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Microscale-Decoupled Charge-Discharge Reaction Sites for An Air Electrode with Abundant Triple-Phase Boundary and Enhanced Cycle Stability of Zn-Air Batteries

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Abstract

Decreasing the charge-discharge voltage gap and increasing the cycling stability is pivotal but challenging for the practical application of rechargeable Zn-air battery (ZAB). Until now, many efforts have been paid in the electrocatalyst development for the air electrode, but few works have been done on the electrode structure design which is quite important for the battery performance. Herein, we design a decoupled air electrode by integrating a hydrophilic mesh active for oxygen evolution reaction (OER) with a hydrophobic layer active for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). The decoupled air electrode could separate the OER and ORR sites at microscale, which could alleviate the oxidative corrosion of the ORR layer along cycling. Meanwhile, it also shows adjustable contact angle by fancily changing the texture of the mesh, which enables the optimal hydrophilicity towards abundant triple phase boundary for superior discharge performance. The ZAB based on the decoupled air electrode exhibits a small initial voltage gap of 0.75 V at 10 mA cm⁻², and it was stably cycled for 240 h. This work provides a feasible strategy to simultaneously accelerate the electrochemical reaction and improve the electrode stability, and it could be inspiring for other multiphase reaction involved devices.

Keywords: air electrode structure design, triple phase boundary, cycle stability, oxidative corrosion, Zn-air battery

1. Introduction

Rechargeable Zn-air battery attracts much research interests due to the high intrinsic safety, large theoretical energy density, and low cost. It is regarded as one of the most promising candidates for the next generation energy storage devices. However, the large potential gap between charge and discharge causes the low energy efficiency, which impedes the implementation of Zn-air batteries [1-3]. The dominant potential loss is from the air electrodes according to previous studies [4,5]. Although many efforts have

1 been paid in the electrocatalyst development for the air electrode, few works have been
2 done on the electrode structure design which is quite important for the battery
3 performance [6-9]. The discharge reaction of air electrodes, oxygen reduction reaction
4 (ORR), is a triple-phase-participated reaction which occurs at the phase boundary
5 between the liquid electrolyte, the solid electrode, and the gas phase O₂ reactant [10-
6 12]. On the contrary, the charge reaction, oxygen evolution reaction (OER) occurs at
7 the dual-phase boundary which favors the maximum contact between liquid and solid
8 and fast desorption of gas phase O₂ product [13,14]. Hence, it is difficult to balance the
9 hydrophobicity and hydrophilicity of the air electrode to simultaneously satisfy ORR
10 and OER reactions [7,15,16]. In the previous studies, the dominant method to control
11 the hydrophobicity is to add the hydrophobic additives such as polytetrafluoroethylene
12 (PTFE) [15,17]. However, the low conductivity of PTFE highly impedes the electron
13 transport [18]. Besides, PTFE could also adhere to the catalytic materials and block the
14 active sites [19]. The two disadvantages greatly limit the discharge performance of Zn-
15 air batteries. Therefore, developing a new strategy to adjust the hydrophobicity of air
16 electrodes is quite important. Zhang's group reported an asymmetric air electrode
17 which has a hydrophilic side facing to the electrolyte and a hydrophobic side facing to
18 the air [20]. This unique structure significantly enlarged the triple-phase boundary from
19 a conventional two-dimensional configuration to a three-dimensional region, and thus
20 promoted the discharge performance of the air electrode. Cui's group designed a
21 breathing-mimicking electrocatalytic system to realize amplified triple-phase boundary
22 lines and dual-direction gas pathways for the O₂ evolution and consumption [21].
23 Shao's group developed a dual-layer structure of the air electrode which composed of
24 a hydrophobic MnS layer and a hydrophilic Ni-Co-S layer, and it showed decreased
25 charge voltage and increased discharge voltage in Zn-air batteries as compared to the
26 single-layer structure [22].

1 In addition to the large charge-discharge voltage gap, the short cycle life is another
2 critical obstacle that hinders the practical use of rechargeable Zn-air batteries [23-25].
3 The main reason of the degradation of the battery performance along cycling operation
4 is the oxidative corrosion of the air electrode during the charging process [26,27]. The
5 high OER potential could gradually oxidize the electrocatalysts, porous conductive
6 carbon, and the gas diffusion layer, leading to the flooding of air electrode and the loss
7 of triple phase boundary [2,28,29]. Regarding this problem, the three-electrode system
8 was suggested to separate the charge and discharge reactions on two distinct electrodes,
9 and thus the air electrode could be protected from the high OER potential [30-32].
10 However, the three-electrode system adds to the complexity of the device configuration
11 and increases the weight and volume of the battery which reduces the real energy
12 density. Wang et al. designed a Janus structure of the air electrode with separate
13 distribution of OER and ORR electrocatalysts on two faces of the substrate, which
14 realized the separation of charge and discharge reactions on one electrode, and thus
15 improved the cycle stability [33]. However, the fabrication process of the Janus
16 electrode required repeated coating and removing of polymers on the electrode, which
17 is time consuming and may cause peeling of the active materials. Therefore, a facile
18 method to fabricate an electrode with separate OER and ORR sites is still highly
19 demanded.

20 The above analysis indicates that proper hydrophilicity and separate OER-ORR
21 sites are two pivotal characteristics for a high performance and stable air electrode, but
22 it is challenging to simultaneously regulate the two features. Herein, we designed a
23 unique air electrode structure with adjustable hydrophilicity and microscale decoupled
24 OER and ORR sites. We choose the conventional cheap materials of $\text{Mn}_2\text{O}_3/\text{C}$ for ORR
25 and $\text{FeOOH}/\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ for OER as the platform to demonstrate the concept of novel air
26 electrode structure. The decoupled air electrode was produced by pressing a sprayed

1 Mn₂O₃/C layer with a FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ coated steel mesh, and thus the ORR and OER
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3 active materials could be alternatively arranged on the air electrode surface with a
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5 meshed structure. Additionally, the texture of the catalytic surface could be tuned by
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7 changing the mesh density, realizing a free control of the contact angle within a large
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9 range from 63 ° to 133 °, enabling the optimization of hydrophobicity towards the
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11 maximum triple phase boundary. This work reports a facile method to simultaneously
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13 achieve decoupled OER and ORR sites and optimal hydrophobicity of the air electrode,
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15 which is promising for further development of high-performance and long-stable
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17 rechargeable Zn-air batteries.
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23 **2. Experimental**

24 **2.1 Material synthesis and electrode fabrication**

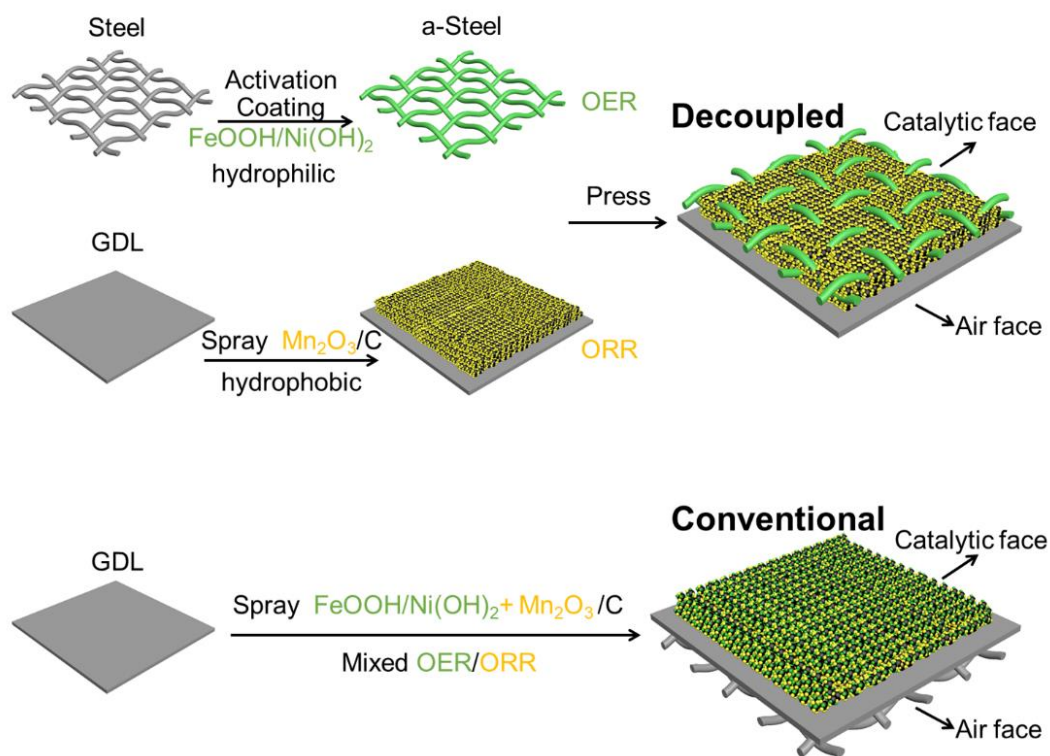
25 **2.1.1 Coating Ni(OH)₂/FeOOH on stainless steel**

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27 The fabrication process of the decoupled air electrode is illustrated in Scheme 1.
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29 A stainless-steel mesh (type 304) was immersed in a 0.1 g mL⁻¹ FeCl₃ solution and
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31 stirred in room temperature for 5 h. The acidic solution environment could assist partial
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33 surface oxidation of iron and nickel of the steel, leading to the formation of
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35 corresponding hydroxide [34,35]. After rinsing and natural drying, the activated steel
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37 mesh (named as a-Steel) was obtained.
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46 **2.1.2 Synthesis of Mn₂O₃ powder**

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48 The Mn₂O₃ powder was synthesized by a facile sol-gel method. Typically, 0.01
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50 mol Mn(CH₃COOH)₂ was dissolved in 20 mL H₂O. 2.92 g ethylenediaminetetraacetic
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52 acid and 4.2 g citric acid were dissolved in 8 mL aqueous ammonia (25 wt%) and in 5
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54 mL H₂O, and then the solution was dropwise added into the Mn(CH₃COOH)₂ solution
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56 to get a transparent mixture. The above mixture was heated on a hot plate until a white
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58 gel was obtained. The gel was carbonized under 180 ° for 12 h in oven in air, and then
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annealed at 600 °C for 5 h in air. The annealed powder was treated by 0.5 M HNO₃ for 4 h to partially etch the Mn-O motifs [36], and thus to decrease the particle size and to increase the surface area to get the final product of Mn₂O₃.



Scheme 1. Fabrication procedure of the decoupled air electrode and conventional air electrode.

2.1.3 Fabrication of the decoupled air electrode

The Mn₂O₃ powder was mixed with carbon support (XC 72) with a mass ratio of 2:1, then 5 wt% Nafion and absolute ethanol were added into the above mixed powder with a ratio of 60 μL : 1 mL : 15 mg. Ball-milling was then conducted at 400 rpm for 30 min for the mixture to get a homogenous ink. The ink was sprayed on a carbon paper (SGL-36BB) with a Mn₂O₃ mass loading of 2 mg cm⁻², after which the a-Steel was integrated onto the sprayed side by cold-press with 10 MPa pressure persisting for 30 s. Afterwards, another carbon paper (HCP020P) was packed on the backside of the above a-Steel/Mn₂O₃-C sprayed SGL-36BB during battery assembling to form the final decoupled air electrode with the configuration of a-Steel/Mn₂O₃-C/SGL-

1 36BB/HCP020P. The two layers of carbon papers (SGL 36BB for the catalytic face and
2 HCP020P for the air face) function as the gas diffusion layer (GDL). The a-Steel could
3 simultaneously act as the current collector linking to the external circuit.
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7 **2.1.4 Fabrication of the conventional air electrode**

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9 As a control, the conventional air electrode was fabricated. The powder
10 FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ was prepared by immersing nickel/iron powder in in a 0.1 g mL⁻¹
11 FeCl₃ solution and stirred in room temperature for 5 h. The powder was then vacuum
12 filtered and dried in oven. The unreacted metallic powder was separated from the
13 hydroxide product by a magnet. FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂, Mn₂O₃, and XC-72 powders were
14 mixed with a mass ratio of 1 : 1: 1, after which Nafion and ethanol were added, and
15 balling milling were conducted to form a homogenous ink using the same condition as
16 the decoupled air electrode preparation. The ink was then sprayed onto a carbon paper
17 (SGL-36BB) with a mass loading of 2 mg cm⁻² FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ + 2 mg cm⁻² Mn₂O₃.
18 Afterwards, another carbon paper (HCP020P) was packed on the backside of the above
19 FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂+Mn₂O₃-C sprayed SGL-36BB, and the two layers of carbon papers
20 function as the GDL. An additional 400-mesh original type 304 stainless steel acting as
21 the current collector was packed onto the HCP020P side. Furthermore, the noble metal
22 benchmark catalysts were also used to fabricate the conventional air electrode as a
23 control sample using the same procedure, and the mass loading was kept the same as 2
24 mg cm⁻² RuO₂ + 2 mg cm⁻² Pt/C (20 wt% Pt).
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49 **2.2 Characterization**

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51 The chemical identity of the materials was confirmed through Raman spectra
52 recorded by a Renishaw micro-Raman spectroscopy system using the excitation
53 wavelength of 532 nm and the laser intensity of 0.5 mW. The X-ray diffraction (XRD)
54 patterns were acquired by an X-ray Diffractometer (Rigaku SmartLab 9kW - Advance).
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1 The morphology of the air electrodes was observed by a TESCAN VEGA3 field
2 scanning electron microscope (SEM) at the accelerating voltage of 20 kV. The
3 elemental composition was investigated by the energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
4 (EDX). The spatial distribution of materials on the electrode was studied by EDX-
5 mapping and EDX-linear scan. The composition and chemical environment of the
6 surface elements were detected by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) through a
7 Nexsa XPS system. The contact angles were measured by capturing the static
8 morphology of 1 μL H_2O on the surface of the horizontally placed samples.
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21 **2.3 Electrochemical activity and battery performance test**

22 The electrochemical activity and stability of the material for ORR and OER half
23 reactions were evaluated by a three-electrode system on a Solartron potentiostat. A
24 rotating disk electrode (RDE), a graphite rod, and a Hg/HgO electrode were used as the
25 working electrode, counter electrode, and reference electrode, respectively. O_2
26 saturated 0.1 M KOH was used as the electrolyte. The powder electrocatalysts was
27 mixed with the conductive carbon (Super P Li) with a mass ratio of 2:1, and they are
28 dispersed in the mixed ethanol/5 wt% Nafion with a volume ratio of 47:3 to get a
29 suspension with a concentration of $10 \text{ mg}_{\text{cat}} \text{ mL}^{-1}$. The suspension was ultrasonicated
30 towards a homogenous ink and then dropped on the RDE to realize a catalyst loading
31 of $0.5 \text{ mg}_{\text{cat}} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The linear scan voltammetry curves were recorded at a scan rate of 5
32 mV s^{-1} . The ORR and OER stability were assessed by chronoamperometric response at
33 0.3 V vs. RHE and chronopotentiometric response at 10 mA cm^{-2} , respectively.
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51 For battery assembling, the as-prepared electrodes described in section 2.1 were
52 used as the air electrode and the exposed areas towards the electrolyte side and air side
53 were 0.785 cm^2 . A zinc foil with exposed area of 7.065 cm^2 was used as the Zn electrode.
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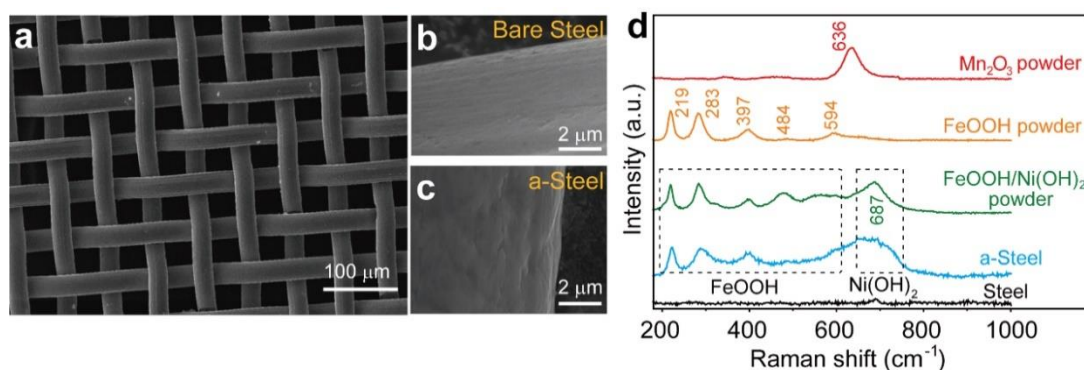
1 guarantee that the battery performance is dominated by the air electrode. The 6 M
2 KOH+0.2 M Zn(CH₃COO)₂ solution was used as the electrolyte. The cell has a chamber
3 volume of 7.065 ml to hold the electrolyte. The cell diagram is presented in **Fig. S1**.
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5 All the battery performance tests were carried out under ambient air. The
6 electrochemical active surface areas (ECSA) of the air electrodes were evaluated by
7 measuring the double layer capacitance (C_{dl}) through cyclic voltammetry within non-
8 Faradic region (1.45 V to 1.60 V vs. Zn) at varied scan rate. The electrochemical
9 impedance spectra (EIS) were collected under open circuit condition with the frequency
10 range of 10⁵ to 1 Hz. The rate performance and cycle stability were evaluated by
11 recording the galvanostatic discharge and charge curves on a NEWARE testing system.
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25 **3. Result and Discussion**

26 **3.1 Chemical identity and electrochemical activity of the material**

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29 **Fig. 1a** shows the SEM image of the steel mesh, and the magnified SEM image
30 (**Fig. 1b**) shows the smooth surface of the steel wire. After the activation treatment, the
31 a-Steel sample with the preserved mesh structure and the rougher wire surface (**Fig. 1c**)
32 is obtained. The phase identity of the materials is analyzed by the XRD patterns (**Fig.**
33 **S2**). a-Steel shows the same XRD pattern with the original Steel, which is because of
34 the small mass ratio of the surface species formed during the activation treatment. For
35 the powder sample of FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂, the Ni(OH)₂ phase can be clearly recognized
36 by the PDF card Ni(OH)₂#14-0117. No XRD peaks can be assigned to FeOOH, which
37 might be due to the low crystallinity. The XRD pattern of Mn₂O₃ powder matches well
38 with the PDF card of Mn₂O₃#41-1442. Raman spectra is further acquired to supplement
39 the chemical nature identification. The Raman spectra (**Fig. 1d**) verify the mixed
40 component of FeOOH (identified by the peak group at 219, 283, 397, 484, and 594 cm⁻¹)
41 and Ni(OH)₂ (identified by the featured broad peak at 680 cm⁻¹), both of which are
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1 typical OER-active electrocatalysts [37]. The powder sample of FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂
 2 shows identical Raman signals as the a-Steel, which ensures the reasonable comparison
 3 between the conventional air electrode and decoupled air electrode. The ORR-active
 4 Mn₂O₃ powder shows the characteristic Raman shift at 636 cm⁻¹ [38].
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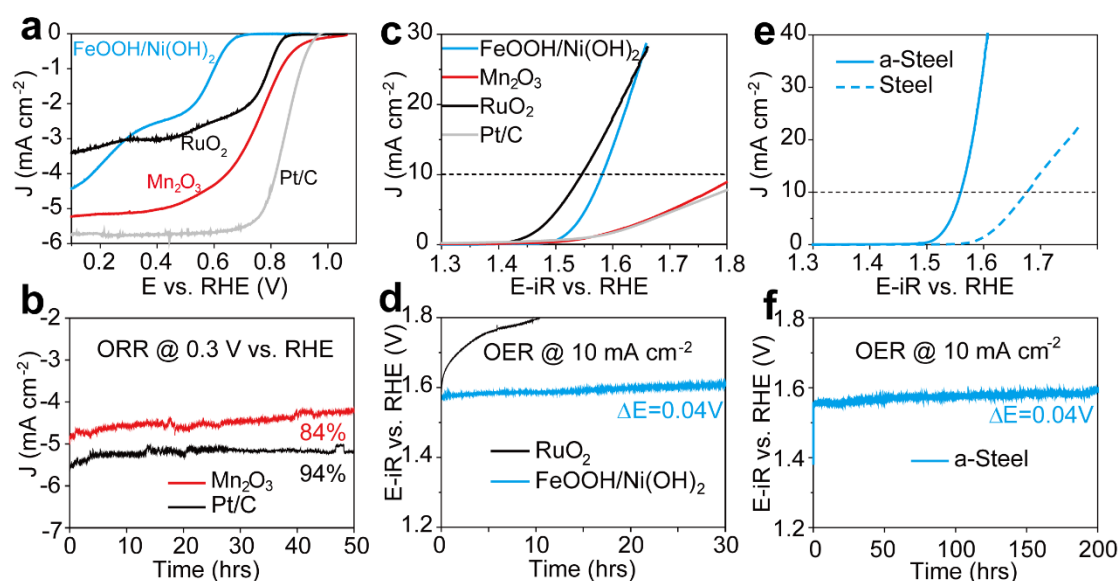


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Fig. 1. (a) SEM images of the steel mesh, and the magnified SEM images of (b) the bare steel and (c) a-Steel. The scale bars in a, b, and c are 100 μm, 2 μm, and 2 μm, respectively. (d) Raman spectra of Mn₂O₃, FeOOH, FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ powders, Steel, and a-Steel.

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The electrocatalytic activity and stability of the as-synthesized materials and the noble metal benchmarks are shown in **Fig. 2**. In the ORR-LSV curves (**Fig. 2a**), Mn₂O₃ shows the limiting current density of 5.2 mA cm⁻², which is lower than the Pt/C with the same mass loading (5.8 mA cm⁻²), but comparable to the Pt/C with half mass loading (**Fig. S3a**). Mn₂O₃ shows good ORR stability with a current retention of 84 % after 50 h in the chronoamperometry test at 0.3 V vs. RHE (**Fig. 2b**). Although it is not as good as Pt/C with the same mass loading (94%, 50h), it outperforms the Pt/C with half mass loading (75%, 20 h, **Fig. S3b**). Hence, Mn₂O₃ is more promising for large scale practical utilization than Pt/C. The OER-LSV curve (**Fig. 2c**) of the powder FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ shows a potential of 1.58 V vs. RHE at 10 mA cm⁻², which is close to that of the benchmark RuO₂ (1.55 V vs. RHE). Moreover, the powder FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ shows a stable chronopotentiometry profile at 10 mA cm⁻² for 30 h with only a small potential increase of 0.04 V (**Fig. 2d**), whereas RuO₂ shows poor stability with large potential

1 increase of 0.25 V in 10 h. The a-Steel shows consistently good OER activity with the
 2 powder FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ (**Fig. 2e**), and it could be stably operated at 10 mA cm⁻² for
 3 200 h with a small potential increase of 0.04 V (**Fig. 2f**). The above test implies that the
 4 platform materials of Mn₂O₃ for ORR and FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ for OER have qualified
 5 activity and stability for the concept demonstration of our decoupled air electrode
 6 structure.
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Fig. 2. (a) ORR-LSV curves of powder samples tested on RDE and (b) ORR current densities recorded at 0.3 V vs. RHE under chronoamperometry mode. (c) OER-LSV curves of the powder samples tested on RDE and (d) corresponding long-term stability test of OER potentials at 10 mA cm⁻² under chronopotentiometry mode. The loading mass of powder catalysts on RDE is fixed at 0.5 mg cm⁻². (e) OER-LSV curves of Steel and a-Steel. (f) Chronopotentiometry OER potential response of a-Steel recorded at 10 mA cm⁻².

37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 **3.2 Morphology and spatial composition of the decoupled air electrode**

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 The top-view SEM image of the decoupled air electrode (**Fig. 3a**) shows the mesh morphology of a-Steel packed with the underlying sprayed layer. The cross-sectional SEM image (**Fig. 3b**) shows the electrode thickness of about 200 μm. The EDX spectrum (**Fig. 3c**) is extracted to study the elemental composition, which shows obvious signals of Mn and C from the sprayed layer, as well as Fe, Ni, Cr from the a-

Steel. The elemental mapping in **Fig. 3d** clearly presents the spatially separated distribution of Ni/Fe (active for OER) and Mn/C (active for ORR), suggesting the successful design of the microscale decoupled OER and ORR sites at the air electrode. The cross-sectional SEM image was magnified in **Fig. 3e and 3f**, which clearly shows the alternative exposure of Mn₂O₃/C and a-Steel at the outmost surface. Besides, partial of the a-Steel was buried within the inner bulk of the Mn₂O₃/C layer (**Fig. 3f**), which could act as the cross-linked current collector to facilitate the electron transport. The EDX linear scan profiles are extracted to further confirm the material distribution at the decoupled air electrode. For the horizontal line, the signals of Mn/C and Fe/Ni exhibit staggered intensity with a unit period of 60 μm (**Fig. 3g**), manifesting the separate exposure of Mn₂O₃/C and a-Steel. For the vertical line (**Fig. 3f**), the intensity of Fe/Ni is sandwiched between intense Mn signals within 50 μm near the electrode surface, confirming the buried a-Steel within the Mn₂O₃/C layer.

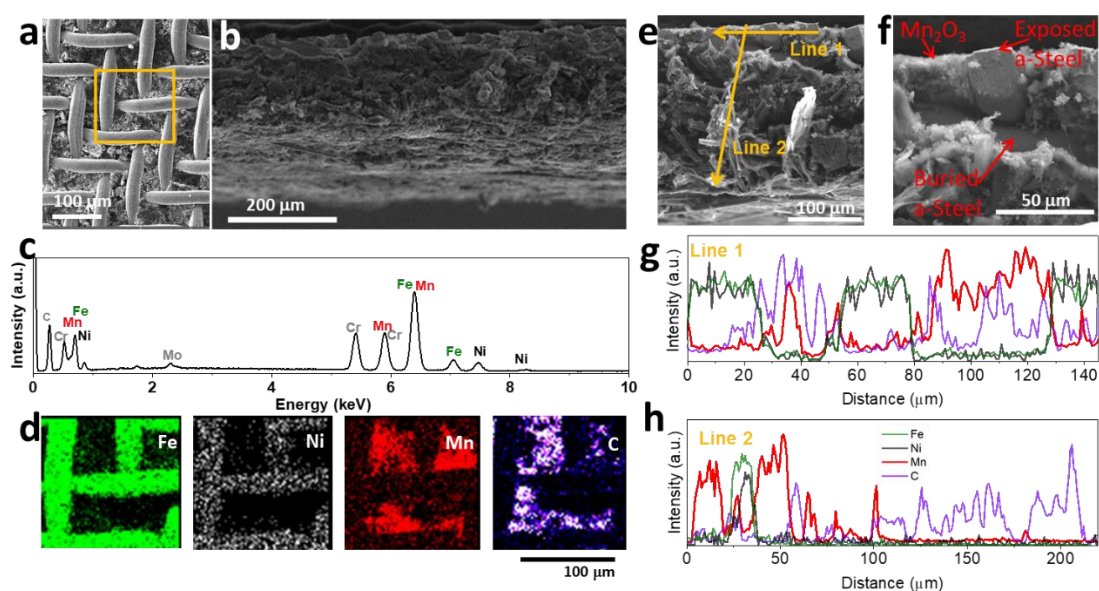


Fig. 3. Characterization of the decoupled air electrode with 400 mesh a-steel. SEM images of (a) top view and (b) cross-section of the decoupled air electrode. (c) EDX spectrum and (d) EDX-mapping of Fe, Ni, Mn, and C of the decoupled air electrode. (e) (f) Magnified SEM image of the cross-section of the decoupled air electrode. (g) (h) EDX-linear scan of Fe, Ni, Mn, and C distribution along Line 1 and Line 2 as labeled in (e).

3.3 Adjustable hydrophobicity of the catalytic face of the decoupled air electrode

The discharge performance of the Zn-air battery is significantly influenced by the hydrophilicity of the air electrodes. By changing the mesh number of the a-Steel, the hydrophilicity of the catalytic face of the decoupled air electrode could be easily adjusted due to the variation of surface texture. From the SEM images, the conventional air electrode shows a flat surface (Fig. 4a), whereas the decoupled air electrodes show rougher surface due to the mesh micromorphology (Fig. 4b-4d).

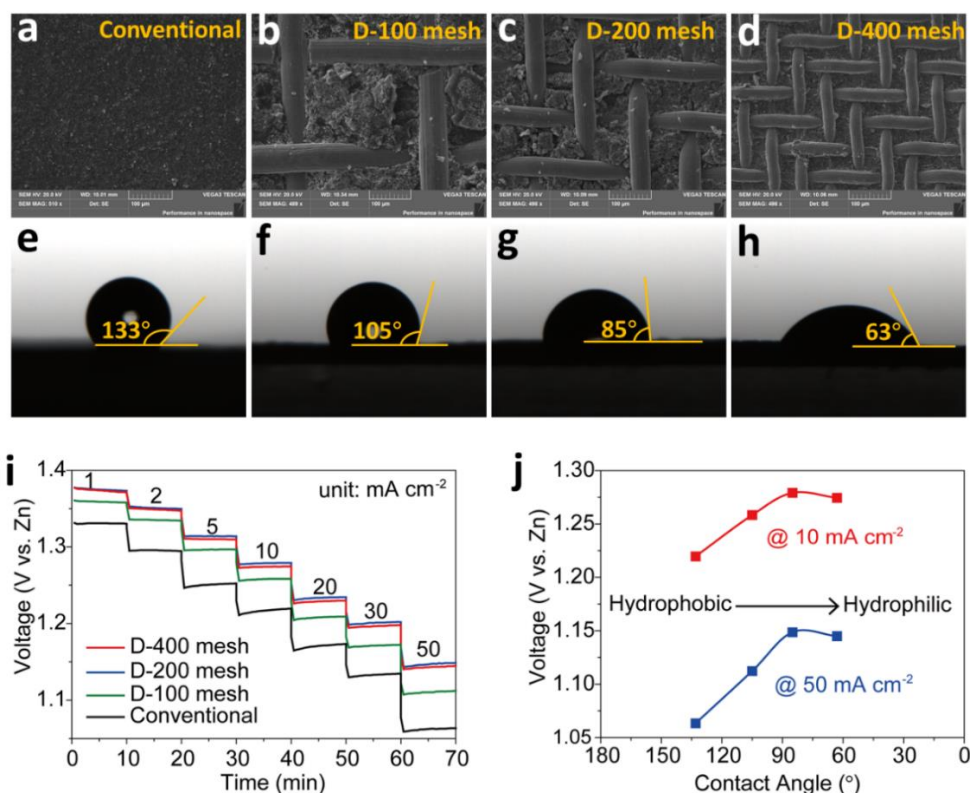


Fig. 4. Top-view SEM images of (a) conventional air electrode, and decoupled air electrode with (b) 100 mesh, (c) 200 mesh, and (d) 400 mesh a-Steel. Contact angle of the electrocatalyst-loaded face of (e) conventional air electrode, and decoupled air electrode with (f) 100 mesh, (g) 200 mesh, and (h) 400 mesh a-Steel. (e) EDX spectrum and (d) EDX-mapping of Fe, Ni, Mn, and C of the decoupled air electrode. (i) Discharge profiles of the Zn-air battery using different air electrodes at varied current densities from 1 to 50 mA cm⁻². (j) Summary of the correlation between contact angle of the catalytic surface and the discharge voltage.

The conventional air electrode exhibits the most hydrophobic surface with a

1 contact angle of 133° (**Fig. 4e**). In comparison, the decoupled air electrode shows
2 increased hydrophilicity due to the hydrophilic FeOOH/Ni(OH)₂ on a-Steel and the
3 mesh-induced texture. Moreover, as the mesh density grows, the nano-scale roughness
4 is increased, and the hydrophilicity increases consequently [39]. As a result, the contact
5 angle of D-100 mesh, D-200 mesh, and D-400 mesh decreases to 105 °, 85 °, and 63 °,
6 respectively (**Fig. 4f-4h**). Furthermore, the discharge voltages of the conventional and
7 decoupled air electrode are recorded (**Fig. 4i**), and the relationship between the contact
8 angle and the discharge voltage is summarized in **Fig. 4j**. The volcano shape relation
9 between the discharge voltage and the contact angle indicates that the moderate
10 hydrophobicity should be optimal for constructing the longest triple-phase boundary
11 and thus providing more reacting sites for ORR during the battery discharge.
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27 In addition to the discharge performance, the adjustable hydrophilicity also
28 impacts the charge performance of Zn-air batteries (**Fig. 5**). By increasing the
29 hydrophilicity of the catalytic face, the air electrodes should provide more two-phase
30 boundary for OER due to the improved electrode-electrolyte contact [40]. To evaluate
31 the two-phase boundary at the air electrodes for OER during battery charging, the ECSA
32 is measured by the double layer capacitance at the electrode-electrolyte interface. The
33 decoupled air electrodes show higher ECSA than the conventional air electrode, and the
34 ECSA grows larger with the mesh number (**Fig. 5a-5e**). The higher hydrophilicity also
35 leads to the decreased solution resistance as indicated by the EIS spectra (**Fig. 5f** shows
36 the high-frequency range and **Fig. S4** shows the whole frequency range). Moreover, the
37 decoupled air electrodes show lower charge transfer resistance than the conventional
38 air electrode (**Table 1**), demonstrating that the partially buried a-Steel inside the powder
39 catalyst/carbon layer can assist the electron transport. The decoupled air electrodes also
40 deliver lower charging voltage than the conventional one, and the charge voltage
41 reduces with the mesh number (**Fig. 5g**). It could be attributed to the increased
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hydrophilicity of the air electrodes and the resultant larger dual-phase boundary for OER [41,42]. During the charging test from 1 mA cm^{-2} to 50 mA cm^{-2} , concentrated OER bubbles lead to the powder catalysts/carbon peeling off from the conventional air electrode, and the peeled powder turns the electrolyte to back color as shown by the photo (Fig. 5h). In contrast, for the decoupled air electrodes, the OER bubbles are produced from the a-Steel and partially bypass the powder catalysts/carbon layer, thus protecting the air electrode structure. Moreover, the decreased charging voltage alleviates the oxidative carbon corrosion, which can be verified by the electrolyte color change after the charging tests (Fig. 5h) [2].

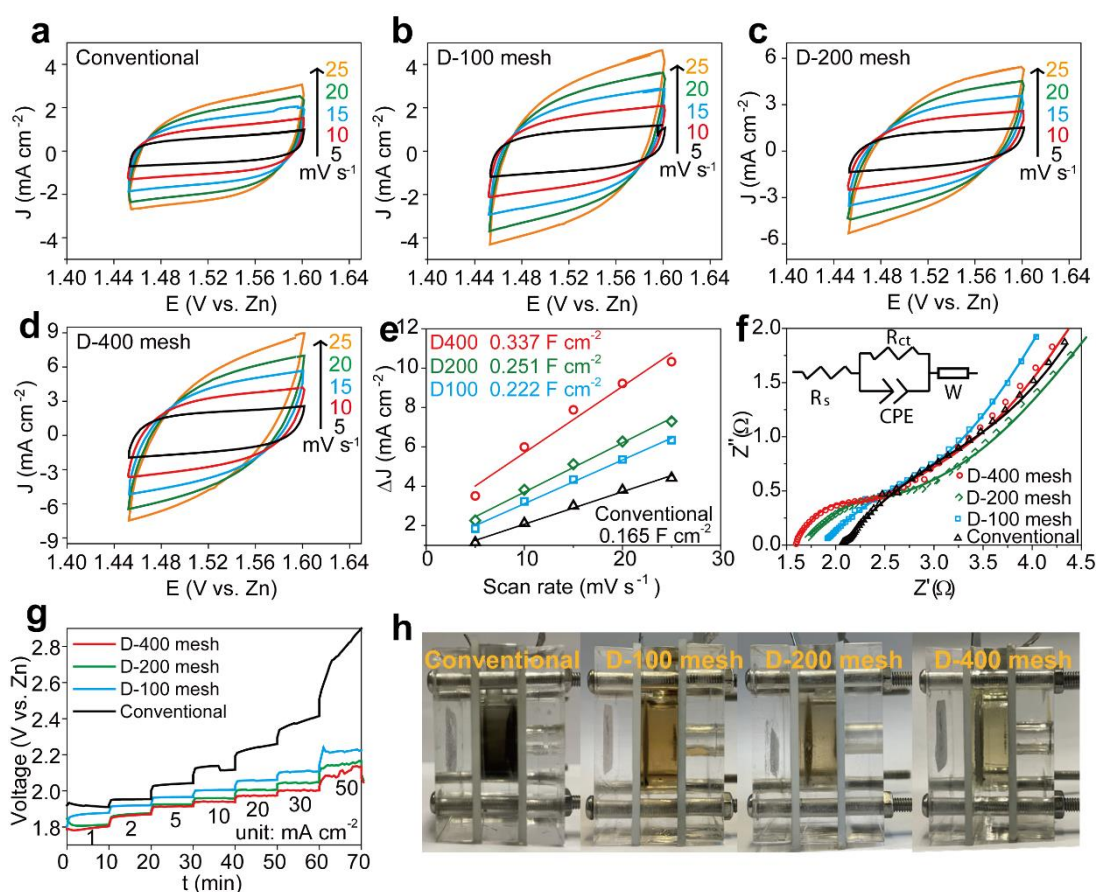


Fig. 5. The ECSA tests of (a) the conventional air electrode and the decoupled air electrode using a-Steel with (b) 100 mesh, (c) 200 mesh, (d) 400 mesh. (e) Capacitive current-scan rate relation and the C_{dl} calculation results. (f) EIS and the fitting plots of the Zn-air batteries with conventional and decoupled air electrodes. (g) Charge profiles of the Zn-air battery using different air electrodes at varied current densities from 1 to 50 mA cm^{-2} . (h) Photos of the Zn-air batteries after the charge profile tests in (g).

Table 1. EIS fitting results of the conventional air electrode and decoupled air electrodes with different mesh number.

	Rs (W)	Rct (W)
Conventional	2.07	2.10
D-100 mesh	1.83	1.01
D-200 mesh	1.55	0.28
D-400 mesh	1.47	0.27

3.4 Enhanced cycling stability of the decoupled air electrode

The D-400 mesh sample is elected to represent the decoupled air electrode for further cycling test since it shows the highest ability to resist oxidative carbon corrosion (**Fig. 5h**). The Zn-air batteries assembled using the conventional and decoupled air electrode are cycled with 3 h discharge and 3 h charge periods. When they are performed at 2 mA cm^{-2} (**Fig. 6a**), the conventional air electrode and decoupled air electrode show similar round-trip energy efficiency around 70 % at the initial cycle (**Fig. 6b**). However, the conventional air electrode shows a quick performance decay after 16 cycles (96 h), whereas the decoupled air electrode keeps a relatively stable profile for 50 cycles (300 h) with a retained energy efficiency of 63.3 %. When operated at 10 mA cm^{-2} (**Fig. 6c**), the conventional air electrode shows an initial voltage gap of 0.89 V with energy efficiency of 56.2 %. In comparison, the decoupled air electrode delivers a much better performance with initial voltage gap of 0.75 V and energy efficiency of 62.6 %. In addition, the decoupled air electrode also shows good cycle stability at 10 mA cm^{-2} for 40 cycles (240 h) and preserves a voltage gap of 0.92 V and energy efficiency of 54.2 %, whereas the conventional air electrode shows rapid voltage gap increasement in only 8 cycles (48 h) with retained energy efficiency of only 40% (**Fig. 6d**).

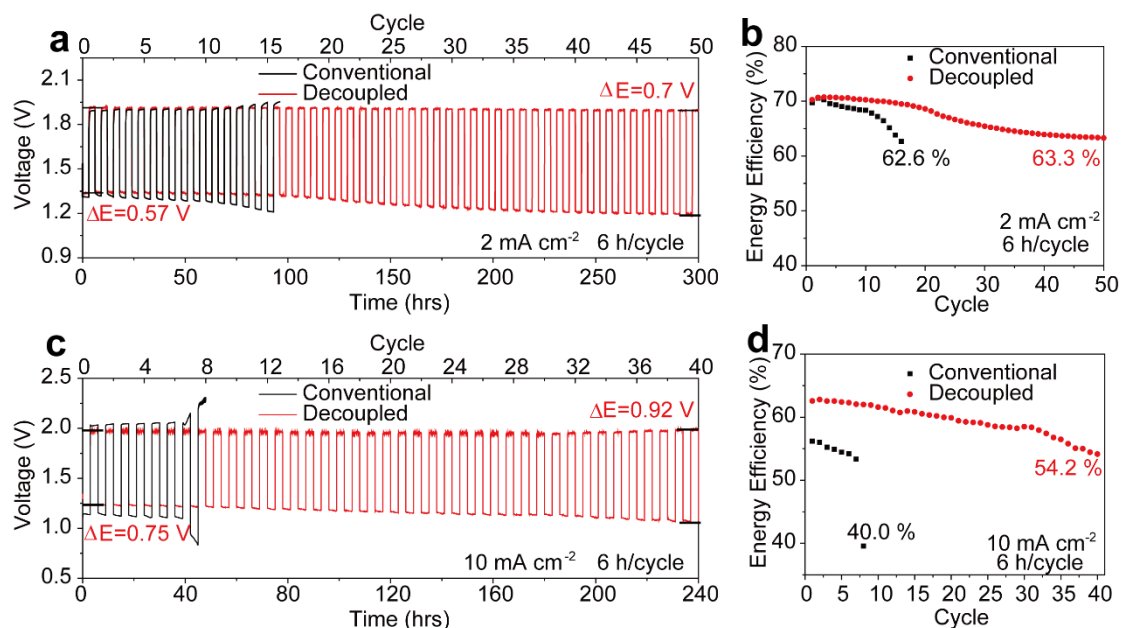
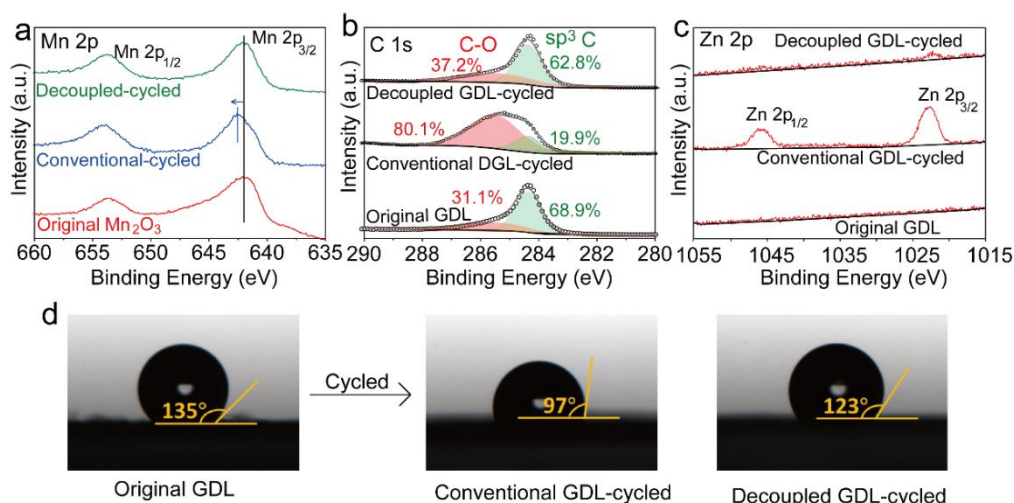


Fig. 6. Galvanostatic charge-discharge profiles of Zn-air batteries cycled at (a) 2 mA cm^{-2} and (c) 10 mA cm^{-2} . Round-trip energy efficiencies of Zn-air batteries along cycling operation at (b) 2 mA cm^{-2} and (d) 10 mA cm^{-2} .

Furthermore, the decoupled air electrode was performed in ZnO saturated 6 M KOH electrolyte (**Fig. S5**). It shows the stable cycling profile at 10 mA cm^{-2} for 40 cycles (240 h), which is close to the result tested in the non-ZnO electrolyte, indicating that the ZnO does not impact the performance of the decoupled air electrode. In addition, the conventional air electrode fabricated by the noble metal benchmark Pt/C+RuO₂ was also cycled at 10 mA cm^{-2} (**Fig. S6**). Although it shows the high initial energy efficiency of 66.6 % at the 1st cycle, it quickly decays to 36.8 % at the 20th cycle, showing a significantly shorter lifespan than the decoupled air electrode using the Ni/Fe/Mn-based materials. This control experiment further confirms that the decoupled structure could efficiently improve the cycle stability of the air electrode, making the low-cost materials more competitive in the Zn-air battery application.

The cycled electrodes are further characterized for a deeper understanding of the superior stability of the decoupled air electrode. The XRD patterns of both conventional and decoupled electrodes (**Fig. S7**) show that the catalysts preserve the original crystal

1 structure after battery cycling, and thus the performance decay is not due to the phase
 2 change of catalysts. **Fig. 7a** compares the Mn 2p XPS spectra of the original Mn₂O₃,
 3 the catalytic face of the conventional and decoupled air electrodes after cycling at 10
 4 mA cm⁻² for 8 cycles (48 h). The cycled conventional air electrode shows a significantly
 5 increased binding energy of Mn 2p_{3/2} (642.5 eV) as compared to the original Mn₂O₃
 6 (642.0 eV), implying the oxidation of Mn during the battery cycling. In contrast, the
 7 cycled decoupled air electrode retains the same peak position of Mn 2p_{3/2} (642.0 eV) as
 8 compared to the original Mn₂O₃, indicating the unchanged valence state of Mn. The
 9 results confirm that decoupled air electrode structure can protect the ORR catalyst from
 10 oxidative corrosion.
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Fig. 7. (a) Mn 2p XPS spectra of the original Mn₂O₃ and the catalytic face of the cycled conventional and decoupled air electrodes. (b) C 1s and (c) Zn 2p XPS spectra of original GDL and the GDL of the cycled conventional and electrodes. (d) Contact angle of the of the original GDL and the GDL of the cycled conventional and decoupled air electrodes.

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Besides, the oxidative corrosion of the GDL during battery cycling is studied in **Fig. 7 (b-d)**, which compare the original GDL, the air face of the conventional air electrode after 16 cycles (96 h) at 2 mA cm⁻², and the air face of decoupled air electrode after 20 cycles (120 h) at 2 mA cm⁻². For the C 1s XPS spectra (**Fig. 7b**), the original

1 GDL shows C-O and sp^3 C species with the ratios of 31.1% and 68.9%, respectively.
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3 The cycled conventional air electrode shows greatly enhanced C-O of 80.1% indicating
4 significant oxidative corrosion. In contrast, the cycled decoupled air electrode shows
5 slightly increased C-O ratio of 37.2% implying the rather low degree of the oxidative
6 corrosion. Moreover, the XPS spectrum of Zn 2p (**Fig. 7c**) is acquired to investigate the
7 flooding of electrolyte through the air electrodes. The original GDL shows no signal of
8 Zn. In contrast, the cycled conventional air electrode shows obvious Zn signal that
9 indicates severe electrolyte flooding. In comparison, the cycled decoupled air electrode
10 shows very weak Zn signal, implying that the electrolyte flooding is reduced.
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22 Furthermore, the evaluation of hydrophilicity of the air face of the air electrodes
23 along cycling was scrutinized by the contact angle measurement (**Fig. 7d**). The original
24 GDL shows a hydrophobic air face with the contact angle of 135° , which guarantees the
25 diffusion pathway of the O_2 gas. The cycled conventional air electrode displays more
26 hydrophilic air face with largely decreased contact angle of 97° , further manifesting the
27 serious carbon corrosion [43], which could inhibit the gas diffusion. In comparison, the
28 cycled decoupled air electrode still preserves a relatively hydrophobic air face with
29 contact angle of 123° , indicating the maintained gas diffusion pathway along cycling.
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31 The above analysis demonstrates that the unique structure of decoupled air electrode
32 could efficiently inhibit the oxidative corrosion of the air electrode, and thus prevents
33 the electrolyte flooding and persists the gas diffusion pathway along cycling. Therefore,
34 the decoupled air electrode shows promoted cycle stability as compared to the
35 conventional one.
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52 **4. Conclusions**

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54 In summary, an air electrode with decoupled ORR-OER sites is fabricated by a
55 facile method of pressing a hydrophilic OER-mesh and a hydrophobic ORR layer. The
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1 hydrophobicity of the catalytic surface could be adjusted by changing the texture of the
2 steel mesh. The decoupled air electrode achieves the optimal discharge performance at
3 the moderate contact angle of about 85 °, which is due to the balance of electrode contact
4 with gas and liquid phase, and the resultant abundant triple-phase boundary for ORR
5 reaction. Furthermore, the decoupled structure could separate the OER and ORR sites
6 at microscale, which alleviates the oxidative corrosion of carbon component of the air
7 electrode during charging process, and thus enhances the cycle stability of Zn-air
8 battery. This work provides a facile strategy to simultaneously engineer the abundance
9 and distribution of reaction sites, which might be instructive for a wide range of
10 electrochemical energy storage and conversion devices.
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32 support, and the contact angle test.
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45 **Declaration of competing interests**

46 The authors declare no conflict of interests.
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