1 **Full Paper**

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4 # Nitrogen-doped graphene derived from ionic liquid as metal-free
5 # catalyst for oxygen reduction reaction and its mechanisms

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7 *Yiyi She [a,c], Jinfan Chen [b], Chengxu Zhang [a,d], Zhouguang Lu [e], Meng Ni [f], Patrick H.-L. Sit [b],*
8 *Michael K.H. Leung [a,b,c] ∗*

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11 [a] *Ability R&D Energy Research Centre, School of Energy and Environment, City University of Hong Kong,*
12 *Hong Kong, China*
13 [b] *School of Energy and Environment, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China*
14 [c] *City University of Hong Kong Shenzhen Research Institute, Shenzhen, Guangdong, China*
15 [d] *The Engineering Laboratory of Advanced Battery and Materials of Yunnan Province, Faculty of Metallurgical*
16 *and Energy Engineering, Kunming University of Science and Technology, Kunming, China*
17 [e] *Department of Materials Science and Engineering, South University of Science and Technology of China,*
18 *Shenzhen, Guangdong, 518055, China*
19 [f] *Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China*

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24 **Abstract**

25 It is of great significance to develop N-doped carbon materials possessing high catalytic

26 activity, excellent durability and low cost for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) due to

27 imperative for energy devices with high energy density, such as fuel cells and metal-air

28 batteries. Herein, N-doped graphene is prepared by annealing a homogeneous mixture of

29 graphene oxide (GO) and ionic liquid of 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate

30 ([Bmim]BF_4) in N_2 atmosphere. By entrapping effect, the ionic liquid serves as both N source

31 and restacking protectant in formation of high-quality N-doped graphene sheets.

32 Electrochemical characterizations reveal that the obtained N-doped graphene possesses

33 excellent electro-catalytic properties for ORR in alkaline condition with onset potential of -39

34 mV (vs. Hg/HgO) and current density of 5.83 mA cm^{-2} at -0.9 V (vs. Hg/HgO) at 2500 rpm.

35 The microstructure of the prepared catalysts and their ORR catalytic activities are highly

36 sensitive to calcination temperature and the optimal temperature is 900 $^\circ$C. Density functional

37 theory (DFT) analysis indicates from the atomic point of view that N atoms with different

* Corresponding author. Tel: +852 3442 4626; Fax: +852 3442 0688; E-mail address: mkh.leung@cityu.edu.hk

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38 configurations contribute unequally to the ORR performance enhancement. Pyridinic N at the

39 edge of graphene plays the most significant role in improving ORR performance owing to the

40 largest number of active sites and lower band gap. Based on the experimental and simulation

41 results, the beneficial properties of the as-prepared N-doped graphene for ORR are ascribed to

42 the superior conductivity of graphene, the high N doping content and the high proportion of

43 active pyridinic N species.

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45 *Keywords: Density functional theory; Fuel cell; Heteroatom doping; Metal-air battery;*
46 *Metal-free catalyst.*

* Corresponding author. Tel: +852 3442 4626; Fax: +852 3442 0688; E-mail address: mkh.leung@cityu.edu.hk

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1. Introduction

The ever-growing global energy demand and the mission of environmental protection have promoted the exploration of renewable energy storage and conversion technologies [1, 2], among which fuel cell and metal-air battery show great prospect owing to high energy density and environmental friendliness [3-5]. However, their wide application is severely hampered by the sluggish reaction kinetics of oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) on cathode, requiring high loading of Pt catalysts to maintain the performance of energy devices [6, 7]. In the past few decades, extensive efforts have been devoted to explore advanced noble metal-free catalysts in order to improve ORR catalytic activity and lower the cost [8]. Among all potential candidates, heteroatom-doped (such as B, N, S and P) carbon materials, especially heteroatom-doped graphene, have attracted great research attention due to intrinsic merits of graphene, low fabrication cost and remarkable ORR catalytic activity [9-13]. The mechanism concerning heteroatom-doped carbon materials for ORR performance enhancement has been extensively discussed and evaluated by density functional theory (DFT) [14-16]. It is commonly considered that the reallocation of the electronic charge, induced by the electronegativity difference between carbon atoms and doped heteroatoms, creates positive-charged active sites and, thus, facilitates the O_2 adsorption in the ORR process [17]. Further DFT investigations have shown that the change of spin density, doping cluster size and dopant-defect interactions also play a significant role in ORR performance boost in addition to the change of charge density [18, 19]. It is noteworthy that these calculations regarding N-doped graphene, which is one of the most promising substitute for Pt catalyst, are exclusively based on substituting N atoms for C at the edge of graphene framework [20]. However, revealed by comprehensive experimental results, N-doped carbon materials consist of three effective N configurations for ORR in the carbon skeleton including pyridinic N, pyrrolic N and graphitic N, each of which could locate either inside or at the edge of graphene [21, 22].

72 Therefore, It is highly desirable for material design and mechanism exploration to figure out

73 how each N configuration functions in ORR from the atomic point of view and which one is

74 the most effective configuration.

75 For heteroatom doping, various heteroatom sources, such as ammonium,

76 ethylenediamine, melamine, benzyl disulfide, polymer, etc., have been applied to fabricate

77 heteroatom-doped carbon materials [23-27]. However, they are either flammable or toxic,

78 resulting in hazards and environmental problems. Ionic liquids (ILs), defined as semi-organic

79 salts existing in the liquid state below 100 ℃, were initially developed as molten electrolyte

80 for electrochemical applications due to its excellent ion conductivity [28]. In recent years,

81 there are more research interests in using ILs as precursors for fabricating heteroatom-doped

82 carbon materials by carbonization method [10, 29, 30]. ILs with cross-linkable anions such as

83 nitrile groups are regarded as favorable precursors of this application owing to the

84 polymerization of cross-linkable groups at elevated temperature, giving higher carbon yield

85 compared with conventional ILs [31, 32]. By an entrapping effect, ILs without cross-linkable

86 groups have also been reported as precursors for the synthesis of heteroatom-doped carbon

87 materials with the assistance of foreign frameworks [33, 34]. Compared with carbonizing pure

88 ILs with cross-linkable groups, this strategy not only enables delicate morphology design, but

89 also reduces fabrication cost. Particularly, when graphitic carbon framework is applied, the

90 CH-π interaction between ILs and graphitic support facilitates the entrapping and directing of

91 ILs into carbon skeleton [4, 35].

92 Herein, we report a simple strategy to synthesize high-quality N-doped graphene by

93 annealing a homogeneous mixture of graphene oxide (GO) and conventional hydrophilic

94 ionic liquid, 1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium Tetrafluorobotate ([Bmim]BF$_4$). Being

95 intrinsically charged, the [Bmim]BF$_4$ can be uniformly adsorbed on the surface of GO,

96 serving as both N dopant and restacking protectant in the subsequent calcination process.

97 Moreover, the use of GO as foreign carbon framework eliminates template removal process

98 which inevitably involves strong acid or alkaline, rendering it promising for large-scale

99 production and improved environmental performance. The as-fabricated N-doped graphene

100 shows remarkable electro-catalytic activity towards ORR in alkaline conditions with

101 maximum current density of 6 mA cm^{-2}. The influence of calcination temperature on the

102 microstructure and ORR catalytic activity is intensively investigated. The effect of each N

103 configuration in graphene, inside or at the edge, on ORR performance is systematically

104 calculated by DFT. This work not only presents a facial and scalable way to fabricate cost-

105 effective catalysts for ORR, but also possesses high academic value in understanding its

106 mechanisms.

107

108 **2. Experimental**

109 *2.1. Synthesis of N-doped graphene*

110 In a typical synthesis, GO was firstly prepared from graphite powder (Acros) according

111 to a modified Hummers method [35, 36]. An amount of 20 mg of as-prepared GO was

112 dispersed homogeneously in 20 mL deionized water by ultrasonication. Then 2 mL of

113 [Bmim]BF$_4$ was dropped into the GO solution by pipette under stirring followed by adjusting

114 the pH of the suspension to around 11 with diluted NaOH solution. The suspension was

115 placed on a hotplate and heated at 120 ℃ under vigorous stirring until sticky carbon ink was

116 obtained. Finally, the pasty mixture was transferred to a covered crucible and calcined in N$_2$

117 atmosphere at elevated temperature for 1 hour in a tube furnace (Carbolite HZS 12/600) with

118 a heating rate of 5 ℃ min^{-1}. The samples after calcination were subjected to ORR

119 electrochemical test without any post treatment.

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2.2. Material characterization

123   The morphology and microstructure of the as-synthesized catalysts were characterized

124   by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JEOL JSM-6490) and transition electron microscopy

125   (TEM, JEOL JEM 2100F). The surface chemical composition of samples was analyzed by X-

126   ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI-5600) with Al Kα radiation (hv=1486.6 eV). The

127   full and high-resolution spectra were recorded in step sizes of 0.5 eV and 0.1 eV, respectively,

128   at a pass energy of 58.7 eV. All XPS spectra were corrected with respect to C 1s peak at 284.8

129   eV.

130

131   *2.3. Electrochemical test*

132   A traditional three-electrode system connected to a CHI 660 electrochemical testing

133   system was applied to all the electrochemical tests in this paper. A glassy carbon electrode

134   (GCE, diameter of 5 mm, PINE instruments, USA), a Pt foil and an Hg/HgO (1 M KOH)

135   electrode were selected as the working, counter and reference electrodes, respectively. For the

136   rotating disk electrode (RDE) experiment, a PINE rotator was used. Prior to coating, the

137   surface of GCE was polished in sequence with 1.0, 0.3 and 0.05 μm alumina powders on a

138   polishing cloth and rinsed with deionized water. An amount of 10 μL suspension of the as-

139   prepared catalyst (or commercial 20 wt% Pt/C (Fuel Cell Earth LLC) as reference) in

140   anhydrous ethanol (1 mg sample mL^{-1}) was subsequently dropped onto the polished surface of

141   the GCE with a pipette and dried in air. This procedure was repeated for three times. Finally,

142   10 μL of Nafion solution (0.5 wt%) was coated onto the surface of modified GCE and dried in

143   air before use. All electrolytes were purged with high purity N_2 or O_2 for 40 minutes prior to

144   measurements. In the ORR experiments, the O_2 (or N_2) saturated condition was guaranteed by

145   introducing constant O_2 (or N_2) gas flow above the surface of the electrolyte. All the

146   experiments were conducted at room temperature. The onset potential (E_{onset}) was deemed at

147   which the current density was equal to -0.1 mA cm^{-2} after background subtraction.

148   Koutecky-Levich (K-L) equation given below was applied to calculate the electron

149   transfer number per one oxygen molecule in the ORR process:

150   $$1/j = 1/j_k + 1/j_d = 1/j_k + 1/[0.62nF(D_{O2})^{2/3}\nu^{-1/6}C_{O2}\omega^{1/2}] \tag{1}$$

151   where j is the measured current density; j_k and j_d are the kinetic and diffusion limited current

152   density, respectively; n is overall electron number transferred per oxygen molecule during

153   ORR; F represents Faraday constant (96485 C mol^{-1}); D_{O2} is the diffusion coefficient of O_2 in

154   the electrolyte (1.9×10^{-5} cm^2 s^{-1} in 0.1 M KOH); ν is kinematic viscosity of the electrolyte

155   (0.01 cm^2 s^{-1}); C_{O2} is the bulk concentration of O_2 in the electrolyte (1.2×10^{-6} mol cm^{-3} in 0.1

156   M KOH); ω is rotating rate of the electrode (rad s^{-1}) [37].

157

158   **3. Calculations**

159   Spin-polarized density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed to analyze

160   the effect of different N configurations on the properties of the N-doped graphene and the

161   corresponding impact on the ORR catalytic activity. Generalized gradient approximations

162   functional (GGA), Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional (PBE) [38] and ultrasoft

163   pseudopotentials [39] were used in the calculations using the PWscf module of the Quantum

164   Espresso package [40]. The gamma-point sampling was adopted and the plane-wave kinetic

165   energy cutoffs for the wave functions and the charge density were chosen as 30 Ry and 240

166   Ry, respectively. In analyzing the atomic charges and spins, the Lowdin charges and spins

167   were calculated. Six models of N-doped single-layer graphene with different doping

168   configurations were built. C and N atoms on the edges of graphene were terminated by H

169   atoms [18, 41, 42]. Each system was situated in a unit cell box for calculations. The side

170 length of the unit cell box was 30 Å, tested to be large enough for the effect of periodic

171 boundary conditions to be negligible in the as-defined systems.

172
173
174 **4. Results and discussion**

175 *4.1. Material characterization*

176   In this synthesis, GO serves as the flake template. [Bmim]BF_4 is absorbed on the surface

177 of GO spontaneously by electrostatic force. It protects the restacking of GO and decomposes

178 to supply N in the calcination, in which doping and reducing are accomplished simultaneously.

179 Four calcination temperatures of 700, 800, 900 and 1000 ℃ were chosen to synthesize

180 NG700, NG800, NG900 and NG1000, respectively. For comparison, an undoped control

181 sample (designated as UG) was also fabricated by the same procedure at 900 ℃ without
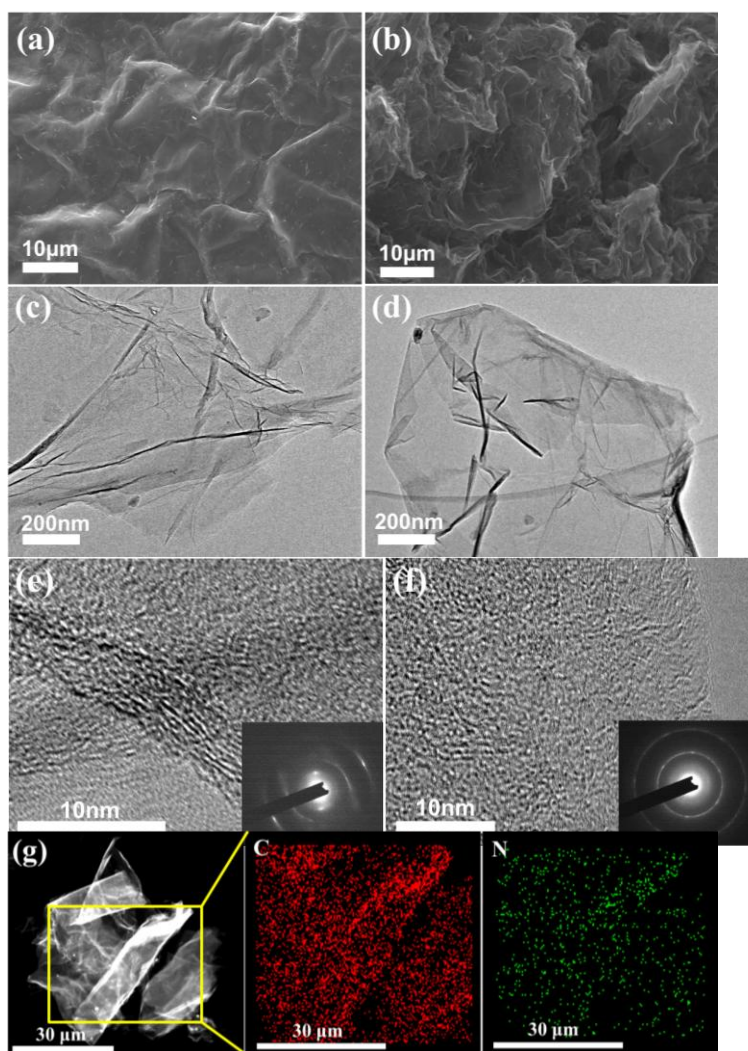
182 adding [Bmim]BF_4.

183

Fig. 1. SEM images of UG (a) and NG900 (b). TEM images of UG (c) and NG900 (d). HRTEM images of NG (e) and NG900 (f) with corresponding SAED patterns of area in image (e) and (f) as insets. Dark field TEM image of NG900 (g) and the elemental mapping images of the selected area in the square.

Figures 1(a) and 1(b) are typical SEM images of UG and NG900, respectively. The UG is severely restacked and shows thick plate morphology after calcination at 900 ℃, while NG900 displays more dispersed thin flakes due to the restacking protective function of [Bmim]BF$_4$ adsorbed on the surface of GO. The difference is further confirmed by TEM and HRTEM characterizations. Stacked thick layers and plenty of crumples are shown for UG without assistance of [Bmim]BF$_4$ (Fig. 1(c)) while transparent thin flakes are clearly observed for NG900 (Fig. 1(d)). In the edge area, NG900 is composed of quite thin multiple layers (Fig. 1(f)) while the layers of NG are much thicker and restacked (Fig. 1(e)). The corresponding

199 selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern indicates the polycrystalline nature of both

200 NG900 and UG. However, despite the difference in thickness and smoothness, NG900 and

201 NG share large similarity of morphology to GO, suggesting its function as template in this

202 synthesis. Compared with the stacked UG, the much looser and thinner nanostructure of

203 NG900 can facilitate the O_2 penetration, thus lower the energy barrier and facilitates the ORR

204 process. The elemental mapping images (Fig. 1(g)) not only confirm the successful N doping,

205 but also reveal its homogeneous distribution throughout the graphene sheets in NG900. For

206 samples prepared under other temperatures, NG700 possesses poor electronic conductivity

207 due to incomplete reduction of GO under this temperature (Figs. 2(a) and 2(b)). The typical

208 morphology of NG800 having porous and thin flakes (Figs. 2(c) and 2(d)) are quite similar to

209 NG900 as shown in Fig 1. NG1000 has more microfoldings and closer coupling among the

210 graphene sheets for better thermodynamic stability owing to the interaction of van der waals

211 at high temperature (Figs. 2(e) and 2(f)) [43].

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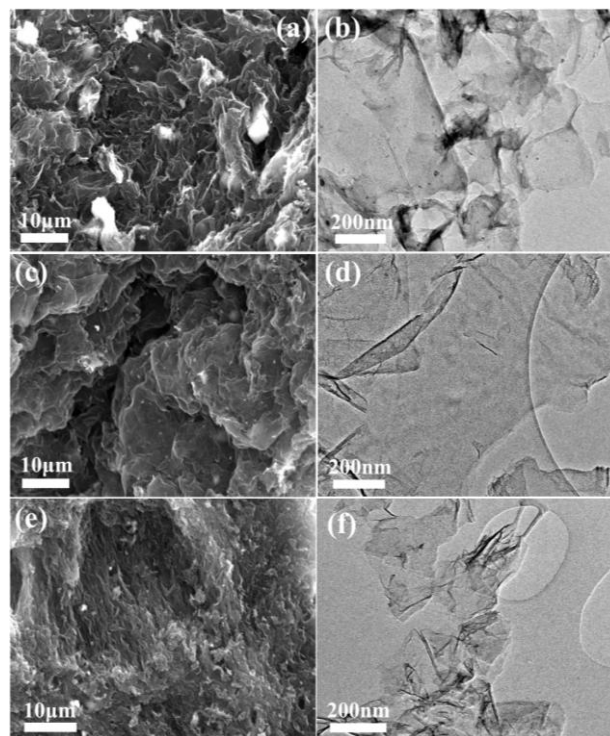
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214 **Fig. 2.** SEM ((a), (c), (e)) and TEM ((b), (d), (f)) images of NG700 ((a), (b)) NG800 ((c), (d)) and NG1000
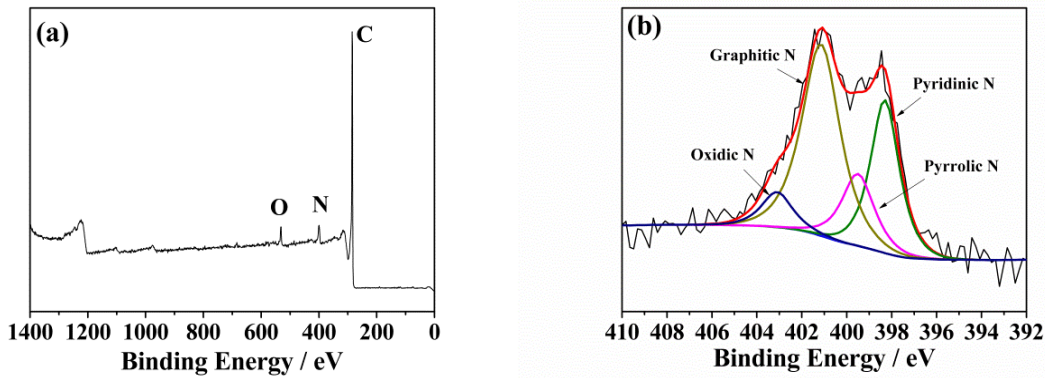
215 ((e), (f)).

Table 1. N doping content and distribution of various N configurations obtained from the XPS results.

Samples	N content (at %)	Pyridinic N (at %) 398.4±0.1	Pyrrolic N (at %) 399.6±0.1	Graphitic N (at %) 401.1±0.1	Oxidic N (at %) 403.1±0.1
NG700	7.2	27.9	18.4	39.5	14.2
NG800	7.0	26.2	20.7	43.8	8.3
NG900	6.6	29.0	15.5	48.4	7.1
NG1000	4.9	33.5	8.6	51.6	6.3

XPS was conducted to reveal the surface chemical composition and the distribution of various N doping configurations. A peak of N which locates at around 400 eV is clearly seen in the full XPS spectrum of NG900 (Fig. 3(a)), further indicating the successful doping of N. No peak of F and B is observed probably because negative-charged GO is prone to be absorbed by positive-charged [Bmim]$^{+}$. High-resolution XPS spectra of N 1s of the samples prepared under different temperatures are presented in Fig. 3(b) and Fig. S1. All the spectra can be deconvoluted into four peaks, which correspond to pyridinic N (~398.4 eV), pyrrolic N (~399.6 eV), graphitic N (~401.1 eV) and oxidic N (~403.1 eV) [21, 44, 45]. The N doping content and the distribution of various N configurations derived from the ratio of deconvoluted peaks area after background subtraction are summarized in Table 1. It is noteworthy that the N doping content decreases from 7.2% to 4.9% as temperature increases

232 from 700 ℃ to 1000 ℃, suggesting that the N dopant is unstable and has a chance to be

233 removed at elevated temperature [46, 47]. Moreover, the percentage of each N configuration

234 in the overall N content varies according to different calcination temperatures. As the

235 temperature increases, the percentages of graphitic N and pyridinic N increase accordingly

236 while oxidic N and pyrrolic N decrease due to the instability of N-oxide and the five-

237 membered heterocyclic rings. This is well consistent with the fact that pyridinic N is more

238 stable than pyrrolic N but both tend to transform to graphitic N at high temperature [48].

239 High-resolution C 1s XPS spectra of samples under different temperatures are also shown in

240 Fig. S2. The fitted peak locating at 285.9 eV is attributed to aromatic C-N bonds, reflecting

241 successful doping of N into graphene again [45]. Distribution of various C configurations is

242 summarized in Table S1 accordingly. The content of C-N in different samples estimated by

243 multiplication of C content and C-N percentage decreases with increasing annealing

244 temperature, which is in accordance with the change tendency of N content.

245

246 *4.2. Electro-catalytic performance towards oxygen reduction reaction (ORR)*

247 The ORR electro-catalytic activity of the as-prepared samples was investigated in 0.1 M

248 KOH using a traditional three-electrode system. As can be seen in the cyclic voltammograms

249 (CVs) (Fig. 4(a)), an obvious oxygen reduction peak appears at -0.18 V (vs. Hg/HgO) in the

250 negative sweep of NG900, which is 0.17 V positive-shifted compared with UG. Moreover,

251 the peak current density of NG900 is twice as large as that of UG, suggesting its superior

252 ORR catalytic activity. Similar results were observed in linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs)

253 (Fig. 4(b)), which were recorded by a rotating disk electrode at a rotational rate of 2500 rpm.

254 Although the effect is not as distinguished as Pt catalyst, the onset potential and the current

255 density are remarkably improved after N doping. For NG900, the ORR initiates at a potential

256 of -39 mV (vs. Hg/HgO), much positive than UG and samples under other temperatures. The

257   current density of NG900 reaches 5.83 mA cm^{-2} at -0.9 V (vs. Hg/HgO) at 2500 rpm. In

258   addition to N doping, the thinner and looser microstructure of NG900 also contributes to the

259   ORR performance enhancement by facilitating O_2 penetration and providing larger contact

260   area. Calcination temperature in synthesis has significant influence on ORR catalytic activity.

261   NG700 exhibits the lowest current density and the most negative onset potential due to the

262   unsatisfactory electronic conductivity resulting from incomplete reduction of GO in

263   calcination at this temperature. Moreover, as indicated in Table 1, although the N doping

264   content of NG700 is as high as 7.2 at%, 14.2 at% of it is in the form of oxidic N, which is

265   regarded as an ineffective N doping moiety for ORR [49]. NG800 and NG1000 show similar

266   catalytic performance with more positive onset potential for NG800 and slightly larger current

267   density for NG1000. NG900 yields the largest current density and the most positive onset

268   potential among all the catalysts. Owing to the similarity of NG800 and NG900 in

269   morphology, the superior ORR catalytic activity of NG900 may result from a more effective

270   composition of N configurations, to be discussed in detail in the following content. The

271   inferior performance of NG1000 can be attributed to either the low N doping content or the

272   destroyed thin flake morphology at high temperature, resulting in poor O_2 adsorption and

273   penetration.

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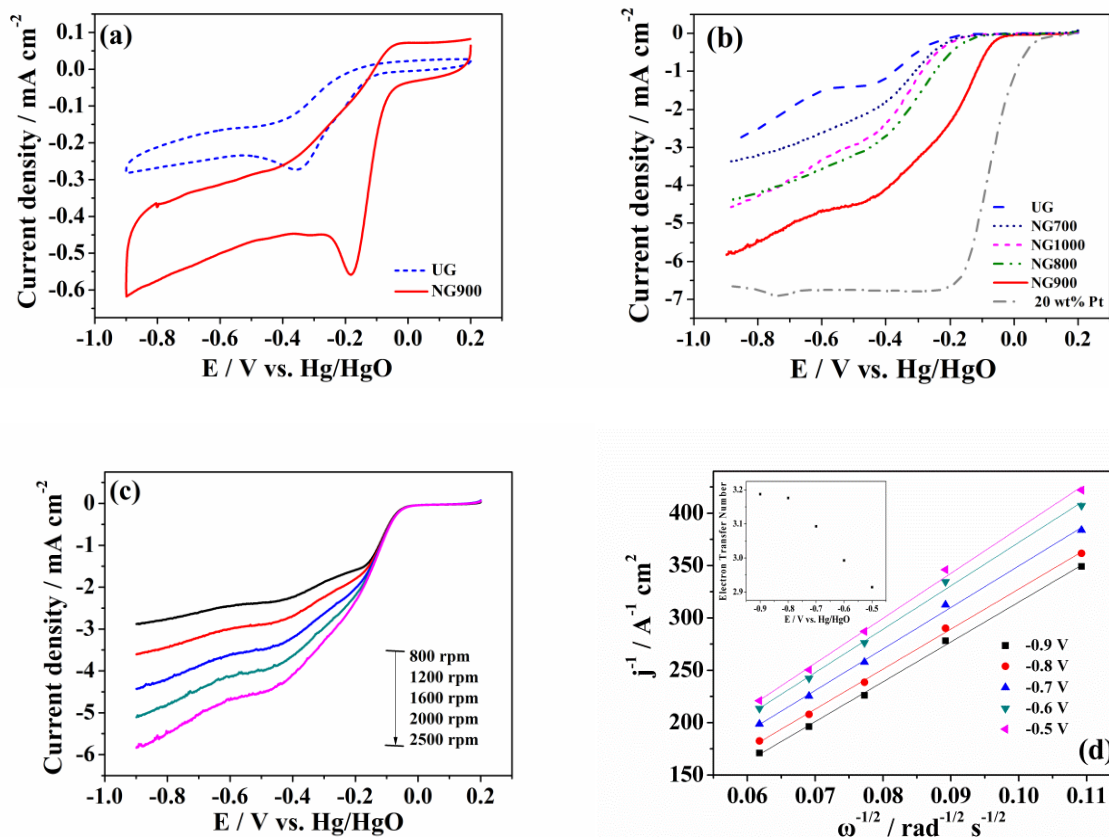
Fig. 4. (a) CVs of UG and NG900. (b) LSVs of different samples at rotational rate of 2500 rpm. (c) LSVs of NG900 at different rotational rates. (d) K-L plots of NG900 from -0.5 to -0.9 V; Inset: Electron transfer number determined by the K-L plots at corresponding voltages. Electrolyte: O_2-saturated 0.1 M KOH; Scan rate: 10 mV s^{-1}.

LSVs at different rotational speed were also recorded to reveal the ORR kinetics on various catalysts (Fig. 4(c) and Fig. S4). For both NG900 and UG, the current density increases with increasing rotational rate due to higher oxygen flux to the surface of the electrode. The corresponding Koutecky-Levich (K-L) plots (Fig. 4(d) and Fig. S5(a)) reflect good linear relationship between the reciprocal of current density and the reciprocal of the square root of the rotational rate in the voltage range from -0.5 to -0.9 V, indicating the first-order reaction kinetics towards the concentration of dissolved oxygen on both UG and NG900 [42]. However, based on the K-L equation, the electron transfer number of NG900 is calculated as 3.19 while the value of UG is only 1.69 at -0.9 V (vs. Hg/HgO) (Fig. 3(d) and

290　　Fig. S5(b)), indicating that the ORR goes through a mixture of four-electron and two-electron

291　　process on NG900 while only two-electron pathway occurs on UG.

292　　　　Since fuel crossover from anode to cathode is unavoidable in direct liquid fuel cell, the

293　　catalytic selectivity is vitally important for efficient ORR catalysts on cathode. A small

294　　quantity of 3 M methanol was introduced at 120th s in chronoamperometric (CA)

295　　measurement (Fig. 5(a)). The reversion in current density on commercial Pt catalyst upon the

296　　addition of methanol indicates the occurrence of methanol oxidation. In contrast, the current

297　　density of NG900 remains unchanged during the whole test, suggesting its excellent ORR

298　　catalytic selectivity.

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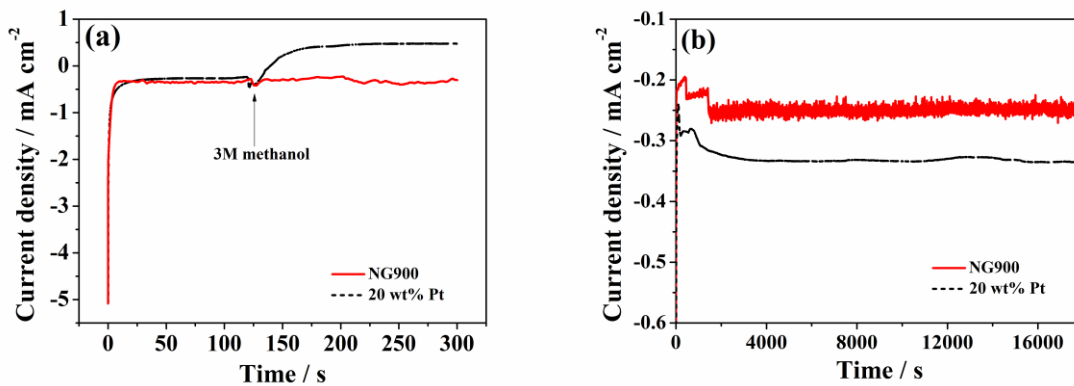
Fig. 5. Chronoamperometric (a) and I-t curves (b) of NG900 compared with commercial 20 wt% Pt at -0.2 V (vs.
Hg/HgO) in O_2-saturated 0.1 M KOH.

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304　　　　The durability of NG900 and Pt catalysts was also investigated by I-t measurement (Fig.

305　　5(b)) and CV test (Fig. S6). Continuous O_2 reduction for 5 hours on NG900 causes negligible

306　　loss of current density, implying its remarkable durability and potential application in alkaline

307　　fuel cell and metal-air battery.

308　　　　ORR catalytic activity of N-doped graphene synthesized by three representative methods

309　　are compared in Table 2. Calcination at 800 ~ 1000 °C is necessary for superior ORR

310 catalysts since samples fabricated by wet hydrothermal method at low temperature exhibit

311 modest performances even little amount of Fe is included [50]. Hard template and chemical

312 vapor deposition (CVD) are effective ways to improve ORR catalytic activity by enlarging

313 specific surface area, thus create more active sites which O_2 can get access to [51, 52].

314 However, they either need strong acid and alkaline to remove the template, or require

315 complex equipment to fulfill the fabrication, which prevents their large-scale application

316 considering cost and environmental issues. For our work, although onset potential and current

317 density need further improvement, we present an extremely facile and green way to

318 synthesize metal-free N-doped graphene with high N doping content and outstanding

319 durability.

320
321   Table 2. Comparison of reported ORR performance of N-doped graphene in 0.1 M KOH.

Doping treatment	Precursor	N content (at.%)	Template/ removal method	E^a_{Onset} (V vs. RHE)	Current density[b] (mA cm^{-2})	Durability (retention %)	Ref.
Hydrothermal method	GO, dicyandiamide	7.85	/	~0.75	~3.5	75% after 32000 s	[50]
Pyrolysis at 900 °C	3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (AMPTS)	2.92	SiO$_2$/Etched by HF and HCl	0.973	7.154	Not shown	[51]
CVD at 800 °C	Pyridine	5.0	Ni/Etched by HCl	1.05	~6.8	94% after 7 days	[52]
Pyrolysis at 900 °C	GO, [Bmim]BF$_4$	6.6	/	0.89	3.69	Almost 100% after 18000 s	This work

322 [a]Conversion of different reference electrodes into RHE [53]:
323 $E_{vs.RHE}=E_{vs.Ag/AgCl}+ E°_{vs.Ag/AgCl}+0.059pH$(at 298 K)
324 $E_{vs.RHE}=E_{vs.Hg/HgO}+ E°_{vs.Hg/HgO}+0.059pH$(at 298 K)
325 [b]Current density refers to data collected at +0.3 V (vs. RHE) at 1600 rpm in RDE test.
326

327 *4.3. Density functional theory (DFT) Analysis*

328   DFT calculations were carried out to investigate the influence of different N

329 configurations in N-doped graphene on the ORR performance enhancement. Three possible

330 active configurations, namely, pyridinic N, pyrrolic N and graphitic N, were investigated.

331 Since the N atom in each of the three circumstances could be located either inside or at the

332 edge of graphene, there were essentially six cases to be considered: Graphitc N-inside,

333 Graphitic N-edge, Pyridinic N-inside, Pyridinic N-edge, Pyrrolic N-inside and Pyrrolic N-

334 edge (Fig. S7). However, since the configuration of Pyrrolic N-inside was found to be

335 unstable based on molecular structure optimization, only the remaining five cases were

336 investigated. According to previous works [18, 23], either one of the following two

337 requirements has to be met for the atoms to be ORR active sites: (1) large positive spin

338 density; (2) small absolute value of the negative spin density and large charge density. Our

339 computational results show that after N doping, there are significant changes in both the

340 charges and the spins of some of the atoms. For instance, the positive charges and spins of

341 some atoms can reach as high as around 0.19. In this work, we set the cutoff for large atomic

342 charges and atomic spins as those with the values larger than 0.1.
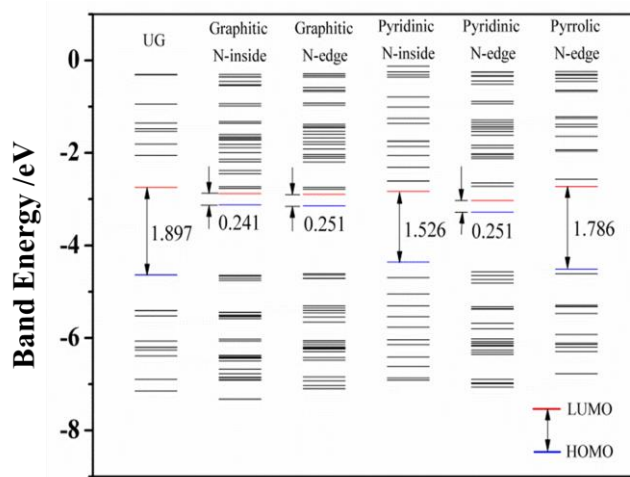
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344 **Fig. 6.** Molecular orbital energy profile diagram of UG and N-doped graphene with different N configurations.

345

346 The highest-occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest-unoccupied molecular

347 orbital (LUMO) energy of these systems were obtained to calculate the energy gap. A small

348 HOMO-LUMO gap implies low kinetic stability and high chemical reactivity. Molecular

349 orbital energy profile diagram and the HOMO-LUMO energy gap of different systems are

350   illustrated in Fig. 6. The replacement of C with N results in the decrement of the energy gap,

351   which is especially significant for the systems of Graphitic N-inside, Graphitic N-edge, and

352   Pyridinic N-edge, changing from 1.897 eV of UG to around 0.24 eV to 0.25 eV.

353   The atoms that are likely to act as ORR active sites are presented in Fig. 7 and Table 3.

354   No ORR active site is found in UG since the atomic charges are small and the spin density is

355   0 for all atoms. On the other hand, there are five active sites in Graphitic N-inside, three of

356   which, including the N atom, have the spins larger than 0.1. The other two show small spins

357   but large charges, which makes them the active atomic sites too. Four and eight possible

358   active sites are identified in Graphitic N-edge and Pyridinic N-edge, respectively. Unlike

359   Graphitic N-inside, the N atom in Graphitic N-edge has no catalytic activity. The N in

360   Graphitic N-edge shows a small charge and spin of 0.018 and 0.085, respectively. The N in

361   Pyridinic N-edge has a large spin density of 0.1155, making it very likely to be an ORR active

362   site. For Pyridinic N-inside and Pyrrolic N-edge, there are only two active sites with a large

363   charge resulting from the large electronegativity of N. On the other hand, the spins of atoms

364   are nearly zero owing to the even number of electrons in these two systems.

365

Graphitic N-inside **Graphitic N-edge** **Pyrrolic N-edge**

Pyridinic N-inside **Pyridinic N-edge**

- C
- N
- H
- Catalytic active C
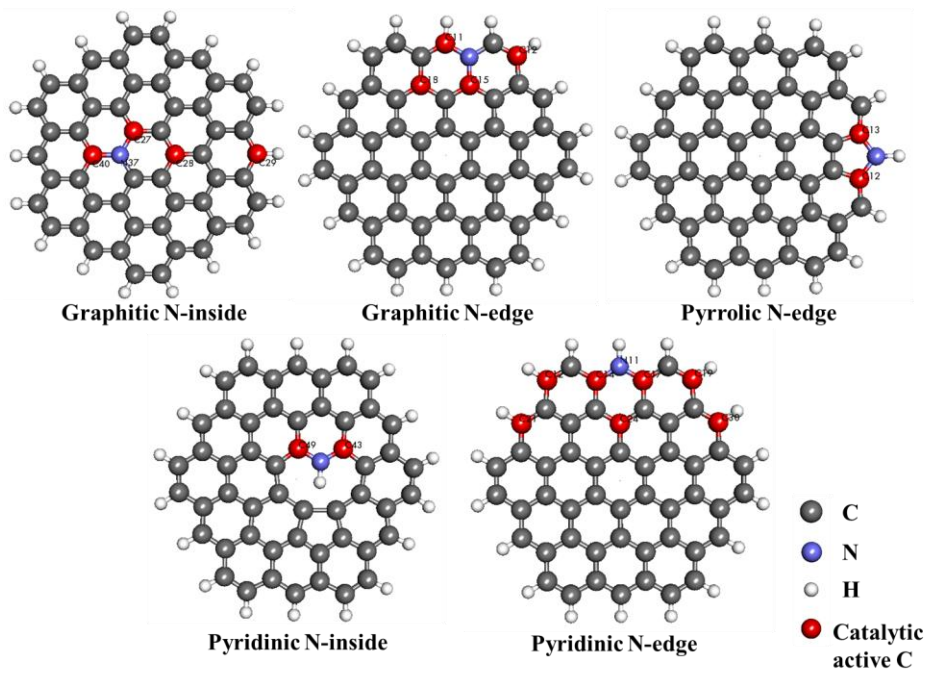
366

367 **Fig. 7.** Distribution of possible ORR catalytic active sites on the N-doped graphene with different N

368 configurations based on the DFT calculations.

369

370
371

372   **Table 3.** Atomic charge and spin of the catalytic active sites in the N-doped graphene with different N

373   configurations.

N Configuration	Atoms No.	Atomic Charge	Atomic Spin
Pyridinic N-edge	N11	-0.2365	0.1155
	C12	-0.1292	0.1025
	C14	0.1539	0.0666
	C17	0.1539	0.0666
	C19	-0.1292	0.1025
	C21	-0.1442	0.1004
	C24	0.0345	0.1071
	C30	-0.1442	0.1005
Graphitic N-inside	C27	0.1295	0.0687
	C28	0.0265	0.1191
	C29	-0.1583	0.1594
	C40	0.1475	-0.0095
	N37	-0.0095	0.1102
Graphitic N-edge	C11	-0.0842	0.1920
	C12	-0.1642	0.1014
	C15	0.1325	0.0312
	C18	0.0264	0.1128
Pyridinic N-inside	C43	0.1754	-0.0010
	C49	0.1777	-0.0007
Pyrrolic N-edge	C12	0.1425	-0.0006
	C13	0.1425	-0.0006

374

375   All in all, among the five N doping configurations considered here, Pyridinic N-edge is

376   the most favorable configuration for ORR considering that it has the largest number of active

377   sites (eight in total) as well as the remarkable reduction of the energy gap to 0.251 eV.

378   Pyridinic N-inside and Pyrrolic N-edge show the poorest ORR catalytic activity since they

379   have only two active sites and the large HOMO-LUMO energy gaps also make them less

380 active. The ORR catalytic activity of Graphitic N-inside and Graphitic N-edge is in between

381 those two groups with five and four active sites, respectively. This is well consistent with

382 previous works and our experimental results, in which NG900 with a high proportion of

383 pyridinic N and graphitic N exhibits the best catalytic performance towards ORR [49, 54].

384 Although NG1000 has an even higher ratio of active N configurations, the low N doping

385 content and severe morphology change resulting from the high temperature lead to the poor

386 ORR catalytic performance.

387
388 **5. Conclusions**

389 A facile and environmental-friendly method has been developed for synthesis of high-quality

390 N-doped graphene by calcination of uniform mixture of graphene oxide (GO) and traditional

391 hydrophilic ionic liquid 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate ([Bmim]BF$_4$) which

392 serves as both N source and restacking protectant. The calcination temperature has profound

393 effect on the chemical composition and microstructure of the as-obtained catalysts. The

394 catalyst prepared at 900 ℃ with N doping content of 6.6 at% exhibits the highest catalytic

395 performance towards oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) in alkaline condition. Calculations

396 based on density functional theory (DFT) indicate that pyridinic N locating at the edge of

397 graphene is the most active configuration for ORR owing to the largest number of active sites

398 and lower band gap. Hence, the ORR catalytic activity enhancement of N-doped graphene in

399 this work can be ascribed to the superior electronic conductivity of graphene, the high N

400 doping content and the high proportion of active pyridinic N moieties. This paper not only

401 presents a facile, green and scalable way to synthesize N-doped graphene which is a highly

402 cost-effective catalyst for fuel cell and metal-air battery, but also gives valuable insights from

403 the atomic point of view into the structure-property relationships of N-doped graphene

404 towards ORR.

405

Appendix A. Supplementary Information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at .

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