

21	Dynamic stability of active sites in hydr(oxy)oxides
22	for the oxygen evolution reaction
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Abstract

 The poor activity and stability of electrode materials for the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) are the main bottlenecks in the water splitting reaction for H_2 production. Here, by studying activity-stability trends for the OER on conductive $M_1O_xH_y$, Fe- $M_1O_xH_y$ and Fe- $M_1M_2O_xH_y$ hydr(oxy)oxide clusters (M_1 = Ni, Co, Fe; M_2 = Mn, Co, Cu), we show that balancing the rates of Fe dissolution and redeposition over a MO_xH_y host establishes dynamically stable Fe active sites. Together with tuning the Fe content of the electrolyte, the strong interaction of Fe with the MO_xH_y host is the key to control the average number of Fe active sites present at the solid-liquid interface. We suggest that the Fe-M adsorption energy can therefore serve as a reaction descriptor that unifies OER catalysis on 3d transition metal hydr(oxy)oxides in alkaline media. Thus, introduction of dynamically stable active sites extends the design rules for making active and stable interfaces.

Progress in the fundamental understanding of electrochemical interfaces, encompassing electrode materials (catalysts) and hydrated (solvated) ions in the double layer, has begun to revolutionize the development of alternative energy systems as a viable replacement to fossil fuel technology. At the core of this transition lies the oxygen evolution reaction (OER), an important electrochemical process part of hydrogen production in water electrolyzers¹, corrosion², metal-air batteries^{3,4}, and synthesis of new chemicals from CO₂ reduction⁵. Not surprisingly, a wide variety of materials have been evaluated as active OER catalysts for water electrolyzers, ranging from noble metal oxides (e.g., RuO₂, IrO₂)^{6,7}, to transition metal oxides⁸⁻¹⁰ and perovskite-type oxide structures¹¹⁻¹² to 3d transition metal based hydr(oxy)oxides¹³⁻¹⁷. Together with changes to surface structure and composition, tuning the double layer through the use of covalent and non-covalent interactions is another effective strategy to improve catalytic activity^{18,19}, but it has not been consistently demonstrated for the OER^{20,21}. Despite progress in increasing the activity, much less is known about stability of these interfaces during the oxygen evolution, an important aspect to guide the practical design of OER materials that require both high activity and stability.

Recently it has been found that many OER active materials suffers severe dissolution during reaction ²¹⁻²⁴, which implies that high activity in OER is always accompanied by elevated metal dissolution rates (thermodynamic material instability)^{25, 26}. In order to take into account both activity and stability, the Activity-Stability Factor (ASF)²⁷ was suggested, as a metric that evaluates the ratio between the rates of O₂ production (activity) and metal dissolution (stability) measured simultaneously using *in situ* inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) method²⁸⁻³⁰. However, the fact that dissolution occurs indicates that the surface atoms are dynamic, which is inconsistent with the common view of the electrochemical interface as a static environment. The traditional view is that all the components are "frozen" in space (static active sites), and only the reactants and products are mobile. This static view has begun to change as dynamic phenomena has been observed during OER on metal oxide^{31,32} and perovskite^{12,33,34} surfaces, suggesting that activity and stability can be simultaneously enhanced. Thus, understanding the dynamic properties of the entire interface can open the possibility for designing materials and the interface that are no longer bound by the severe thermodynamic instability.

Here, by learning from the functional links between activity and stability established for monometallic (M) and Fe modified (Fe-M) hydr(oxy)oxide materials, we demonstrate that the

creation of a dynamically stable interface (concomitant dissolution and redeposition of active sites) is possible after manipulation of both electrode and electrolyte components. The occurrence of dynamic active sites was verified by employing several experimental methods, both *in situ* and *ex situ*, in combination with isotope labeling and ICP-MS experiments, confirming formation of a highly active and dynamically stable catalyst. Further experimental and theoretical analysis suggests that this process is most effective (high ASF) when there is an optimum electrochemical interface; a strong interaction between a stable host and a continuous exchange of active species, a concept that could be extended to other systems with modified hosts and active sites altogether.

Activity and stability trends for monometallic MO_xH_v

We begin by establishing *in situ* the activity-stability trend, and thus ASF values, for the OER in alkaline media (0.1 M KOH) on well-defined monometallic 3d M hydr(oxy)oxide clusters deposited over Pt(111) (MO_xH_y; M: Ni, Co and Fe), as shown in Fig. 1. These MO_xH_y clusters have the benefits of well-defined surface area (roughness factor equals one), synthesis with good control of sub-monolayer coverages over the Pt surface (maximum at 50%, Fig. 1a); ^{19,35,36}, as well as good electronic conductivity needed for the ASF determination (supplementary Fig. 1). Because the presence of a small amount of impurities in the electrolyte can cause significant variations in the electrochemical performance, even more so in alkaline media ^{13,37-39}, we chose to purify further high purity commercial KOH by applying an electrolytic method, (see supplementary Note 1 and supplementary Fig. 2 for details).

Figure 1b and 1c shows the results of monitoring simultaneously the rates of O_2 production (current densities) and the rates of metal dissolution using our stationary probe rotating disk electrode (SPRDE) coupled to an ICP-MS method ²⁸, revealing that FeO_xH_y is the most active species for OER in comparison to CoO_xH_y and NiO_xH_y ⁴⁰. Although activity is the highest for Fe containing sites, its potential dependent dissolution rate at OER potentials is three orders of magnitude higher than that observed for Co and Ni based hydr(oxy)oxides (Fig. 1d, ca. 12.1, 0.023, and 0.004 ng.cm⁻².s⁻¹ respectively). By comparing activity and stability at 1.7 V, the stability trend observed is $NiO_xH_y > CoO_xH_y >> FeO_xH_y$ which is the exactly opposite trend measured for OER activity, $NiO_xH_y < CoO_xH_y < FeO_xH_y$ (Fig. 1e).

As a consequence of higher dissolution rates, Fe hydr(oxy)oxide shows a significant OER activity drop during its initial 5 cycles (poor activity retention) followed by a decrease in the amount of Fe dissolution at every consecutive cycle (supplementary Fig. 3), a direct consequence of active site depletion from the electrode surface 41,42. Similar results are obtained from chronoamperometry measurements at constant voltage (1.7 V, 1 hr), indicating that severe dissolution of Fe undermines its use as OER catalyst, while NiO_xH_y shows the highest stability without any appreciable activity loss (supplementary Fig. 3). These results serve as the basis for the activity-stability relationships on M hydr(oxy)oxides, best summarized by the ASF values calculated at 1.7 V (Fig. 1f). As a rule of thumb, the ASF evaluate the extent by which a material produces O₂ molecules (specific for OER) for a given amount of dissolution of the active site. Therefore, the higher the ASF of a material, more O₂ is produced per dissolved active site. The conclusion after evaluation of ASF values of FeO_xH_y, CoO_xH_y and NiO_xH_y sites is that Ni based hydr(oxy)oxides is the most promising durable catalyst for O₂ production in this series, as the elevated ASF reflects its extremely high stability despite its poor OER activity. Further evaluation of Faradaic efficiency for the O₂ production (FE_{oxygen}) on MO_xH_v was performed by using rotating ring disk electrode method, supplementary Fig. 4). The high FE_{oxygen} values for Ni and Co hydr(oxy)oxide (over 99 %) indicates that most of current is originated from O₂ evolution and not side pathways such as H₂O₂ production or from corrosion currents. On the other hand, the measured Faradaic efficiency of FeO_xH_y shows poor stability (~88 %), which is well within its ASF values, and no formation of H₂O₂ (supplementary Fig. 5).

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Activity and stability trends for Fe incorporated Fe-MO_xH_v

As Fe incorporated Ni and Co based hydr(oxy)oxide systems have been shown to display significant activity in alkaline media ^{13,37}, we added Fe into purified electrolyte forming Fe-MO_xH_y (Fe-Ni and Fe-Co) and compared their activity-stability trends. Scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) reveals that the cluster height increases slightly with respect to monometallic systems (supplementary Fig. 6), suggesting that Fe is selectively adsorbed over Ni and Co hydr(oxy)oxide substrates. Further quantification of Fe incorporation reveals a Fe content spanning from 15% to 28% by weight in the Co and Ni containing MO_xH_y clusters, respectively (supplementary Fig. 6).

The OER activity trend for Fe-MO_xH_y sites (Fig. 2a and supplementary Fig. 7) reverses when compared to the results for monometallic systems (Fig. 1), appearing in the order Fe-NiO_xH_y > Fe-CoO_xH_y > FeO_xH_y. At 1.7 V, the current density on bimetallic Fe-NiO_xH_y is 9 times higher than that observed from pure NiO_xH_y, and it is enhanced about 3 times on Fe-CoO_xH_y clusters in comparison to pure CoO_xH_y, highlighting that a small amount of Fe in the material can significantly enhance its OER activity and current enhancement is originated from actual O₂ evolution (supplementary Fig. 8). In addition, this Fe effect is observed regardless of support (Pt(111), glassy carbon, nickel or cobalt metal surfaces), indicating that MOxHy oxyhydroxide-Fe interaction is key for OER promotion (supplementary Fig. 9).

Together with trends in catalytic activity, it is important to establish the stability trends for bimetallic hydr(oxy)oxides so that ultimately we can determine their technological relevance based on ASF values. Surprisingly, the trend in stability as measured by activity retention for the Fe incorporated MO_xH_y clusters is highly dependent on the presence of trace levels of Fe in the electrolyte ($Fe_{(aq)} = 0.1 \text{ ppm}$). In clean KOH solutions, the activities of Fe-NiO_xH_y and Fe-CoO_xH_y samples show a remarkable deactivation after just 1 hour of potential hold at 1.7 V (Fig. 2a), bringing the initial high activities down to almost the same levels as monometallic hydr(oxy)oxides (supplementary Fig. 10). However, the intentional addition of $Fe_{(aq)}$ in the electrolyte effectively prevents the activity loss under the same testing conditions (Fig. 2b).

On one hand, *in situ* measurement of dissolution rates on Fe-NiO_xH_y during potential cycling (supplementary Fig. 11) shows that the total amount of Ni dissolution is still negligible. However, Fe still leaches out from NiO_xH_y almost two orders of magnitude faster than Ni itself, even though is not as fast as observed from pure monometallic hydr(oxy)oxide systems (Fig. 1). The same trend is observed in Fe-CoO_xH_y (supplementary Fig. 11), suggesting that the lack of stability (poor activity retention) in the Fe-MO_xH_y systems when Fe_(aq) is not present in the electrolyte is related to the dissolution of Fe active sites, notably due the depletion of the initial Fe content from the electrode surface. On the other hand, evaluation of Fe dissolution when the electrolyte contains Fe_(aq) reveals the same dissolution process as shown in supplementary Fig. 11, although OER activity levels remained elevated and unchanged throughout the experiment.

From the activity and stability results of M and Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide, there are three important features to emphasize. First, during OER, Fe active sites are very unstable, regardless if they are present as Fe or as Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxides. Second, despite the high initial activity, the

subsequent activity decay observed on Fe-incorporated MO_xH_y systems is related to Fe depletion through dissolution. Third, preserving the high activity levels can be achieved only when the electrolyte contains $Fe_{(aq)}$ even though Fe dissolution from the surface will still occur (supplementary Fig. 12). While these results indicate that the material itself is not absolutely stable, but OER activity can be sustained over time, it implies that a significant Fe dynamic exchange is continuously taking place at the interface.

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In order to confirm this dynamic Fe exchange at the interface we measured the total amount of ⁵⁶Fe and ⁵⁷Fe in the electrode using ICP-MS at different stages of chronoamperometry experiments (see details in experimental section), providing information about the kinetics of dissolution as well as the kinetics of Fe_(aq) redeposition. Therefore, by starting with ⁵⁶Fe in the electrode and ⁵⁷Fe in the electrolyte, any loss of ⁵⁶Fe and gain of ⁵⁷Fe can be traced back to dissolution and deposition events occurring during OER, respectively. As a control experiment, Figure 2c shows potential hold experiments where a continuous decrease of Fe in the electrode during polarization is observed, followed by OER deactivation (Fig. 2e). This is in line with results in Fig. 2a, emphasizing that Fe dissolution decreases the number of active sites on the electrode surface. However, when 0.1 ppm of ⁵⁷Fe is in the electrolyte (⁵⁷Fe_(aq)), dissolution of ⁵⁶Fe occurred at the same rates as in Fig. 2c (ca. 0.53 ng.cm⁻².s⁻¹), but the amount of ⁵⁷Fe at the electrode increased in similar rate as ⁵⁶Fe loss (ca. 0.56 ng.cm⁻².s⁻¹, Fig. 2d). This results in an overall Fe content, ⁵⁶Fe + ⁵⁷Fe, constant throughout the duration of the experiment. Note that half of the ⁵⁶Fe in the electrode is already exchanged to ⁵⁷Fe in less than one minute and the ratio ⁵⁷Fe/Fe reaches 70% after one hour, confirming that a vigorous Fe dissolution and redeposition happens at the interface during OER. Interestingly, as consequence of dynamic exchange, the overall Fe content at the electrode was kept constant, preserving the total number of active sites for OER, and thus eliminating any catalytic deactivation (Fig. 2f). This further supports the fact that Fe is intimately part of the active site for OER in alkaline media when combined with Ni or Co hydr(oxy)oxides.

The effect of Fe promoting OER activities on Ni and Co hydr(oxy)oxides has been reported before, but the origin of such activity enhancement remains elusive. Many reports identify Ni, promoted by Fe, as active sites ^{43,44} while others indicate that Fe could be the source of OER enhancement ^{45,46}, with relevant considerations on the role of plane or edge sites and substitutional doping ⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰. Given the trends observed from MO_xH_y (Figure 1), it is clear that pure

Ni cannot be the active site, but strongly suggesting the role of Fe as the active sites. This assertion is further supported by *in situ* XANES analysis (supplementary Fig. 13), and considerations from other electrocatalytic reactions, such as HER (supplementary Fig. 14), preclude the effective role of Ni or Co (electronically modified by Fe) as active sites for the OER⁵¹. However, it is clear that Fe species at the interface together with Ni and Co oxide hosts are critical for achieving high levels of O₂ production.

Dynamically stable Fe as active site for oxygen evolution

By controlling the $Fe_{(aq)}$ concentration in electrolyte, increasing the $Fe_{(aq)}$ content above 0.1ppm does not lead to any further increase in OER activity (Fig. 3a), nor an increase in the amount of Fe incorporated into either Ni or Co hydr(oxy)oxides (Fig. 3b). In turn, these results indicate that OER activity is linked to the amount of Fe present in the MO_xH_y and there is a Fe saturation coverage for each surface. The linear relationship between OER and Fe coverage reveals that the factors contributing to OER promotion on Fe-NiO_xH_y and Fe-CoO_xH_y are not unique to each bimetallic system (Fig. 3c), but rather, are part of a general description of the active sites through the number of dynamic stable sites (Fe).

DFT calculations reveal that the $\Delta \bar{G}_{Fe-M}$ values (Fe average adsorption free energy on MO_xH_y sites) are strongly dependent on the substrate nature (supplementary Fig. 15). In simple terms, a more negative $\Delta \bar{G}_{Fe-M}$ value implies a higher Fe saturation coverage on MO_xH_y. Figure 3d summarizes Fe adsorption free energy trends over Ni, Co and Fe MO_xH_y substrates, revealing that Fe adsorption on FeO_xH_y is unfavorable and NiO_xH_y shows the strongest interaction with Fe_(aq) (-0.69 eV at a coverage of 0.25), and consequently the highest Fe coverage in this series, providing a good match with the experimental values (supplementary Fig. 16). Furthermore, the rate of Fe dissolution depending on host (FeO_xH_y >> CoO_xH_y > NiO_xH_y) is also affected by the Fe adsorption energy, (Fe < Co < Ni), suggesting that strong interaction of MO_xH_y with Fe not only leads to the higher number of active sites but also stabilizes these active sites.

By taking into consideration the Fe dynamic exchange (Fig. 2) and correlation of OER activity with number of Fe (Fig. 3), we propose that O_2 evolution catalysis occurs on a number of dynamically stable active sites (N^*), which is distinguished from the conventional number of active site (N) considered at static conditions (see supplemental Note 6 for details). The average

number of dynamically stable active Fe sites (N_{Fe}^*) can be estimated by equation 1, where equation 2 shows the OER activity dependence on the number of dynamically active Fe sites.

$$N_{Fe}^{*} = \left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{\Delta G_{Fe-M}}{RT}}}\right) \left(\frac{r_{dep}C_{Fe}^{0}}{r_{dep}C_{Fe}^{0} + r_{diss}}\right)$$
(1)
$$i_{OER} = i^{0}N_{Fe}^{*} \exp\left(\frac{\beta F(E - E^{0})}{RT}\right)$$
(2)

where ΔG_{Fe-M} is the adsorption energy between Fe and M hydr(oxy)oxide surface, given in eV; r_{dep} . $C_{Fe}^{\ 0}$ is the overall rate of Fe deposition and r_{diss} is the rate of Fe dissolution during OER, given in ng.cm⁻².s⁻¹; i_{OER} is the OER current density, i^0 is the exchange current density; β is the symmetry factor ⁵², E is applied potential $and \ E^0$ is the equilibrium potential for OER, and F, R and T indicate faraday constant, ideal gas constant and temperature, respectively. At a given potential, the kinetics of oxygen evolution is determined by the number of dynamic active sites N_{Fe}^* , while equation 1 incorporates the processes of Fe redeposition and interaction with the hydr(oxy)oxide host.

From the equations 1 and 2, the maintenance of high N_{Fe}^* within a host that enable stable OER activity requires two conditions. First, the electrolyte must contain $Fe_{(aq)}$ species to a sufficiently high degree where the rate of redeposition can be brought to the same levels as the rate of dissolution ($r_{diss} \ll r_{dep}.C_{Fe}^{\ 0}$, Fig. 2f). This will ensure a high enough average Fe coverage on the electrode. Second, these dynamic Fe species must interact with the clusters at the electrode surface where they can reside and catalyze O_2 production before they dissolve away. If the rate of dissolution is too fast or the rate of Fe deposition does not reach that of dissolution, the overall number of dynamic Fe species will decrease, resulting in activity decay ($r_{diss} \gg r_{dep}.C_{Fe}^{\ 0}$, Fig. 2e).

Considering that continuous elemental dissolution and redeposition occurs during OER, our 'dynamic stable active site (Fe)/host pair' concept could be seen similar to a self-healing mechanism suggested in previous works^{31,32}. Unlike self-healing, the regeneration of the active sites in a dynamic stable state necessarily requires a 'specific host' with a strong interaction with the dynamic 'active sites'. In this scenario, Fe species would be the active sites that can be dynamically stable only because of their interaction with stable Ni or Co MO_xH_y clusters. Alternatively, the simple self-healing process of Fe on FeO_xH_y (Fig. 2a and 2b) is not effective to fully incorporate Fe on the electrode surface and unleash its OER catalytic activity. Unlike static

interfaces, the dynamic stable condition counterbalances the intrinsic high dissolution rate of active sites by promoting their redeposition through tailored electrode/electrolyte interactions.

From the OER activity point of view, there are two routes to maximize catalysis. First, increasing the absolute number of dynamic Fe active sites can be achieved by increasing surface area of the host material. Although this strategy seems trivial, it is the only pathway available if the material properties related to Fe adsorption (ΔG_{Fe-M}) cannot be tuned. This is shown when a steady increase in the amount of NiO_xH_y deposited on Pt(111), for instance, results in an increase of the absolute OER activity for both clean KOH as well as electrolyte containing Fe_(aq) at saturation levels. Despite this increase in absolute activities, the ratio between OER currents with and without Fe_(aq), called activity enhancement factor (I_{Fe}/I), remains the same for all amounts of Ni hydr(oxy)oxides (supplementary Fig. 18).

Second, the number of dynamic Fe species can be increased by tuning the Fe adsorption (ΔG_{Fe-M}) of host materials. Based on the DFT trend where ΔG_{Fe-M} shows inverse relation with ΔG_{M-O} (supplementary Fig. 15), we screened other 3d transition metal to find promising MO_xH_y host candidate better than NiO_xH_y (supplementary Fig. 19). Figure 4a shows that the elements to the left of Fe in the periodic table do not show any promotional OER activity enhancement with Fe. Because the bond (M-O) becomes stronger towards the left in the periodic table⁵³, Fe adsorption is unfavorable. In the opposite direction (right from Fe), activity enhancement is clearly observable and becomes the highest for CuO_xH_y . Although Cu hydr(oxy)oxide showed the highest activity enhancement factor, its high dissolution rate prevents its utilization as a practical MO_xH_y host (supplementary Fig. 20).

Alternatively, by doping Ni hydr(oxy)oxide cluster with various other 3d TM as dopants (Mn, Co and Cu) we were able to further tune Fe adsorption energy, and consequently improve OER activity levels. Following the trend in enhancement factor on pure 3d MO_xH_y, doping NiO_xH_y with Cu atoms (NiCuO_xH_y, see supplementary Fig. 21) leads to superior OER activity (40.5 mA cm⁻²) in 0.1 ppm of Fe-containing KOH, which is 1.4 times higher than NiO_xH_y with Fe_(aq) (Fig. 4b). Furthermore, the activity enhancement factor (I_{Fe}/I) of NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide surpasses that of pure NiO_xH_y, albeit it is still lower than that of pure CuO_xH_y. The increase of Fe surface coverage revealed by ICP-MS results and supported by DFT analysis suggests that high activity of NiCuO_xH_y clusters are originated from the increase in Fe adsorption energy, an consequently higher average Fe coverage, making it the most suitable Fe host (supplementary

Fig. 22). This trend is further validated by the observed linear relationship between OER activity and the number of dynamic Fe species measured on the other NiMn and NiCo hydr(oxy)oxides (Fig. 4c and supplementary Fig. 23). While further promotion of OER activity can occur through a synergistic support interaction (MO_xH_y) with Fe caused by electronic (or geometric) effects or possible new reaction mechanism/pathway^{45,49,50}, our observations strongly support that the number of dynamic stable sites (Fe) can be regarded as a general descriptor of the active sites as described in equation 2. It is likely that the Fe-M adsorption energy which determines the saturation coverage of Fe on a given MOxHy can be more relevant than the M-O adsorption energy as an activity descriptor ⁵⁴.

From the stability point of view, *in situ* ICP-MS indicates that Cu in NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide becomes more stable in the OER potential window than pure CuO_xH_y, although it does starts to dissolve at potentials above 2.1 V versus RHE (supplementary Fig. 24). Constant current density measurements performed at 10 mA cm⁻², which is considered as a benchmark for the OER stability⁵⁵ and high faradaic efficiency (>99 %) also indicate a superior electrochemical stability without appreciable activity loss (supplementary Fig. 24), verifying that Fe-NiCuO_xH_y shows not only high material stability (decreased rates of dissolution) but also superior catalytic stability (stable chronoamperometry).

Finally, our observations suggest a way to maximize the ASF values for OER materials to achieve high activity and stability simultaneously (Fig. 4d). First, Fe-containing samples (red bar in Fig. 4d) show high ASF values compared to the "Fe free" samples (blue bar in Fig. 4d) due to high activity gained from hosting Fe active sites. Utilization of Ni and Cu as hydr(oxy)oxide hosts leads to better ASF values due the simultaneous improvement in the activity enhancement factor (stronger Fe adsorption), and prevention of Cu dissolution due Ni-Cu interactions. This same effect in shown on NiCoO_xH_y, as it displays an elevated ASF value due to the prevention of Co dissolution by NiO_xH_y, but CoO_xH_y and NiCoO_xH_y have similar OER activities (supplementary Fig. 25). As a result, active species/host pair overcomes the limitations placed on ASF by the material instability of both active sites and additional atoms present to tailor Fe-MO_xH_y interactions.

Conclusions

In summary, we have investigated activity-stability trends for the OER on conductive M (M = Ni, Co, Fe) and Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide clusters and found dynamically stable Fe as a result of dissolution and redeposition at the electrolyte/host interface that provides a general description for OER activity and stability. By realizing that this dynamic stability overcomes the limitations imposed by the thermodynamic instability of oxide materials at OER potentials, we propose that design of new materials should be focused on attaining a high number of dynamically stable active sites within a stable host under solid/liquid interfacial control. We have demonstrated an example of how these design rules can increase Fe utilization, by preparing Fe-NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide with higher OER activity than Cu-free material. In the future, design of new active site/host pairs may lead to discovery of new (electro)chemical interfaces that are simultaneously highly active and highly stable for OER.

Methods

Chemicals

High purity trace analysis grade potassium hydroxide hydrate (Trace SELECT®, Fluka) was further purified as discussed next. All transition metal used here, (Ni, Co, and Fe) nitrate hexahydrates and (Cu and Mn) nitrate hydrates (99.995% metal basis, Sigma Aldrich) were employed as is. Electrolytes were prepared with Milli-Q Millipore deionized (DI) water. All gases (argon, oxygen, hydrogen) were of 6N quality (Airgas).

Electrolyte purification and confirmation of electrolyte purity

Electrolyte (KOH) purification to control the cation concentration was conducted by prolonged electrolysis (5 days) using Ni wire (3.925 cm², Puratronic®, 99.999%, Alfa Aesar) as both working and counter electrode motivated by previous reports 13,37. Electrolysis purification was conducted inside a plastic cell made out of fluoropolymer material to avoid contamination from glass components. We confirm the purity of electrolyte by electrochemical method using Pt (111) CV. Based on previous paper 8, small amounts of cation (Ni, Co and Fe) in alkaline electrolyte affect the CV shape of Pt (111) significantly. Inspired by high sensitivity and clear observation of cation effect for electrochemical performances, we compared CV of Pt (111) after 10 potential cycles from 0.05 to 0.9 V with the initial CV of Pt (111) obtained by our purified electrolyte (Detail information is in supplementary figure 2 and supplementary Note 1). To maximize the mass transport of any possible impurities in electrolyte, CV was measured under the rotating electrode with 1600 rpm. In purified KOH by our method, there is no change before and after CV cycles, indicating that our method can efficiently remove any trace level of impurity that can affect electrochemical performance.

Extended surface electrode preparation and metal hydroxide deposition

Pt(111) single crystal electrode (6 mm diameter) was prepared by inductive heating for 7 min at ~1100 °C in an argon hydrogen flow (3% hydrogen). The annealed crystal was cooled slowly to room temperature under an inert atmosphere and immediately covered with a droplet of DI water. To screen the candidate for host materials, 6 mm diameter metal electrode was used. Before experiment, the electrode was prepared mirror polishing with alumina powder and immersed in KOH to reach saturate condition. Electrodes were then assembled into a rotating disk electrode (RDE). Polarization curves were recorded in argon-saturated electrolyte. By potential cycling between H_{upd} and OH_{ad} region with 1-100 ppm of transition metal nitrate, metal hydr(oxy)oxide layers were deposited on Pt(111). The surface coverage of MO_xH_y layer was controlled by the number of potential cycles and concentration of cation. The mass loading of hydr(oxy)oxide was confirmed by ICP-MS and repetitive analysis at least three times for each element was conducted. Fe-M hydroxide samples were prepared by spike experiment of 0.1 ppm of Fe nitrate hexahydrate (⁵⁶Fe/⁵⁷Fe ratio is 92/2 and denoted as ⁵⁶Fe in manuscript) in electrolyte. Surface coverage of Fe on Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide was calculated by the mass ratio between Fe and M (Ni Co, Cu and Mn) based on STM results. The mass ratio (%) of dopant (M) in NiM samples is as follows (Cu: 25.8, Co:26.2 and Mn: 24.8).

Electrochemical measurement

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Electrochemical measurements were controlled using an Autolab PGSTAT 302N potentiostat. A typical threeelectrode configuration with fluoropolymer based cell was used to avoid contamination from glass components in alkaline media. To avoid any contamination from previous experiment conditions, the cell was thoroughly rinsed by DI water and boiled in DI water before every experiment. Glassy carbon rod and Ag/AgCl were used as counter and reference electrode, respectively. To avoid any contamination from glassy carbon counter electrode by previous experimental condition, glassy carbon was thoroughly washed by 1 M HCl and boiled in DI water before every experiment. OER measurements were carried out cycling the electrode up to 1.7 V versus RHE. The iR drop compensation was conducted during measurement. The current density in our paper was normalized by the geometric area of Pt(111) substrate (0.283 cm²). Potential hold experiments were also carried out for the hydroxide/Pt(111) systems to study the stability at 1.7 V versus RHE. Constant current measurement of Fe-NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide was conducted in 0.1 ppm of Fe containing KOH at 10 mA cm⁻². All electrochemical measurements were conducted in 'Fe free' electrolyte purified by our protocol except as indicated certain condition in manuscript. For isotope labeling experiment, 0.1 ppm of Fe in KOH was prepared by ⁵⁷Fe precursor from Alfa Aesar (⁵⁶Fe)⁵⁷Fe ratio is 3/95.5 and denoted as ⁵⁷Fe in manuscript). Because the background value is too high to observe Fe dynamics if 0.1 ppm of Fe is present in electrolyte, we conduct Fe isotope analysis in Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide preparing electrode with ⁵⁶Fe and conducting electrochemical analysis in ⁵⁷Fe containing KOH electrolyte. For quantifying the amount of Fe (⁵⁶Fe and ⁵⁷Fe) in electrode during chronoamperometry, the electrode (Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide) was thoroughly dissolved in 0.1 M HNO₃ and measured ICP-MS. All electrochemical measurement was done at least three times and average values are presented with standard error bar.

STM and AFM measurement

For cluster shape and height information analysis, the STM images were acquired with a Digital Instruments Multi-Mode Dimension STM controlled by a Nanoscope III control station using the Pt (111), Ni hydr(oxy)oxide on Pt(111) and Fe-Ni hydr(oxy)oxide on Pt (111). During STM measurement, the microscope with the sample was enclosed in a pressurized cylinder with a CO atmosphere. AFM image was collected by soft tapping mode (Brucker dimension ICON, MA) was used to measure the topography NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide deposition on Pt(111). The AFM data were processed using the Gwyddion software package.

In situ XANES measurement

X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) measurement was performed at the 12 ID-C beamline, advanced photon source (APS) in Argonne national laboratory (ANL). A custom-made in situ electrochemical X-ray cell with a 6 mm diameter of Pt (111) single crystal and Ag/AgCl reference electrode was used in grazing-incidence geometry (Digital photograph images for *in situ* set-up in Fig. S9A). The experimental geometry is similar to the previous grazing-incidence fluorescence x-ray absorption spectroscopy (GIF-XAS)⁵⁶. The glazing angle of incidence was fixed at the total external reflection angle of x-ray (~0.5°) for Pt(111) substrate. In this condition, the electric field at the surface is enhanced to achieve a maximum sensitivity of the elements on the surface. A Vortex[®] detector (Hitach High-technologies Science America, Inc) with an active area of 1 cm and an energy resolution of ~120 eV was used. A cobalt filter for Ni K edge and a Mn filter for Fe K edge were used and the detector was positioned at 90° to the horizontally polarized incoming x-rays to suppress the elastic scattering. Then, detector distance was set to ~3 cm from the surface to optimize the signal-to-background ratio. The spectra were normalized by the incident X-ray intensity and processed by ATHENA software.

XPS analysis

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was conducted using Ommicron EA-125 hemispherical energy analyzer with Al K- α X-ray source.

In situ ICP-MS by SPRDE

The set-up for ICP-MS with SPRDE method is followed by previous report²⁸. The metal ions such as Fe (56 and 57 a.m.u), Co (59 a.m.u), Mn (55 a.m.u.), Cu (64 a.m.u.) and Ni (60 a.m.u) were detected with a PerkinElmer NexION 350S coupled to a stationary probe rotating disk electrode setup. Electrochemical measurement was conducted the same way as described in electrochemical measurement section.

Activity stability factor (ASF)

Activity stability factor (ASF) was calculated based on our previous paper²⁷ as follows.

$$ASF = \frac{J - S}{S} \Big|_{\eta}$$

Where J indicates rate of O_2 production (equivalent to OER current density) and S indicates rate of host metal dissolution (equivalent to dissolution current density) at constant overpotential (η). When dynamic stable Fe is incorporated in host materials (Fe containing in KOH), ASF (Dynamic Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide) are simply the ASF values obtained for the corresponding values without Fe multiplied by the activity enhancement factor $(\frac{J_{Fe}}{I})$.

ASF (Dynamic Fe – M hydr(oxy)oxide) = ASF(without Fe) ×
$$(\frac{J_{Fe}}{I})$$

RRDE measurement for quantifying O_2 production and calculation of Faradaic efficiency of O_2 (FE_{oxyeen})

To quantify actual production of O_2 and calculate Faradaic efficiency of O_2 (FE_{Oxygen}), we conducted rotating ring disk electrode (RRDE) method using Pt ring. For calibration of collection efficiency in gas evolving reaction, hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) is used (see detail discussion in supplementary Note 2). For calculation of Faradaic efficiency of O_2 (FE_{oxygen}), we measured 2 times in each sample with different ring potential (for H_2O_2 ; 1.1 V and for O_2 ; 0.4 V). The production of O_2 is monitored using ring potential at 0.4 V (versus RHE) (Note: we choose 0.4 V as the ORR is in diffusional control, while preventing H_{upd} region that would allow the $2e^-$ pathway during O_2 reduction). For H_2O_2 , we choose 1.1 V which is high enough potential for H_2O_2 oxidation (diffusion limiting region) while it is below thermodynamic potential of O_2 evolution (1.23 V). Faradaic efficiency of O_2 production is defined as follows.

Faradaic efficiency of oxygen
$$(FE_{Oxygen}) = \frac{O_2 \text{ evolution current (ring current)}}{\text{Total current (disk current)}} \times \text{collection efficiency}$$

Computational Methods

Electronic structure calculations were done within the framework of the density functional theory (DFT) with periodic boundary conditions using the VASP program⁵⁷. All surface calculations were done using the implicit solvation model, which is implemented in the package VASPsol and includes the effect of electrostatics, cavitation, and dispersion on the interaction between a solute and solvent^{58,59}. The PBE exchange-correlation functional⁶⁰ and the van der Waals (vdW) interactions described via a pair-wise force field using the DFT-D2 method of Grimme⁶¹ were used for all calculations. The projector augmented wave (PAW) method and plane wave basis sets were used with energy cutoffs of 520 eV for full cell geometry optimization and 400 eV for geometry optimization with fixed cell parameters. Transition metal elements are treated by the PBE+U method with U_{eff} = 5.5 eV, 4.4 eV and 3.3 eV for Ni, Co and Fe, respectively⁶². Transition metal oxyhydroxide MOOH (M=Ni, Co, Fe) monolayers were modeled by 2×4(001) periodic slabs using supercells (consisting of 16 MOOH units) with a vacuum layer of more than 20 Å placed along the *z* direction. The surface Brillouin zone is sampled with a 3×3×1 Monkhorst-Pack k-point mesh. The total energy was converged to 10⁻⁵ eV for each electronic step using self-consistent field method. All atoms were allowed to relax during the structure optimization until the force on each atom was below 0.03 eV/Å. Bader charge analysis was conducted to analyze charge populations⁶³. The X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra

was calculated using the *ab initio* multiple scattering code FEFF9⁶⁴ based on optimized geometries to help interpreting experimental results.

In evaluating the adsorption energy of the Fe species on a surface site (denoted by *), we have chosen the solvated $Fe(OH)_3(H_2O)_3$ molecular complex as a reference, where Fe has a six-fold coordination and a formal charge state of +3. The adsorption reaction can be written as:

* + Fe(OH)₃(H₂O)₃ \rightarrow Fe(OH)₃* + 3 H₂O

The differential Fe adsorption energy (ΔG_{Fe-M}) on a metal oxyhydroxide surface is calculated as follows:

$$\Delta G_{Fe-M} = G_{(n+1)Fe*} - G_{(n)Fe*} - G_{Fe-mol} + 3G_{H2O-mol}$$

where n stands for the number of Fe complexes adsorbed on the surface per supercell. $G_{(n+1)Fe*}$, $G_{(n)Fe*}$, G_{Fe-mol} , and $G_{H2O-mol}$ represent the free energies of the surface cell with n+1 adsorbed Fe species, the surface cell with n adsorbed Fe species, a Fe(OH)₃(H₂O)₃ molecular complex and a H₂O molecule in solution at standard conditions, respectively. The average Fe adsorption energy ($\Delta \bar{G}_{Fe-M}$) on a metal oxyhydroxide surface is calculated as follows:

$$\Delta \bar{G}_{Fe-M} = (G_{(n)Fe*} - G_*)/n - G_{Fe-mol} + 3G_{H2O-mol}$$

where G_* stands for the free energy of the surface cell without adsorbed Fe species.

The total electronic energy of each system was obtained from the electronic structure calculation in VASP. The free energy was calculated by adding a Gibbs free energy correction (including contributions from zero-point energy, enthalpy and entropy) to the total energy calculated in VASP. The Gibbs free energy corrections were calculated at 25 °C using the standard statistical mechanical model after frequency calculations in VASP. For surface systems, calculated vibrational frequencies were used for the free energy correction. For the molecular Fe complex, entropy contributions including vibrational, translational and rotational contributions are taken into account. The solvation effect was taken into account using the implicit solvent model to calculate the solvation energy in VASP. For the liquid phase molecule H₂O, the free energy correction was calculated using the equivalent gas phase free energy contribution at saturated vapor pressure of 3534 Pa⁶⁵. The calculated free energy corrections are listed in Supplementary Tables 2-4. The structural information about the DFT calculation is shown at the end additional supplementary data1.

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Author contributions

 D.Y.C., P.P.L. and N.M.M. designed the experiments. D.Y.C., P.P.L. and P.F.B.D.M. conducted electrochemical measurement and analysis. H.H. and P.Z. performed DFT calculations and analysis. D.Y.C., T.K., H.Y., S.S. and S.L. conducted *in situ* XANES measurement and analysis. D.T. and Y.Z. carried out STM and AFM analysis. D.S. and V.R.S. discussed and commented the results. D.Y.C., P.P.L., P.Z. and N.M.M. wrote the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interest.

Data Availability

All data are available in the main text, Supplementary Information and Source Data files. Data generated from DFT calculations can be found in Supplementary Data 1.

Supplementary Materials

- Supplementary Figure 1-25
- Supplementary Table 1-4
- 661 References (*01-25*)
- Supplementary Data 1 for DFT structure information

Figure Caption

 Fig. 1 Activity-stability trend of 3d-M hydr(oxy)oxides. (a) STM images (40 x 40 nm) of Pt(111) and Ni(OH)₂/Pt(111). Simultaneous *in situ* evaluation of (b) OER activity and (c) monitoring of metal dissolution rates in purified 0.1 M KOH revealing that Fe hydr(oxy)oxide is the most active site for OER in alkaline environment, but also the most unstable. (d-f) Summary of the activity-stability relationships obtained at 1.7 V highlighting (d) dissolution rates and (e) the current density values for all three metal hydr(oxy)oxides, suggesting that Ni hydr(oxy)oxide is the most technological relevant material within the monometallic series due its high stability, as indicated by its Activity-Stability Factor (f). The measurement was done at least three times and average values are presented with standard error bar.

Fig. 2 Activity-stability trend of Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide and observation of dynamic Fe exchange by isotope labeling experiment. Summary of activity-stability results of Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide during chronoamperometry experiments in (a) 'Fe free' purified KOH, and in (b) 0.1 ppm Fe containing KOH solution under 1hr chronoamperometry at 1.7 V, revealing the high dependence of OER activity retention with the presence of Fe in the electrolyte. (c-f) Total amount of Fe in electrode (c and d) and OER activity trend (e and f) during chronoamperometry measurements at 1.7 V shows Fe dissolution from the electrode surface accompanied by OER activity loss in 'Fe free' electrolyte (c and e), depicting the dissolution process in the schematic diagram (inset). Similar chronoamperometry experiment done in 0.1 ppm of ⁵⁷Fe containing electrolyte (d and f) reveals the Fe dynamic exchange (dissolution and redeposition) at the interface during OER catalysis, as the quick dissolution of ⁵⁶Fe from the electrode is followed by immediate ⁵⁷Fe redeposition from the electrolyte. The dynamic exchange preserves the overall Fe content at the electrode surface, which is reflected in the high OER activity that does not deactivate during the course of the experiment (inset shows schematic diagram depicting both Fe dissolution and redeposition process, with balanced rates bought about by the trace level of Fe in the electrolyte).

Fig. 3 Dynamically stable Fe as active site for OER. Effect of Fe concentration in the electrolyte on (a) OER activity and (b) Fe mass retained at Fe-Ni and Fe-Co hydr(oxy)oxide clusters, revealing that Fe adsorption saturates at high Fe concentrations (above 0.1ppm). (c) Correlation between absolute OER activity values with Fe coverage on both Fe-Ni and Fe-Co hydr(oxy)oxides indicates that OER catalysis enhancement increases linearly on the average Fe coverage as a result of stronger Fe-M hydr(oxy)oxide interaction. Note that the arrow indicates maximum Fe surface coverage on Ni (red) and Co (blue) substrate, respectively. The measurement was done at least three times and average values are presented with standard error bar. (d) DFT calculations of Fe average adsorption free energies at coverage of 0.25. The adsorption free energy of Fe complex on FeOOH is set to zero because it is unfavorable. (e) Schematic diagram of "dynamically stable" active site/host pair in electrode/electrolyte interface highlighting the role of M hydr(oxy)oxide as a suitable host for Fe species to stay at the interface long enough to catalyze the conversion of OH into O2 molecules, while the presence of Fe in the electrolyte ensures that Fe species can return to the interface and redeposit at hydr(oxy)oxide sites.

Fig. 4 Interface (dynamic active species/host pair) design for highly active and durable system (a) Activity enhancement trend via Fe incorporation in 3d transition metal indicates that Fe interaction shows trend with M-O bond. (b) OER activity of Ni and NiCu hydr(oxy)oxide in purified and 0.1 ppm Fe containing KOH (Inset shows potential-current plot in OER region). (c) Correlation between absolute OER activity values with number of Fe surface coverage on NiM(Cu, Co, Mn) and Ni hydr(oxy)oxides indicates that OER catalysis enhancement increases linearly on the average Fe coverage. It clearly demonstrates that 'dynamic stable Fe' is general descriptor for OER activity. (d) Activity-Stability Factor comparison between different Fe-M and M hydr(oxy)oxide reveals that engineering dynamic active site/host pair with high number of dynamic Fe species and stable host is key design principle. The measurement was done at least three times and average values are presented with standard error bar.







