

Recent Insights into Manganese Oxides in Catalyzing Oxygen Reduction Kinetics

The MIT Faculty has made this article openly available. *Please share* how this access benefits you. Your story matters.

Citation	Stoerzinger, Kelsey A., Marcel Risch, Binghong Han, and Yang Shao-Horn. "Recent Insights into Manganese Oxides in Catalyzing Oxygen Reduction Kinetics." ACS Catalysis 5, no. 10 (October 2, 2015): 6021–6031.					
As Published	http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.5b01444					
Publisher	American Chemical Society (ACS)					
Version	Author's final manuscript					
Citable link	http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/109595					
Terms of Use	Article is made available in accordance with the publisher's policy and may be subject to US copyright law. Please refer to the publisher's site for terms of use.					



Recent Insights into Manganese Oxides in Catalyzing Oxygen Reduction Kinetics

Kelsey A. Stoerzinger, 1* Marcel Risch, 2 Binghong Han, 1 Yang Shao-Horn 1,2,3,*

¹ Department of Materials Science & Engineering,

² Research Laboratory of Electronics,

³ Department of Mechanical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA

KEYWORDS Manganese oxide, electrocatalysis, oxygen reduction reaction, alkaline, valence, peroxide disproportionation

ABSTRACT

The sluggish kinetics of the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) limit the efficiency of numerous oxygen-based energy conversion devices such as fuel cells and metal-air batteries. Among earth abundant catalysts, manganese-based oxides have the highest activities approaching that of precious metals. In this Review, we summarize and analyze literature findings to highlight key parameters that influence the catalysis of the ORR on manganese-based oxides, including the number of electrons transferred, specific and mass activities. These insights can help develop design guides for highly active ORR catalysts, and shape future fundamental research to gain new knowledge regarding the molecular mechanism of ORR catalysis.

1. Introduction

Efficient catalysis of the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) is critical to electrochemical energy conversion, as the dominant source of loss in fuel cells¹ and discharge of metal-air batteries.²⁻⁵ Platinum and its alloys have been extensively investigated due to their high activity for the ORR,¹, and are utilized commercially in proton exchange membrane fuel cells operated near room temperature for electric vehicle applications. However, material cost and scarcity have limited scaling-up of Pt-based catalysts for renewable energy applications, and have motivated the study of alternative, more abundant catalysts.⁷⁻¹⁰ Moving from acidic to basic solution, earth abundant metal oxides exhibit ORR activities that can approach those of Pt-metal.¹¹⁻¹²

Catalysts with particular promise to catalyze the ORR in basic solution fall within the family of manganese oxides, which are abundant, inexpensive, and nontoxic with rich oxide chemistry. Some manganese oxides are among the most active oxide catalysts. ¹¹⁻¹² We show that the activities per material cost for Pt/C and LaMnO_{3+ δ} can be comparable while α -MnO₂ can have higher activity per cost than Pt/C, where the cost was approximated on a metals basis (weighted elemental contribution from La and/or Mn, **Figure 1**).

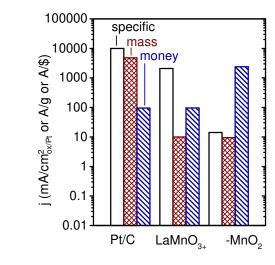


Figure 1. Specific (mA/cm²_{ox/Pt}; white bars), mass (A/g; red crossed bars) and monetary (A/\$; market price of metals Pt, Mn and La;¹³ hatched blue bars) of Pt/C,¹⁴ LaMnO_{3+δ},¹¹ and α-MnO₂,¹⁵ at 0.8 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M KOH.

Here we will compare the specific activity being current per oxide surface (mA/cm²oxide) and the mass activity being current per oxide mass (A/goxide) for Mn-based oxides. The specific activity is a practical approximation of the activity per active site (or turnover frequency), which is often unknown, and reflects the intrinsic activity of a chemistry. High mass activity—determined by particle size and morphology—is important for the development of catalysts for practical devices, which reduces the cost, size and weight. The optimal electrocatalyst should have both high specific activity and high mass activity. In addition to consideration of ORR current, four-electron reduction of molecular oxygen is desirable. The ORR in alkaline media can proceed by four-electron reduction pathway to produce hydroxide (OH⁻) or by two-electron reduction pathway to produce hydroxide (HO₂⁻).¹⁶ Pt-based catalysts that can dissociate the oxygen-oxygen bond catalyze the ORR by the four-electron reduction pathway.¹⁷⁻¹⁸ Many active oxides for the ORR have shown to exhibit a number of electrons transfer close to four,^{14, 19-21} which can be influenced by factors such as the valence state²² of metal ions and the type of metal ions.

In this review, we focus on the recent development of manganese oxide catalysts for the ORR in alkaline media. First, we introduce the electrochemical techniques for the ORR process, comparing the benefits and shortcomings of different electrode geometries and measurement techniques. We next assess the importance of Mn valence state in catalysis of the ORR. Manganese oxides—both simple (containing only Mn and O) and complex (where the valence can be tuned by the addition of other cations in the spinel or perovskite structure)—have been synthesized from diverse techniques ranging from electodeposition of amorphous materials to epitaxial deposition

of crystalline films. Comparing specific activities enables a true understanding of the role of Mn valence in catalysis. While computations of the reaction mechanism are not extensive, experiments show the numerous polymorphs for even the "simple" MnO₂ can catalyze the ORR to produce hydroperoxide or hydroxide, and combinations thereof. We therefore consider the role of Mn valence in determining the products of ORR catalysis, as well as the relation between the activity toward peroxide disproportionation and reduction and the apparent reaction mechanism. In situ evaluation of catalysts highlights the reduction of Mn under ORR conditions, as well as the potential and pH dependence of material stability, also considered through computation. These cumulative studies have developed great insight into the mechanism of oxygen reduction to hydroperoxide and hydroxide, as well as support interactions.

2. Measuring and Quantifying ORR Kinetics: Specific and Mass Activities and the Number of Electrons Transferred

In order to measure ORR activity of a catalyst, three methods are commonly employed. We discuss their strengths and weaknesses; in particular, not all methods yield reliable measurements of the mass and specific activity. For a detailed comparison of different estimations of catalyst surface area, we refer the reader to the IUPAC recommendation²³ and our previous review.²⁴ First, catalysts can be included in gas diffusion electrodes²⁵ (GDEs) or fuel cell membrane electrode assemblies (MEAs) in a 2-electrode setup, which can be tested in alkaline fuel cells or metal-air batteries.^{1,26} These GDEs and MEAs have thicknesses on the order of tens to hundreds of microns and typically consist of carbon and binder in addition to the catalyst. It is challenging in GDEs or MEAs to assess activity, and especially specific activity, due to the ill-defined electrochemically active (exposed to the electrolyte and electrically contacted) catalyst surface area and oxygen

transport losses in the thick composite, which are difficult to separate from ORR kinetics. Nonetheless, these tests are needed to demonstrate the usefulness of electrocatalysts in actual devices.

Second, rotating disk electrode (RDE) measurements, with well-defined oxygen transport by convection, can remove the influence of oxygen transport on ORR kinetics.²⁷ In this measurement, oxide powder is often dispersed with a high surface area carbon and binder such as ion-exchanged Nafion¹⁴ to form a composite layer of ideally less than 100 nm to approximate a flat surface.²⁸ Using the RDE method, the apparent number of electrons transferred can be deduced via the relation between limiting current (normalized to the projected area of the disk) and rotation speed, analyzed with the Levich equation.²⁹ This analysis is only applicable if a sufficient amount of catalyst is added to be able to reach the limiting current within 10% of its theoretical value²⁸ (dashed lines in **Figure 2**). The expected ORR limiting current densities are close to 5.8 mA/cm²_{disk} at 1600 rpm in 0.1 M KOH at room temperature³⁰⁻³¹ for the hydroxide pathway (four electrons transferred; n = 4), as shown for Pt/C, LaMn_{0.5}Cu_{0.5}O₃ and Mn₃O₄ in **Figure 2A**, and half that (2.9 mA/cm^2_{disk}) for the hydroperoxide pathway (two electrons transferred; n = 2) as shown for glassy carbon in Figure 2A. The number of electrons transferred or the amount of peroxide generated during the ORR can be also obtained with rotating ring disk electrode (RRDE) measurements, where the disk is surrounded by a Pt ring polarized such that oxidation of any HO₂⁻ from the ORR is diffusion limited.³² Taking the ratio of the ring current to the total measured current, normalized by the calibrated collection efficiency, enables estimation of the fraction of peroxide produced. This allows deconvolution of a mixed pathway, however only HO₂⁻ that escapes from the electrode will be detected and side reactions (e.g. Mn reduction) must not occur. In summary, the (R)RDE

method can yield quantitative results for specific activity (if surface area is known), mass activity and the number of electrons transferred (or the product ratio of hydroxide to hydroperoxide).

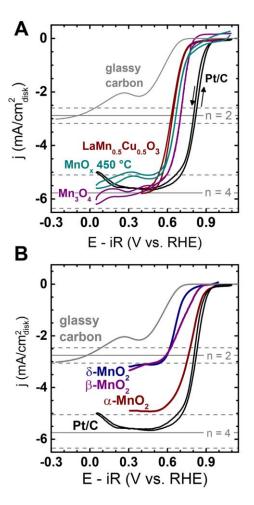


Figure 2. Geometric current density (normalized to disk area) of (A) LaMn_{0.5}Cu_{0.5}O₃,¹⁴ Mn₃O₄,¹² electrodeposited MnO_x³³ (after annealing at 450 °C) and (B) δ -MnO₂,¹⁵ β -MnO₂,¹⁵ α -MnO₂.¹⁵ Both panels contain Pt supported on carbon (Pt/C; 46 wt% TKK, Japan)¹⁴ and glassy carbon as references. All measurements were obtained by cyclic voltammetry at 1600 rpm. Theoretical limiting currents for the four-electron and two-electron pathways are indicated by solid lines together with a ±10 % margin (dashed lines). Reproduced from refs. ¹⁴, ³³ with permission from the Electrochemical Society and refs. ¹⁵, ¹² with permission from the American Chemical Society.

Third, quiescent electrodes can be measured in the kinetic limited regime near the onset of catalytic activity in a three-electrode geometry using cyclic voltammetry or potentiostatic measurements. Kinetically controlled currents can be confirmed by assuring the measured activity does not change with increased oxygen flow or electrolyte circulation.³⁴ This method is particularly useful to study ORR kinetics on films deposited on metal or semiconducting (transparent) oxide substrates in the absence of rotation as it is typically not straightforward to incorporate these samples in the RDE setup. 35 Examining ORR kinetics on oxide thin films allows a more accurate measure of the specific activity of solely the oxide surface^{34, 36} in comparison to ORR studies of composite electrodes that consist of oxide and carbon particles. As carbon is very active for the two-electron pathway of the ORR forming hydroperoxide, 37-38 its presence in composite electrodes can greatly influence the measured number of electrons transferred and ORR activity of catalysts with low activities. 35, 37, 39-42 In addition, these thin-film oxide samples allow study of the role of well-defined surface terminations on ORR kinetics. 34, 43-44 Moreover, studying pure catalysts without the incorporation of conductive carbon enables the measure of charge transfer kinetics on the oxide surface using kinetically facile redox couples such as [Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-} in solution, 45 independent from ORR kinetics measurements. 46 Having relatively thin oxide films on conductive substrates (Nb-doped SrTiO₃ or Pt) to facilitate charge transfer kinetics at the oxide surface is critical, as most manganese oxides are poor electronic conductors. For example, 200 nm polycrystalline LaMnO₃ and La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}MnO₃ films studied by Miyahara et al. 45 were found more resistive than a Pt surface, illustrated by the [Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-} reaction. Some rotation dependence in current was still observed, considered by the authors to illustrate sufficient electronic conductivity. 45 However, we caution that hindered kinetics of [Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-} suggests a comparable resistive component to the ORR.

3. Key Factors Influencing ORR Kinetics on Manganese Oxides

Although manganese oxides have been studied extensively, key factors that influence the specific ORR activity are not well defined because it is not straightforward to compare across different studies where manganese oxides have been synthesized by a number of techniques such as electrochemical deposition, ⁴⁷⁻⁵¹ hydrothermal methods, ^{21, 52} soft chemical approaches, ^{41-42, 53-55} annealing steps^{33, 56} and electrochemical treatment. ⁵² Each technique results in considerably different crystal/particle size, ²² shape, ²¹ porosity, ⁵⁷ and electronic conductivity ⁵⁸. Not only do these properties affect the mass activity of the oxides, but also they correlate with the electronic structure at the surface and thereby give rise to different specific activities.

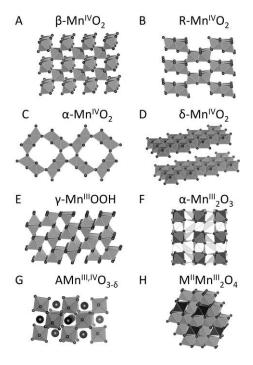


Figure 3. Illustration of the crystal structures of select common manganese oxides: (A) rutile β-Mn^{IV}O₂ (pyrolusite); (B) R-Mn^{IV}O₂ (ramsdelite); (C) α-Mn^{IV}O₂ (hollandite); (D) δ-Mn^{IV}O₂ (birnessite); (E) γ-Mn^{III}OOH (manganite); (F) α-Mn^{III}₂O₃ (bixbyite); (G) AMn^{III}₁VO_{3-δ} (perovskite) and (H) M^{II}Mn^{III}₂O₄ (spinel, e.g Mn₃O₄ or CoMn₂O₄). Manganese is shown by gray

octahedra, transition metals by black tetrahedra, oxygen by small black circles and group II/lanthanide cations (denoted "A") as large black circles. For clarity, protons were omitted and the two crystallographic Mn sites of α -Mn^{III}₂O₃ are shown in different shades of grey.

Manganese in oxides adopt a variety of crystal structures and may exist in different valence states of 2+, 3+ and 4+, or mixtures thereof.⁵⁹ The crystal structures of manganese oxides most relevant to oxygen reduction are shown in **Figure 3**. Manganese dioxides can crystalize in different one-dimensional tunnel structures such as β-MnO₂ with 1x1 tunnels and space group P42/mnm (ref. 60; Figure 3A), Ramsdelite MnO₂ with 1x2 tunnels and space group *Pmna* (Figure 3B), an intergrowth of these phases with both 1x1 and 1x2 tunnels referred to as electrolytic manganese dioxide (EMD), ⁶¹ and α-MnO₂ with 2x2 tunnels and space group I4/mmm (Figure 3C). ⁶² β-MnO₂ is thermodynamically most stable at room temperature among all manganese oxides. 63-64 Another commonly studied manganese oxide is of the birnessite-type (δ-MnO₂), which consists of layers of Mn octahedral in space group C2/m (Figure 3D), containing some extent of group I cations between the layers and reducing some of the Mn to 3+. In reduced forms fully comprised by Mn³⁺, γ-MnOOH has similar 1x1 tunnels⁵⁹ to β-MnO₂ with the space group $P2_1/C$ (ref. ⁶⁵; **Figure 3E**), where the Mn³⁺ is surrounded by edge-sharing octahedra of half O and half OH ligands, bixbyite α-Mn₂O₃ has corner-sharing octahedral, some of which are stretched with longer apical bonds due to Jahn-Teller distortion giving the orthorhombic space group *Pcab* (ref. ⁶⁶; **Figure 3F**), and perovskites denoted AMnO₃ have corner-sharing octahedra and rare earth ions on the A site (Figure 3G). In further reduced forms, the spinel Mn_3O_4 forms a mixture of Mn^{2+} and Mn^{3+} found in tetrahedral and octahedral sites, respectively, with space group Fd-3m (ref. ⁶⁷; Figure 3H).

3.1 Specific ORR Activity

Reports of specific activity are scarce in literature. In this review, we have calculated and compared specific activities for select manganese oxides based on reported currents at 0.8 V or 0.7 V vs. RHE and oxide surface areas (**Table 1**). Regardless of crystal structure, the manganese oxides surveyed in **Table 1** containing Mn³⁺ appear to have higher specific activities than those containing exclusively Mn²⁺ or Mn⁴⁺.

The presence of Mn³⁺ with some Mn⁴⁺ is a key to achieve high specific ORR activities in perovskites. Previous findings¹¹ have shown that having Mn valence slightly above 3+ can provide the highest specific ORR activities found for perovskite oxides (mixed with AB carbon) in basic solution (**Figure 4A**). The Mn valence state can be tuned in the perovskite structure by substitution of cations at the A-site, partial substitution of manganese for an aliovalent transition metal, and stoichiometry of oxygen (3 \pm δ). Substituting divalent cations such as Sr^{2+} for La^{3+} and thus oxidizing some Mn³⁺ to Mn⁴⁺ increases the ORR activity. 11, 36, 68 For negligible oxygen nonstoichiometry in the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ (LSMO) perovskite crystal structure at room temperature, the nominal average valence of octahedrally-coordinated Mn can be estimated by charge conservation. In a study of LSMO powders with six Sr substitutions (on glassy carbon),²² La_{0.4}Sr_{0.6}MnO₃ (nominal valence Mn^{3.6+}) has the highest ORR activity in 1 M KOH (180 μA/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE), over an order of magnitude improvement compared to other LSMO.²² This finding is supported by a recent study of epitaxial thin films of the pseudocubic (001)_{pc} orientation, ³⁶ where La_{0.77}Sr_{0.33}MnO₃ (no exposed substrate) has the highest ORR activity in 0.1 M KOH (380 μA/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE) amongst seven Sr substitutions. It is proposed that mixed Mn valence results in favorable charge transfer to adsorbed oxygen and renders high ORR activity as probed by a fast redox couple at 1.2 V vs. RHE.³⁶ On the other hand, having largely Mn⁴⁺ results in low ORR activities as shown by the poor activity of LaNi_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O₃ (mixed with AB carbon in 0.1 M KOH), where Mn ions are 4+ accompanied with Ni²⁺ ions (**Figure 4A**), ¹¹ as well the low activity of CaMnO₃ thin films with Mn⁴⁺ compared to LaMnO₃ (**Figure 4B**). ³⁴ Moreover, tuning Mn valence via oxygen nonstoichiometry has shown that having some Mn⁴⁺, but no more than Mn³⁺, is essential for high ORR activities. For example, LaMnO_{3+δ} (mixed with AB carbon in 0.1 M KOH), ⁶⁹ with ~20% of the Mn in the 4+ oxidation state, has high specific ORR activity (1.3 mA/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE), greater than that of stoichiometric LaMnO₃. ¹¹ A secondary example is that of CaMnO_{2.77} (mixed with Vulcan carbon in 0.1 M KOH) with Mn^{3.5+}, which has specific ORR activity ~2x improved (184 μ A/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE) compared to CaMnO_{2.90} with average valence of Mn^{3.9+}, ¹⁹ where the oxygen non-stoichiometry was tuned by thermal reduction.

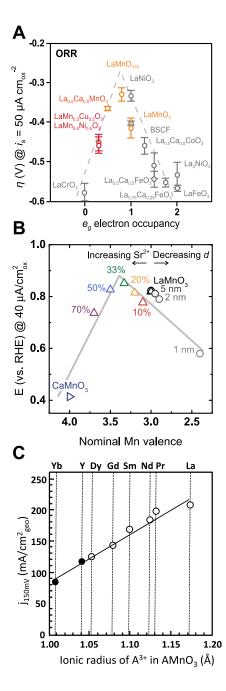


Figure 4. (A) Volcano trend of ORR activity of powder perovskites (surface area from scanning electron microgram, SEM) with estimated e_g occupancy of the transition metal ions as reported previously.^{11, 24} (B) Oxygen reduction activity at 40 μ A/cm² current of Mn-containing perovskite films grown epitaxially on a Nb:SrTiO₃ substrate.^{34, 36} The nominal valence is estimated by the % Sr²⁺ substitution for La³⁺ in La_(1-x)Sr_xMnO₃ (colored triangles)³⁶ and a trend in reduced valence by

X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) with reduced film thickness (gray circles).³⁴ (C) ORR activity as a function of the ionic radius of lanthanide (A^{3+}) in AMnO_{3±δ} measured in GDE.⁷⁰ All oxides had comparable surface area of 13±1 m²/g. Solid symbols required an additional annealing step for comparable surface area. The panels of this figure were reproduced from (A) ref. ¹¹ with permission from Nature Publishing Group and (C) ref. ⁷⁰ with permission from the Electrochemical Society.

The critical role of Mn³⁺ in achieving high ORR activity can be rationalized by considering how the electronic structure interacts with adsorbed oxygen, assuming the valence of Mn at the surface reflects that in bulk for well-crystallized materials. In a truncated octahedral environment (such as the (001) surface of a perovskite), the $e_{\rm g}$ antibonding orbitals of Mn³⁺ directly overlap with apically adsorbed oxygen, through which the $e_{\rm g}$ filling can influence the binding strength of O₂ on the Mn³⁺ ions. Following the well-known four-step proton-electron-couple reaction mechanism for the ORR (Figure 5A):^{11, 24, 71} (1) O₂ adsorbs as OO²⁻ onto a Mn site, displacing an OH⁻ group from the surface, (2) the peroxo group is protonated to form OOH⁻, (3) an OH⁻ group is removed from the surface, leaving a superoxo O²⁻ group, which (4) is protonated to reform the hydroxyl covered starting surface. The rate of oxygen adsorption to replace OH⁻ adsorbed on the Mn ion site (step 1) is considered to limit ORR kinetics on metal oxides, where the oxygen adsorption strength on the Mn ion site can be dictated by the electron filling of the e_g orbitals of metal ions. 11,72 Thus going from zero e_g electrons in Mn⁴⁺ to one e_g electron in Mn³⁺ decreases the strength of oxygen adsorption⁷³ and facilitates the exchange kinetics of OH⁻ by O₂ on the Mn site, leading to an optimum ORR activity at an e_g filling slightly less than one and corresponding to mixed $Mn^{3+/4+}$ in $LaMnO_{3+\delta}$. 11

Several publications^{34, 36, 43, 74} have shown that ORR activities of epitaxial oxide thin films can be comparable to those of ink-casted oxide powders. However in contrast to 15 nm epitaxial films on a conductive substrate discussed above, ³⁶ catalyst-support interactions have been found to play a notable role in the study of thinner $(001)_{pc}$ -oriented LaMnO_{3±δ}. Decreasing the film thickness from 10 to 1 nm led to a dramatic reduction in activity, attributed in part to charge-transfer from the Nb:SrTiO₃ substrate, reducing some of the Mn to a less active 2+ valence state.³⁴ Thus, an activity volcano for solely Mn perovskites can be generated in which the activity is tuned by orders of magnitude with the valence state via A-site substitution and substrate effects, where a mix of Mn^{3+/4+} valence is most active (**Figure 4B**).

In addition to e_g filling as a primary factor governing ORR activity, the covalency of the Mn-O bond can influence specific ORR activity but to a lesser extent, ¹¹ as Mn-O hybridization can mediate electron transfer ⁴⁶ to oxygen. ^{11,75} This concept is supported by the fact that ORR activity of AMnO_{3±δ} increases with increasing the A-site cation radius, which is accompanied with increasing basicity of the A-site ⁷⁶⁻⁷⁷ and covalency of Mn-O bonds (**Figure 4C**), ⁷⁰ provided that the oxygen nonstoichiometry of these AMnO_{3±δ} oxides does not change significantly. Such an effect has also been observed in comparing ABO₃ perovskites at fixed e_g occupancy, ¹¹ where increasing the B-O covalency (B = Mn, Co, and Ni) increased ORR activity.

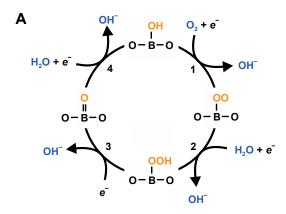
The critical role of Mn³⁺ in octahedral sites to provide high specific ORR activity is further supported by studies of the spinel structure, M^{II}M^{III}₂O₄, which incorporates Mn²⁺ at tetrahedral sites and Mn³⁺ at octahedral sites (**Figure 3H**). Tetragonal CoMn₂O₄ with octahedral Mn³⁺ (mixed with Vulcan carbon in 0.1 M KOH, ref. ⁷⁸) has shown to be over an order of magnitude more active than cubic MnCo₂O₄, ⁷⁹⁻⁸⁰ with tetrahedral Mn²⁺ (activities in **Table 1**), further supporting that

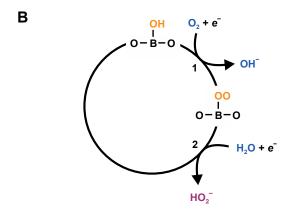
octahedrally coordinated Mn^{3+} is needed to catalyze ORR kinetics. Unifying both motifs, the spinel Mn_3O_4 (ref. ^{12, 47}) can exhibit specific activities of up to 700 μ A/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE.

Considering other binary oxides, the β -phase (β -MnO₂) is an order of magnitude more active (67 μ A/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE) than α -MnO₂ or δ -MnO₂ (6-7 μ A/cm²_{ox} at 0.8 V vs. RHE; **Table 1**). ¹⁵ However, we caution that other activity-determining parameters, such as oxygen defects⁸¹ and the corresponding Mn valence⁸²⁻⁸³, in addition to the reaction product (OH⁻ or HO₂⁻) might also differ for these phases. This is emphasized by the contrasting report of activity decreasing in the order of $\alpha > \beta > \gamma$ -MnO₂ reported in a comparison of nanowires with more comparable morphology and size, but lacking a report of specific surface areas. ²¹

3.2 The Number of Electrons Transferred in ORR

The ORR can proceed to form hydroxide or hydroperoxide in alkaline media. In the direct pathway, four electron transfers occur on the same catalytic site to form hydroxide (**Figure 5A**). In the series pathway, there is an initial two-electron reduction of oxygen to peroxide (**Figure 5B**), proceeding by the same pathway than steps 1 and 2 in the four-electron reduction in **Figure 5A**, however difficulty in cleaving the O-O bond results in desorption of the protonated group as hydroperoxide (HO₂⁻). This can be followed by either a two-electron reduction of re-adsorbed hydroperoxide to hydroxide (**Figure 5C**) via a superoxo O²⁻ intermediate, or by or the peroxide disproportionation reaction that produces O₂ in half the original amount via a chemical step, which can be subsequently reduced to peroxide in an "apparent" four-electron process (reinitiating the process of **Figure 5B**). The four-electron ORR is desirable for energy conversion applications, and the generation of peroxide during the ORR needs to be minimized as it can chemically attack catalysts.^{25, 84} catalyst support.³⁸ and ion-conducting membranes in fuel cells.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁶





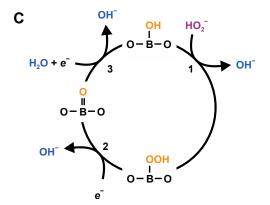


Figure 5. Possible pathways of electrolytic oxygen and peroxide reduction; orange denotes species on the catalyst surface and blue/purple denotes species in solution. (A) Four-electron pathway reducing O₂ to hydroxide; ^{11, 24, 71} (B) two-electron pathway reducing O₂ to peroxide; ⁸⁷ (C) two-electron reduction of peroxide.

The presence of Mn³⁺ with some Mn⁴⁺ is key not only to facile ORR kinetics, but also to increasing the number of electrons transfer and the fraction of hydroxide (four electron) relative to peroxide.²² Koutecky-Levich analysis illustrates that the perovskite LaCu_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O₃ (Mn³⁺) supported on high surface area carbon exhibits a direct or apparent four-electron process for the ORR,¹⁴ and RRDE measurements show the percent of hydrogen peroxide production on carbon-supported La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}MnO₃,⁸⁷ LaMnO₃,⁸⁹ and LaNi_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O₃⁸⁹ is <10%. A-site substitution in perovskites can also increase the number of electrons transfer associated with ORR and the fraction of hydroxide (four electron) relative to peroxide, with maximum *n* observed intermediate Mn^{3+/4+} mixtures.²² This is in contrast to perovskites of primarily Mn⁴⁺, such as CaMnO₃ and CaMn_{0.85}Ru_{0.15}O₃, which produce around 30% peroxide,⁹⁰ suggesting the presence of Mn³⁺ (with a small amount of Mn⁴⁺) maximizes the four-electron process for the ORR.

The stoichiometry of different binary manganese oxides (dictating manganese valence state) has also been shown to influence the number of electrons transferred by Koutecky-Levich analysis and HO_2^- detected via RRDE measurements. The limiting currents in **Figure 2B** suggest that α -MnO₂ catalyzes the ORR by close to a four-electron pathway (oxygen to hydroxide) while the number of electrons transferred in the ORR on δ -MnO₂ and β -MnO₂ is less than $4.^{15}$ Mn³⁺-based oxides (supported on gold in 0.1 M KOH) such as Mn₂O₃ and γ -MnOOH yielded <5% peroxide while more reduced forms such as Mn₅O₈ and Mn₃O₄ with Mn²⁺ and Mn³⁺ have peroxide yields closer to $15\%.^{41}$ Doping MnO_x with metal cations Ni²⁺ and Mg²⁺ (mixed with carbon black in 0.1 M KOH) has also demonstrated improved selectivity toward the four-electron pathway, ⁸⁴ which was attributed to stabilizing intermediate Mn³⁺/Mn⁴⁺ species. ⁵³ Tetragonal CoMn₂O₄ with octahedral Mn³⁺ (ref. ⁷⁸) has been shown by Koutecky-Levich analysis to exhibit an electron transfer number close to 4, higher than that of the cubic MnCo₂O₄, ⁷⁹⁻⁸⁰ with tetrahedral Mn²⁺. Thus, studies of

binary manganese oxides also point to Mn^{3+} , possibly including some Mn^{4+} (but not Mn^{2+}) as key to catalyzing the four-electron process. We caution, however, that common support materials such as carbon³⁷⁻³⁸ and gold⁹¹ are active for oxygen reduction to hydroperoxide (2 e^-) at large overpotentials, and may influence the observed number of electrons transferred.

3.3 The Activity for Peroxide Disproportionation

Manganese oxides can disproportionate peroxide chemically to generate molecular oxygen and water or hydroxyl species, where oxygen can be further reduced. Therefore, peroxide disproportionation kinetics on oxides can play an important role in ORR kinetics. MnO₂, ⁹²⁻⁹³ MnOOH, ⁴¹ and mixed oxides such as spinels and perovskites ⁹⁴⁻⁹⁵ are active toward hydrogen peroxide decomposition, which can influence the number of apparent electrons transferred during ORR.

The activity toward hydrogen peroxide decomposition can be influenced by Mn valence in oxides. Partial substitution of La^{3+} by Sr^{2+} or Ca^{2+} in $La_{(1-x)}A_xMnO_3$ (A = Sr, Ca) has been shown to increase the activity toward peroxide decomposition. $^{96-97}$ In $La_{(1-x)}Sr_xMnO_3$, the activity for the HO_2^- decomposition was maximum at x=0.8, the highest Sr (and Mn^{4+}) content tested. 96 The corresponding increase in activation energy with activity suggested the compensation effect, 98 thus Mn^{4+} sites are considered active for peroxide decomposition. $^{96-97}$ We note, however, that such studies did not consider chemistries with fully Mn^{4+} character.

Comparison of α -MnO₂ nanorods⁹⁹ prepared to yield a range of average Mn oxidation states (3.91, 3.85, and 3.73+) found a successive increase in the rate of hydrogen peroxide decomposition (0.14 to 0.53 s⁻¹g⁻¹), which exceeded the difference in surface areas (90-140 m²/g). This paralleled the increase in the limiting current and therefore the number of electrons transferred as measured

by RDE, as well as the exchange current density (8.1 to 10 μ A/cm²_{disk} at constant loading).⁹⁹ Therefore, having a considerable amount of Mn³⁺ in addition to Mn⁴⁺ is necessary to promote peroxide disproportionation kinetics and thus ORR kinetics. This hypothesis is supported by the observation that Ni-substituted α -MnO₂ with comparable surface area to Ni-free α -MnO₂ exhibited a 4-fold increase in the rate of hydrogen peroxide decomposition, slight increase in limiting current, and 2-fold increase in exchange current density.⁹⁹

It is interesting to contrast peroxide decomposition activity with ORR kinetics, where a large number of Mn^{3+} sites (ideally mixed with a smaller amount of Mn^{4+} sites) are needed to give high ORR activity. Having Mn^{3+} catalyzing ORR and Mn^{4+} catalyzing peroxide decomposition, which facilitates the apparent four-electron process, is in agreement with the following observations: First, the $HO2^-$ production from $La_{(1-x)}Sr_xMnO_3$ during the ORR is minimized with moderate incorporation of Sr (closest to four-electron process for x=0.6). Second, $La_xCa_{0.4}MnO_3$ has shown largely four-electron transfer for ORR, with decreased peroxide production as x decreases from 0.6 to a nonstoichiometric, cation deficient composition. Third, CaMnO_x with intermediate $Mn^{3+/4+}$ composition has shown an increased number of electrons transferred in comparison to Mn^{3+} or Mn^{4+} end members. Mn^{10}

While the two-electron reduction of oxygen to peroxide can occur on carbon¹⁰²⁻¹⁰³ or manganese oxides,¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁴ the catalytic activity for peroxide disproportionation has been attributed solely to manganese oxides to give rise to apparent four-electron reduction of oxygen.^{41, 104} This hypothesis is supported by a study from Calegaro et al.¹⁰⁵ where increasing the manganese oxide load (mixture of β-MnO₂ and Mn₂O₃) relative to carbon was shown by Koutecky-Levich analysis to increase the number of electrons transferred from 2.1 to 2.8.¹⁰⁵ Further support comes from the fact that the efficacy of this process increases with decreasing scan rate in cyclic voltammetry, attributed to

increased residence time for the manganese oxides to regenerate sufficient O_2 from disproportionation.⁴¹

Besides chemical disproportionation, there is a second route to increase the number of electrons transferred while involving peroxide intermediates: the electrochemical reduction of peroxide. Various types of high-surface area carbon have been added to enhance the conductivity of composite electrodes in previous studies.^{39-40, 42} Due to the two-electron reduction of oxygen to peroxide on carbon, one would expect an increase of the peroxide yield when carbon is added. However, La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}MnO₃ alone (supported on glassy carbon) produced around 40% peroxide,^{22,87} while incorporation of carbon black reduced the production to <10%; increased loading of both catalyst and support further reduced HO₂⁻ production.⁸⁷ This suggests the oxide catalyst alone may not have sufficient conductivity to reduce peroxide produced on the glassy carbon substrate, which can be overcome by mixing with high surface area carbon for conductivity.

3.4 ORR Mass Activity

While specific activity of the ORR on manganese oxides can be influenced greatly by oxidation state, e_g occupancy and covalency, ORR mass activity is also affected by specific oxide surface area (m²/g_{oxide}). A survey of mass activities from different manganese oxides can be found in **Table 1**, where mass activity trends among these oxides are discussed below. Most perovskites need to be crystalized with high annealing temperatures, ¹⁰⁶ resulting in micron-sized particles with low specific surface areas (<10 m²/g). While there have been some efforts to make perovskite nanoparticles, ^{19-20, 101, 106} the majority of reported perovskite catalysts have comparably large particle sizes and low to moderate mass activities (**Table 1**). On the other hand, binary Mn-based oxides can be formed at lower temperatures, ⁸⁰ thus aiding in the production of nanostructured

particles with high surface areas exceeding 30 m²/g (ref. ¹¹). Amongst materials supporting fourelectron reduction, perovskite CaMnO_{3- δ} nanoparticles remarkably exhibit the highest mass activity (~70 A/g_{oxide}),¹⁹ and spinel CoMn₂O₄ has the second highest mass activity (60 A/g_{oxide}).⁷⁸ Nanostructured 1D-tunnel-structure manganese dioxides have considerably lower mass activity, among which α -MnO₂ is the most active (7 A/g_{oxide}).¹⁵ Although MnO₂/C (predominantly β phase with some Mn₂O₃) has been shown to have a mass activity of 100 A/g_{oxide},¹⁰⁴ the number of electrons transfer is close to two yielding largely peroxide, which is highly undesirable for energy conversion applications.

Generally speaking, surveying average Mn valences ranging from 2.6 to 4 in both powders,^{41,} ¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁸ and nanorods,^{52, 109} Mn in the higher oxidation state of Mn^{3+/4+} has been found most active by mass, similar to findings from the specific activity discussed above. The ORR mass activities of manganese oxides^{41, 107} increased with Mn oxidation state from 1.2 to 1.4 A/g_{oxide} at 0.7 V vs. RHE in the sequence of Mn₅O₈<Mn₃O₄<Mn₂O₃<γ-MnOOH.⁴¹ Comparison with other studies suggest a mass activity of MnO₂ allotropes 2-100 times greater^{15, 21, 110-111} than more reduced oxides.

4. Toward Understanding of Manganese Oxide Surfaces During the ORR

With the above discussion concerning the role of Mn valence in ORR activity from the perspective of characterization proceeding catalysis, we turn next to review the surface of manganese oxides during ORR conditions. A computed E-pH (Pourbaix)¹¹² diagram of MnO_x from density functional theory (DFT) calculations shows that the β-MnO₂ phase with low-index (110) facet and partial coverage by adsorbed O is stable at the equilibrium potential of the ORR at 1.23 V vs RHE (**Figure 6A**).¹¹³ Polarizing to the onset of the ORR (0.83 V vs. RHE) leads to the Mn₂O₃

(110) surface covered with a half monolayer of adsorbed OH as the most stable, which can be further reduced to a clean Mn_3O_4 (001) surface at lower potentials of 0.69 V vs. RHE.¹¹³ DFT calculations suggest that the ORR may occur through an associative mechanism, where O_2 adsorbs intact with intermediates as in Figure 5 a (in contrast to a direct dissociative/recombination mechanism), on surfaces of Mn_2O_3 (110) and Mn_3O_4 (001) stable under ORR-relevant conditions (termed "self-consistent"). The computed overpotential was highly dependent on the stabilization of intermediates through hydrogen bonds with water molecules.¹¹³ Such calculations have found a theoretical onset potential of 0.4 V comparable to that measured experimentally for α -Mn₂O₃.¹¹³ For ternary oxides such as the perovskite LaMnO₃, DFT has assessed the relative stability of

For ternary oxides such as the perovskite LaMnO₃, DFT has assessed the relative stability of different terminations of the (001) facet as a function of pH and potential. Near the equilibrium potential of the ORR at 1.23 V vs. RHE, an oxidized Mn surface is most stable with some Mn vacancies, where all Mn atoms are fully coordinated to O. Under ORR conditions, the surface becomes protonated, being fully saturated with OH groups for potentials <0.76 V vs. RHE. At even lower potentials <0.58 V vs. RHE, the surface groups are reduced, leaving a bare MnO₂ (001) facet. These changes in character of the surface adsorbates are linked to subsequent reduction of the Mn valence state. The energetics of ORR intermediates computed on this surface are in agreement with the ORR proceeding under such applied potentials.

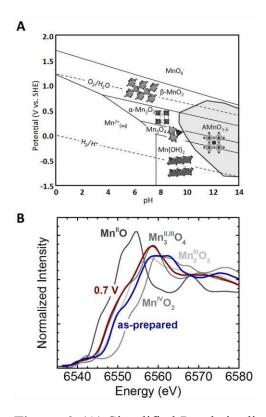


Figure 6. (A) Simplified Pourbaix diagram of phases predicted for ORR conditions by DFT for binary manganese oxide, ¹¹³ including the stable region for the perovskite LaMnO₃. ¹¹⁴ Within the stable regions, surfaces at lower potentials are clean or covered with *OH, and those at higher potentials covered in *O. (B) In situ X-ray absorption¹¹⁵ at the Mn K-edge (fluorescence yield mode) of electrodeposited MnO_x at 0.7 V vs. RHE, as-deposited and relevant references. Adapted from ref. ¹¹³ with permission from the PCCP Owner Societies and from ref. ¹¹⁵ with permission from the American Chemical Society.

The valence state of Mn has been shown experimentally to change as a function of ORR potential. In situ evaluation of catalysts with hard X-ray absorption spectroscopy at the Mn K-edge highlights the reduction of Mn under ORR conditions, as predicted by DFT, with highly active materials having Mn^{3+/4+} redox near the ORR onset. Annealing β -MnO₂ particles on Vulcan carbon (X-72) to an ex situ stoichiometry of Mn₂O₃/C and Mn₃O₄/C eliminated a redox

feature coincident with the ORR half-wave potential (0.75 V vs. RHE), leading to reduced ORR activity, which can be attributed to that thermal reducing Mn to a 3+ valence, prohibiting Mn^{3+/4+} redox during the ORR.¹¹⁷

More recent in situ XAS studies at the Mn K-edge of Mn^{III}O_x films electrodeposited on an Au/Si₃N₄ window demonstrate a lack of Mn^{3+/4+} redox at the ORR onset, ¹¹⁵ in agreement with ex situ L-edge studies which show thermal Mn³⁺ oxides cannot be re-oxidized in solution. ³³ Partial reduction of Mn³⁺ was observed for an ORR-relevant potential of 0.7 V vs. RHE in 0.1 M KOH (**Figure 6B**), ¹¹⁵ where disordered Mn₃O₄ was detected in operando by the XAS fine structure, displaying reduced peak intensity compared to the crystalline reference. ¹¹⁵ The facile reduction of these Mn^{III}O_x films to Mn₃O₄ throughout the film and their high specific activity of 700 μA/cm² at 0.8 V vs. RHE, quantified in a parallel study on glassy carbon substrates, ¹² contrasts limited reduction to Mn₃O₄ during the ORR reported by others. ¹¹⁸⁻¹¹⁹ The detection of Mn₃O₄ might be explained by the findings of DFT studies, ¹¹³ where small crystals favor the formation of the low surface energy phase Mn₃O₄, compared to Mn₂O₃. ¹²⁰ Therefore, further in situ characterization of different manganese oxides prepared by different synthesis routes is needed to provide insights into the physical origin of the differences in observed activities.

5. Conclusions and Outlook

Through studies of crystal structures like perovskites ($AMn^{III,IV}O_{3\pm\delta}$) and spinels ($M^{II}M^{III}_2O_4$), where the crystal structure can be maintained through inclusion of a wide range of chemistries, the specific ORR activities of catalysts with a range of Mn valence state can be compared. Mn^{3+} in octahedral coordination is a critical player in the ORR, where incorporation of some Mn^{4+} can improve charge transfer to adsorbed oxygen and promote catalysis. It is desirable to proceed via

the four-electron process to form hydroxide and avoid the less efficient two-electron path to hydroperoxide. The more reducible α-MnO₂ with open structure proceeds via an apparent four-electron process, in contrast to other polymorphs (and the carbon support), which primarily reduce O₂ to the hydroperoxide ion. For perovskites, a primarily four-electron process is observed. By comparing materials which operate by the two- and four-electron process, it is shown that the presence of Mn^{3+/4+} mixed valence promotes cleavage of the O₂ bond and complete reduction to OH⁻. One factor may be increased peroxide decomposition by Mn⁴⁺, however further studies are needed to distinguish between the apparent and direct four-electron process.

The active valence state during and resulting from the ORR has been further probed by spectroscopic and computational methods. Computations of simple manganese oxides have shown the Mn³⁺ valence state is stable under ORR conditions. In situ evaluation of catalysts with hard Xray absorption spectroscopy highlights the reduction of Mn under ORR conditions, with highly active materials having Mn^{3+/4+} redox near the ORR onset. Future in situ measurements utilizing soft X-rays could provide increased chemical sensitivity, evaluating the Mn valence by X-ray absorption¹²¹ or probing oxygen speciation with techniques like ambient pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. 122 A promising route to elucidate the details of the ORR mechanism entails eliminating support surfaces exposed to the electrolyte through the study of epitaxial thin film electrodes, which can serve as well-defined model surfaces.³⁶ This recent trend in electrode geometry offers great promise in separating the effect of substrate and the manganese oxide surface in ORR electrocatalysis, 34, 45 establishing the role of oxide conductivity and separating between direct and apparent four-electron processes. In combination with electroanalytical measurements and in situ spectroscopy, this could yield insight into the ORR mechanism with unprecedented clarity.

Table 1: Comparison of Mn-contained oxides catalysts at 0.8 V vs. RHE from previous studies, including their surface area (SA), specific ORR activity (I_s), mass ORR activity (I_m), number of electron transfer indicated by limiting currents (n), and their crystal structures. The data were roughly estimated from CV curves or Tafel plots in 0.1 M KOH electrolyte and the oxides surface area were measured using BET technique, unless specifically noted in the table. The materials were sorted by structures with different shadings. (Green: Perovskites or other structures with corner-sharing octahedra; Purple: 1D tunnel-structure oxides with edge-sharing octahedra; Blue: 2D layered oxides with edge-sharing octahedra; Orange: 3D tunnel structure with edge sharing octahedra.) In the same structure group, the materials were sorted by specific ORR activity I_s.

Perovskite	1D tunnel	2D layered	3D tunnel

Material	SA (m ² /g)	$I_s(\mu A/cm^2_{ox})$	I _m (A/g _{ox})	n	Structure
LaMnO _{3+d} 11	0.5**	1300**	6.5	N/A	Perovskite
La _{0.67} Sr _{0.33} MnO ₃ ³⁶	N/A	380	N/A	N/A	Perovskite
La _{0.5} Ca _{0.5} MnO ₃ 11	2.1**	330**	6.93	N/A	Perovskite
NP CaMnO _{2.77} 19	40	183.5	73.4	4.1	Perovskite
La _{0.4} Sr _{0.6} MnO ₃ * ²²	6.1	180	11	1.7	Perovskite
La _{0.8} Sr _{0.2} MnO ₃ (820μg/cm ² C)* ⁴²	16.7	150	25	1.6	Perovskite
MS CaMnO _{2.76} ¹⁹	36.4	126.8	46.2	4	Perovskite
NP CaMnO _{2.90} 19	38.5	115.3	44.4	4	Perovskite

MS CaMnO _{2.50} ¹⁹	37	98.0	36.3	3.9	Perovskite
LaMnO ₃ /NC ¹²³	11.6**	60	7	N/A	Perovskite
MS CaMnO _{2.93} 19	33.1	53.4	17.7	3.9	Perovskite
LaMnO ₃ /NSTO ³⁴	N/A	40	N/A	N/A	Perovskite
La _{0.8} Sr _{0.2} MnO _{3-x} /NSTO ⁴³	N/A	24	N/A	N/A	Perovskite
La _{0.2} Sr _{0.8} MnO ₃ * ²²	6	20	1.2	1.7	Perovskite
$La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}MnO_{3-x}/C^{43}$	4.4	14	0.62	N/A	Perovskite
LaMn _{0.5} Ni _{0.5} O ₃ ¹¹	1.1**	13**	0.143	N/A	Perovskite
LaMnO ₃ ¹¹	0.6**	13**	0.078	N/A	Perovskite
LaMn _{0.5} Cu _{0.5} O ₃ 11	1.1**	6.7**	0.0737	3.9	Perovskite
$La_{0.6}Ca_{0.4}Co_{0.5}Mn_{0.5}O_{3-x}/C^{*\ 39}$	10	6	0.6	2.3	Perovskite
CaMnO ₃ /C* ⁹⁰	67.5**	0.4**	0.27	3.27	Perovskite
CaMnO ₃ * ⁹⁰	67.5**	0.2**	0.135	3.18	Perovskite
CaMnO ₃ /NSTO ³⁴	N/A	0.1	N/A	N/A	Perovskite
Urchin La _{0.8} Sr _{0.2} MnO ₃ /C ²⁰	50	0.04	0.02	3.8- 3.9	Perovskite
MnOOH/C (36 wt%) 124	20.5**	3.6**	0.74	3.9	Corner- sharing
β-MnO ₂ 15	4.8	67	3.3	2.4	1D tunnel
α -MnO ₂ /C ²¹	8	10	0.8	3.8	1D tunnel
α -MnO ₂ ¹⁵	112.5	6.4	7.2	3.7- 4.2	1D tunnel
α-MnO ₂ (nanorod_SF)* 99	147	6	8.8	2.5	1D tunnel
α-MnO ₂ (nanorod) ¹¹⁰	19.5	2	0.39	3.89	1D tunnel
α-MnO ₂ (nanotube) ¹¹⁰	26	1	0.26	3.94	1D tunnel
α -Mn ₂ O ₃ * ⁴¹	N/A	N/A	0.27	3.91	1D tunnel
γ-MnOOH* ⁴¹	N/A	N/A	0.3	3.96	1D tunnel
MnO ₂ /C* ¹⁰⁴	N/A	N/A	100	2.3	1D tunnel

Mn_2O_3/C^* 104	N/A	N/A	10	1.5	1D tunnel
Mn ₅ O ₈ * ⁴¹	N/A	N/A	0.25	3.75	1D tunnel
δ-MnO ₂ ¹⁵	25	6.7	1.7	1.7	2D layered
δ-MnO ₂ ¹¹⁰	62.5	0.4	0.25	3.03	2D layered
H _{0.32} MnO ₂ /GO ¹²⁵	N/A	N/A	0.22	~3.8	2D layered
Mn ₃ O ₄ /pGC ¹²	N/A	700	N/A	~4	3D tunnel
Mn ₂ CoO ₄ ⁷⁸	11	530	58	3.68	3D tunnel
MnCo ₂ O ₄ ⁷⁸	36.7	30	11	3.51	3D tunnel
$Co_xMn_{3-x}O_4$ -P/C (30 wt%) 80	114	1.4	1.6	N/A	3D tunnel
$Co_xMn_{3-x}O_4$ -B/C (30 wt%) 80	108	1.2	1.3	N/A	3D tunnel
Mn ₃ O ₄ /C* ¹⁰⁴	N/A	N/A	30	1.5	3D tunnel
Mn ₃ O ₄ * ⁴¹	N/A	N/A	0.26	3.8	3D tunnel

^{*} Measurement was done in 1 M KOH electrolyte.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported in part by the MRSEC Program of the National Science Foundation under award number DMR-0819762, the Skoltech-MIT Center for Electrochemical Energy.

^{**} Surface area (SA) was estimated by particle size from SEM or TEM.

^{*}shaohorn@mit.edu; *kastoerz@mit.edu

K.A.S. was supported in part by the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship under Grant no. DGE-1122374. Use of the National Synchrotron Light Source, Brookhaven National Laboratory, was supported by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, under Contract No. DE-AC02-98CH10886. We thank Dr. Azzam N. Mansour for providing Mn K-edge reference spectra and Julius Scholz for measuring glassy carbon.

REFERENCES

- (1) Gasteiger, H. A.; Kocha, S. S.; Sompalli, B.; Wagner, F. T. *Appl. Catal.*, B **2005**, 56, 9-35.
- (2) Armand, M.; Tarascon, J. M. *Nature* **2008**, 451, 652-657.
- (3) Chen, J.; Cheng, F. Acc. Chem. Res. 2009, 42, 713-723.
- (4) Cao, R.; Lee, J.-S.; Liu, M.; Cho, J. Adv. Energy Mater. **2012**, 2, 816-829.
- (5) Park, M.; Sun, H.; Lee, H.; Lee, J.; Cho, J. Adv. Energy Mater. **2012**, 2, 780-800.
- (6) Stephens, I. E. L.; Bondarenko, A. S.; Gronbjerg, U.; Rossmeisl, J.; Chorkendorff, I. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2012**, 5, 6744-6762.
- (7) Cheng, F.; Chen, J. Chem. Soc. Rev. **2012**, 41, 2172-2192.
- (8) Morozan, A.; Jousselme, B.; Palacin, S. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2011**, 4, 1238-1254.
- (9) Wang, B. J. Power Sources **2005**, 152, 1-15.
- (10) Jaouen, F.; Proietti, E.; Lefevre, M.; Chenitz, R.; Dodelet, J.-P.; Wu, G.; Chung, H. T.; Johnston, C. M.; Zelenay, P. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2011**, 4, 114-130.
- (11) Suntivich, J.; Gasteiger, H. A.; Yabuuchi, N.; Nakanishi, H.; Goodenough, J. B.; Shao-Horn, Y. *Nat. Chem.* **2011**, *3*, 546-550.
- (12) Gorlin, Y.; Chung, C.-J.; Nordlund, D.; Clemens, B. M.; Jaramillo, T. F. *ACS Catal.* **2012**, 2, 2687-2694.
- (13) Vesborg, P. C. K.; Jaramillo, T. F. *RSC Advances* **2012**, 2, 7933-7947.
- (14) Suntivich, J.; Gasteiger, H. A.; Yabuuchi, N.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2010**, 157, B1263-B1268.
- (15) Meng, Y.; Song, W.; Huang, H.; Ren, Z.; Chen, S.-Y.; Suib, S. L. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2014**, 136, 11452-11464.
- (16) Yeager, E. J. Mol. Catal. **1986**, 38, 5-25.
- (17) Siahrostami, S.; Verdaguer-Casadevall, A.; Karamad, M.; Deiana, D.; Malacrida, P.; Wickman, B.; Escudero-Escribano, M.; Paoli, E. A.; Frydendal, R.; Hansen, T. W.; Chorkendorff, I.; Stephens, I. E. L.; Rossmeisl, J. *Nat. Mater.* **2013**, 12, 1137-1143.
- (18) Rankin, R. B.; Greeley, J. ACS Catal. **2012**, 2, 2664-2672.
- (19) Du, J.; Zhang, T.; Cheng, F.; Chu, W.; Wu, Z.; Chen, J. *Inorg. Chem.* **2014**, 53, 9106-9114.
- (20) Jin, C.; Cao, X.; Zhang, L.; Zhang, C.; Yang, R. J. Power Sources 2013, 241, 225-230.
- (21) Cheng, F.; Su, Y.; Liang, J.; Tao, Z.; Chen, J. Chem. Mater. 2009, 22, 898-905.
- (22) Tulloch, J.; Donne, S. W. J. Power Sources 2009, 188, 359-366.

- (23) Trasatti, S.; Petrii, O. A., Real surface area measurements in electrochemistry. In *Pure Appl. Chem.*, 1991; Vol. 63, p 711.
- (24) Hong, W. T.; Risch, M.; Stoerzinger, K. A.; Grimaud, A.; Suntivich, J.; Shao-Horn, Y. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2015**, 8, 1404-1427.
- (25) Bidault, F.; Brett, D. J. L.; Middleton, P. H.; Brandon, N. P. *J. Power Sources* **2009**, 187, 39-48.
- (26) Ng, J. W. D.; Gorlin, Y.; Nordlund, D.; Jaramillo, T. F. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2014**, 161, D3105-D3112.
- (27) Gloaguen, F.; Andolfatto, F.; Durand, R.; Ozil, P. *J. Appl. Electrochem.* **1994**, 24, 863-869.
- (28) Mayrhofer, K. J. J.; Strmcnik, D.; Blizanac, B. B.; Stamenkovic, V.; Arenz, M.; Markovic, N. M. *Electrochim. Acta* **2008**, 53, 3181-3188.
- (29) Treimer, S.; Tang, A.; Johnson, D. C. *Electroanalysis* **2002**, 14, 165-171.
- (30) Sipos, P. M.; Hefter, G.; May, P. M. J. Chem. Eng. Data 2000, 45, 613-617.
- (31) Davis, R. E.; Horvath, G. L.; Tobias, C. W. *Electrochim. Acta* **1967**, 12, 287-297.
- (32) Paulus, U. A.; Schmidt, T. J.; Gasteiger, H. A.; Behm, R. J. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **2001**, 495, 134-145.
- (33) Gorlin, Y.; Nordlund, D.; Jaramillo, T. F. ECS Trans. 2013, 58, 735-750.
- (34) Stoerzinger, K. A.; Risch, M.; Suntivich, J.; Lu, W. M.; Zhou, J.; Biegalski, M. D.; Christen, H. M.; Ariando; Venkatesan, T.; Shao-Horn, Y. *Energy Environ. Sci.* **2013**, 6, 1582-1588.
- (35) Arul Raj, I.; Vasu, K. I. *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* **1990,** 15, 751-756.
- (36) Stoerzinger, K. A.; Lü, W.; Li, C.; Ariando; Venkatesan, T.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* **2015**, 6, 1435–1440.
- (37) Tatapudi, P.; Fenton, J. M. J. Electrochem. Soc. 1993, 140, L55-L57.
- (38) Trogadas, P.; Fuller, T. F.; Strasser, P. Carbon **2014**, 75, 5-42.
- (39) Malkhandi, S.; Trinh, P.; Manohar, A. K.; Jayachandrababu, K. C.; Kindler, A.; Surya Prakash, G. K.; Narayanan, S. R. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2013**, 160, F943-F952.
- (40) Liang, Y.; Wang, H.; Diao, P.; Chang, W.; Hong, G.; Li, Y.; Gong, M.; Xie, L.; Zhou, J.; Wang, J.; Regier, T. Z.; Wei, F.; Dai, H. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2012**, 134, 15849-15857.
- (41) Mao, L.; Zhang, D.; Sotomura, T.; Nakatsu, K.; Koshiba, N.; Ohsaka, T. *Electrochim. Acta* **2003,** 48, 1015-1021.
- (42) Poux, T.; Napolskiy, F. S.; Dintzer, T.; Kéranguéven, G.; Istomin, S. Y.; Tsirlina, G. A.; Antipov, E. V.; Savinova, E. R. *Catal. Today* **2012**, 189, 83-92.
- (43) Risch, M.; Stoerzinger, K. A.; Maruyama, S.; Hong, W. T.; Takeuchi, I.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2014**, 136, 5229-5232.
- (44) Komo, M.; Hagiwara, A.; Taminato, S.; Hirayama, M.; Kanno, R. *Electrochemistry* **2012**, 80, 834-838.
- (45) Miyahara, Y.; Miyazaki, K.; Fukutsuka, T.; Abe, T. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2014,** 161, F694-F697.
- (46) Matsumoto, Y.; Yoneyama, H.; Tamura, H. *J. Electroanal. Chem. Interfacial Electrochem.* **1977,** 83, 245-249.
- (47) Gorlin, Y.; Jaramillo, T. F. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **2010**, 132, 13612-13614.
- (48) Lin, H. Y.; Sun, Y. P.; Weng, B. J.; Yang, C. T.; Suen, N. T.; Liao, K. H.; Huang, Y. C.; Ho, J. Y.; Chong, N. S.; Tang, H. Y. *Electrochim. Acta* **2007**, 52, 6548-6553.
- (49) Tench, D.; Warren, L. F. J. Electrochem. Soc. 1983, 130, 869-872.
- (50) Allmand, A. J.; Campbell, A. N. *Trans. Faraday Soc.* **1924**, 19, 559-570.

- (51) Fleischmann, M.; Thirsk, H. R.; Tordesillas, I. M. *Trans. Faraday Soc.* **1962**, 58, 1865-1877.
- (52) Tang, Q.; Jiang, L.; Liu, J.; Wang, S.; Sun, G. ACS Catal. 2013, 4, 457-463.
- (53) Roche, I.; Chaînet, E.; Chatenet, M.; Vondrák, J. J. Phys. Chem. C 2006, 111, 1434-1443.
- (54) Pang, S. C.; Anderson, M. A.; Chapman, T. W. J. Electrochem. Soc. **2000**, 147, 444-450.
- (55) Fernandes, J. B.; Desai, B. D.; Dalal, V. N. K. J. Power Sources 1985, 15, 209-237.
- (56) Hansen, H. A.; Rossmeisl, J.; Norskov, J. K. *PCCP* **2008**, 10, 3722-3730.
- (57) Brock, S. L.; Duan, N.; Tian, Z. R.; Giraldo, O.; Zhou, H.; Suib, S. L. *Chem. Mater.* **1998**, 10, 2619-2628.
- (58) Kanungo, S. B.; Parida, K. M.; Sant, B. R. *Electrochim. Acta* **1981,** 26, 1147-1156.
- (59) Post, J. E. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **1999**, 96, 3447-3454.
- (60) Baur, W. Acta Cryst. 1976, 32, 2200-2204.
- (61) Thackeray, M. M. Prog. Solid State Chem. 1997, 25, 1-71.
- (62) Cockayne, E.; Li, L. Chem. Phys. Lett. 2012, 544, 53-58.
- (63) Grundy, A. N.; Hallstedt, B.; Gauckler, L. J. Phase Equilib. 2003, 24, 21-39.
- (64) Fritsch, S.; Post, J. E.; Navrotsky, A. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1997, 61, 2613-2616.
- (65) Kohler, T.; Armbruster, T.; Libowitzky, E. J. Solid State Chem. 1997, 133, 486-500.
- (66) Geller, S. Acta Cryst. 1971, 27, 821-828.
- (67) Satomi, K. J. Phys. Soc. Jpn. 1961, 16, 258-265.
- (68) Yuasa, M.; Yamazoe, N.; Shimanoe, K. J. Electrochem. Soc. 2011, 158, A411-A416.
- (69) Hayashi, M.; Uemura, H.; Shimanoe, K.; Miura, N.; Yamazoe, N. *Electrochem. Solid-State Lett.* **1998,** 1, 268-270.
- (70) Hyodo, T.; Hayashi, M.; Miura, N.; Yamazoe, N. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **1996,** 143, L266-L267.
- (71) Goodenough, J. B.; Manoharan, R.; Paranthaman, M. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1990**, 112, 2076-2082.
- (72) Yokoi, Y.; Uchida, H. *Catal. Today* **1998**, 42, 167-174.
- (73) Harrison, W. A. *Physical Review B* **2010**, 81, 045433.
- (74) Stoerzinger, K. A.; Choi, W. S.; Jeen, H.; Lee, H. N.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.* **2015,** 6, 487-492.
- (75) Suntivich, J.; Hong, W. T.; Lee, Y.-L.; Rondinelli, J. M.; Yang, W.; Goodenough, J. B.; Dabrowski, B.; Freeland, J. W.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2014**, 118, 1856-1863.
- (76) Alonso, J. A.; Martínez-Lope, M. J.; Casais, M. T.; Fernández-Díaz, M. T. *Inorg. Chem.* **2000**, 39, 917-923.
- (77) Kasper, N. V.; Troyanchuk, I. O. J. Phys. Chem. Solids **1996**, 57, 1601-1607.
- (78) Menezes, P. W.; Indra, A.; Sahraie, N. R.; Bergmann, A.; Strasser, P.; Driess, M. *ChemSusChem* **2014**, 8, 164–171.
- (79) Xu, C.; Lu, M.; Zhan, Y.; Lee, J. Y. RSC Advances **2014**, 4, 25089-25092.
- (80) Cheng, F.; Shen, J.; Peng, B.; Pan, Y.; Tao, Z.; Chen, J. *Nat. Chem.* **2011**, 3, 79-84.
- (81) Cheng, F.; Zhang, T.; Zhang, Y.; Du, J.; Han, X.; Chen, J. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2013**, 52, 2474-2477.
- (82) Cao, Y. L.; Yang, H. X.; Ai, X. P.; Xiao, L. F. J. Electroanal. Chem. 2003, 557, 127-134.
- (83) Vondrak, J.; Klapste, B.; Velicka, J.; Sedlarikova, M.; Reiter, J.; Roche, I.; Chainet, E.; Fauvarque, J.; Chatenet, M. J. New Mater. Electrochem. Syst. **2005**, 8, 209-212.
- (84) Roche, I.; Chaînet, E.; Chatenet, M.; Vondrák, J. J. Appl. Electrochem. 2008, 38, 1195-1201.

- (85) Ramaswamy, N.; Hakim, N.; Mukerjee, S. *Electrochim. Acta* **2008**, 53, 3279-3295.
- (86) Chen, C.; Levitin, G.; Hess, D. W.; Fuller, T. F. *J. Power Sources* **2007**, 169, 288-295.
- (87) Poux, T.; Bonnefont, A.; Kéranguéven, G.; Tsirlina, G. A.; Savinova, E. R. *ChemPhysChem* **2014**, 15, 2108-2120.
- (88) Poux, T.; Bonnefont, A.; Ryabova, A.; Kerangueven, G.; Tsirlina, G. A.; Savinova, E. R. *PCCP* **2014**, 16, 13595-13600.
- (89) Sunarso, J.; Torriero, A. A. J.; Zhou, W.; Howlett, P. C.; Forsyth, M. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2012**, 116, 5827-5834.
- (90) Hancock, C. A.; Ong, A. L.; Slater, P. R.; Varcoe, J. R. J. Mater. Chem. A **2014**, 2, 3047-3056.
- (91) Zurilla, R. W.; Sen, R. K.; Yeager, E. J. Electrochem. Soc. 1978, 125, 1103-1109.
- (92) Broughton, D. B.; Wentworth, R. L.; Laing, M. E. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 1947, 69, 744-747.
- (93) Broughton, D. B.; Wentworth, R. L. J. Am. Chem. Soc. **1947**, 69, 741-744.
- (94) Goldstein, J. R.; Tseung, A. C. C. J. Catal. 1974, 32, 452-465.
- (95) Lee, Y. N.; Lago, R. M.; Fierro, J. L. G.; González, J. Appl. Catal., A 2001, 215, 245-256.
- (96) Yang, H.; Zhang, T.; Tian, H.; Tang, J.; Xu, D.; Yang, W.; Lin, L. *React. Kinet. Catal. Lett.* **2001**, 73, 311-316.
- (97) Soleymani, M.; Moheb, A.; Babakhani, D. Chem. Eng. Technol. 2011, 34, 49-55.
- (98) Cremer, E. Adv. Catalysis 1955, 7, 75-91.
- (99) Benbow, E. M.; Kelly, S. P.; Zhao, L.; Reutenauer, J. W.; Suib, S. L. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2011,** 115, 22009-22017.
- (100) Yuan, X.-Z.; Li, X.; Qu, W.; Ivey, D. G.; Wang, H. ECS Trans. 2011, 35, 11-20.
- (101) Han, X.; Zhang, T.; Du, J.; Cheng, F.; Chen, J. Chem. Sci. 2013, 4, 368-376.
- (102) Tan, Y.; Xu, C.; Chen, G.; Fang, X.; Zheng, N.; Xie, Q. Adv. Funct. Mater. 2012, 22, 4584-4591.
- (103) Valim, R. B.; Santos, M. C.; Lanza, M. R. V.; Machado, S. A. S.; Lima, F. H. B.; Calegaro, M. L. *Electrochim. Acta* **2012**, 85, 423-431.
- (104) Lima, F. H. B.; Calegaro, M. L.; Ticianelli, E. A. Electrochim. Acta 2007, 52, 3732-3738.
- (105) Calegaro, M. L.; Lima, F. H. B.; Ticianelli, E. A. J. Power Sources 2006, 158, 735-739.
- (106) Zhu, C.; Nobuta, A.; Nakatsugawa, I.; Akiyama, T. Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 2013, 38, 13238-13248.
- (107) Mao, L.; Sotomura, T.; Nakatsu, K.; Koshiba, N.; Zhang, D.; Ohsaka, T. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **2002**, 149, A504-A507.
- (108) Matsuki, K.; Kamada, H. *Electrochim. Acta* **1986,** 31, 13-18.
- (109) Zhang, T.; Cheng, F.; Du, J.; Hu, Y.; Chen, J. Adv. Energy Mater. **2015**, 5, DOI: 10.1002/aenm.201400654.
- (110) Xiao, W.; Wang, D.; Lou, X. W. J. Phys. Chem. C 2009, 114, 1694-1700.
- (111) Wei, C.; Yu, L.; Cui, C.; Lin, J.; Wei, C.; Mathews, N.; Huo, F.; Sritharan, T.; Xu, Z. *Chem. Commun.* **2014**, 50, 7885-7888.
- (112) Pourbaix, M. Atlas of electrochemical equilibria in aqueous solutions. Pergamon: Oxford, 1966, 19.
- (113) Su, H.-Y.; Gorlin, Y.; Man, I. C.; Calle-Vallejo, F.; Norskov, J. K.; Jaramillo, T. F.; Rossmeisl, J. *PCCP* **2012**, 14, 14010-14022.
- (114) Rong, X.; Kolpak, A. M. J. Phys. Chem. Lett. 2015, 6, 1785-1789.
- (115) Gorlin, Y.; Lassalle-Kaiser, B.; Benck, J. D.; Gul, S.; Webb, S. M.; Yachandra, V. K.; Yano, J.; Jaramillo, T. F. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2013**, 135, 8525-8534.

- (116) Chang, J.-K.; Lee, M.-T.; Tsai, W.-T. J. Power Sources 2007, 166, 590-594.
- (117) Lima, F. H. B.; Calegaro, M. L.; Ticianelli, E. A. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **2006**, 590, 152-160.
- (118) McBreen, J. *Electrochim. Acta* **1975**, 20, 221-225.
- (119) Kozawa, A.; Yeager, J. F. J. Electrochem. Soc. 1965, 112, 959-963.
- (120) Navrotsky, A.; Ma, C.; Lilova, K.; Birkner, N. Science 2010, 330, 199-201.
- (121) Bozzini, B.; Bocchetta, P.; Gianoncelli, A.; Mele, C.; Kiskinova, M. *ChemElectroChem* **2015**, DOI: 10.1002/celc.201500138.
- (122) Stoerzinger, K. A.; Hong, W. T.; Crumlin, E. J.; Bluhm, H.; Biegalski, M. D.; Shao-Horn, Y. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2014**, 118, 19733-19741.
- (123) Hardin, W. G.; Mefford, J. T.; Slanac, D. A.; Patel, B. B.; Wang, X.; Dai, S.; Zhao, X.; Ruoff, R. S.; Johnston, K. P.; Stevenson, K. J. *Chem. Mater.* **2014**, 26, 3368-3376.
- (124) Sun, W.; Hsu, A.; Chen, R. J. Power Sources 2011, 196, 627-635.
- (125) Park, H.-Y.; Shin, T. J.; Joh, H.-I.; Jang, J. H.; Ahn, D.; Yoo, S. J. *Electrochem. Commun.* **2014,** 41, 35-38.

