

Trends in Activity and Dissolution on RuO₂ under Oxygen Evolution Conditions: Particles versus Well-Defined Extended Surfaces

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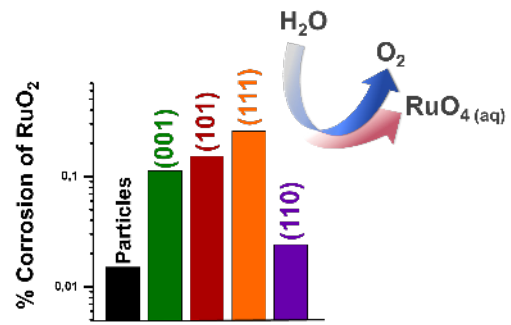
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Abstract

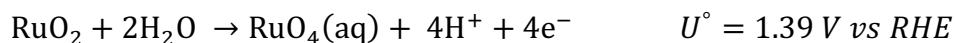
Rutile RuO₂ catalysts are the most active pure metal oxides for oxygen evolution; however, they are also unstable towards dissolution. Herein, we study the catalytic activity and stability of oriented thin films of RuO₂ with the (111), (101) and (001) orientations, in comparison to a (110) single crystal and commercial nanoparticles. These surfaces were all tested in aqueous solutions 0.05 M H₂SO₄. The initial catalyst activity ranked as follows: (001) > (101) > (111) ≈ (110). We complemented our activity data with inductively coupled plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS), to measure Ru dissolution products occurring in parallel to oxygen evolution. In contrast to earlier reports, we find that, under our experimental conditions, there is no correlation between the activity and stability.



Hydrogen production provides a means of storing electricity generated from wind and solar energy¹⁻³ in the form of chemical bonds. Hydrogen-based fuel cells can power vehicles and stationary devices; hydrogen could replace carbon or CO to reduce global CO₂ emissions from chemical and manufacturing processes. Polymer electrolyte membrane (PEM) electrolyzers can synthesize hydrogen near room temperature with rapid start up and shut down,³ ideally suited towards coupling with renewables. While hydrogen evolution, the cathode reaction occurring in a PEM electrolyzer, has minimal energy losses^{4,5}, the anodic reaction, i.e. oxygen evolution, is kinetically sluggish and limits the efficiency⁶⁻⁸.



The combination of an acidic environment and very positive (oxidizing) potentials sets severe constraints on the choice of catalysts for PEM electrolyser anodes⁹. Only oxides based on Ir^{10,11} show reasonable activity and stability, even though they still corrode at low, yet appreciable rate¹²⁻¹⁵. Oxides based on Ru are more active but less stable than those based on Ir^{14,16-19}. RuO₂ corrodes via the following reaction²⁰:



Mixed oxides of Ru and Ir exhibit a better compromise between activity and stability, forming the basis for the dimensionally stabilised anode, used extensively in the chloro-alkali industry^{18,21-23}.

Several reports have shown that oxygen evolution on RuO₂ is always associated with some degree of dissolution^{14,20,24-27}. However, the Faradaic selectivity to

RuO₂ corrosion varies over many orders of magnitude, depending on the pretreatment: ~0.01% in the case of sputter deposited thin films in 0.05 M H₂SO₄¹⁵ while it reaches values as high as ~15% for metallic Ru¹¹, also in 0.05 M H₂SO₄, and ~10% for oriented SrRuO₃ in 0.1 M KOH²⁵ (Figure 1). Figure 1 shows that RuO₂ obtained by thermal annealing^{13,15,28–30} present, on average, 2-3 orders of magnitude lower corrosion rates than metallic Ru^{11,13,20,24,29,30}, perovskite oxides containing Ru^{25,31}, hydrated RuO₂²⁹ or plasma-treated RuO₂²⁸. The Figure could suggest there is not a strong distinction between the rates of RuO_x corrosion under acidic, relative to basic, conditions; nonetheless, we note that, Cherevko et al showed, by using identical protocols at high and low pH, that there is a slight increase in alkaline solutions¹³. This is more obvious in Figure S1 where we present the mean rate dissolution of some of the catalysts presented in Figure 1.

Over three decades ago, Kötz et al. proposed that RuO₂ dissolution and oxygen evolution share a common reaction pathway and the same intermediates³². To the best of our knowledge, most studies on Ru-based oxides, thus far, have indeed suggested a correlation between dissolution rates and activity^{11,13,20,25,27,32,33}. Markovic¹⁴ and co-workers have gone so far to argue that dissolution and oxygen evolution activity are *universally* correlated on *all* noble metal surfaces. On the other hand, Mayrhofer²⁷ and co-workers observed that even though the rate of dissolution increases with the onset of OER, the extent to which OER affects metal dissolution varies. Schmidt and co-workers³⁴ used a thermodynamic argument to explain this correlation; suggesting that O₂ evolution degrades the catalyst by discharging oxide anions.

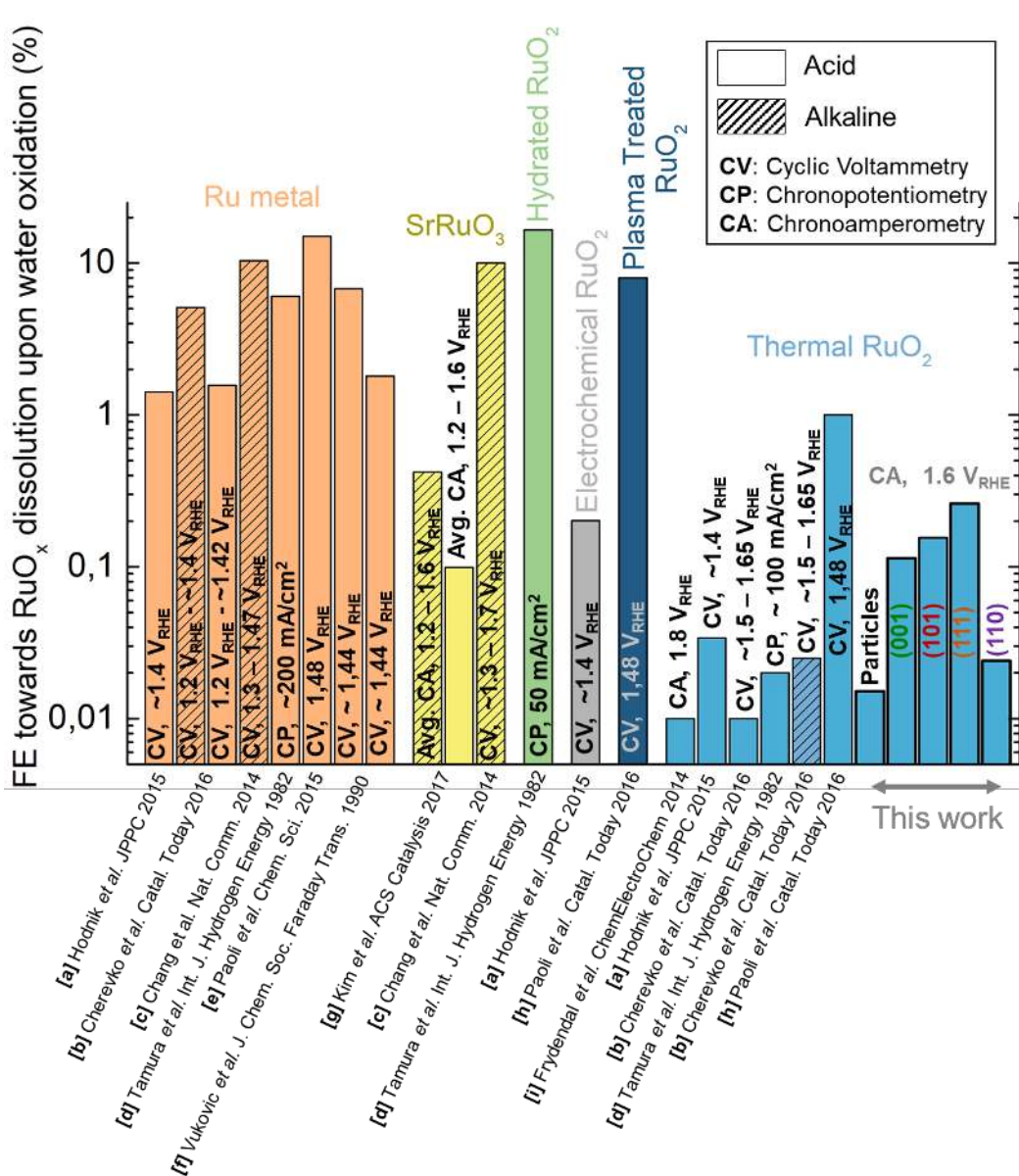


Figure 1. Comparison of the Faradaic efficiency of dissolution for Ru-based catalysts in acidic and alkaline electrolyte. The y axis represents the contribution of Ru dissolution to the measured current in the OER region, as a percentage. These values have been extracted from [a] Hodnik *et al.* for Ru metal,

electrochemically prepared RuO₂ and thermally prepared RuO₂. Ru dissolution measurements performed in 0.1 M HClO₄ using ICP-MS and at maximum of 1.4 V_{RHE} [b] Cherevko *et al.* for Ru metal, and thermally prepared RuO₂ in 0.1 M H₂SO₄ and 0.05 M NaOH. Ru dissolution measured by ICP and potential scanning from 1.2 V_{RHE} until reaching 5 mA/cm² [c] Chang *et al.* for polycrystalline Ru metal and oriented SrRuO₃ films in 0.1 M KOH. Ru dissolution measured using RRDE and scanning up to a maximum potential of ~1.485 V_{RHE} for Ru and estimated to 1-10% for SrRuO₃. [d] Tamura *et al.* measured Ru dissolution for Ru metal at ~200 mA/cm², hydrated RuO₂ at ~50 mA/cm² and thermally prepared RuO₂ at ~100 mA/cm² in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ using spectrophotometric methods. [e] Paoli *et al.* for Ru nanoparticles in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ at 1.48 V_{RHE} from a CV at 10 mV/s using RRDE. [f] Vukovic *et al.* electrodeposited Ru electrode. Type A electrode: as prepared electrode, Type B electrode: electrochemical activation of type A. Ru dissolution measured in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ using RRDE. [g] Kim *et al.* measured Ru dissolution from SrRuO₃ in 0.1 M KOH held at potentials from 1.2 to 1.6 V_{RHE} for 60 seconds each using ICP. [h] Paoli *et al.* for Ru dissolution from plasma treated and thermally annealed RuO₂ nanoparticles in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ using RRDE [i] Frydendal *et al.* for Ru dissolution from thermally prepared sputter deposited thin films in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ using ICP and EQCM at a constant potential of 1.8 V_{RHE}. [This work] Further information can be found in Supplementary Information

Earlier DFT-based studies suggest that the reaction proceeds through a series of proton-coupled electron transfers, via the intermediates *OH, *O and *OOH (where * indicates an adsorbed species) ^{35,36}. The calculations suggest that RuO₂ has the highest activity of pure oxides because it has the most optimal compromise in binding between these different intermediates. They also indicate that the active site on the RuO₂ surface is a coordinately unsaturated site (CUS), located on terraces. Liu and co-workers also calculated that below 1.58V_{NHE} the reaction is taking place on a OH/O mixed phase while at higher potential the reaction occurs on a fully O-terminated surface⁸.

DFT simulations also suggest that undercoordinated sites, such as steps or kinks, are more likely to corrode than terrace sites, both on noble metal surfaces³⁷, and oxides^{38,39}. Removing a terrace site requires the scission of more bonds than an undercoordinated site. Notably, recent DFT calculations by Dickens and Nørskov suggested that such undercoordinated sites are also the most catalytically active sites⁴⁰, in contrast to the aforementioned earlier studies^{10,41,42}.

However, our own experiments support the notion that the terrace-bound CUS sites are the active sites, as opposed to undercoordinated sites. Our in-operando surface X-ray diffraction measurements detected adsorbed *OO species on the CUS sites under oxygen evolution conditions; presumably these constitute the precursor to gas phase O₂ molecules⁴³. Moreover, on oriented RuO₂ thin films in 0.1 M KOH, the oxygen evolution activity scales with the number of CUS sites on a bulk-terminated surface⁴⁴.

Summarising the above, there is significant controversy in the literature over the extent to which oxygen evolution is intrinsically related to dissolution. This question is of critical importance, as effective strategies to stabilise the catalysts require that activity and stability be decoupled from each other^{18,38,39}.

In the current study, we probe the oxygen evolution activity of numerous different RuO₂ catalysts in 0.05 M H₂SO₄; these include (i) thin films oriented in the (100), (001), (101), and (111) directions (previously tested in 0.1 M KOH^{10,41,42}) (ii) single crystalline RuO₂(110)^{9,44,45} and (iii) commercial RuO₂ particles. We only had one (110) single crystal at our disposition. We have quantified the amount of RuO₂

being dissolved in parallel to oxygen evolution, using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). In particular, we aim to address the following questions: (a) how does the OER activity compare between RuO₂ well-defined surfaces and particles, (b) is the corrosion of RuO₂ structure sensitive under oxygen evolution conditions? and (c) to what extent are activity and dissolution correlated on RuO₂ surfaces?

We first established the catalytic activity of the different RuO₂ surfaces investigated in this study, namely the (101), (111) and (001) oriented thin films and the (110) single crystal. Schematics of the bulk terminated surfaces are shown in Figure 2a. The mean value of the current density at 1.6V_{RHE}, taken from the first CV recorded, ranks as follows: (111) thin film < (110) single crystal < particles < (101) thin film < (001) thin film (Figure S2). Comparison of the activity of the RuO₂ oriented thin films, single crystal and particles with other Ru-based catalysts under similar experimental conditions is available in Figure S3. In a rutile structure, Ru can form bonds with a total of 6 atoms. The Ru_{CUS} at the (110) and (101) facets is linked by 5 Ru-O bonds to the rest of the structure, providing one surface site for the OER. However, the Ru_{CUS} at the (001) and (111) facet forms only 4 Ru-O bonds, providing 2 empty surface sites. Consistent with our earlier reports in 0.1 M KOH^{10,41,42}, Figure 2b shows that the initial activity in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ scales with the proportion of CUS Ru-O bonds.

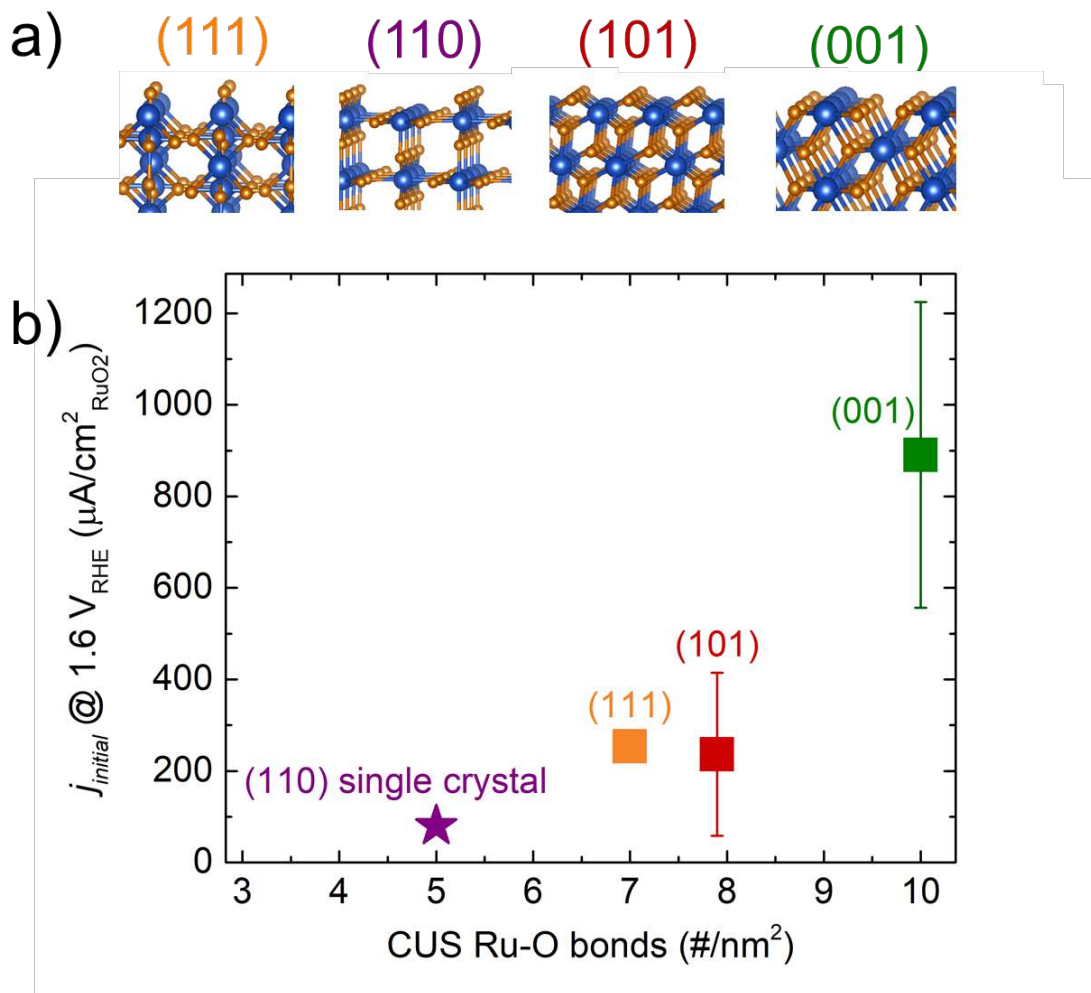


Figure 2. a) Schematics of the (111), (110), (101) and (001) surface and b) average current density measured the first cyclic voltammogram in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ over 2 hours for the (001), (111) and (101) oriented thin films and (110) single crystal, as a function of the number of CUS Ru-O bonds per nm².

Corrosion measurements on preferentially oriented thin films and RuO₂ particles were performed at 1.6 V_{RHE} for 2h. Stability test from 1.46 to 1.7 V_{RHE} using the RuO₂ particles and at 1.7 V_{RHE} for the well-defined surfaces are also available in Figure S4-5 and Figure S6, respectively. In order to evaluate the behavior of the samples for longer periods of time, the oriented thin films that were first subjected

to the stability test at 1.6 V_{RHE} were subjected to a second test, using the same experimental protocol (e.g. cycling etc, followed by the potentiostatic stability test, see Experimental). Additionally, a (110) single crystal was measured in the same experimental conditions and compared to the oriented thin films. Figure 3a and c show the OER currents measured for the first and second stability test at 1.6 V_{RHE} . The insets, respectively, show the amount of Ru dissolved during each experiment.

The first stability test shows a decay in the total current for the (001), (101) and (111) thin films over the 2 hours. On these films, any differences in total current densities between the different orientations is diminished by the end of the test. Conversely, the activity of the (110) single crystal at the end of the stability test is higher than the initial activity: this increase occurs during the first ~40 minutes, before reaching a steady state. The amount of Ru dissolved into the electrolyte increases in the following order: (110) single crystal < (111) thin film < (101) thin film < (001) thin film. The Faradaic efficiency towards RuO_x dissolution, relative to the total current density, is less than ~0.3% for the (111) surface, ~ 0.2% for the (101) surface and ~ 0.1% for the (001) surface. The (110) single crystal and the particles have the lowest Faradaic efficiency towards corrosion, at ~ 0.02% and ~ 0.01%, respectively (Figure1). We assume that the remainder of the current is consumed by O_2 evolution. The detailed explanation of the Faradaic efficiency was calculated and is available in SI.

The second stability test at 1.6 V_{RHE} (Figure 3c and d) reveals striking differences from the first (Figure 3a and b). In the second test, all surfaces exhibit an initial current density significantly higher than for the first test after 2h. On the other hand, the dissolution rates are much lower than the first test. For example, on the (001) film, 5 times less Ru dissolves into solution than during the first test. While the average current densities on the (001) thin film and (110) single crystal are similar, the corrosion rates are quite distinct. Moreover, the (110) single crystal shows much higher activity during the second stability test; however, its corrosion rate is similar to the first test.

Figure 3e and f show the activity show the amount of Ru dissolved as a function of activity the first and second stability test. We note that bubble build up would block both RuO_2 dissolution and O_2 in exactly the same manner. The current density shown in the initial CV (Figure S2), might be more representative of the intrinsic activity of the catalyst, as the build up of O_2 bubbles would not limit the current densities to the same extent. Nevertheless, we take the view that in order to probe the relationship between activity and stability towards dissolution, it is far more appropriate to correlate the Ru dissolved during the course of the potentiostatic stability test to the mean value of the current density over the same time period, as shown in Figure 3.

The variation in current density and Ru dissolution rate for the different crystallographic surfaces show that both activity and stability are surface specific. In the first test at 1.6 V_{RHE} , there is a positive correlation between activity and dissolution rates amongst the thin film samples. However, the particles and the

single crystal show much lower values for the average activity than the films, and intermediate dissolution rates. The (110) single crystal and the RuO₂ particles have very similar average catalytic activity during the first stability test, at around 45 $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$. This observation is consistent with the transmission electron microscopy and X-ray diffraction analyses, which suggest the nanoparticles have a preferential orientation along the (110) planes (see Figure S7).

The second stability test reveals a totally different trend. While in the first test, there was a clear correlation between activity and stability amongst the thin films, there was no such correlation in the second test. The RuO₂ (110) single crystal surface showed the highest activity and stability (lowest amount of dissolved Ru). The activity of the oriented thin films decrease slightly during the second test, while the amount of Ru dissolved is significantly lower. The activity of the RuO₂ particles decreases too but the Ru dissolution stays similar. The activity of the (110) single crystal increased while the total Ru dissolution decreased. Figure S8 compares of the Ru dissolution rate to the activity recorded by cyclic voltammetry before and after stability tests.

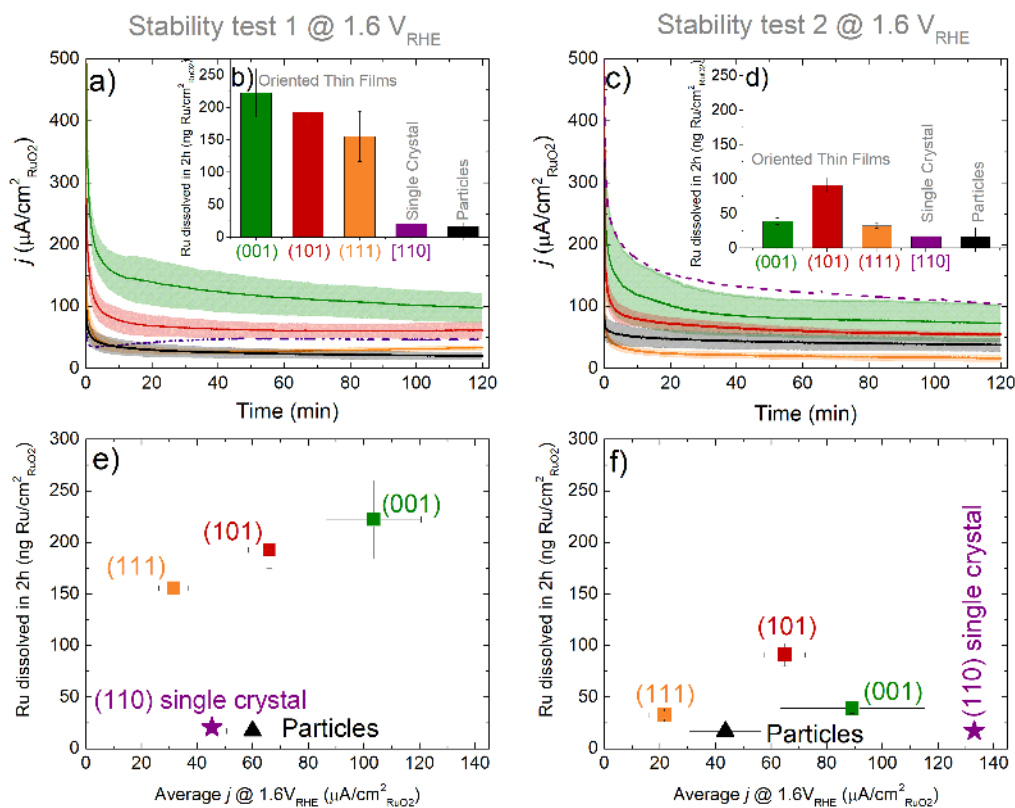


Figure 3. Two-hour potentiostatic measurements at 1.6 V_{RHE} in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ a) First stability and c) second stability test for the RuO₂ particles, and (111), (101), (110) and (001) surfaces. The insets (b,d) show the amount of Ru dissolved for each sample measured for their respective stability test. e) and f) Evaluation of the activity-stability relationship through the analysis of the average current at 1.6 V_{RHE} obtained from the stability tests as function of the amount of Ru dissolved for e) the first and f) second stability test at 1.6 V_{RHE}, respectively. The squares represented the (001), (101), (111) oriented thin films, the star the (110) single crystal and triangles the commercial RuO₂ particles.

The fact that we always observe some degree of corrosion of RuO₂ particles and the well-defined thin films (Figure 3) is consistent with earlier reports in the literature^{13,14,20,25}. On average, the current corresponding to Ru dissolution is \leq 0.3% of the total OER current; we thus approximate the oxygen evolution current density to be equal to the total current density. This low Faradaic selectivity to corrosion is comparable to the values obtained from heat treated RuO₂ nanoparticles²⁸ or sputter deposited RuO₂¹⁵ under similar experimental conditions. The dissolution of RuO₂ translates into an increase in surface roughness, corroborated by the enhanced capacitance value, following the stability test (Figure S9-11). We calculate that the amount of Ru dissolved at 1.6 V_{RHE} over the duration of the 2 hour stability test ranges between 1.5 to 2.5 ML, depending on the surface orientation. Consequently, by the end of the first stability test, the surface termination may differ appreciably from the pristine surface. However, while Ru dissolution most probably modifies the surface termination, it only represents up to ~4% of the total amount of Ru in the 25 nm thin film.

In this work, we also note that the potentiostatic measurements suggest a loss in catalytic activity over time, implying that the freshly exposed surface, formed as a result of dissolution has a distinct RuO₂ termination to the as-prepared surface (Figures S6-8).

The decrease in activity during the chronoamperometry measurements can also be related to bubble formation. The static electrode configuration increases the amount of bubbles at the surface of the catalysts, blocking more active sites than when using a rotating disk electrode setup. This phenomenon is evident when

comparing the current density at the end of the 2 hours of the first stability test 1.6 V (Figure S12), relative to the current density at the beginning of the second stability test (Figure S12); bubbles were removed between tests. In this case, it turns out that the hydrophobicity of the RuO₂ surfaces does not play a determining role in the activity measurement, i.e. the activity measured by CV is comparable to the average current by CA, as shown in Figure S13.

We consider that our measurements underestimate the intrinsic dissolution rates of RuO₂ particles: the addition of Nafion to the ink preparation may result in lower mobility and higher local concentrations of Ru cations in solution, stabilising the surface. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that we observed some degree of degradation of the substrate when using FTO, which could partially explain the loss in activity over time ⁴⁶.

Using the Ru dissolution rates and the current measured at constant potential, we aimed to establish a relationship between the oxygen evolution activity of RuO₂ and its stability. However, our finding contrasts strongly with other reports of Ru-based catalysts both tested in alkaline^{13,25} and acid^{13,14,41,47}, which show a consistent correlation between Ru dissolution rates and activity. The currents and RuO₂ dissolution rates from the first potentiostatic measurements at 1.6 V_{RHE} (Figure 3) decrease in the order (001) > (101) > (111). However, for the second test, there is no correlation between activity and stability. We speculate that the drastic increase in current density of the RuO₂ (110) single crystal could be due to surface reconstruction. Our observations show that the corrosion rates are intrinsically dependent on the surface structure. When comparing the first stability

test at $1.6V_{\text{RHE}}$ to the second one (Figure 3), it seems that the sites responsible from the OER activity and stability are decoupled; the change in RuO_2 dissolution rates between first and second stability tests are not matched by changes in activity. During the first stability test, the (001) surface has the most active and most unstable surface: the lower corrosion rate, but similar oxygen evolution activity, during the second test, suggests that the sites most prone to corrosion have dissolved away, while the active sites for O_2 evolution remain.

Our results support the notion that the density of surface defects, such as undercoordinated sites, play a major role in controlling the stability of surface atoms^{3,13,37-39}. We suggest that (001) thin films contain the highest initial amount of surface defects, followed by the (101), (111) and (110). We hypothesize that the amount of defects on the as-received particles and single crystal is significantly lower than on the oriented thin film, explaining the much lower corrosion rate during the first corrosion test. In a similar manner, the RuO_2 particles and (110) single crystal have a similar initial activity but different initial corrosion rates. Our results show that RuO_x corrosion is generally much more pronounced during the first stability test. We conjecture that the amount of defects decreases over time before reaching a more stable state. Indeed, during the second stability test, with the exception of the (101) surface, there is little difference between the corrosion rates of the various surfaces.

The aim of this work was to investigate the possible relationship between activity and stability obtained from RuO₂ particles, preferentially oriented RuO₂ surfaces and a single crystal. The correlation between the activity and CUS Ru-O bonds reported in this study corroborates the previous results in base⁴¹. We therefore propose that the active site for oxygen evolution in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ to be the Ru_{CUS} site.

We performed potentiostatic measurements of RuO₂ electrodes, coupled with ICP-MS to probe RuO₂ dissolution. On the basis of our results, we propose that surface structure not only has an important role in controlling activity, but also corrosion. From the first stability test at 1.6 V_{RHE}, it appears that corrosion of RuO₂ is structure sensitive. However, the active sites responsible for the oxygen evolution seem to be decoupled from the Ru sites that corrode the fastest. *In other words, activity and stability do not appear to be correlated on RuO₂ surfaces.* Based on the assumption that undercoordinated sites are responsible for dissolution, we conjecture that they are not the active sites for oxygen evolution under our experimental conditions. More detailed investigations of the surface structure are needed to elucidate the changes induced by the electrochemical environment^{44,48,49}.

The evidence we provide herein, suggesting that oxygen evolution and dissolution occur from different sites, has profound implications on future catalyst design. Such understanding corroborates our earlier work on the role of surface Ir in stabilising RuO_x¹⁸ and surface Ti on MnO_x³⁹, without compromising activity. Such

work points to ample opportunities for engendering further improvements to the stability of oxygen evolution catalysts under acidic conditions.

Supporting information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: XXXXX

A description of the experimental methods, additional characterization, electrochemical testing, and microscopy images included in the SI

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