

Porous Co₃O₄ nanoplates as the active material for rechargeable Zn-air batteries with high energy efficiency and cycling stability

Peng Tan^{1,2}, Bin Chen², Haoran Xu², Weizi Cai², Wei He², Meng Ni^{2,3,*}

- 1 Department of Thermal Science and Energy Engineering, University of Science and Technology of China, Hefei 230026, Anhui, China
- 2 Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong, China
- 3 Environmental Energy Research Group, Research Institute for Sustainable Urban Development (RISUD), The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong, China

*Corresponding Author, Tel: +852-27664152, E-mail: meng.ni@polyu.edu.hk (Meng Ni)

Abstract: Efficient electrocatalysts for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and oxygen evolution reaction (OER) are crucial for rechargeable Zn-air batteries. We report porous Co₃O₄ nanoplates with the average size and thickness of ~100 and ~20 nm, respectively, and a surface area of 98.65 m² g⁻¹. The mesoporous nanostructure shortens the lengths for ion/electron transport and provides abundant reaction sites. In the alkaline solution, the Co₃O₄ nanoplates exhibit a comparable limiting current density to that of Pt/C in the ORR and a superior activity in the OER. Redox reactions corresponding to the oxidation/reduction of cobalt species with a high pseudocapacitance and stability are observed, indicating the multifunctional properties. Using Co₃O₄ nanoplates in the air electrode, the Zn-air battery delivers a maximum power density of 59.7 mW cm⁻². At a current density of 1 mA cm⁻², a gravimetric energy density of 901.6 Wh kg_{Zn}⁻¹ and an energy efficiency of 67.3% are achieved. Moreover, the voltage gaps between discharge and charge as well as the energy efficiency of 58% at 10 mA cm⁻² are maintained for 100 cycles. The porous Co₃O₄ nanoplate is a promising active material for efficient Zn-air batteries with excellent cycling stability and high energy density.

Keywords: Zn-air battery, cobalt oxide, porous nanoplate, multifunctional material, energy efficiency.

1. Introduction

To realize the long operation of electric vehicles and portable electronics, it is significant to develop advanced high-energy-density power systems [1,2]. Among various energy conversion and storage systems [3–6], rechargeable Zn-air batteries have become the research topic recently [7]. This is because metallic zinc is used as the reactant, which has a high theoretical capacity of $820 \text{ mAh g}_{\text{Zn}}^{-1}$ [8]. Oxygen, as the other reactant, is taken from air instead of occupying the volume nor contributing to the weight of the battery. Thus, the theoretical energy densities can be superior to those of state-of-the-art lithium-ion batteries [9–12]. Particularly, different from Li-air and Na-air batteries that use highly active metals and aprotic electrolytes with numerous safety concerns [13], Zn-air batteries use aqueous alkaline electrolytes and are considered as highly safe and environmentally friendly [8]. Although the successful commercialization of primary Zn-air batteries has been achieved for a long time [2], the development of rechargeable ones is still on the initial stage. During discharge, gaseous oxygen molecules diffuse into the air electrode and are reduced at the triple-phase boundaries through the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR); while during charge, oxygen is released through the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) to the ambient air [14]. Hence, accelerating the ORR and OER is significant for the discharge and charge performance. However, the present Zn-air batteries suffer from the sluggish reaction kinetics, which results in the large discharge-charge voltages gap [15]. Consequently, the energy efficiency is greatly reduced. Besides, the large overpotentials can lead to the corrosion of the electrode material,

limiting the cycling stability [10]. Therefore, to improve the energy efficiency and ensure the long-term cycling stability, it is crucial to develop effective active materials of the air electrode [16,17].

Transition-metal oxides, due to their facile synthesis, remarkable activity, and low cost, have been reported as effective electrocatalysts in alkaline environments and applied in rechargeable Zn-air batteries [18–22]. Among them, cobalt oxides, especially Co_3O_4 , have attracted great interests. In the spinel structure, the mixed valence of Co(II) and Co(III) enables the high ORR and OER activity [23]. To this end, Co_3O_4 has been used in the air electrode as a bifunctional electrocatalyst. For example, Zong *et al.* fabricated Co_3O_4 nanoparticle-decorated carbon nanofibers, which led to the higher energy efficiency of 64.0% and lower voltage gap of 0.9 V than those using Pt/C in the air electrode. [24]. Deng *et al.* synthesized an ultrathin Co_3O_4 nanofilm (1.8 nm) and achieved a lower overpotential of 0.72 V, a round-trip efficiency of 62.7%, and a long cycle life of 175 cycles at 2 mA cm^{-2} [25]. The good performance comes from the increased electrochemically active sites, large interfacial surfaces, and the enrichment of Co(III) ions on the surface. Wang *et al.* found that the surface crystal planes of Co_3O_4 are essential to promote the OER, and the crystal planes of {111} have the largest effect on reducing the overpotentials [26]. Chen *et al.* synthesized two-dimensional porous Co_3O_4 nanodisks with 500-600 nm in diameter and 20-40 nm in thickness [27]. Attributed to the special morphology though which both the mass diffusion and the charge transport were facilitated, a Zn-air battery showed stable charge and discharge voltages throughout 60 cycles with no voltage fading. Shirage *et al.* prepared two-dimensional hexagonal platelets of Co_3O_4 with (111) facets [28]. The highly crystalline Co_3O_4 plates have the

width of $\sim 2 \mu\text{m}$ and the thickness of $\sim 40\text{-}50 \text{ nm}$, and the specific surface area reaches $45.68 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. In 2 M KOH , a high capacitance value of 305 F g^{-1} at 5 mV s^{-1} and a high capacity retention rate of 81.25% after 2020 galvanostatic charge-discharge cycles were exhibited, indicating the potential application for electrochemical energy storage. Even with these promising results, the development of Co_3O_4 as the active material of the air electrode to achieve higher energy efficiency and cycling stability, especially at larger current densities, is still in urgent demand.

In this work, we report two-dimensional porous Co_3O_4 nanoplates as the active material for rechargeable Zn-air batteries. The (111) faceted hexagonal Co_3O_4 nanoplates with mesoporous nanostructure were fabricated through a facile method, which not only shortens the lengths for ion and electron transport but also provides abundant active sites. The electrochemical properties of the Co_3O_4 nanoplate were first examined in an alkaline solution. Then, a home-made Zn-air battery with Co_3O_4 nanoplates as the active material was built, and the discharge capacity and power density were measured. Further, the cycling performance was evaluated through a pulse discharge-charge test, and the stability as well as the energy efficiency were further analyzed.

2. Experimental

2.1 Synthesis of Co_3O_4 nanoplates

Co_3O_4 nanoplates were synthesized using a modified method as reported before [29,30]. Briefly, 0.16 mol KOH was first dissolved in 35 mL of distilled water, and then 5 mL of $\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ aqueous solution with the concentration of 4.0 M was slowly dropped into the KOH solution. After aging for 30 min with continuous stirring, the suspension was placed in an autoclave made of Teflon inside a stainless steel housing and

heated at 100 °C for 12 h. After cooling, distilled water and ethanol were used to wash the product thoroughly, followed by drying at 60 °C overnight. The dried powder was then heated using a furnace in air at 250 °C for 3 hours with 1 °C min⁻¹ temperature ramp.

2.2 Physicochemical characterization

To observe the product morphology, a scanning electron microscope (SEM, VEGA3 TESCAN) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL 2100F) were applied, which were operated under the voltage of 20 and 200 kV, respectively. The composition of the product was analyzed by a Rigaku Smartlab X-ray diffractometer (XRD) with a Cu-K α source at 40 keV. To obtain the geometrical properties of the product, the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm was measured by ASAP 2020, and the Brunauer-Emmert-Teller and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda methods were used to calculate the specific surface area and pore volume, respectively.

2.3 Three-electrode electrochemical analyses

A three-electrode cell with 0.1 M KOH as the electrolyte was used to evaluate the electrochemical properties, which were measured using a Solartron potentiostat by rotating disc electrode (RDE) voltammetry. The ink solution was prepared by physically mixing 4 mg of prepared Co₃O₄ nanoplates, 2 mg of active carbon (Vulcan XC-72), and 20 μ L of Nafion solution (5 wt%) into 380 μ L of isopropanol, followed by ultrasonication for 30 minutes to make it homogeneous. Then, 4 μ L of the ink was carefully dripped onto the polished glassy carbon electrode (diameter: 4 mm) and dried completely to form the working electrode with the catalyst loading of 0.2 mg cm⁻². To make a comparison, the Pt/C electrode was made with the similar approach by replacing the Co₃O₄ nanoplates

with the commercial 20% Pt/C catalyst. The counter electrode was a platinum wire, and a Hg/HgO electrode was used as the reference electrode.

To characterize the ORR activity, oxygen gas was first purged to saturate the electrolyte. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) for ORR polarization curves was conducted within the potential range from 0.2 to -0.7 V (vs. Hg/HgO) using the rotation speeds from 400 to 2500 rpm, and a scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} was applied. The kinetic current (j_k) was obtained using the Koutecky-Levich equation [31]:

$$j^{-1} = j_k^{-1} + j_d^{-1} \quad (1)$$

$$j_d = 0.2nFD_{\text{O}_2}^{2/3} \nu^{-1/6} C_{\text{O}_2} \omega^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where j is the measured current density and j_d is the diffusion-limiting current densities. n is the number of electrons transferred, F is the Faraday constant (96485 C mol^{-1}), and ω is the angular velocity (rpm). D_{O_2} and C_{O_2} are the diffusion coefficient and the bulk concentration of O_2 in 0.1 M KOH, the values of which are $1.86 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $1.21 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol cm}^{-3}$, respectively. ν is the kinematic viscosity of 0.1 M KOH, and the value is $1.01 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$. To measure the OER activity, the LSV curve was conducted within the potential range from 0.2 to 0.9 V (vs. Hg/HgO) using a rotation speed of 1600 rpm at 5 mV s^{-1} . The Cyclic voltammetry (CV) results were obtained using RDE at various scan rates within 0.3–0.8 V (vs. Hg/HgO), and the stability test was conducted at 50 mV s^{-1} . The measured current densities were normalized by the area of glassy carbon, and the specific capacitance was calculated based on the following equation [32]:

$$C = \frac{1}{ms(V_f - V_i)} \int_{V_i}^{V_f} IdV \quad (3)$$

where m is the mass loading of Co_3O_4 nanoplates, s is the scan rate, V_f and V_i present the potential range of the voltammetric curve (0.2–0.9 V), and I is the current density. To clearly present the results, a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) was used for the calibration [33]:

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{Hg/HgO}} + 0.059\text{pH} + 0.098 \quad (4)$$

2.4 Battery fabrication and evaluation

The working electrodes were prepared by spraying the ink onto a carbon paper (Toray TGP-H-060), which was a mixture of 50% of active carbon (carbon power of Vulcan XC 72 (20-40 nm) and carbon nanotubes (40-60 nm in diameter and 5-15 μm in length) with the weight ratio of 1:1) [34], 25% of active material (Co_3O_4 nanoplate or Pt/C), and 25% of polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) binder. The loading of the catalyst on the air electrode was 2 mg cm^{-2} . A Zn-air battery was composed of a Zn foil as the metal electrode, the as-prepared air electrode, and 6 M KOH + 0.2 M zinc acetate as the electrolyte, as the photograph shown in **Fig. S1** (Supporting information) [35]. The galvanodynamic charge and discharge voltage profiles of the battery were measured at a current step of 1 mA s^{-1} . The galvanostatic discharge voltage curves were measured at the current density of 1 mA cm^{-2} , and the discharge capacities (mAh g^{-1}) were calculated based on the consumed zinc. The cycling stability was tested at 10 mA cm^{-2} with a fixed time interval (360 s for discharge followed by 360 s for charge).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Material characterization

The SEM image is presented in **Figs. 1a** and **S2**, from which the synthesized nanoplates with the lateral size of $111.7 \pm 16.9 \text{ nm}$ and the thickness of $\sim 20 \text{ nm}$ are

observed, which are in much smaller dimensions than those of previously reported [26–28]. The TEM images in **Figs. 2b** and **2c** clearly demonstrate the hexagonal shape of the nanoplates with a porous structure, which is attributed to the release of water molecules during the calcination process [36]. From **Fig. 2c**, the nanoplate is composed of nanoparticles with sizes of ~ 8 nm and pores of ~ 3 nm. A high-resolution TEM image of this individual nanoplate in **Fig. 2d** corroborates the interplaner spacing of 0.244 nm, which corresponds to the (311) plane of Co_3O_4 , and the selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern corroborates the (220), (311), (400), (511), and (440) planes of crystalline Co_3O_4 . These results confirm that porous Co_3O_4 nanoplates were successfully synthesized.

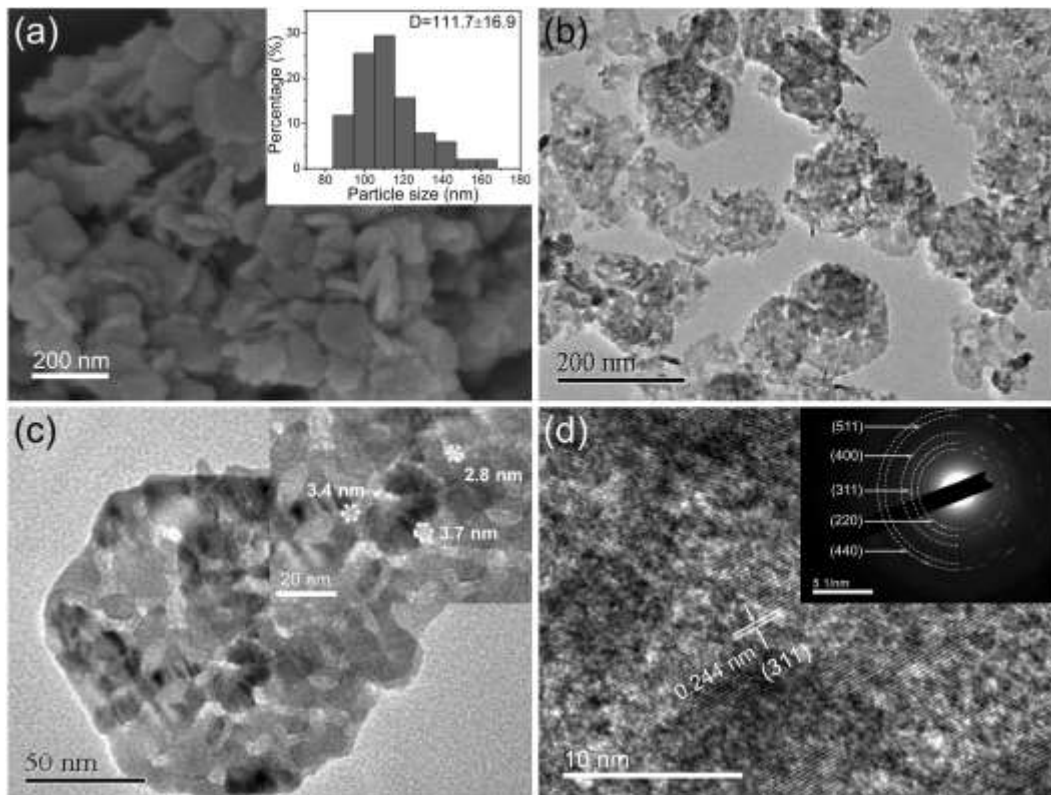


Fig. 1 SEM and TEM images of Co_3O_4 nanoplates. (a) SEM image, the inset shows the size distribution. (b-c) TEM images, the inset shows the pore size of the nanoplate (marked in white circles). (d) High-magnification TEM image with SAED (inset).

XRD has been conducted to further elucidate the crystalline structure of Co_3O_4 nanoplates. As shown in **Fig. 2a**, the peaks match those of spinel Co_3O_4 (JCPDS 42-1467), consistent with the results obtained from SAED. Due to the highly porous structure and small dimensions, the specific surface area of Co_3O_4 nanoplate researches a high value of $98.65 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (**Fig. 2b**). The mesoporous structure was confirmed by the pore size distribution shown in **Fig. 2b** inset. The pore size of 2.6 nm is consistent with the TEM observation in **Fig. 1c**, and the pore volume is measured to be $0.628 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$. The high specific surface area associated with the mesoporous structure of the Co_3O_4 hexagonal nanoplates not only provides abundant reaction sites increases, but also increase the accessibility of the electrolyte to the active materials, which may help to enhance the electrochemical performance.

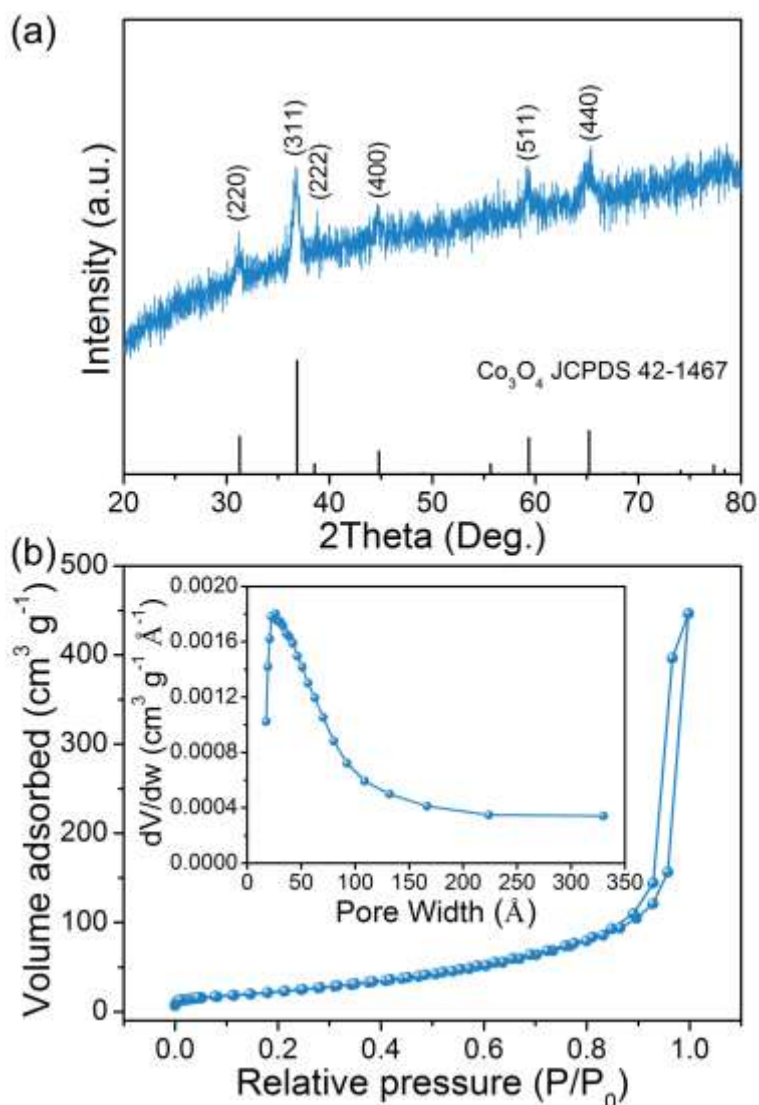


Fig. 2 Characterization of Co₃O₄ nanoplates. (a) XRD pattern. (b) Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms, and the inset shows the pore size distribution.

3.2 Electrochemical properties

The ORR and OER activity of Co₃O₄ nanoplates was evaluated in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte, and compared with that of Pt/C. As shown in **Fig. 3a**, Co₃O₄ nanoplate exhibits a limiting current density of -5.18 mA cm^{-2} at 0.3 V (vs. RHE) in the ORR region, and the Tafel slope is $82.32 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$ (**Fig. 3a** inset). In comparison, the values achieved by the commercial Pt/C are -5.21 mA cm^{-2} and $66.90 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$, respectively. Hence, the Co₃O₄ nanoplate presents the comparable ORR activity to that of Pt/C. **Fig.**

3b presents the LSV curves of the Co₃O₄ nanoplate at different rotating rates, and the inset presents the corresponding Koutecky-Levich plots. The average number of electrons transferred (n) is determined to be ~ 4 , indicating a four-electron ORR process. In the OER region, the Co₃O₄ nanoplate possesses a Tafel slope of 77.9 mV dec⁻¹ and achieves the current density of 10 mA cm⁻² at 1.63 V (vs. RHE). Comparatively, the Tafel slope is 143.5 mV dec⁻¹ for Pt/C, and the current density only reaches 4.5 mA cm⁻² at a high potential of 1.77 V (vs. RHE). Hence, the potential to achieve 10 mA cm⁻² of Co₃O₄ nanoplates is superior to those of some reported state-of-the-art catalysts (e.g., Fe@N-doped carbon nanoshell: 1.70 V [37]; Co and N co-doped carbon: 1.74 V [38]; FeCo@N-doped graphitic carbon nanotubes: 1.76 V [39]). The reversibility of the oxygen electrode can be evaluated by the potential gap (ΔE) between the half-wave potential in the ORR ($E_{1/2}$) and the potential at 10 mA cm⁻² in the OER ($E_{j=10}$). Thus, the value of ΔE for Co₃O₄ nanoplates is calculated to be 0.84 V, which surpasses the noble metal-based catalysts (e.g., Ir/C: 1.41 V) [40] and some reported bifunctional catalysts [41–48], as listed in **Table S1**, demonstrating the high effectiveness as a bifunctional electrocatalyst.

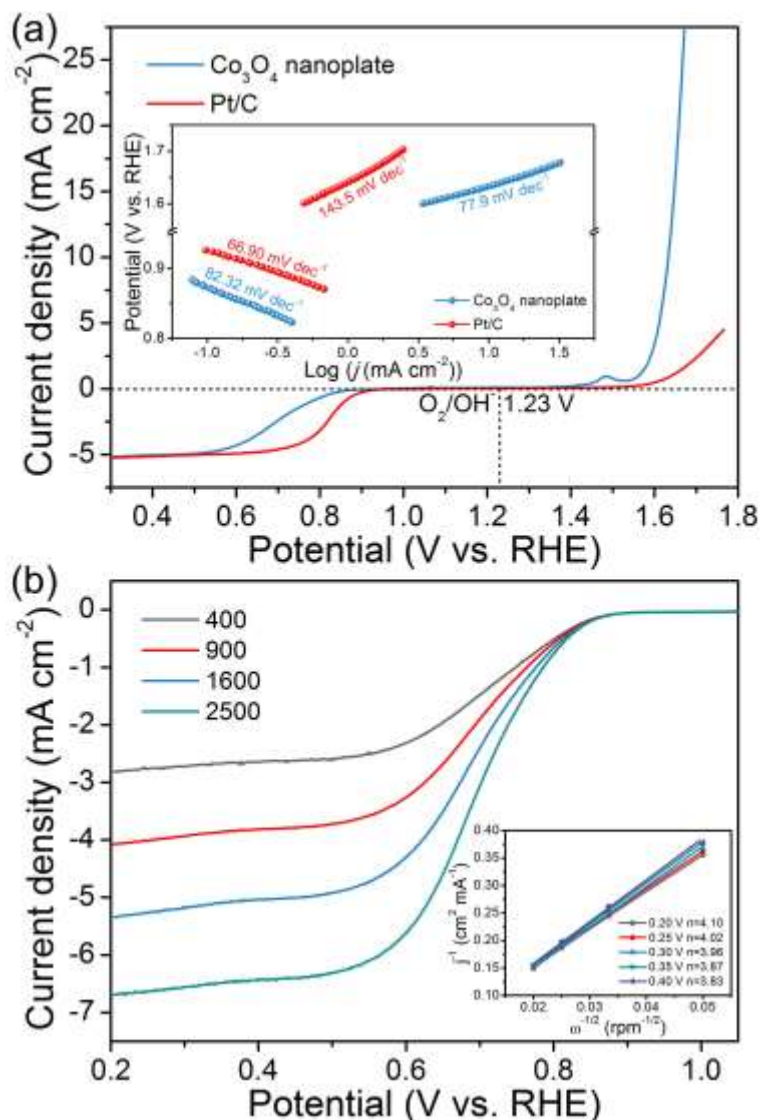


Fig. 3 Electrochemical activity of the Co_3O_4 nanoplate in 0.1 M KOH . (a) LSV curves in the O_2 saturated electrolyte, and the inset shows the corresponding Tafel plots. (b) RDE curves at different rotating rates, the inset shows the corresponding Koutecky-Levich plots.

It is worth noting that a small peak appears in the LSV curve of the OER region (**Fig. 3a**). To study the redox behavior of Co_3O_4 nanoplates, CV measurements were carried out within $0.3\text{--}0.8 \text{ V}$ (vs. Hg/HgO) at various rates. As presented in **Fig. 4a**, the anodic and cathodic peaks in the non-rectangular shaped CV curves represent the oxidation and reduction processes, respectively. Previous works have indicated that Co_3O_4 can undergo the charge-transfer reactions of $\text{Co(II)} \leftrightarrow \text{Co(III)} \leftrightarrow \text{Co(IV)}$ with

three redox couples of $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{Co}(\text{OH})_2$, $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{CoOOH}$, and $\text{CoOOH}/\text{CoO}_2$ in alkaline solutions [49,50]. In the present study, only one couple of peaks instead of three is evident. This phenomenon is also reported in ref. [28] for the mesoporous layered hexagonal Co_3O_4 nanoparticles, which may be caused by the surface modification of Co_3O_4 [51] and/or the difference in alkaline concentration [49,50]. With an increase of the scan rate, the anodic and cathodic peaks gradually shift towards the positive and negative potential, respectively, and the current densities increase. The capacitance values at different scan rates are presented in **Fig. 4b**. At 5 mV s^{-1} , the capacitance is 330 F g^{-1} . Even at a high rate of 100 mV s^{-1} , the capacitance can still reach 275 F g^{-1} , from which the retention rate is calculated to be 83.3%. Comparatively, the hexagonal Co_3O_4 nanoparticles reported by Shirage *et al.* achieved the capacitance value of 305 and 180 mAh g^{-1} at 5 and 100 mV s^{-1} , respectively, with a retention rate of 59.0% [28]. Hence, the Co_3O_4 nanoplate in this work exhibited higher rate performance, which may come from the smaller particle size and larger surface area, shortening the lengths for ion and electron transport and increasing the active sites. To examine the redox stability, we also measured the CV curves at 50 mV s^{-1} for 2500 cycles. As illustrated in **Fig. 4c**, the peak current densities gradually decrease, while the shape of CV curves is well maintained. Through calculating the corresponding capacitance, it is found that the retention rate can still reach 60.3% even after 2500 cycles (**Fig. 4d**), showing a good stability [52]. The electrochemical properties demonstrated above, including excellent ORR and OER activity, a high pseudocapacitance, and a high capacitance retention rate, are crucial for the performance enhancement of Zn-air batteries [53].

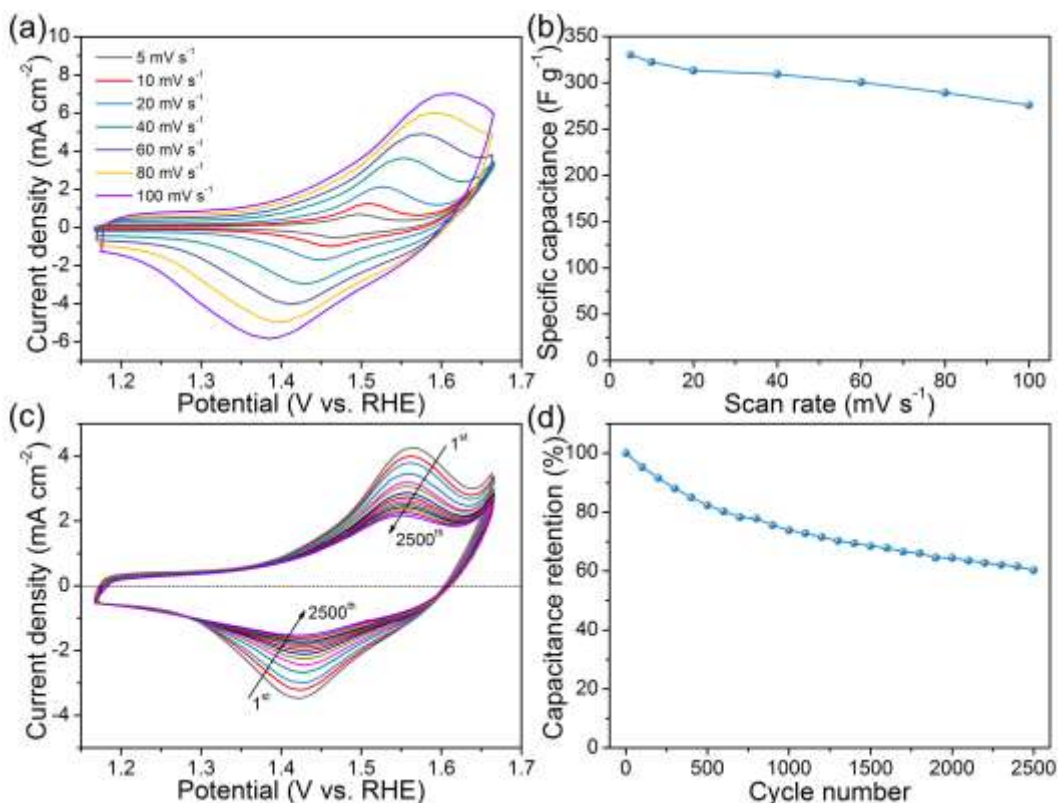


Fig. 4 CV measurements of the Co₃O₄ nanoplate electrode. (a) CV curves at various scan rates. (b) Variation of the specific capacitance. (c) Selected CV curves at the scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹. (d) Capacitance retention rate during the cycle.

3.3 Battery performance

The performance of Co₃O₄ nanoplates and Pt/C as the catalyst materials was evaluated in a Zn-air battery. The polarization curves presented in **Fig. 5a** show that the maximum power density of Co₃O₄ nanoplate is 59.7 mW cm⁻², equal to 73.6% of that achieved by Pt/C (81.1 mW cm⁻²). Using the current density of 1 mA cm⁻², both Co₃O₄ nanoplate and Pt/C result in good discharge voltage plateaus, and the final voltage drop is attributed to the consumption of the Zn metal. The Co₃O₄ nanoplate delivers a specific capacity of 702.4 mAh g_{Zn}⁻¹ with a gravimetric energy density of 901.6 Wh kg_{Zn}⁻¹ (**Fig. 5b**), which are higher than those obtained by Pt/C (640.0 mAh g_{Zn}⁻¹, 828.5 Wh kg_{Zn}⁻¹). For the charge process, as illustrated by the polarization curves in **Fig. 5a**, Co₃O₄ nanoplate delivers lower voltages than that of Pt/C. Even with a little higher loading (2

mg cm⁻²) than that of the Co₃O₄ nanodisk electrode (ca. 1.5 mg cm⁻²) reported by Chen *et al.* [26], the discharge voltage of the present Co₃O₄ nanoplate is improved and the charge voltage is remarkably reduced, indicating the high activity in the battery (**Fig. S3**). We further tested the discharge and charge performance of the Co₃O₄ nanoplate using 1 mA cm⁻². As shown in **Fig. 5c**, humps are observed in the voltage profiles, which are different from the conventional single plateau (e.g., Pt/C, **Fig. 5d**). The charge voltage exhibits a distinct plateau at 1.87 V, followed by a higher plateau at 1.96 V for the OER. While in the discharge process, a first voltage plateau exists at 1.80 V, followed by the plateau at 1.27 V for the ORR. This first higher voltage plateaus are consistent with the reported Zn-Co₃O₄ battery, which corresponds to the conversion between Co₃O₄ and CoO₂ [54]. Hence, the charge-discharge behaviors in Co₃O₄ nanoplate electrode originate from the oxidation-reduction of the cobalt oxide and the OER-ORR process, consistent with the electrochemical properties observed in **Fig. 4**, forming a hybrid Zn-M/air battery (M is the transition metal) as reported [53,55,56]. Due to the increased energy delivered on discharge and the decreased energy consumed on charge, the energy efficiency is calculated to be 67.3%, higher than that obtained by Pt/C (66.3%), even though Pt/C delivers the voltages of 1.95 and 1.30 V on the OER and ORR, respectively.

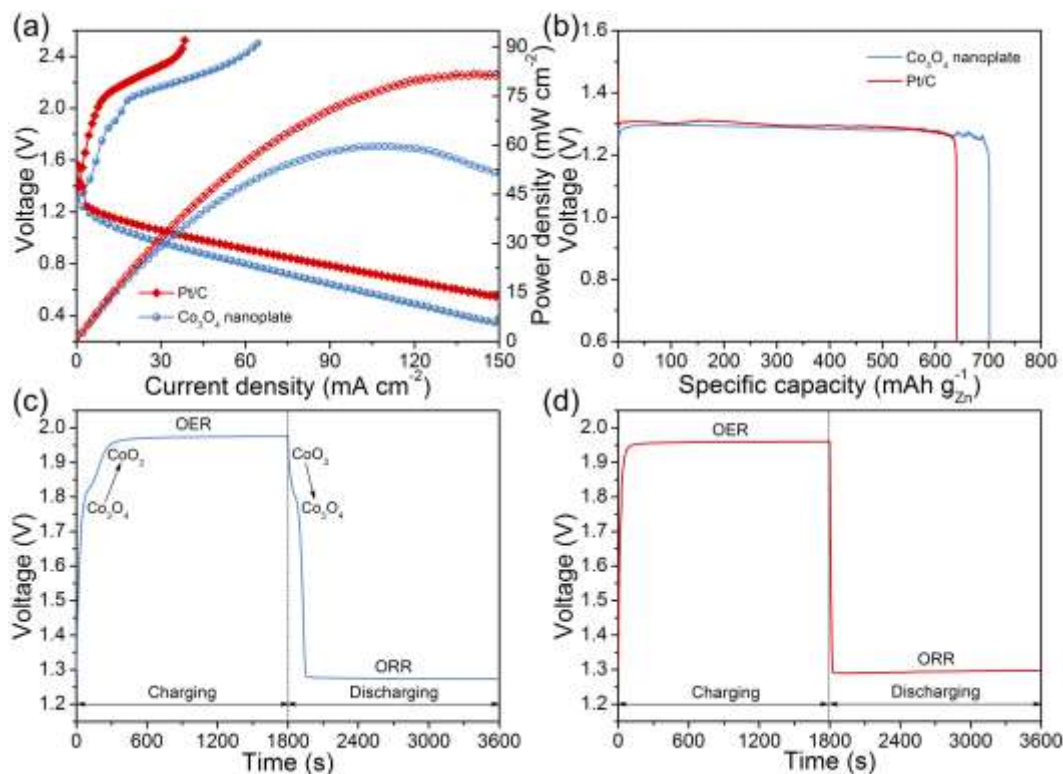


Fig. 5 Electrochemical characteristics of the Zn-air battery with Co₃O₄ nanoplates and Pt/C. (a) Polarization curves and power densities. (b) Discharge voltage curves at 1 mA cm⁻². (c-d) Charge-discharge voltage profiles at 1 mA cm⁻² (30 min for charging and 30 min for discharging) of (c) Co₃O₄ nanoplates and (d) Pt/C.

The electrochemical durability of Co₃O₄ nanoplates in rechargeable Zn-air batteries was investigated by a pulse discharge-charge test at 10 mA cm⁻². As shown in **Fig. 6a**, a stable voltage profile is obtained for 100 cycles. On the contrary, the commercial Pt/C leads to a high charge voltage up to 2.3 V (**Fig. 6a**). Such a high voltage will cause the carbon corrosion and performance degradation, leading to the failure of the battery eventually. Consequently, starting from the 90th cycle, the discharge voltage quickly drops. For a clear comparison, as shown in **Fig. 6c**, the voltage gap of Co₃O₄ nanoplate at the 1st cycle is 0.917 V, and only increase to 0.946 V at the 100th cycle; while for Pt/C, the voltage gap enlarges from 1.074 V to 1.367 V. Even at the high current density, the metal oxide oxidation-reduction can still be observed (**Fig. 6c**), which benefits the discharge and charge processes. As a result, the energy efficiency of the battery with

Co₃O₄ nanoplates keeps stable at 58% during cycle (**Fig. 6d**), while it drops from 53% to 44% for Pt/C. These results emphasize the Co₃O₄ nanoplate as a highly efficient and stable active material for rechargeable Zn-air batteries.

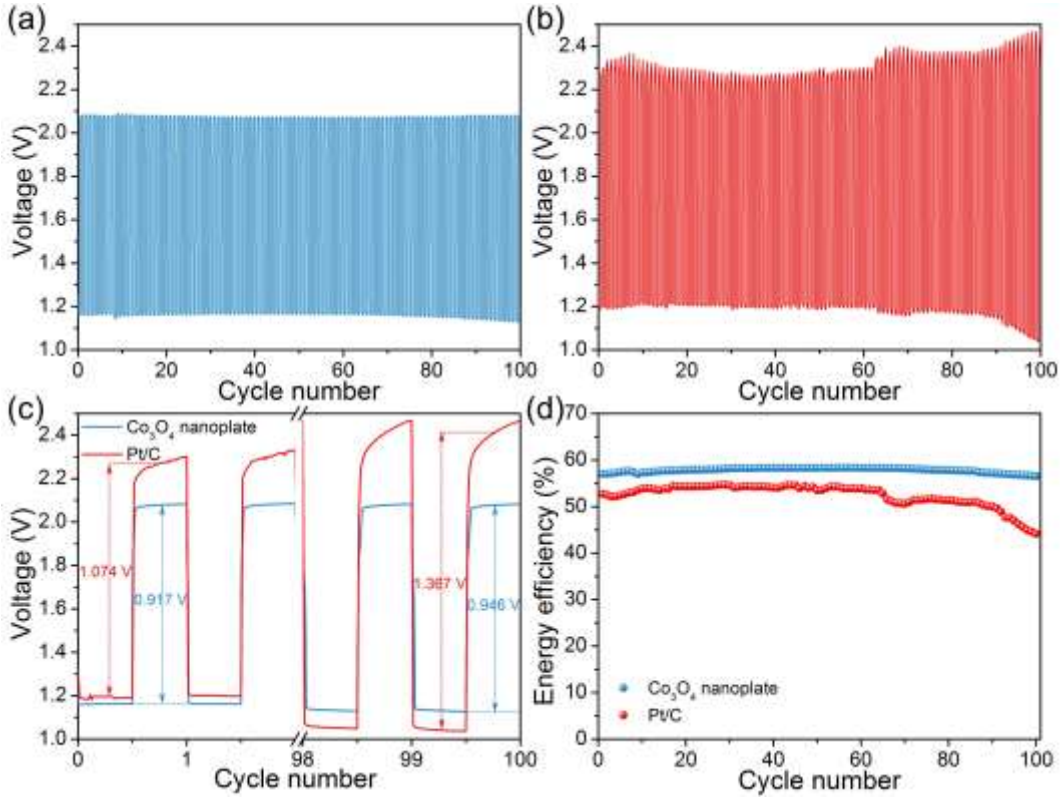


Fig. 6 Cycling stability of the Zn-air battery with Co₃O₄ nanoplates and Pt/C. (a-b) Cycling stability test at 10 mA cm⁻² for 360 s discharge and 360 s charge: (a) Co₃O₄ nanoplates and (b) Pt/C. (c) Discharge-charge voltage profiles for the selected cycles. (d) Energy efficiency during the cycling test.

4. Conclusions

In summary, two-dimensional porous hexagonal Co₃O₄ nanoplates with the average size and thickness of ~100 and ~20 nm have been synthesized in this work. The large surface area and mesoporous nanostructures provide abundant active sites and shorten the lengths for ion and electron transport. In an alkaline solution, the Co₃O₄ nanoplate exhibited a limiting current density (-5.18 mA cm⁻²) comparable to that of the commercial Pt/C (-5.21 mA cm⁻²) in the ORR region and the superior activity with the

potential of 1.63 V at 10 mA cm⁻² in the OER region. Additionally, redox reactions corresponding to the oxidation and reduction of cobalt species were observed, and the capacitance of 330 F g⁻¹ and a high retention rate of 60.3% after 2500 cycles were delivered. A Zn-air battery with Co₃O₄ nanoplates as the active material delivered the maximum power density of 59.7 mW cm⁻² and the gravimetric energy density of 901.6 Wh kg_{Zn}⁻¹. Through synergizing the activity towards the oxygen electrocatalysis and the supercapacitive behavior, the oxidation-reduction of cobalt oxides and the OER-ORR process were exhibited during charge and discharge, resulting in the higher energy efficiency (67.3%) than that of commercial Pt/C (66.3%). Moreover, the low voltage gaps between discharge and charge as well as the high energy efficiency of 58% at 10 mA cm⁻² were maintained for 100 cycles. The results demonstrate that the porous Co₃O₄ nanoplate is a potential active material for efficient rechargeable Zn-air batteries with excellent cycling stability and high energy density.

Acknowledgments

P. Tan thanks the funding support from CAS Pioneer Hundred Talents Program. M. Ni thanks the funding support from The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (G-YBJN and G-YW2D), a fund from RISUD (1-ZVEA), and a grant (Project Number: PolyU 152214/17E) from Research Grant Council, University Grants Committee, Hong Kong SAR.

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