negative shifts in O 1s, Ce 3d, and Fe 2p peaks suggest the formation of active catalytic sites such as FeOOH , crucial in boosting OER performance. This dynamic surface reconstruction highlights the synergistic interaction between Fe and Ce, contributing to enhanced catalytic activity. These findings collectively demonstrate that the $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$ catalyst undergoes dynamic surface reconstruction during OER, where FeOOH serves as the active site, stabilized by Fe–Ce interactions, leading to enhanced charge transfer and superior catalytic performance.

Furthermore, Fig. 5i illustrates the dual role of Ce in modulating Fe activity during the OER. In the fast activation stage, Ce initially acts as an electron acceptor to facilitate Fe activation, promoting Fe^{2+} oxidation to Fe^{3+} , as confirmed by *operando* Raman spectra with FeOOH formation. This rapid electron transfer is crucial for initiating the OER mechanism [64]. In contrast, during the slow stabilization stage, Ce acts as an electron donor, helping to maintain Fe^{3+} oxidation states and preventing deactivation, ensuring prolonged catalytic efficiency, as evidenced by ATR-FTIR spectra showing OOH (1207 cm^{-1}) intermediate [65]. The presence of Ce–O (604 cm^{-1}) and Fe–O–Ce (785 cm^{-1}) bonds in *operando* Raman, further highlights the synergistic Fe–Ce interaction, enhancing charge transfer and active site stability. The AEM governing the OER on the $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$ catalyst proceeds through a four-step pathway (Fig. 5j), as confirmed by *operando* Raman and ATR-FTIR. In Step 1, hydroxide (*OH) ions from the electrolyte adsorb onto the active metal sites, initiating the reaction. This adsorption step is crucial for the subsequent oxidation process. In Step 2, the *OH species undergo deprotonation, forming *O intermediates. This step facilitates

the oxidation of metal centers, allowing for the activation of oxygen species. In Step 3, an additional hydroxide ion interacts with the *O species, forming an *OOH intermediate. This intermediate is highly reactive and plays a key role in oxygen evolution. Finally, in Step 4, the *OOH species further deprotonate, releasing molecular oxygen (O_2) and regenerating the catalytic site for the next reaction cycle [14,66–68].

3.4. Overall water splitting

To assess the overall water-splitting performance, a two-electrode system was set up with $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$ as the anode and commercial Pt/C as the cathode (Fig. 6a). A reference electrolyzer was constructed using Pt/C as the cathode and RuO_2 as the anode ($\text{Pt/C}^{(-)} \parallel \text{RuO}_2^{(+)}$) for performance comparison. As shown in the LSV curve (Fig. 6b), the $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ exhibited a lower operating voltage of 1.51 V at 10 mA cm^{-2} , surpassing the performance of the $\text{RuO}_2^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ system. The $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ required lower voltages to achieve higher current densities, requiring only 1.65, 1.96, and 2.24 V to reach 100, 500, and 1000 mA cm^{-2} , respectively, confirming its superior catalytic efficiency (Fig. 6c). As shown in Fig. 6d and Table S2, the $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ delivers exceptional performance at high current densities, highlighting its competitive edge among previously reported noble metal-free electrocatalysts. Moreover, the water electrolyzer exhibits robust long-term stability, operating at 50 and 100 mA cm^{-2} for 100 h without significant degradation (Fig. 6e).

In comparison to other studies on CoFe-MOFs used as OER catalysts, our work presents several key innovations in both material design and performance. While CoFe-MOFs have demonstrated promising catalytic activity in the past, the $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$ catalyst developed in this study stands out due to its unique combination of hierarchical porosity, synergistic Fe–Ce interactions, and dynamic surface reconstruction, which significantly enhance its catalytic performance and stability. Specifically, Ce which facilitates the stabilization of active Fe sites and optimizes the electronic structure, leading to a lower overpotential (236 mV) and exceptionally low Tafel slope (52 mV dec^{-1}) compared to

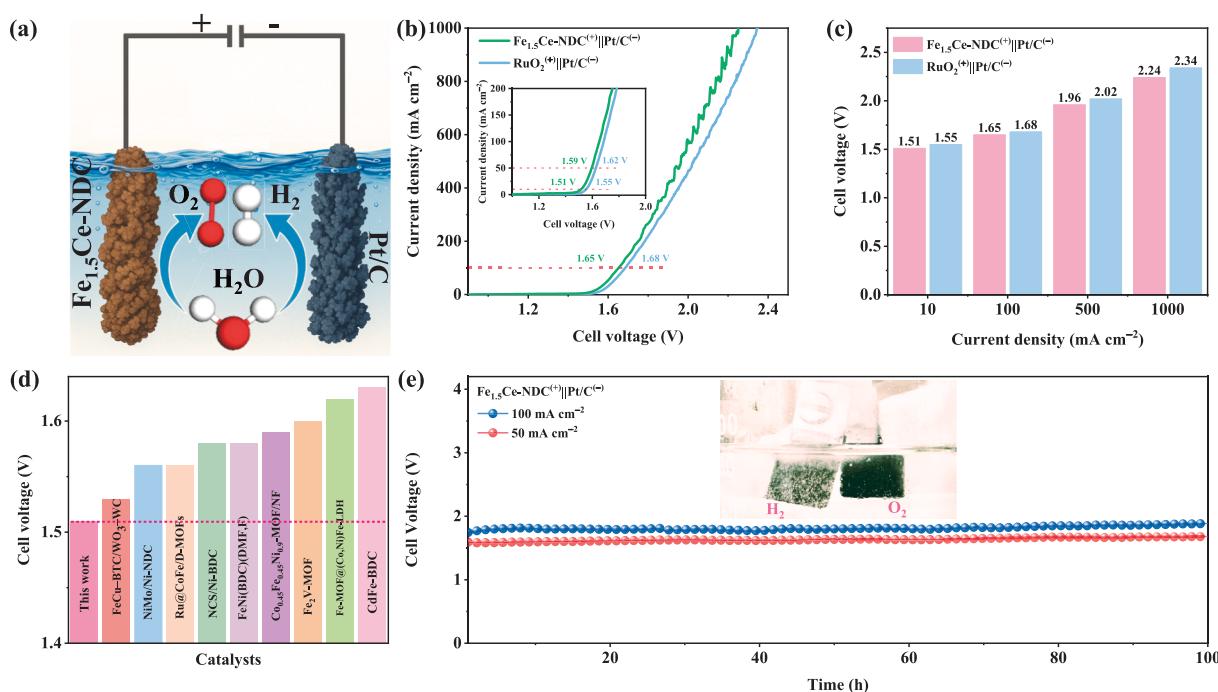


Fig. 6. Overall water-splitting performance of $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$. (a) Schematic representation of the overall water-splitting process in a two-electrode system. (b) Polarization curves of $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ with the reference $\text{RuO}_2^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$. (c) Comparison of cell voltages required at varying current densities for $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ and $\text{RuO}_2^{(+)} \parallel \text{Pt/C}^{(-)}$ systems. (d) Comparative analysis of the cell voltages of $\text{Fe}_{1.5}\text{Ce-NDC}$ electrolyzers with previously reported water-splitting catalysts. (e) Long-term stability assessment utilizing CP at 50 and 100 mA cm^{-2} for 100 h (inset: experimental setup during the stability test).

traditional CoFe-MOFs and RuO₂ catalysts. Moreover, the long-term stability demonstrated by Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC, which maintains performance over 76 h at high current densities, is a notable advancement over other CoFe-MOF-based catalysts, which often suffer from rapid degradation under prolonged operation [69–71]. The use of *operando* Raman and ATR-FTIR spectroscopy to confirm the AEM mechanism further differentiates this study, providing deeper insight into the catalytic mechanism and stability of the material. Therefore, Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC catalyst not only offers enhanced OER performance and stability, but also presents a novel approach to optimizing the structure and dynamics of Fe-based MOFs for sustainable energy applications, distinguishing it from other CoFe-MOF-based electrocatalysts in the literature [72–74].

3.5. Key factors contributing to the superior OER performance

The outstanding OER catalytic activity, stability, and overall water-splitting performance of the Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC are ascribed to following crucial characteristics. (1) The hierarchically porous nanostructures maximize active site exposure, enhance electrolyte diffusion, and boost oxygen evolution efficiency, thereby elevating the catalytic performance. (2) The synergistic interaction between Fe and Ce significantly improves charge transfer efficiency, as evidenced by *operando* EIS measurements, where Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC exhibits a lower charge transfer resistance than Ce-NDC. (3) *Operando* Raman and ATR-FTIR confirm surface reconstruction, showing Fe transforms into active FeOOH sites vital for oxygen intermediate adsorption during OER. (4) XPS reveals a negative shift in Fe 2p binding energies, Fe²⁺ oxidation to Fe³⁺ and FeOOH formation. Simultaneously, the Ce³⁺/Ce⁴⁺ transition enhances structural stability and electron transport. (5) Strong Fe-Ce interactions reduce oxygen intermediate adsorption energies and activation barriers, supporting an efficient OER pathway (*operando* spectroscopy). (6) Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC also shows excellent stability, operating over 76 h at 100 mA cm⁻² with no significant degradation, confirming its robustness for alkaline water-splitting. These combined features, efficient charge transfer, robust stability, active site exposure, and strong Fe-Ce synergy make Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC an exceptional catalyst for both OER and electrolytic hydrogen production, positioning it as a promising candidate for renewable energy applications.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC electrocatalyst exhibits outstanding OER activity, with a low overpotential and Tafel slope, surpassing conventional RuO₂. The catalysts remarkable stability over 76 h at 100 mA cm⁻² underscores its potential for long-term energy applications. The synergistic Fe-Ce interaction plays a critical role in enhancing charge transfer, promoting dynamic surface reconstruction, and stabilizing active sites. *Operando* Raman and ATR-FTIR spectroscopy confirm the formation of FeOOH as the active species, with Ce facilitating both the activation and stabilization of Fe. These findings highlight the importance of Fe-Ce interactions in optimizing the catalytic properties of MOFs, establishing Fe_{1.5}Ce-NDC as a promising candidate for effective and sustainable OER water splitting and other energy conversion processes.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Sheraz Muhammad: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation. **Lixia Wang:** Writing – review & editing. **Min-gcheng Gao:** Investigation. **Sumayya Khan:** Conceptualization. **Wentao Xu:** Data curation. **Asif Ali:** Methodology. **Tayirjan Taylor Isimjan:** Writing – review & editing. **Shohreh Azizi:** Writing – review & editing. **Xiulin Yang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2025.136782>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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