



Controllable synthesis of multi-interfacial Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ catalysts for efficient oxygen evolution reaction in alkaline freshwater and seawater

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Abstract

Electrocatalytic overall water splitting (OWS) serves as a pivotal technical route for the scaled-up synthesis of green hydrogen. In this work, a Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ multi-interfacial heterostructured catalyst was fabricated via a one-step hydrothermal strategy. Electrochemical measurements demonstrate that the catalyst delivers an overpotential of only 163 mV at 10 mA cm⁻² in 1 M KOH electrolyte. In addition, it merely requires an overpotential of 165 mV to reach 10 mA cm⁻² in 1 M KOH alkaline seawater electrolyte. Density functional theory further demonstrate that the Cr-VO₂ component can optimize the interfacial electronic configuration, accelerate charge transfer kinetics, and strengthen the water adsorption affinity of the catalyst. This work not only offers an innovative route for the structural fabrication and performance regulation of Ni₃S₂-based transition metal sulfides, but also delivers theoretical support and material support for the exploitation of low-cost and durable anodic catalysts applicable to both freshwater and seawater electrolysis.

Keywords Water splitting · Oxygen evolution reaction · Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ · Multi-interfacial heterostructured catalyst · Density functional theory

Introduction

As the global energy structure accelerates its transition toward cleaner and low-carbon forms, developing sustainable, efficient, and environmentally friendly new energy carriers has become a critical breakthrough in addressing the energy crisis and environmental pollution [1–7]. Hydrogen, with its prominent advantages including outstanding energy storage density, environmental benignity, and sustainability, is widely recognized as an ideal clean energy carrier to replace traditional fossil fuels [8–14]. Electrochemical overall water splitting (OWS) provides a highly

attractive technical route for the large-scale production of green H₂, thanks to its distinctive merits of zero carbon emissions throughout the process, high-purity products, and direct compatibility with renewable energy sources [15–17]. This technology enables the simultaneous realization of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) at the cathode and the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode within a single electrolysis system, directly yielding high-purity hydrogen [18–20]. It not only effectively overcomes the drawbacks of conventional hydrogen production processes such as high carbon emissions, severe pollution, and reliance on fossil feedstocks, but also can be fully driven by intermittent clean energy sources including solar, wind, and hydro energy, truly realizing a closed-loop production model of green hydrogen generated from green electricity [21–23].

At present, the core challenges in OWS center on the relatively slow dynamics of both the cathodic HER and the anodic OER [24]. Particularly, the OER process, which involves multi-electron transfer, has a higher energy barrier and exhibits even slower kinetics, significantly limiting improvements in overall electrolysis efficiency [25–27].

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Therefore, exploring environmentally friendly and durable OER electrodes is of great importance to realize high-performance water electrolysis [28]. Although precious -metal oxides for instance IrO_2 and RuO_2 show outstanding oxygen evolution activity, their prohibitive cost and limited natural resources greatly restrict their practical application on an industrial scale [29–31]. Another critical constraint for overall water splitting is the imbalance between the supply and demand of freshwater resources. The continuous consumption of freshwater has long exceeded the natural renewal capacity of renewable water resources [32]. In contrast, seawater accounts for approximately 97% of the Earth's total water resources, featuring an extremely large reserve and high accessibility [33, 34]. However, seawater has a complex composition, especially abundant chloride anions, which not only causes electrode corrosion but also triggers intense competitive side reactions with OER via the chlorine evolution reaction (CIER) [35–37]. Under alkaline conditions, a large amount of chloride ions in seawater can be readily oxidized to Cl_2 or ClO^- at a theoretical potential of 1.72 V, which is considerably higher than the 1.23 V theoretical potential for the OER [38–41]. Consequently, rationally designing high-performance and low-cost anode catalysts for both freshwater and seawater electrolysis, enhancing the intrinsic selectivity toward the OER in seawater, and kinetically suppressing the CIER have become urgent and critical tasks to be addressed at the current stage.

In recent years, fourth-period transition metal compounds, which are abundant in reserves, possess diverse oxidation states and are low in cost, have emerged as highly promising candidates to replace conventional high-performance water-splitting catalysts. Among them, transition metal sulfides [42], carbides, nitrides and phosphides [43] have been widely applied in the field for electrolysis of water [44–47]. Existing studies have confirmed that transition metal sulfides (TMS) possess a narrow band gap between the conduction band and valence band, thus exhibiting excellent electrical conductivity and typical semiconductor-like properties, which can effectively ensure rapid charge transport and interfacial electron transfer during electrocatalysis [48, 49]. Meanwhile, transition metal sulfides show certain advantages in synthesis and application compared with phosphides, carbides and nitrides. Phosphides tend to release toxic gases during high-temperature preparation, posing potential safety hazards. Carbide and nitride materials typically necessitate severe preparation conditions with ultrahigh temperature and pressure. In contrast, transition metal sulfides not only feature higher safety and milder, more controllable synthesis conditions, but also possess a large specific surface area and sufficient reaction centers for hydrogen adsorption,

attracting extensive attention in the field of electrocatalysis. Among these, Ni_3S_2 is a highly representative material among metal sulfides. Its unique Ni-S coordination environment and three-dimensional network structure endow it with distinct metallic characteristics and superior electrical conductivity. These structural features can significantly accelerate charge transfer and interfacial reaction kinetics during electrocatalysis [50–52]. However, pure Ni_3S_2 often suffers from insufficient active sites, easy surface oxidation and passivation, and unsatisfactory long-term stability in electrocatalytic processes [53–56]. He et al. prepared an $\text{Al-Ni}_3\text{S}_2/\text{NF}$ bifunctional catalyst via a hydrothermal method, which exhibited extraordinary electrocatalytic activity toward HER and OER simultaneously, achieving small overpotentials of 86 mV and 223 mV at 10 mA cm^{-2} [57]. Yan et al. successfully synthesized Mo, Fe-doped Ni_3S_2 nanoarrays, which delivered remarkable high-current OER activity under alkaline media, requiring overpotentials of merely 234 mV and 253 mV at 100 mA cm^{-2} and 200 mA cm^{-2} , respectively. In addition, the material also performed excellently in the HER, with an overpotential of only 59 mV at 10 mA cm^{-2} . Furthermore, to attain overall water splitting, the catalyst only consumes 1.45 V and 1.47 V in 1.0 M KOH solution and alkaline seawater separately [58]. Although important progress has been made in existing studies, the industrialization level in this domain still requires further advancement. On the basis of current research, this study takes Ni_3S_2 as the core target material, expecting to offer solid technical support for the robust transformation and utilization of sustainable energy resources through the development of novel catalytic materials.

In this work, we successfully fabricated $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ multi-interfacial heterostructured composites via a one-step hydrothermal strategy. The abundant heterogeneous interfaces and porous structure endow the catalyst with rich active sites, which facilitate efficient internal charge transport, full contact between reactants, and effective utilization of active centers. The material can efficiently drive freshwater and seawater electrolysis in alkaline media, exhibiting outstanding OER catalytic performance. The catalyst achieves 10 mA cm^{-2} at an overpotential of 163 mV in 1 M KOH and exhibits stable performance during 15 h durability evaluation. In 1 M KOH-containing seawater, only 165 mV overpotential is required to drive the OER at 10 mA cm^{-2} . Density functional theory (DFT) analysis further verify that the Cr-VO_2 component in $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ can effectively optimize the interfacial charge transfer dynamics and greatly enhance the water adsorption affinity of the catalyst. This study creates a novel strategy to boost the intrinsic catalytic activity of TMS in freshwater and seawater electrolysis.

Experimental section

Preprocessing operation of Ni foam (NF)

A 3 cm × 6 cm piece of nickel foam underwent ultrasonic cleaning in 3 mol/L HCl solution and ethanol for 15 min sequentially to strip surface oxide films and contaminants. The clean foamed Ni was then washed alternately with deionized H₂O and anhydrous C₂H₅OH, dried at 60 °C, and naturally cooled for further application.

Preparation of materials

Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂: First, A total of 1 mmol NH₄VO₃ and 0.3 mmol Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O were fully dissolved in 80 mL deionized H₂O, followed by dropwise addition of 2 mL ammonium hydroxide. Next, 0.56 g CH₃CSNH₂ was added into the mixed system, with continuous stirring carried out for 30 min to ensure uniform mixing. A pre-treated nickel foam was transferred into a 100 mL stainless steel autoclave with a Teflon inner liner, accompanied by the aforementioned precursor liquid, and kept at 160 °C for 5 h for a constant-temperature hydrothermal reaction. Finally, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ was successfully loaded onto the nickel foam.

The preparation of Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ was identical except that Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O was replaced by Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O. The synthetic procedures for VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and Ni₃S₂ were exactly the same, and the corresponding components were simply excluded from the precursor solution preparation process, respectively.

Results and discussion

Preparation and characterizations of the electrodes

Figure 1a shows a schematic illustration of the formation process of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂. Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ was grown in situ on Ni foam using a one-step hydrothermal method. In this reaction, Cr(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and NH₄VO₃ served as the sources of chromium and vanadium, respectively, while CH₃CSNH₂ acted as the sulfur source, slowly releasing sulfide ions under hydrothermal conditions to form the sulfide phase. NH₃·H₂O was used to adjust the solution pH and promote the uniform dissolution of metal precursors, facilitating the formation of well-morphological and uniformly structured Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ nanospheres on the NF substrate.

The phase constituents and crystal composition of the electrodes were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurement. As presented in the XRD patterns (Fig. 1b), three major diffraction signals at 44.49°, 51.84° and 76.38° can be indexed to the (111), (200) and (220) facets of the

nickel foam base material (PDF#87–0712). In addition, Sharp diffraction signals appear at 21.7°, 31.1°, 37.7°, 49.7° and 55.1°, which can be indexed to the (101), (110), (003), (113) and (122) crystal planes of Ni₃S₂ (PDF#44-1418). The characteristic diffraction peak appearing at 49.6° corresponds to the (421) plane of VO₂ (PDF#42–0876). These results verify the successful preparation of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, VO₂/Ni₃S₂, and Ni₃S₂.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was implemented to study and investigate the micromorphology of the as-prepared electrodes. The SEM images of the samples at scales of 1 μm, 500 nm, and 200 nm are depicted in the Fig. 1(c-h). As displayed in Fig. 1(c-e), VO₂/Ni₃S₂ exhibits a three-dimensional nanosphere microstructure assembled from nanoparticles with tight stacking between particles. In contrast, as displayed in Fig. 1(f-h), the introduction of Cr significantly regulates the morphology of material. The surface of Cr-doped nanoparticles is obviously roughened with abundant wrinkles. This Cr-induced rough morphology not only effectively enlarges the electrochemically active surface area but also exposes more edge active sites. Fig. S1(a-c) shows that the Ni₃S₂ material presents a continuous and uniform film-like morphology with a dense surface and rich textures, without obvious cracks or severe agglomeration. Fig. S1(d-f) reveals that the Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ material possesses a nanosphere morphology.

The fine microstructural features of the electrodes were comprehensively explored via transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). Lattice fringes of the catalyst can be readily noticed in the HRTEM images. A distinct heterostructure interface between VO₂ and Ni₃S₂ is visible in Fig. 2a. A lattice spacing of 0.20 nm in Fig. 2b is consistent with the (202) plane of Ni₃S₂, whereas the 0.29 nm lattice spacing in Fig. 2c corresponds to the (220) crystal plane of VO₂. The green dashed line in Fig. 2a clearly marks the closely contacted heterojunction interface between VO₂ and Ni₃S₂, which reveals robust electronic interaction formation at the heterointerfaces of the two phases. Such interfacial coupling can effectively modulate the interfacial electronic structure and accelerate charge transfer across the interface. These lattice fringe spacings also offer solid evidence for the successful formation of VO₂ and Ni₃S₂ crystalline phases. The elemental composition and proportion in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ were determined by EDS spectrum analysis (Fig. S2). As displayed in Fig. 2(d-h), the elemental mapping proves that Cr, V, O, Ni and S are homogeneously distributed on the surface of the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ composite.

The surface elemental components, chemical valence and coordination surroundings of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and VO₂/Ni₃S₂ were comprehensively analyzed via X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurement, so as to gain in-depth

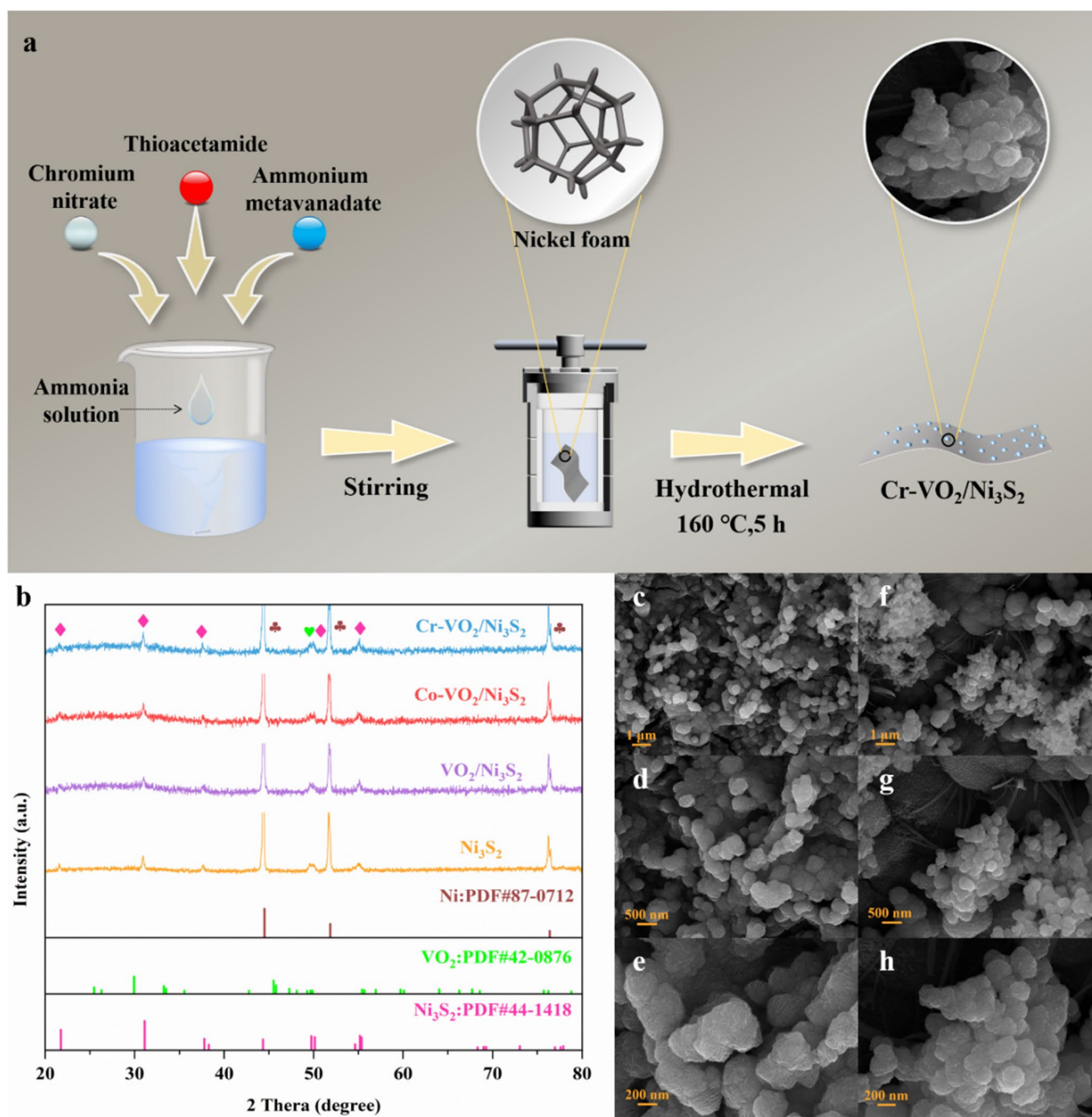


Fig. 1 (a) Schematic diagram of the synthesis of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ electrocatalytic material. (b) XRD patterns of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and Ni₃S₂. (c-e) SEM images of VO₂/Ni₃S₂. (f-h) SEM images of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂

insights into the surface electronic structure of the materials. The full XPS survey spectra of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and VO₂/Ni₃S₂ shown in Fig. 3a clearly confirm the coexistence of Cr, V, O, Ni, and S elements in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂. The elemental distribution is highly consistent with the EDS results, further verifying the successful fabrication and elemental composition of the material. The Cr 2p spectrum of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (Fig. 3b) displays two typical peaks at 577.55 eV and 587.04 eV, which are assigned to the Cr³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2}

orbitals [59]. From the V 2p spectrum of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (Fig. 3c), 515.57 eV and 522.64 eV are characteristic of V³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2}; 516.51 eV and 523.98 eV match the 2p orbitals of V⁴⁺; and 517.37 eV together with 524.72 eV correspond to the 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} components of V⁵⁺ [60]. Two distinct peaks can be observed in the O 1s spectrum (Fig. 3d) at 530.14 eV and 531.03 eV, which is originating from metal-oxygen bonds and non-lattice oxygen respectively. Meanwhile, the peak centered at 532.49 eV is

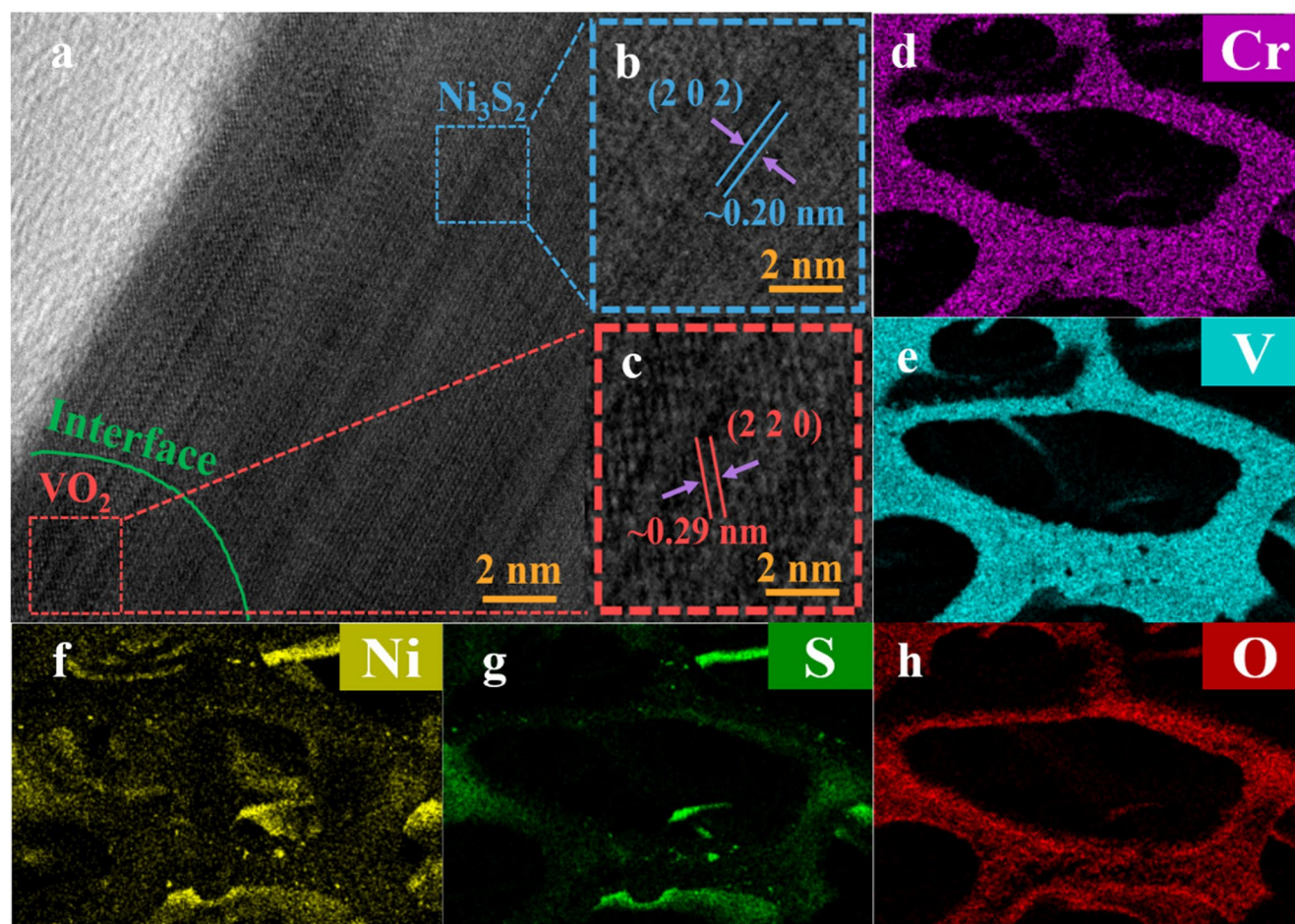


Fig. 2 (a–c) HR-TEM of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂. (d–h) EDS mapping of (d) Cr, (e) V, (f) Ni, (g) S and (h) O in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂

indexed to surface chemisorbed oxygen. The enrichment of non-lattice oxygen and chemisorbed oxygen can not only effectively expose more catalytic active sites but also accelerate charge transfer and intermediate adsorption during the reaction, thus promoting the electrocatalytic performance [61–63]. For the high-resolution Ni 2p spectrum (Fig. 3e), the Ni 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2} signals can be fitted into three major components together with their satellite counterparts. The signals located at 852.88 eV and 870.43 eV belong to elemental metallic Ni(0). In addition, the doublet peaks at 855.96 eV and 873.55 eV are indexed to Ni²⁺, and another pair at 857.30 eV and 875.07 eV is characteristic of Ni³⁺. The binding energies of 861.92 eV and 880.21 eV correspond to the satellite peaks for Ni 2p_{3/2} and Ni 2p_{1/2} orbitals [64–66]. Notably, compared with VO₂/Ni₃S₂, the binding energy of the Ni 2p peaks in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ shifts toward higher values, accompanied by an increased ratio of Ni²⁺ to Ni³⁺, indicating electron transfer from Ni to Cr and V sites. This establishes strong interfacial electronic interactions and optimizes the electronic environment of the active sites. Figure 3f displays the S 2p spectrum, the binding energy of 167.39 eV can be attributed to S-O species, while the two

typical peaks at 161.99 eV and 163.46 eV belong to Ni-S bonds [67, 68]. After Cr doping, the intensity of the Ni-S peaks in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ is enhanced relative to VO₂/Ni₃S₂, whereas the S-O peak is weakened, suggesting that Cr doping stabilizes the sulfide structure of Ni₃S₂, reduces surface oxidation, and improves the structural stability of the material. XPS investigations demonstrate that the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ heterostructure effectively regulates the electronic structure and significantly promotes the intrinsic electrocatalytic performance of the catalyst.

OER activity in alkaline freshwater

A conventional three-electrode setup was used to evaluate the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) electrocatalytic activity of the obtained electrodes in 1 M KOH electrolyte. Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was used to record polarization curves, intuitively reflecting the variation trend of current density against applied potential. As shown in Fig. 4a, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ required an overpotential of only 163 mV to deliver 10 mA cm⁻² for OER, which was

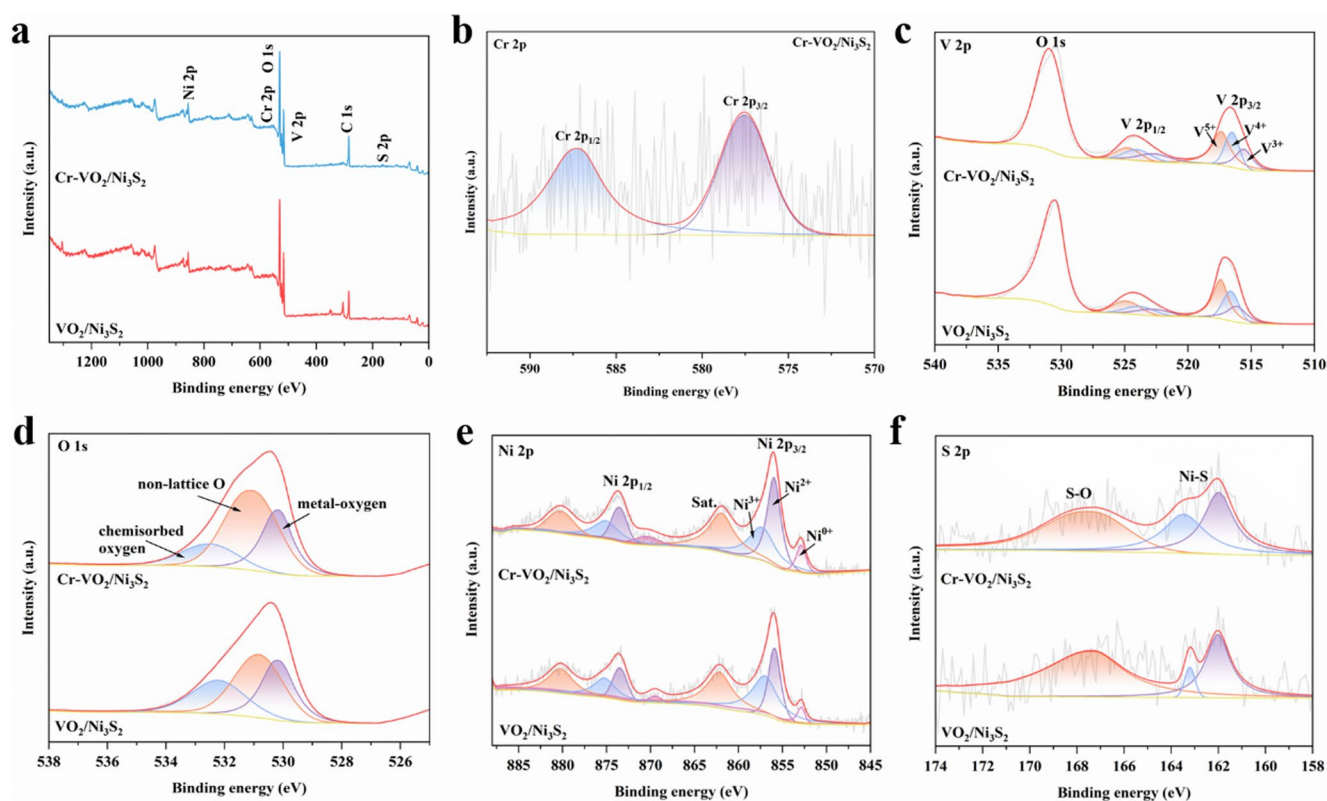


Fig. 3 XPS spectra of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (a) Survey spectra, (b) Cr 2p, (c) V 2p, (d) O 1s, (e) Ni 2p and (f) S 2p

considerably lower than 197 mV for Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, 203 mV for VO₂/Ni₃S₂, and 361 mV for Ni₃S₂. A comparison of overpotentials for different catalysts at 10, 50 and 100 mA cm⁻² is presented in Fig. 4b. It is evident that the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ composite exhibits the lowest overpotential to reach the targeted current density relative to other counterparts. Furthermore, the kinetic characteristics of the electrocatalytic reaction were further analyzed by comparing the Tafel slopes of each sample. Tafel curve analysis (Fig. 4c) shows that the Tafel slope of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ was 75.65 mV dec⁻¹, the smallest among all catalysts, which is lower than 125.32 mV dec⁻¹ for Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, 161.86 mV dec⁻¹ for VO₂/Ni₃S₂, and 172.86 mV dec⁻¹ for Ni₃S₂. Smaller Tafel slopes correspond to faster reaction kinetics for electron and proton transport, reflecting superior reaction dynamics. In addition, as presented in Fig. 4d and Table S1, the OER catalytic performance of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ in this work is comparable to recently reported high-performance OER electrocatalysts, fully demonstrating its promising application potential and competitiveness in electrocatalysis. Next, Cyclic voltammetry curves were recorded at multiple sweep rates of 20–100 mV s⁻¹ (Fig. S3) for electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) evaluation. The C_{dl} value was acquired by fitting the capacitive current in the non-Faradaic potential window. As displayed in Fig. 4e, the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ sample exhibited the largest C_{dl} value of 9.39 mF cm⁻², which was not

only larger than that of Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (7.45 mF cm⁻²) but also significantly superior to VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (3.40 mF cm⁻²) and Ni₃S₂ (2.73 mF cm⁻²). The higher C_{dl} value directly reflects that Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ possesses a higher effective contact area and more abundant catalytic reaction centres, which constitutes the structural basis for its excellent electrocatalytic performance. From the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) in Fig. 4f, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ exhibited the smallest semicircle radius, which was remarkably smaller than that of pure Ni₃S₂. This result fully proves that the synergistic effect of Cr introduction and the heterointerfaces can effectively decrease the interfacial charge-transfer resistance and accelerate electron transport and reaction kinetics. A high-performance catalyst should exhibit both superior catalytic activity and robust electrochemical durability. Therefore, the electrochemical durability in 1 M KOH solution was systematically evaluated. As clearly observed in Fig. 4g, the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ catalyst exhibits acceptable stability. After a long-term durability test of 15 h at a constant current density, the catalyst still maintained relatively stable electrochemical performance, with a reasonable current decay and no obvious sudden activity loss, fully reflecting its electrochemical durability. After the chronoamperometry test, LSV measurements were conducted on the catalyst. As shown in Fig. 4h, the catalytic activity decreased slightly compared with the initial sample before the test, further

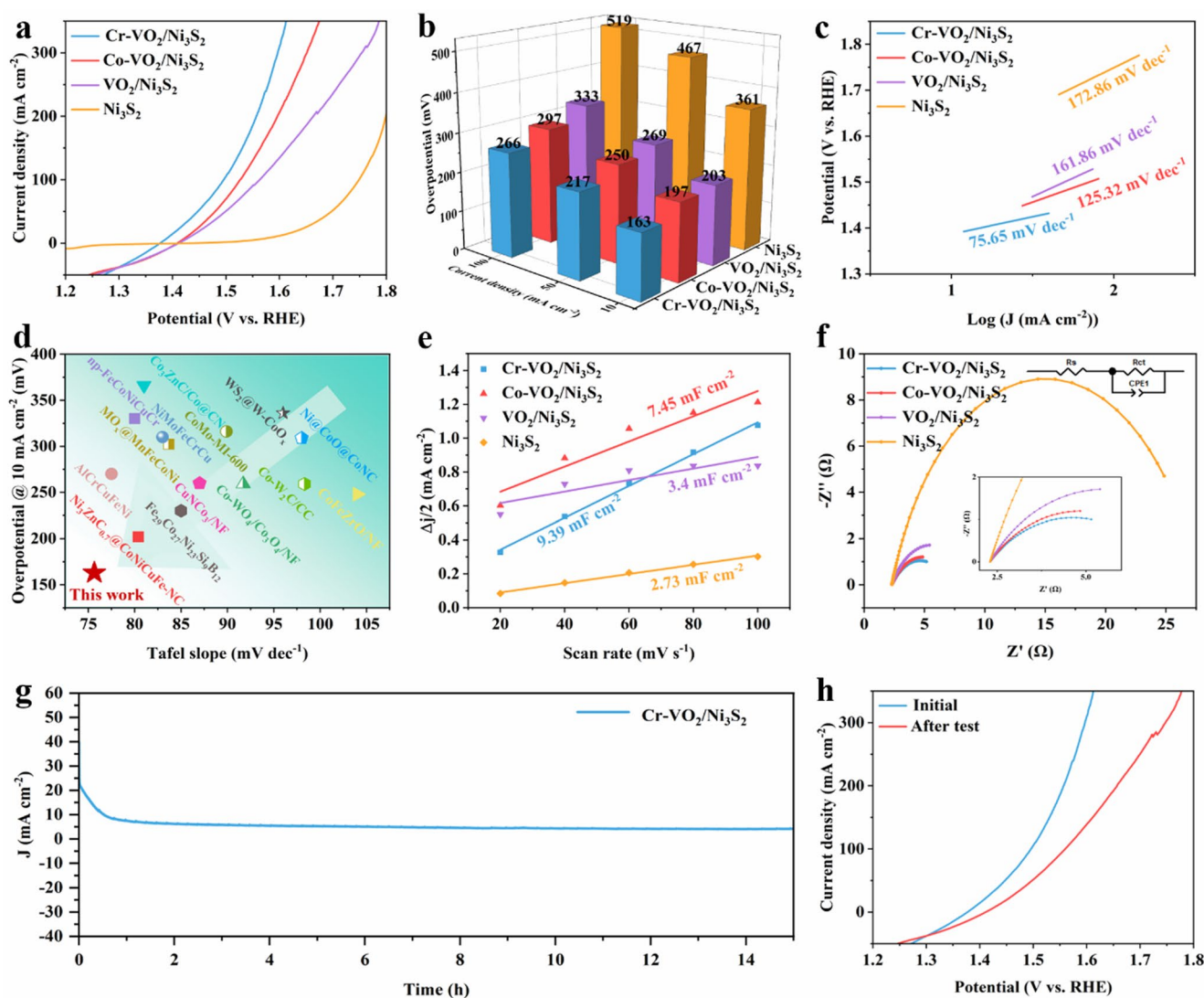


Fig. 4 The electrochemical performances in 1 M KOH solution. (a) Polarization curve of LSV; (b) Comparison of the overpotential at 10, 50 and 100 mA cm⁻²; (c) Tafel slope; (d) Comparison of fresh water electrolysis performance between Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and previously

confirming that Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ can retain its catalytic activity relatively stable during the 15-hour long-term electrochemical reaction.

Furthermore, systematic structural and morphological characterizations were performed on the catalyst after the stability test. Fig. S4 displays the XRD patterns of the catalyst before and after long-term OER stability measurement. The initial sample exhibits characteristic diffraction peaks of Ni₃S₂, VO₂, and nickel foam support. After the alkaline OER durability test, all diffraction signals originating from the VO₂ phase completely vanish. This phenomenon can be attributed to the VO₂ active layer on the catalyst surface being subjected to continuous scouring by bubbles and corrosion from the strongly alkaline environment during long-term OER, resulting in partial dissolution, flaking, or

reported materials. (e) Double-layer capacitances of the electrodes; (f) Nyquist curve; (g) Chronocurrent curve of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂; (h) LSV comparison for initial and recovered electrode

detachment. In contrast, the diffraction peaks of Ni₃S₂ and Ni foam substrate can still be clearly observed, with no obvious shift or attenuation. Fig. S5 displays the comparison of SEM images of the electrode before and after the durability measurement. Compared with the pristine morphology before reaction, the microstructure of the catalyst was well preserved, and the nanoparticles were still uniformly distributed on the substrate surface. Only minor local cracks were observed, which may originate from stress variation during electrolysis without damaging the structural integrity. To further explore the surface chemical stability and valence state evolution mechanism of the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ heterostructured catalyst during long-term OER, XPS characterization was performed on the samples before and after the stability test, as presented in the Fig. S6. The full XPS

spectrum (Fig. S6a) presents that Ni, Cr, O, V and S were still present after long-term OER, but with reduced peak intensities, indicating slight element leaching or limited structural damage during the prolonged test. As presented in Fig. S6b, the peak intensity decreased slightly while the peak positions remained generally stable compared with the initial sample, revealing that the Cr species maintained good chemical stability after the reaction. In Fig. S6c, the characteristic peaks of V 2p almost completely disappeared after the stability test, with only the O 1s signal retained. This can be attributed to partial dissolution, exfoliation, or detachment of the VO_2 active layer rich in V on the catalyst surface, caused by bubble scouring and strong alkaline etching during long-term OER, leading to reduced surface V content and thus significantly attenuated V 2p signal in XPS. As illustrated in Fig. S6d, a reduction in the relative content of the metal-oxygen peak was detected in the O 1s spectrum, clearly demonstrating the surface oxidation of the electrode during the OER process. Fig. S6e presents the Ni 2p spectra before and after reaction. The characteristic peak of Ni^{0+} completely disappeared after the stability test, indicating that Ni^{0+} was fully oxidized to Ni^{2+} and Ni^{3+} during the oxidation process. In the S 2p spectrum (Fig. S6f), the intensity of characteristic peaks for Ni-S has decreased significantly, but their positions were almost unchanged, suggesting that to a certain extent, the internal Ni_3S_2 structure of the catalyst was preserved during long-term

electrocatalysis. Meanwhile, the peak area assigned to S-O decreased slightly, which is a normal result of unavoidable element loss during prolonged electrocatalytic testing.

To reveal the modulation mechanism of Cr doping on the interfacial kinetics between the electrolyte and catalyst, EIS measurements were performed on $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ at various applied potentials. As observed from the Nyquist plots in Fig. 5a and b, the semicircle diameters of both catalysts gradually decrease with the increase of applied potential, demonstrating a pronounced reduction in charge transfer resistance and weakened kinetic resistance during the reaction. Figure 5c and d present the Bode plots of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$, respectively. EIS comparison shows the Nyquist arc of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ is obviously smaller than that of $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$. It proves that the incorporation of Cr can remarkably diminish charge transfer resistance, improve electron conduction at the solid-liquid interface, and further promote the kinetic process of OER interfacial charge transfer. As shown in Fig. 5e, the variations in phase angle peaks of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ at different potentials were compared. Within the tested potential range, $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ always displays a distinctly lower phase angle peak than $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$. Overall, Cr doping effectively optimizes the interfacial charge kinetics of $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$, creates abundant active sites and high-efficiency electron transport pathways on the electrode surface, and lowers the charge transfer resistance.

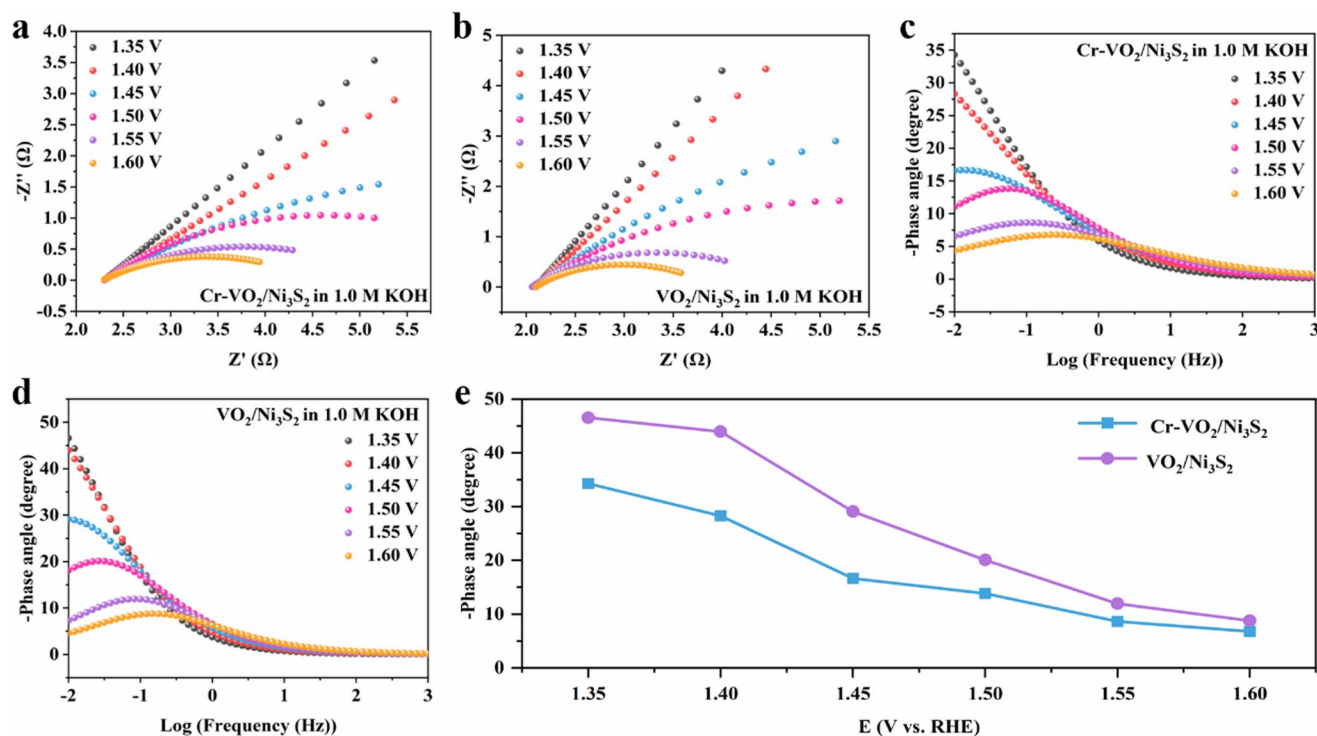


Fig. 5 (a) EIS spectra of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and (b) $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ at multiple voltages in 1.0 M KOH. (c) Bode plots of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and (d) $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$. (e) Peak phase angles of $\text{Cr-VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$ and $\text{VO}_2/\text{Ni}_3\text{S}_2$

OER performance in seawater

Given the outstanding OER activity and stability of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ in 1 M KOH freshwater electrolyte, its OER performance was further evaluated in seawater-based electrolyte. The core bottleneck of seawater electrolysis lies in the fierce competition between the OER and chlorine evolution reaction (CER) under acidic conditions, while chlorine oxidation to form hypochlorite by-products readily occurs in alkaline media. These parasitic reaction pathways severely degrade the overall energy efficiency of seawater oxidation. Herein, the electrochemistry performance of the as-fabricated electrodes was studied in alkaline natural seawater solution (1 M KOH+natural seawater). As shown in Fig. 6a, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ required an overpotential of 165 mV to reach 10 mA cm⁻². This value is slightly larger than

that in freshwater systems, but much lower than 190 mV for Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, 209 mV for VO₂/Ni₃S₂, and 263 mV for pure Ni₃S₂. Figure 6b demonstrates that Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ delivers the smallest overpotential at 10, 50, and 100 mA cm⁻². Furthermore, a comparison with recently reported advanced OER electrocatalysts confirms the superior overpotential performance of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ at 10 mA cm⁻², as summarized in Fig. 6e and Table S2. The Tafel plots in Fig. 6c reveal that Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ possesses a low Tafel slope of 85.34 mV dec⁻¹, which is much smaller than those of Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (131.42 mV dec⁻¹), VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (170.28 mV dec⁻¹), and Ni₃S₂ (267.84 mV dec⁻¹), demonstrating the favorable OER kinetics of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂. The electrochemical C_{dl} was estimated from CV curves (Fig. S7). As presented in Fig. 6d, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ achieves a high C_{dl} of 14.93 mF cm⁻², outperforming Co-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (12.09 mF

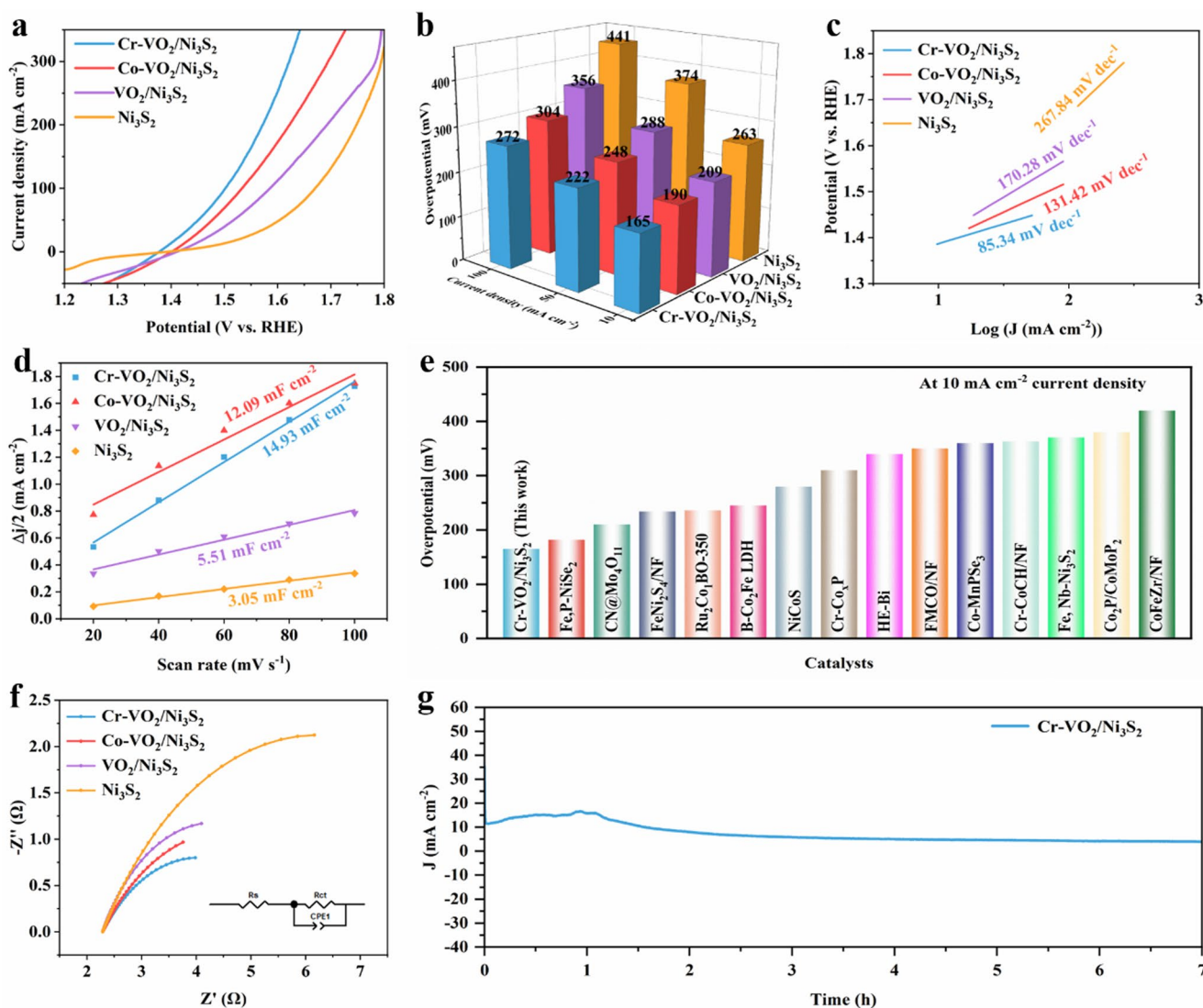


Fig. 6 The electrochemical performances in 1 M KOH + seawater solution. **(a)** Polarization curve of LSV; **(b)** Comparison of the overpotential at 10, 50 and 100 mA cm⁻²; **(c)** Tafel slope; **(d)** Double-layer

capacitances of the electrodes; **(e)** Comparison of seawater electrolysis performance between Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and previously reported materials. **(f)** Nyquist curve; **(g)** Chronocurrent curve of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂

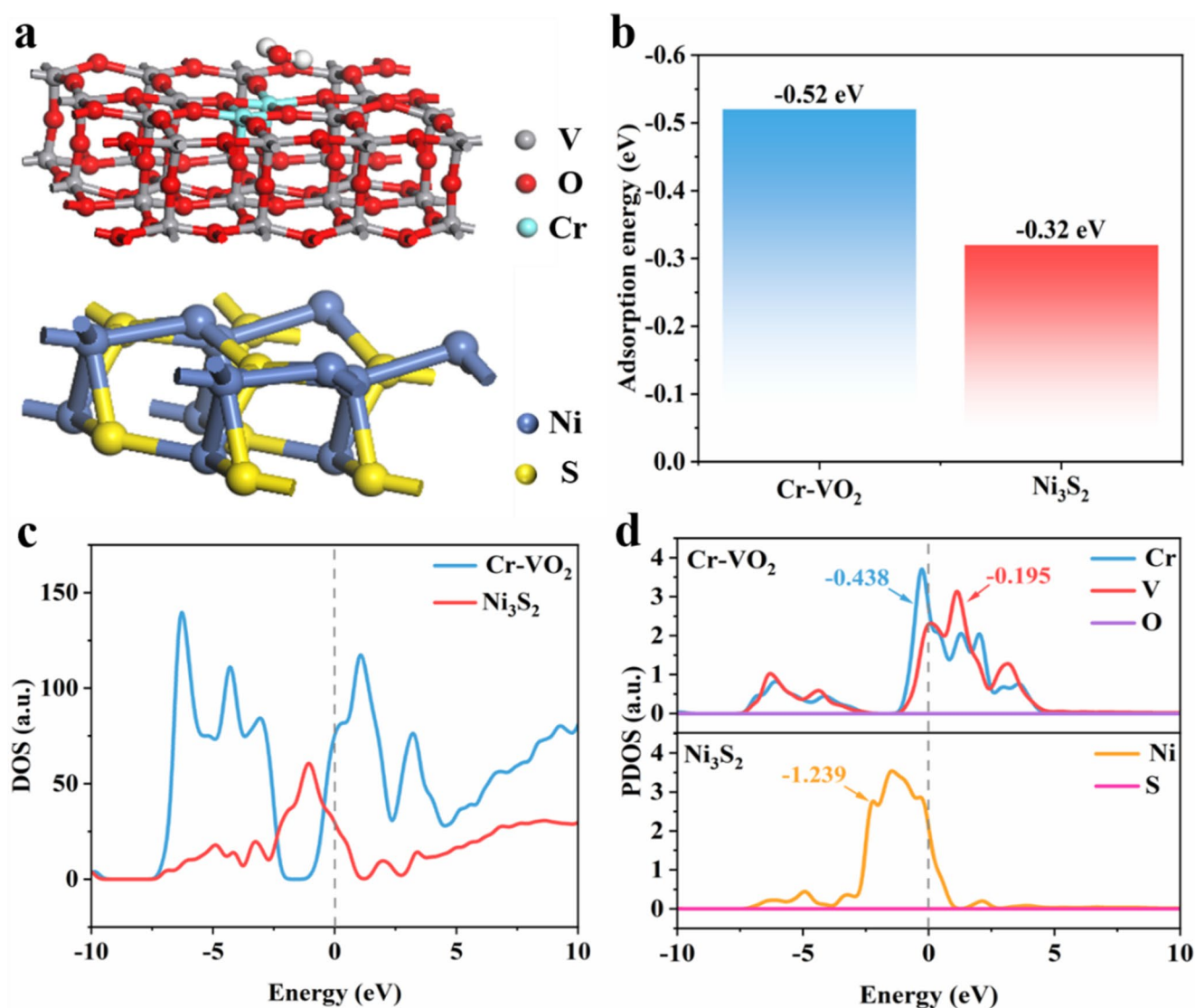


Fig. 7 (a) Geometric models of H₂O adsorption on Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂, (b) H₂O adsorption energy on Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂ samples, (c) DOS of Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂, (d) PDOS of on Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂

cm⁻²), VO₂/Ni₃S₂ (5.51 mF cm⁻²) and Ni₃S₂ (3.05 mF cm⁻²). This result verifies the enlarged electrochemical active surface area of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂, which benefits from the nanosphere structure assembled from interconnected nanoparticles and affords abundant accessible active sites. EIS was adopted to further reveal the kinetic behavior and charge transfer resistance of the as-prepared catalysts. EIS results (Fig. 6f) show that Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ exhibits the smallest semicircle radius and charge transfer resistance, indicative of rapid interfacial electron transport. The long-term durability of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ was also measured in 1 M KOH alkaline seawater. As presented in Fig. 6g, no obvious activity degradation is observed after 7 h of continuous operation at a constant current density, proving its acceptable durability in harsh seawater electrolysis conditions. In

summary, the as-prepared Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ catalyst also presents remarkable OER performance in 1 M KOH alkaline seawater electrolyte.

DFT calculations

Density functional theory (DFT) analysis were performed to clarify the underlying relationship between the electronic structure of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ and the enhanced electrocatalytic OER performance [69]. We have also built a model of heterogeneous interfaces, but after optimizing it many times, it always reports errors. Figure 7a displays the optimized atomic models of Cr-doped VO₂ and Ni₃S₂ surfaces, clearly presenting the spatial distribution of V, O, Cr, Ni, and S atoms at the heterogeneous interface. Figure 7b presents

the adsorption energy values for Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂, which are −0.52 eV and −0.32 eV in turn. This result reveals that Cr-VO₂ possesses an intensified adsorption capability, enabling easier adsorption of water molecules on its surface. This active component effectively optimizes the water activation ability of the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ catalyst, thereby synergistically improving the overall electrocatalytic reaction kinetics and catalytic activity. Density of states (DOS) calculations were further employed to analyze the electronic properties of the two components. It can be seen from Fig. 7c that Cr-VO₂ exhibits a broader and more continuous density of states distribution near the Fermi level. Its unique electronic structure endows the composite with excellent intrinsic conductivity, which accelerates charge transfer during the OER process and remarkably boosts the reaction kinetic rate. In order to clarify the internal origin of the boosted catalytic performance of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ at a deeper level, partial density of states (PDOS) calculations were adopted to compare the electronic structural characteristics of diverse active centers. The d-band center (ϵ_d) serves as a crucial descriptor correlated with the adsorption behavior of intermediates. Its position relative to the Fermi level fundamentally influences the bonding strength of the catalyst with oxygenated reaction intermediates, including OH*, O*, and OOH*. A d-band center closer to the Fermi level corresponds to more prominent interfacial adsorption interaction [70, 71]. As illustrated in Fig. 7d, the d-band centers of Cr, V, and Ni are −0.438 eV, −0.195 eV, and −1.239 eV, respectively. The above results confirm that the Cr sites in Cr-VO₂ and the Ni sites in Ni₃S₂ collectively constitute the main active centers of the Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ catalyst. In addition, Fig. S8 and S9 present the PDOS of each element in Cr-VO₂ and Ni₃S₂, respectively. The analysis indicates that the electronic states of Cr, V, and Ni are mainly dominated by d orbitals, while the bonding processes of O and S elements primarily rely on p orbitals. In summary, the superior water adsorption and activation ability as well as intrinsic conductivity of Cr-doped VO₂ endow Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ with outstanding OER electrocatalytic performance.

Conclusion

In summary, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ heterostructured catalysts were directly fabricated on NF through the use of a one-step hydrothermal process. In 1 M KOH electrolyte, Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ only requires an overpotential of 163 mV to deliver 10 mA cm^{−2}. In 1.0 M KOH seawater electrolyte, the overpotential of Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ at 10 mA cm^{−2} is as low as 165 mV for OER. Electrochemical analysis reveals that the superior overpotential and reaction kinetics of the catalyst originate intrinsically from its unique hierarchical structure and efficient charge transport capability. DFT calculations

demonstrate that the Cr-VO₂ component in Cr-VO₂/Ni₃S₂ can effectively accelerate charge transfer and exhibits remarkably enhanced adsorption capability toward water molecules. This work not only opens up a novel strategy for the construction of high-efficiency electrodes for electrolysis of water, but also facilitates the long-term development of renewable energy storage and conversion technologies.

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Data availability No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare no competing interests.

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