

Influence of iron doping on tetravalent nickel content in catalytic oxygen evolving films

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Iron doping of nickel oxide films results in enhanced activity for promoting the oxygen evolution reaction (OER). Whereas this enhanced activity has been ascribed to a unique iron site within the nickel oxide matrix, we show here that Fe doping influences the Ni valency. The percent of Fe³⁺ doping promotes the formation of formal Ni⁴⁺, which in turn directly correlates with an enhanced activity of the catalyst in promoting OER. The role of Fe³⁺ is consistent with its behavior as a superior Lewis acid.

water splitting | renewable energy | electrocatalysis | oxygen evolution reaction | catalysis

Increasing the solar-to-fuels conversion efficiency of artificial photosynthetic systems relies on continued improvements in understanding the chemistry of catalytic water splitting, especially the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) (1–3). It is known since the studies of Corrigan in the 1980s that oxidic Ni thin films with trace Fe content exhibit exceptional OER activity (4–8). The behavior of Fe-doped Ni (Fe:Ni) oxide films under basic conditions (1 M KOH) has been revisited (9–19) and in this recent body of work, the role of Fe in these films has come under debate. X-ray absorption spectra of Fe:Ni oxide films supported by computational studies have led to the contention that Fe³⁺ species are the active sites for water oxidation (13). The conductivity of the metal (Ni and Co) oxido framework has been observed to increase with Fe content, with the oxide also potentially serving as a scaffold for Fe active sites (16, 17). Interestingly, unary Fe oxide films, however, are inferior OER catalysts. Whereas iron oxide displays modest intrinsic activity at high overpotentials ($\eta > 350$ mV) (17), at low overpotentials ($\eta < 300$ mV) the activity of the films is poor (17, 18, 20–22), even as ultrathin submonolayer films (22). Interestingly, the Tafel slope of Fe:Ni oxido films changes with increasing Fe content (7). Based on the reaction–diffusion behavior of multilayer oxygen evolving catalyst (OEC) films (23), Fe centers as isolated (i.e., noninteracting) sites embedded in a conductive matrix may be expected to alter the exchange current density with Fe content but not necessarily the Tafel slope. In contradistinction to an Fe active site model for Fe:Ni oxides, although Mössbauer studies of Fe:Ni layered double hydroxides provide direct evidence for the formation of Fe⁴⁺ in Fe:Ni oxide catalysts during OER, these Fe⁴⁺ sites do not account for the observed catalytic activity (24). Moreover, the formed “active oxygen” species have been found to be adsorbed on nickel sites in Fe:Ni films in borate buffer (25–27), suggesting Ni centers as active sites for OER. These results together suggest that the presence of Fe active sites may not be the primary reason for the enhanced activity of Fe:Ni catalysts films and point to another chemical role for Fe in oxidic Ni films.

Fe:Ni oxide films may be prepared by nitrate electroreduction, which creates a basic pH at the electrode resulting in rapid precipitation induced by local pH increases. Under these basic conditions, Fe oxide/hydroxide is prone to preferential deposition owing to differences in solubility product constants for Ni(OH)₂ versus Fe(OH)₂ ($K_{sp} = 5.5 \times 10^{-16}$ and 4.9×10^{-17} ,

respectively) (28). Segregation of Fe and Ni oxido subdomains would make it difficult to examine the role of Fe in films at a mechanistic level. In contrast, addition of Fe through incidental doping or the more gradual anodic deposition technique is a more controlled deposition method that prevents rapid Fe precipitation. We have developed methods that permit metal oxido films to be anodically electrodeposited in a controlled fashion under near-neutral pH conditions where Fe precipitation is not prevalent (29–34). Oxidic Ni-based films may be deposited at intermediate pH by using borate (B_i) electrolyte and high activity from these NiB_i films may be achieved by anodic conditioning (31–33). In conjunction with these studies, electrochemical redox titrimetry and in situ (32) and ex situ (35) X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) at the nickel K edge has revealed a correlation of the catalytic activation with a rise beyond 3 in the formal valence of the Ni resting state. Indeed, immediately following deposition, nickel centers persist as Ni³⁺ in a low-activity β -NiOOH-like phase; anodization results in oxidation to a mixed-valence Ni^{3.6+} γ -NiOOH-like phase, which serves as the resting state for the active catalyst (32). These studies support the notion that the active Ni phase in NiOOH-mediated OER is the Ni⁴⁺-containing γ -NiOOH phase. Taking into account the spectroscopic data demonstrating the correlation between activity and Ni⁴⁺ content (32), we have now interrogated the influence of Fe content on Ni valence by electrochemical redox titration of ultrathin (<10 nm) catalyst films, with additional characterization using Ni K-edge XAS and O K-edge electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS). We show that the resting state

Significance

Iron-doped nickel oxide films are the most active nonnoble metal oxygen evolution reaction (OER) catalysts in alkaline electrolyte. Since Corrigan's original discovery of enhanced activity with Fe doping in nickel oxides, the chemical basis for this synergy remains unclear. Recent studies suggest iron to assume a high valent oxidation state, thus promoting OER. We provide evidence for an alternative role of Fe³⁺ as a Lewis acid in the host nickel oxide. We observe that Fe³⁺ promotes the formation of Ni⁴⁺, which leads to enhanced catalytic activity. This result is consistent with Fe³⁺ to be one of the strongest Lewis acidic metals by any measure of Lewis acidity, including hard–soft acid base theory, metal ion pK_as, and chemical inertness.

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Table 1. Summary of film preparation, analysis, and Fe content

Entry	Film	Fe incorporation method	Film preparation*	Fe content, mol % [†]
NiB _i films				
1	NiB _i	None	As-deposited	1.04 ± 0.46
2	NiB _i	None	Anodized in Fe-free solution (1 M KOH)	1.60 ± 0.38
3	NiB _i	None	Anodized in Fe-free solution (1 M KB _i pH 9.2)	0.58
Fe:NiB _i films from trace Fe incorporation				
4	Fe ^{tr} :NiB _i	Incubate in reagent grade 1 M KB _i pH 9.2	Anodized in Fe-free solution (1 M KOH)	2.91 ± 0.74–4.75 ± 1.87 [#]
5	Fe ^{tr} :NiB _i	Incubated in reagent grade 1 M KB _i pH 9.2	Anodized in Fe-free solution (1 M KB _i pH 9.2)	2.66–6.45 [#]
6	Fe ^{tr} :NiB _i	Anodized in reagent grade buffer	Anodized in reagent grade solution (1 M KOH)	11.43 ± 1.55
7	Fe ^{tr} :NiB _i	Anodized in reagent grade buffer	Anodized in reagent grade solution (1 M KB _i pH 9.2)	27.34 ± 3.51
Fe:NiB _i films from intentional Fe incorporation				
8	Fe ^{cod} :NiB _i	None	As-deposited	4.47 ± 0.59
9	Fe ^{cod} :NiB _i	Codeposition from Ni/Fe solution	Anodized in Fe-free solution (1 M KOH)	4.90 ± 0.64

*Electrodeposited films studied with no applied anodic preconditioning are designated as-deposited; electrodeposited films obtained from applying an anodic potential for 3 h either at 0.75 V vs. NHE in 1 M KOH or 1.15 V in 1 M KB_i pH 9.2. are designated as anodized.

[†]Fe concentration determined from ICP-MS of dissolved films.

[#]Incubation times from 5 to 30 min.

of the Ni valency in these materials increases with Fe content to 10%, after which increased Fe content does not affect the Ni valency. Our results point to the role of Fe as a Lewis acid to increase the Ni valency, which in turn leads to the increase in OER activity of Fe-doped Ni oxido films.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 lists the three types of NiB_i films examined in this study: pure NiB_i films with no Fe, and NiB_i films with Fe incorporation either from trace Fe (11, 14, 15) in reagent-grade KOH and B_i electrolytes (i.e., Fe^{tr}:NiB_i) or from Fe codeposited (14) from a known solution concentration (i.e., Fe^{cod}:NiB_i). Electrolyte solutions for the preparation of authentic NiB_i films must be either scrubbed of Fe in very basic pH conditions by subjecting the solutions to treatment with solid Ni(OH)₂ as previously described (11, 14) or cleaned by chelating resin complex in more neutral pH conditions as previously described (36) (see *SI Appendix* for details). Table 1 also lists different methods of film treatment. Films were studied either directly upon electrodeposition (designated as-deposited) or after holding the film at an anodic potential for 3 h either at 0.75 V in 1 M KOH or 1.15 V in 1 M KB_i pH 9.2 (designated anodized). All potentials are in reference to the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE).

As-deposited and KOH-anodized NiB_i films (entries 1 and 2 in Table 1, entries 1–1 and 1–2, respectively) exhibit Fe content and OER activity similar to previous reports (14, 31–33). Ni and Fe metal ion concentrations were determined by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) on solutions of digested films (rinsed in type I water) in ultrapure (doubly distilled) 2% nitric acid. All glassware was thoroughly acid-washed before use. The detection of Fe in as-deposited NiB_i films (Table 1, entry 1–1) at a level of 1.04 ± 0.46% and for films anodized in scrubbed electrolyte (Table 1, entry 1–2) at a level of 1.60 ± 0.38% is likely due to remnant trace Fe in glassware and the general experimental setup. As noted previously (14, 31–33), the OER activity of as-deposited NiB_i films in Fe-scrubbed electrolyte (Table 1, entry 1–1) is low (red trace, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1), consistent with the high Tafel slopes (90–100 mV/decade) characteristic of such films (14, 31–33). That the OER current density (*j*) does not vary over time suggests that an anodic potential alone does not modify NiB_i films operating in Fe-free media. Also consistent with previous results (14, 31–33), the operation of these as-deposited NiB_i films (Table 1, entry 1–1) in reagent-grade electrolyte (which contains adventitious amounts of Fe) shows a dramatic increase in activity (blue trace, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1), attendant to a decreased Tafel slope of 30 mV/decade (33).

The valencies of Ni in these films (Table 1, entries 1–1 and 1–2) were electrochemically assessed by coulometric titration in Fe-free 1 M KOH. This measurement was also carried out on Fe^{tr}:NiB_i films (Table 1, entries 1–4, 1–6, and 1–7). Films ≤7 nm (a few monolayers) thick are obtained by terminating deposition upon the passage of 1.0 mC/cm² (32, 33). The use of such ultrathin films ensures that charge transport is not a predominant factor in evaluating film redox properties. The total charge passed in the electroreduction of Ni centers in NiB_i and Fe^{tr}:NiB_i films (blue trace, Fig. 1A) was determined from the cyclic voltammogram (red trace, Fig. 1A), permitting the total number of electrons consumed upon reduction to Ni²⁺ to be quantified.

Fig. 1A shows exemplary data for the cyclic voltammogram and current integration (charge) curve for NiB_i films anodized in Fe-free electrolyte (Table 1, entry 1–2). By determining the total Ni and Fe content in these films from ICP-MS analysis, the Ni valency may be calculated. For NiB_i films (Table 1, entry 1–2), we observe that 1.2 ± 0.1 electrons are consumed per Ni center, revealing that a Ni valency of +3.2(1) is sustained upon anodization

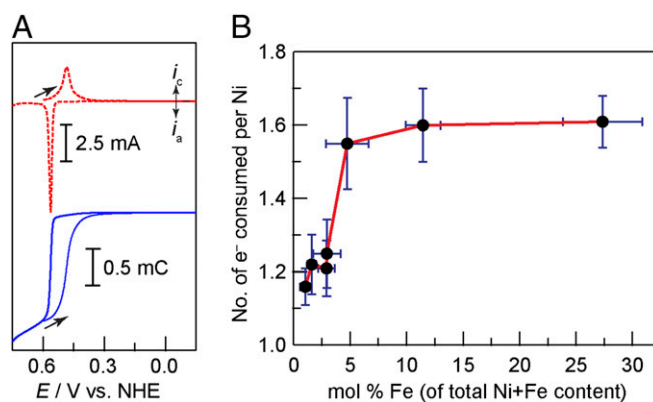


Fig. 1. (A) CV in Fe-free 1 M KOH of a NiB_i film deposited onto a fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO)-coated glass slide and anodized for 3 h in Fe-free 1.0 M KOH (Table 1, entry 1–2). Scan rate: 0.1 V/s. Current (top, dashed line) and total charge (bottom, solid line) data are offset for clarity. (B) Plot of coulometric titration data against the Fe content for NiB_i and Fe^{tr}:NiB_i films in the as-deposited (Table 1, entry 1–1) and reagent-grade anodized states (Table 1, entries 1–6 and 1–7), as well as upon anodization in Fe-free KOH following exposure to reagent-grade 1 M KB_i electrolyte for 0, 5, 10, or 30 min (Table 1, entries 1–2 and 1–4). Error bars derived from three independent measurements.

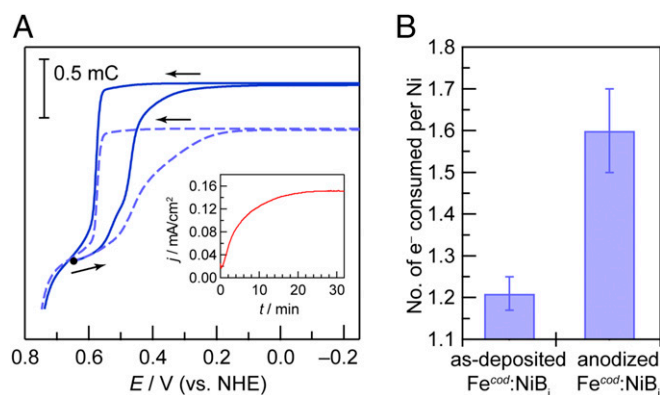


Fig. 2. $\text{Fe}^{\text{cod}}:\text{NiB}_i$ films deposited in the presence of Fe^{3+} . (A) Coulometric titration of as-deposited (Table 1, entry 1–8) (blue, dashed line) and anodized (Table 1, entry 1–9) (dark blue, solid line) films showing a significantly greater amount of charge passed following anodization. The dot marks the start of the scan and arrows show scan direction. (Inset) Chronoamperometric trace over the course of anodization at 0.75 V in Fe-free 1 M KOH showing activation. (B) Coulometric titration data for codeposited Fe:Ni oxide films (Table 1, entries 1–8 and 1–9).

in Fe-free solution. A similar result of $1.16 \pm 0.05 \text{ e}^-/\text{Ni}$ (Ni valency of +3.2) is also obtained for films in the as-deposited state (Table 1, entry 1–1), matching previous values for as-deposited NiB_i films (32). Our analysis assumes that Fe^{3+} sites, if present (as has been reported for a 3:1 Ni:Fe layered double hydroxide, LDH) (24), do not consume electrons to produce Fe^{3+} sites. Indeed, at most, 1/5 of the Fe sites in these LDHs are Fe^{4+} ; with this benchmark, even if all of the iron content in NiB_i films were reduced to Fe^{3+} , this would account for negligible electron consumption given our low Fe content (under 5% for Fe incorporated through incubation, *vide infra*). We note that integration of the cathodic wave is more reliable than integrating the corresponding anodic wave of the $\text{Ni}^{3+/2+}$ redox feature (SI Appendix, Fig. S2). As shown by SI Appendix, Fig. S2B, the integrated charge curve for cyclic voltammogram (CV) scans recorded toward reductive potentials is defined clearly by an extended plateau where the film has been completely reduced to Ni^{2+} . This is not the case for integration of the anodic feature, which merges into the OER wave. This likely explains the observation of Corrigan and Bendert (8) and Merrill et al. (37) that NiB_i in the absence of significant Fe incorporation exhibits a redox level of $1.6 \text{ e}^-/\text{Ni}$ above Ni^{2+} . In these measurements, the Ni valency was determined from the anodic wave of the $\text{Ni}^{3+/2+}$ redox feature where contributions of OER to the measured current would lead to inflated values in the Ni redox level. Furthermore, we note that the films used by Corrigan were much thicker than reported here ($\sim 470 \text{ nm}$ versus $\sim 7 \text{ nm}$ based on average Ni loading comparison). In thick films, a CV sweep conducted for coulometric analysis may not capture all Ni center reductions because of poor electron transfer as the film is made increasingly insulating by Ni^{2+} centers during the reduction. We avoid this issue by using ultrathin films to ensure that the entirety of the film is subject to interrogation by redox titrimetry. We also note that different materials and conditions lead to different values of Ni valency. Smith and Berlinguette have observed $4 \text{ e}^-/\text{Ni}$ transferred for photochemically prepared $\alpha\text{-NiO}_x$ films upon integration of the first anodic peak (38), although with repeated cycling of the film, the e^-/Ni calculated with subsequent cycling converges to $\sim 1.2 \text{ e}^-$ per Ni, as we observe here. Studies of other NiFe-based LDHs show a trend in decreased Ni valency with increasing Fe (39) which may be explained by a different resting state species such as a NiFe hydroperoxide (40). Also of note, at high iron concentrations, phase-segregated Fe hydroxide phases

may be prevalent and thus could complicate accurate measurements of Ni valency.

NiB_i films were doped with increasing quantities of Fe by incubating the as-deposited films in reagent-grade 1 M KB_i pH 9.2 electrolyte (that had not been subject to the Fe scrubbing procedure) at open circuit for varying times (5, 10, 30 min) and subsequently anodized in Fe-free KOH (Table 1, entry 1–4). The amount of iron incorporated into these films increases steadily with incubation time (SI Appendix, Fig. S3) as the onset potential to OER decreases (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A). Incorporation of Fe via this incubation method is advantageous because it allows us to resolve the behavior of uniform films with low Fe content (<5 mol %). Fig. 1B plots the coulometric titration data versus the percentage of Fe doping for films prepared by this incubation process (Table 1, entry 1–4) along with that obtained from films prepared by the aforementioned methods (Table 1, entries 1–1, 1–2, 1–6, and 1–7). The maximal mixed-valence resting state of $\text{Ni}^{3.6+}$ is achieved at Fe doping levels of 4%, and beyond a doping level of 10% Fe, there is no further increase in average Ni valency. Interestingly, the plateau at $\geq 10\%$ Fe content observed here matches previous reports of maximal film activity at $\sim 10\%$ Fe doping (10, 13, 15, 18). Moreover, the $\text{Ni}^{3.6+}$ value matches that previously measured for NiB_i films anodized in reagent-grade 1 M KB_i buffer (33), which likely contains Fe as a contaminant on par with the highest Fe content in $\text{Fe}^r:\text{NiB}_i$ (Table 1, entry 1–7) measured here (SI Appendix, Fig. S3). This plateau in Ni valency with Fe content again emphasizes that electrons consumed during coulometric titrations are going toward reduction of higher valence nickel centers to Ni^{2+} as opposed to the reduction of Fe^{4+} to Fe^{3+} .

To distinguish the role of increasing Fe content during an applied anodic potential, coulometric titration/ICP-MS analysis was conducted on films prepared by codeposition of Ni and Fe ($\text{Fe}^{\text{cod}}:\text{NiB}_i$) in the as-deposited and anodized state (Table 1, entries 1–8 and 1–9, respectively). Here, we followed previously published (14) procedures to anodically electrodeposit ultrathin films (deposition charge of $1.0 \text{ mC}/\text{cm}^2$) from a pH 9.2 KB_i electrolyte containing a 9:1 molar ratio of Ni^{2+} and Fe^{2+} . Table 1, film entry 1–8 shows a steady increase in activity with a plateau after 1 h (Fig. 2A, Inset), similar to that observed upon anodization of NiB_i films in reagent-grade electrolyte (SI Appendix, Fig. S1, blue trace) (33, 34). Redox titrimetry followed by elemental analysis of digested films reveals that the average Ni valency in these $\text{Fe}^{\text{cod}}:\text{NiB}_i$ films increases over the course of the electrochemical activation from +3.21(4) (as-deposited, Table 1, entry 1–8) to +3.6(1) (anodized, Table 1, entry 1–9) as shown in

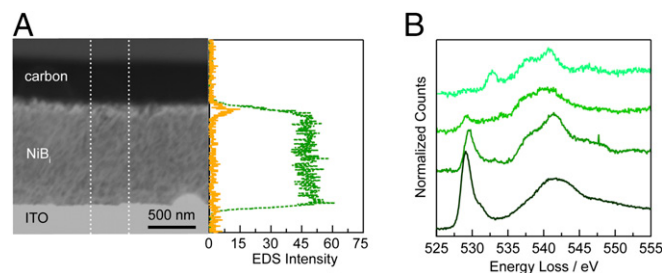


Fig. 3. (A, Left) Dark-field STEM image of a typical cross-sectioned catalyst film sample showing: a portion of the indium tin oxide (ITO) substrate, the $\text{Fe}^r:\text{NiB}_i$ (Table 1, entry 1–7) catalyst layer (anodized in reagent-grade KB_i electrolyte), and protective carbon overcoats applied before focused ion beam milling. (Right) Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) elemental profile (Ni: green; Fe: orange) with EDS counts summed across the region between the dotted lines. (B) Oxygen K-edge EELS of nickel oxide model compounds. From top to bottom: Ni^0O , $\text{Ni}^{\text{II}}(\text{OH})_2$, $\text{LiNi}^{\text{III}}_2\text{O}_2$, and $\gamma\text{-Ni}^{\text{III/IV}}\text{OOH}$. Spectra were normalized to the edge jump and offset for clarity.

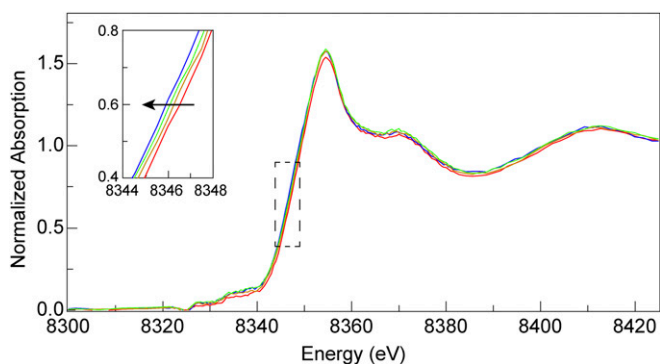


Fig. 4. Ni K-edge XANES spectra of reagent-grade 1 M KB_i, pH 9.2 anodized Fe^{tr}:NiB_i film (12.30 mol % Fe) (Table 1, entry 1–7) (blue), as well as Fe^{tr}:NiB_i films anodized in Fe-free 1 M KB_i, pH 9.2 following exposure to reagent-grade 1 M KB_i electrolyte for 0 (red), 15 (orange), or 25 (green) min to obtain Fe content of 0.58, 2.66, and 6.45 mol % Fe, respectively (Table 1, entries 1–3 and 1–5). (Inset) Zoomed-in K-edge shift of spectra as indicated by dotted box in A. All films were poised at 1.3 V during anodization and XAS scans.

Fig. 2B. This result agrees with previous work that shows anodization results in significant increase in turnover frequency even for codeposited Fe^{cod}:NiB_i films (14).

The results of Figs. 1 and 2 show that the presence of Fe alone does not promote the formation of higher valent Ni species. Instead, the combination of Fe and electrochemical polarization at moderately high potentials (anodization) is necessary for activation. Previous XAS studies show that anodization drives a phase change from β-NiOOH (valency 3.2) to γ-NiOOH (valency 3.6) (32). Fe dopants make this phase transition more accessible but Fe incorporation alone cannot achieve this transformation. That the presence of Fe facilitates the formation of Ni⁴⁺ to yield an overall average Ni^{3.6+} formal oxidation of the resting state suggests that Fe dopants make this phase transition more accessible. It remains undefined if Fe increases Ni valency to drive the structural change or vice versa.

To study the difference between anodized Fe:NiB_i films formed from codeposition (Fe^{cod}:NiB_i, Table 1, entry 1–9) versus incidental doping (Fe^{tr}:NiB_i, Table 1, entry 1–7), we conducted cross-sectional elemental analysis of a thick NiB_i catalyst film (~1 μm) that was anodized in reagent-grade KB_i, pH 9.2 electrolyte (Table 1, entry 1–7). The results reveal an anisotropic distribution of Fe in the film with the predominant localization of Fe in the outermost ~100 nm of the catalyst film (Fig. 3A). Similarly, thick as-deposited films that were not subjected to anodization (Table 1, entry 1–1) do not display significant Fe counts across the film (SI Appendix, Fig. S4). This result again emphasizes the need to make measurements of Ni valency on thin films, as performed in our studies here. Importantly, this result also offers insight into the possible origin of the apparently higher activity observed upon codeposition of Fe^{cod}:NiB_i in thicker films (14). Codeposition gives rise to a more homogeneous distribution of Fe throughout a thick film. Consequently, a greater proportion of the Ni centers throughout a thick film would attain a Ni⁴⁺ valency upon anodization, resulting in higher activity.

To investigate why greater Ni⁴⁺ valence is beneficial to greater catalytic OER activity, we probed the influence of formal Ni valence on the electronic structure of oxygen ions in Ni oxide models (Fig. 3B). Oxygen K-edge spectroscopy largely probes transitions between O 1s and unoccupied metal orbitals (i.e., 3d, and 4s/4p). Such spectra typically feature a preedge feature centered at ~530 eV and a broader set of overlapping bands spanning the 535–550-eV range. The preedge results from transitions to unoccupied metal 3d orbitals that are hybridized with O 2p

character (formally a 1s → 3d transition that gains dipole allowed intensity via O 2p mixing).

Spectral intensity above the preedge is associated with states that have O 2p character hybridized with unoccupied metal 4s and 4p orbitals (41–43). The intensity of the preedge has been shown to be a powerful measure of the covalency of metal–oxygen bonds (41). As shown in Fig. 3B, EELS (see SI Appendix for details) of a series of model Ni oxide compounds reveals a pronounced increase in the intensity of the preedge feature as the formal oxidation state of Ni increases from NiO to γ-NiOOH. These data indicate increased covalency in Ni–O bonding as the formal Ni oxidation state is increased. As a direct consequence of the electronic considerations embodied by the “Oxo Wall” (44), the formal oxidation state of Ni(IV)–oxo (Ni(IV) ≡ O) will possess significant Ni(III)–O[•] resonance character with increased covalency. Such oxyl radical character is consistent with increasing evidence for the role of oxygen radicals in O–O bond formation by a proton-coupled electron transfer (PCET) mechanism involving water (45–47), most likely to generate a hydroperoxide intermediate from which oxygen is generated (48). To this end, increased Ni⁴⁺ generation by Fe incorporation will lead to greater Ni–O covalency, and thus greater oxyl character, which can manifest in increased OER activity.

XAS of Ni centers in NiB_i during OER also show increased Ni–O covalency as Fe loading is increased. The in situ X-ray absorption near-edge spectra data are given in Fig. 4 for anodized NiB_i (Table 1, entry 1–3) and Fe^{tr}:NiB_i films (Table 1, entry 1–5 and entry 1–7). A systematic red-shift of the Ni K edge is observed upon increased Fe incorporation from 0.58 mol % to 12.30 mol % Fe. The magnitude of this edge shift (–0.8 eV) is less than that associated with reducing Ni^{3+/4+} in the anodized

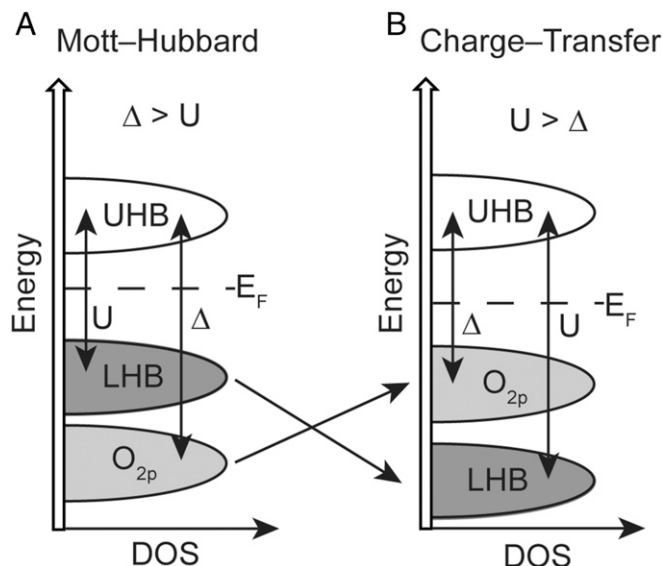


Fig. 5. Schematic energy-band vs. density of states (DOS) diagrams of (A) a Mott–Hubbard insulator and (B) a charge-transfer insulator. The occupied O 2p bands are shaded in light gray whereas the metal d bands are shaded in dark gray for occupied bands and unshaded for unoccupied bands. The unoccupied and occupied d bands are represented by the UHB and LHB, respectively. The d–d coulomb and exchange energy transfer (U) between UHB and LHB of the metal d bands and the p-to-d charge-transfer energy (Δ) terms are also indicated. The Fermi energy (E_F) level is indicated by the dotted dashed line. Mott–Hubbard insulators and charge-transfer insulators are differentiated by their relative values of U versus Δ to result in the highest occupied band being either metal or ligand character, which in turn results in either metal oxidation (Mott–Hubbard insulator) or ligand oxygen oxidation (charge-transfer insulator), respectively.

film to Ni^{2+} (*SI Appendix, Fig. S5*). Additionally, the edge shift upon Fe incorporation is less than that previously observed (40, 49) with the caveats that the results of Fig. 4 have been obtained under OER conditions with less Fe incorporation. If X-ray-induced photoreduction were to give rise to this <1-eV change in edge energy (50, 51), we would expect a systematic, instantaneous photoreduction across the different films. However, spectral changes do not change over multiple scans, suggesting that photoreduction of the film is not occurring upon continuous X-ray exposure. On the other hand, it is well established that the Ni K edge is sensitive to changes in oxidation and spin state as well as ligand–metal covalency. Increased Ni–O covalency results in a decreased effective nuclear charge, Z_{eff} , of the metal, which in turn results in a red-shift of the edge transition(s) (i.e., $1s \rightarrow 4p$). Additionally, increased metal–ligand covalency can result in a broadening and increased intensity of the edge transitions due to delocalization of the metal $4p$ orbitals (52). Our observations are also in line with comparative Ni K-edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectra of Ni/Mn molecular complexes with hard O, N-donor and soft Cl, S-donor ligands, which show that the edge energy shifts to lower energy with increased Ni–ligand covalency (52–54). Thus, the Ni K-edge data corroborate the O K-edge data of Fig. 3B—an increase in Fe loading results in an increase in Ni–O covalency.

The contributions of $\text{Ni(IV)} \rightleftharpoons \text{O}$ versus $\text{Ni(III)}\text{--O}^{\bullet}$ resonances with covalency can be understood within the context of a Zaanen–Sawatzky–Allen scheme. In this treatment, transition-metal compounds may be classified as either Mott–Hubbard or charge-transfer insulators (55, 56). The electronic structure for these two regimes is determined by the relative values of U and Δ (57), where U is related to the d - d Coulomb and exchange interactions resulting from $d_i^n, d_j^n \leftrightarrow d_i^{n-1}, d_j^{n+1}$ (i and j are electrons on neighboring metals) charge fluctuations, and Δ is related to the ionization energy of the ligand and electron affinity of the metal, and is therefore related to the ligand-to-metal charge-transfer (LMCT) energy ($d_i^n \rightarrow d_i^{n+1}L$, where the electron-hole is located on the ligand) (56). The relative values of U and Δ tune the metal–ligand character of the highest occupied band, which results in metal versus oxide oxidation (Fig. 5). For large Δ ($\Delta > U$), the oxygen valence band lies below the occupied d -orbital band [i.e., lower Hubbard band (LHB)], giving rise to a Mott–Hubbard-type insulator, as depicted in Fig. 5. Conversely, for small Δ ($U > \Delta$), the oxygen valence band lies above the occupied d -orbital band, giving rise to a charge-transfer-type insulator. The relative values of U and Δ are determinants of the $\text{Ni(IV)} \rightleftharpoons \text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{Ni(III)}\text{--O}^{\bullet}$ resonance structures. Decreasing Δ (more covalent interaction due to greater ligand–metal orbital mixing) and increasing U will favor covalency and hence a greater $\text{Ni(III)}\text{--O}^{\bullet}$ resonance contribution (owing to the ordering of the O_{2p} band above LHB). This model is consistent with our results of a greater Ni–O covalency arising from a higher effective

formal oxidation state of Ni with Fe doping. The result is also consistent with the observation of increased conductivity of the Ni oxide lattice with Fe doping (11) inasmuch as a decrease in Δ and increase in U induces more charge-transfer character within the lattice.

Conclusions

The ability to access the Ni^{4+} in the resting state of Ni oxido OECs at modest overpotentials ($\eta \sim 350\text{--}250$ mV) is directly correlated to the presence of Fe in NiB_i films. Coulometric titration results reveal that the resting state valency of Ni increases by 0.5 for Fe loadings of 5–10%. Attendant to this increase in Ni valency, O and Ni K-edge spectra reveal a greater Ni–O covalency. On the basis of the studies reported herein, the role of Fe in promoting the OER at nickel oxide catalysts appears in large part to be a Lewis acid effect. By any measure, Fe^{3+} is strong Lewis acid. The chemical hardness scale of Parr et al. places Fe^{3+} as one of the “hardest” ions in the periodic table (58, 59), which is also supported by the less quantitative predictions of hard–soft acid–base theory (60). Within the context of the study herein, a very relevant measure of the Lewis acidity is offered by the pK_a of the hexaqua metal complex. Computation and experiment show Fe^{3+} to be the most acidic transition metal ion with a $\text{pK}_a = 2.2$ for the deprotonation of coordinated water (61). Accordingly, the incorporation of the Lewis acid Fe^{3+} into Ni oxido catalyst clusters would serve to increase the acidity of OH_x (aqua/hydroxo) moieties that are coordinated to nickel, thereby lowering the reduction potential for the $\text{Ni}^{4+/3+}$ couple and thus engendering a greater population of Ni^{4+} in the Fe-doped catalysts. This in turn leads to greater oxyl character arising from the $\text{Ni(IV)} \rightleftharpoons \text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{Ni(III)}\text{--O}^{\bullet}$ resonance contribution. In light of the recognized role of the oxyl radical in promoting O–O bond formation via PCET (62–69), the role of Fe^{3+} in NiB_i to promote increased oxyl character is of beneficial consequence to increasing OER activity in metal oxidic catalyst films.

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