

# Sr dope rutile-RuO<sub>2</sub> for enhanced Proton exchange membrane electrolyzed water

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## Abstract

As an OER catalyst under acidic conditions, Ir has a high cost and poor activity. Ru is the most promising Ir substitute due to its lower cost and higher catalytic activity, and the development of Ir substitutes has become an urgent need. Herein, we have designed and prepared Sr-doped RuO<sub>2</sub> to achieve an ultra-low overpotential (197 mV@10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>). In the PEM single cell, a low pool voltage (1.686 V) was achieved at a current density of 1 A cm<sup>-2</sup>, together with a high stability retention over 400 h of testing. In addition, the catalytic degradation rates (4.63 ng h<sup>-1</sup>) were significantly lower than those of commercial RuO<sub>2</sub>, and the activity is attributed to the increased number of Ru<sup>3+</sup> active sites and the very small size (5.10 nm). This work provides a new approach for the development of non-Ir-based catalysts with high activity and stability for acidic oxygen precipitation.

## Introduction

At present, the most important source of energy for human beings is still fossil energy, however, the global warming problem caused by carbon emissions has greatly affected the living environment of human beings<sup>[1]</sup>. The development of new energy sources with low carbon emissions has become the goal of many studies. Hydrogen is considered a clean energy source because it produces only water when it releases energy<sup>[2, 3]</sup>. However, the main methods of hydrogen production now are still accompanied by large carbon emissions<sup>[4]</sup>. The use of clean energy sources such as wind power and photovoltaic power coupled with electrolysis of water for hydrogen production is ideal for hydrogen production<sup>[5, 6]</sup>. Currently, the mainstream water electrolysis methods are the following four types: Alkaline water electrolysis (AWE), Proton exchange membrane water electrolysis (PEMWE), Anion exchange membrane

water electrolysis (AEMWE) and Solid oxide electrolyte water electrolysis (SOEWE)<sup>[7]</sup>. PEMWE has the advantages of high integration, fast startup and shutdown, high hydrogen purity, and is also considered the most ideal way to produce hydrogen<sup>[8, 9]</sup>.

Due to the anode high potential, strong acid caused by the extremely harsh working environment, the anode OER catalyst selection surface is small, only Ir, Ru and other precious metals can ensure high activity<sup>[9-11]</sup>. The poor activity of Ir-based catalysts and their high price limit their application in PEMWE<sup>[12]</sup>. It is essential to develop non-Ir OER catalysts<sup>[13, 14]</sup>. Ru is considered the most promising Ir substitute because of its excellent OER performance and its price<sup>[15-17]</sup>, which is only one tenth of that of Ir. However, it also has the problem of poor activity and stability<sup>[18]</sup>. To meet the requirements of practical applications, Ru-based catalysts have been modified by doping, loading, etc. Shi et al. modulated the charge structure of Ru by Sn-doped RuO<sub>2</sub> formed solid solution, which substantially improved the stability<sup>[19]</sup>, Wu et al. modified the intermediate evolution mechanism during the OER of Ru-based catalysts by doping the RuO<sub>2</sub> lattice gap with Ni in order to improve the durability of the OER process<sup>[20]</sup>.

Here, we prepared a Sr-doped RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Here, we prepared a Sr-doped RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst with enhanced OER activity. The as-prepared electrocatalytic electrodes show excellent OER activity in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (197 mV overpotential at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and long-term stability (more than 400 h at 500 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>). Excellent activity and stability are proving to be a promising anode catalyst for the electrolysis of water.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Chemicals and materials

The chemicals and materials used in this experiment were used directly without any additional processing. Strontium chloride (SrCl<sub>2</sub> 99.5%) and sodium chloride (NaCl 99.5%) was purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (shanghai, China). Ruthenium (IV) oxide (RuO<sub>2</sub> 98%) was purchased from Adamas-beta® (shanghai, China). Ruthenium(III) chloride hydrate (RuCl<sub>3</sub> xH<sub>2</sub>O) was purchased from Aladdin Biochemical Technology Co., Ltd. (shanghai, China). Nafion ionomer and proton exchange membrane (N 115), was purchased from Suzhou Sinero Technology.,

Ltd. (Suzhou, China).

## **2.2. Material synthesis**

### **2.2.1 Synthesis of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub>**

In a typical operation, weigh a certain amount of SrCl<sub>2</sub> to configure 1 mg/mL SrCl<sub>2</sub> solution and weigh amount of RuCl<sub>3</sub> xH<sub>2</sub>O to configure 20 mg/mL RuCl<sub>3</sub> solution. 2 mL RuCl<sub>3</sub> solution and 860 μL SrCl<sub>2</sub> solution was mixed in 100 mL beaker. After 30 min stirring, add 1.5 g NaCl and 10 mL ultrapure water and then stirring continuously for one hour until completely dissolved. The mixture was placed in a refrigerator for 12 h and then transferred to a freeze dryer for drying. Anneal the mixture in a muffle furnace in 400 °C for 2 h. By washing and drying with water, Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> was obtained.

### **2.2.2 Synthesis of RuO<sub>2</sub>**

2 mL RuCl<sub>3</sub> solution, 1.5 g NaCl and 10 mL ultrapure water was mixed in 100 mL beaker. The subsequent operation is the same as in 2.2.1

## **2.3. Characterizations**

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were measured with a powder diffractometer (Bruker D8 Advance) in reflection mode, which was equipped with a Cu-Kα radiation source with an acceleration voltage of 40 kV and a range in  $2\theta=10^{\circ}$ - $90^{\circ}$ . Catalyst morphology was characterized by spherical aberration-corrected transmission electron microscopy (TEM Themis Z) with high-angle annular dark field – scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) mappings analysis. Analyzing the electronic structure of samples using x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS Axis Supra) with a monochromatic Al Kα X-ray source. Raman spectra were used in study of the structure of chemical bonds under an excitation of 633 nm laser light in the range of 0-1000 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Elemental composition of the catalysts was test by ICP-MS.

## **2.4. Electrode preparation and electrochemical measurements**

All electrochemical measurements were performed using the CHI 760E electrochemical work station with three-electrode system. The working electrode was glassy carbon electrode with a calibre of 0.5 cm. A carbon stick as the counter electrode

and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as the reference electrode. To prepare the working electrode, 4 mg sample powder was dispersed ultrasonically into the mixture of 500  $\mu\text{L}$  isopropanol, 460  $\mu\text{L}$  Ultrapure water and 40  $\mu\text{L}$  commercial Nafion solution (5 wt.%) to obtain a homogeneous catalyst ink. 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of the ink was drop-casted onto the surface of glass carbon electrode and dried under infrared lamp. The catalysts loading of working electrode was  $0.2 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ . All electrochemical test were using 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  solution and in ordinary temperature and pressure.

Before electrochemical testing, the reference electrode was calibrated by using a reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE)<sup>[21]</sup>. Typically, 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  is continuously fed with  $\text{H}_2$  for 40 min until the electrolyte is saturated with hydrogen. Two Pt mesh were served as working electrode and counter electrode, SCE as the reference electrode. Using cyclic voltammetry (CV) test between -0.3 V and 0.2 V at a scan rate of  $2 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ . The corrected potential is half the sum of the potentials when the oxidizing and reducing currents are 0. In this work, the corrective potential is -0.25 V, so we converted the measure potential to RHE by the following Eq.(1):

$$E_{\text{RHE}} = E_{\text{measure}} + 0.25 \text{ V} \quad (1)$$

The linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) tests were performed at a scan rate of  $5 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$  with 90 %  $i\text{R}$  compensation. Tafel slopes were calculated from the polarization curves. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) tests were recorded in the frequency range of 10000 Hz to 0.01 Hz at the 1.45 V (vs. RHE). Double layer capacitance ( $C_{\text{dl}}$ ) was evaluated by CV test at different scan rates (10, 20, 30, 40 and 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$ ) in the non-Faradaic potential range (between 0.98 to 1.08 V vs. RHE). The scan rate is a linear function of the current difference and the slope is the  $C_{\text{dl}}$ . The electrochemical active surface area (ECSA) can be calculated by means of the following equation:

$$\text{ECSA} = \frac{C_{\text{dl}}}{C_s} \times \text{AS} \quad (2)$$

Where  $C_s$  ( $\text{mF cm}^{-2}$ ) is specific capacitance, AS ( $\text{cm}^2$ ) is the electrode's area. In this work, the value of  $C_s$  reference to previous studies to be  $0.12 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$ .

Chronopotentiometry (CP) measurements were used in stability testing and the current is  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . The working electrode was Ti mesh coating the catalysts with the cargo of  $0.2 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ .

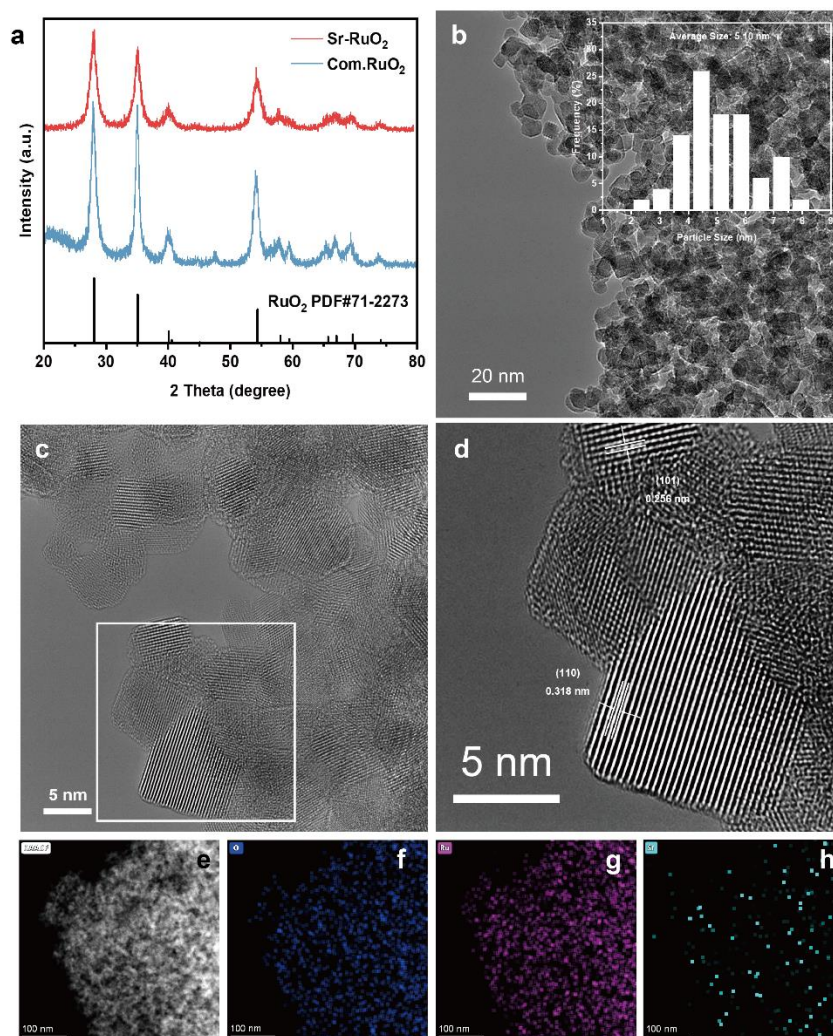
## 2.5. PEMWE test

To further validate catalyst feasibility, we use PEMWE cell to evaluate the catalysts' performance. 40% Pt/C was the cathode catalysts with a cargo of  $0.5 \text{ mg Pt cm}^{-2}$ , Our sample as the anode catalysts with a cargo of  $2 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$ . N 115 was the proton exchange membrane without further treatment. Caban paper was used in gas diffusion layer in cathode, Ti fiber paper as the diffusion layer in anodes. To prepare the membrane electrode assembly (MEA), we use catalysts coated membrane (CCM) method. The anodes ink was prepared by the following method: 12.0 mg sample catalysts, 2.5 mL water and 2.5 mL isopropanol were mixed in 5 mL thermos flask, then sonicate and mix for 30 min and add 160  $\mu\text{L}$  ionomer. The cathode ink contains 8 mg Pt/C. Both inks were coated in the two side of porton exchange membrane by sonic spraying in  $85^\circ\text{C}$ .

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Fabrication and characterizations of catalysts

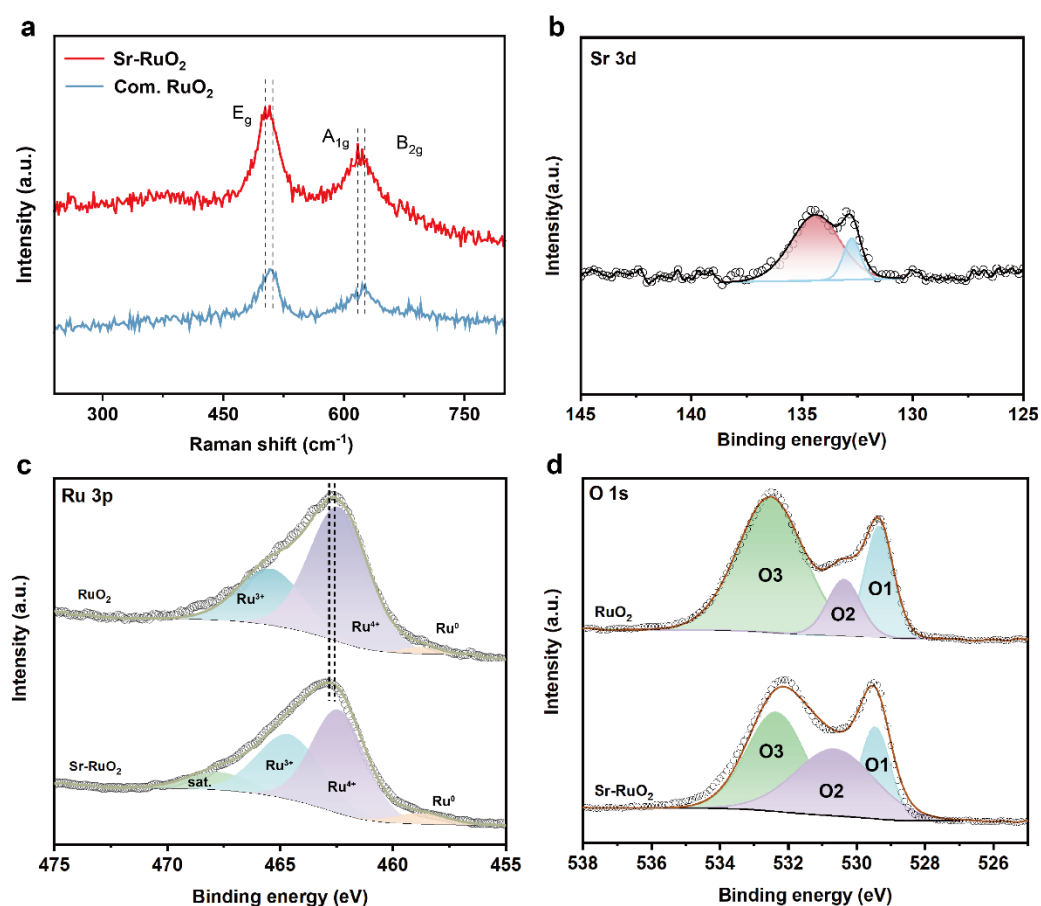
Sr-doped  $\text{RuO}_2$  was synthesized by salt-sealing method. Specifically,  $\text{NaCl}$ ,  $\text{SrCl}_2$  and  $\text{RuCl}_3$  mixed in water and then remove the solvent. The intermediates were oxidized by high temperature via muffle furnace and then remove  $\text{NaCl}$  by washing with ultrapure water. As a function of the amount of  $\text{SrCl}_2$  added, we named the resulting samples  $\text{Sr}_2\text{-RuO}_2$ ,  $\text{Sr}_4\text{-RuO}_2$ ,  $\text{Sr}_8\text{RuO}_2$  and  $\text{Sr}_{10}\text{-RuO}_2$ . The mass contents of Sr and Ru in the products obtained are analyzed by the ICP-MS method. The ICP results showed that the Sr contents in  $\text{Sr}_2\text{-RuO}_2$ ,  $\text{Sr}_4\text{-RuO}_2$  and  $\text{Sr}_8\text{-RuO}_2$  were 1.5%, 2.8% and 5.3% (Fig. S1), respectively. Among the as-prepared catalysts,  $\text{Sr}_2\text{-RuO}_2$  exhibits the highest OER performance in 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . Accordingly, most of the characterizations in this paper are focused on this catalyst.



**Figure 1. The crystalline structure and morphology of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst.** (a) The XRD pattern of the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. (b) The TEM and Particle size distribution statistics of the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. (c, d) The HR-TEM of the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. (e-f) The HAADF and corresponding element mapping images of the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst.

As indicated in Fig. 2a, X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of RuO<sub>2</sub> and Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> show the same type of crystal structure attributed to rutile RuO<sub>2</sub> (PDF#71-2273). However, the XRD signal of Sr is not found in the patterns of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub>. This could be related to the low Sr quantity in the catalysts according to the XRD result of Sr<sub>10</sub>-RuO<sub>2</sub>. When the Sr addition is 10 %, a diffraction peak appears at  $2\theta = 32^\circ$  (Fig. S2), which corresponds to the perovskite SrRuO<sub>3</sub> (PDF#89-5715). There is only one crystallographic peak that shows Sr doping in the RuO<sub>2</sub> lattice. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) are used for characterization of the morphology of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub>. The catalysts were found to

be in the form of particles about 10 nm in size, according to the SEM images (Fig.S3). In order to more clearly observe the morphology of the catalyst, the morphology of the sample was characterized by TEM. As shown in Fig. 1b, the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> was in the form of particles, and its diameter was 5.10 nm corresponding to the statistics of the particle size distribution. The micromorphology of RuO<sub>2</sub> was in the form of particles as well, only with a larger particle diameter (Fig.S4). From the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub>, two types of crystal plane spacings including 0.319 nm and 0.256 nm, attributed to (101) and (110) planes of RuO<sub>2</sub>, were clearly observed (Fig. 1d). This was found to agree with the corresponding XRD results. Furthermore, Sr, Ru and O elements are uniformly distributed in the catalyst as shown by the high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) image and the elemental mapping results based on energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX). Meantime, the atomic fraction of Sr/Ru is 1.5%, which is close to the result of ICP-MS (Fig.S5).



**Figure 2. Spectroscopy characterization.** (a) Raman spectrum of the catalysts,

(b) XPS Sr 3d spectra, (c) XPS Ru 3p<sub>3/2</sub> spectra, (d) XPS O 1s spectra

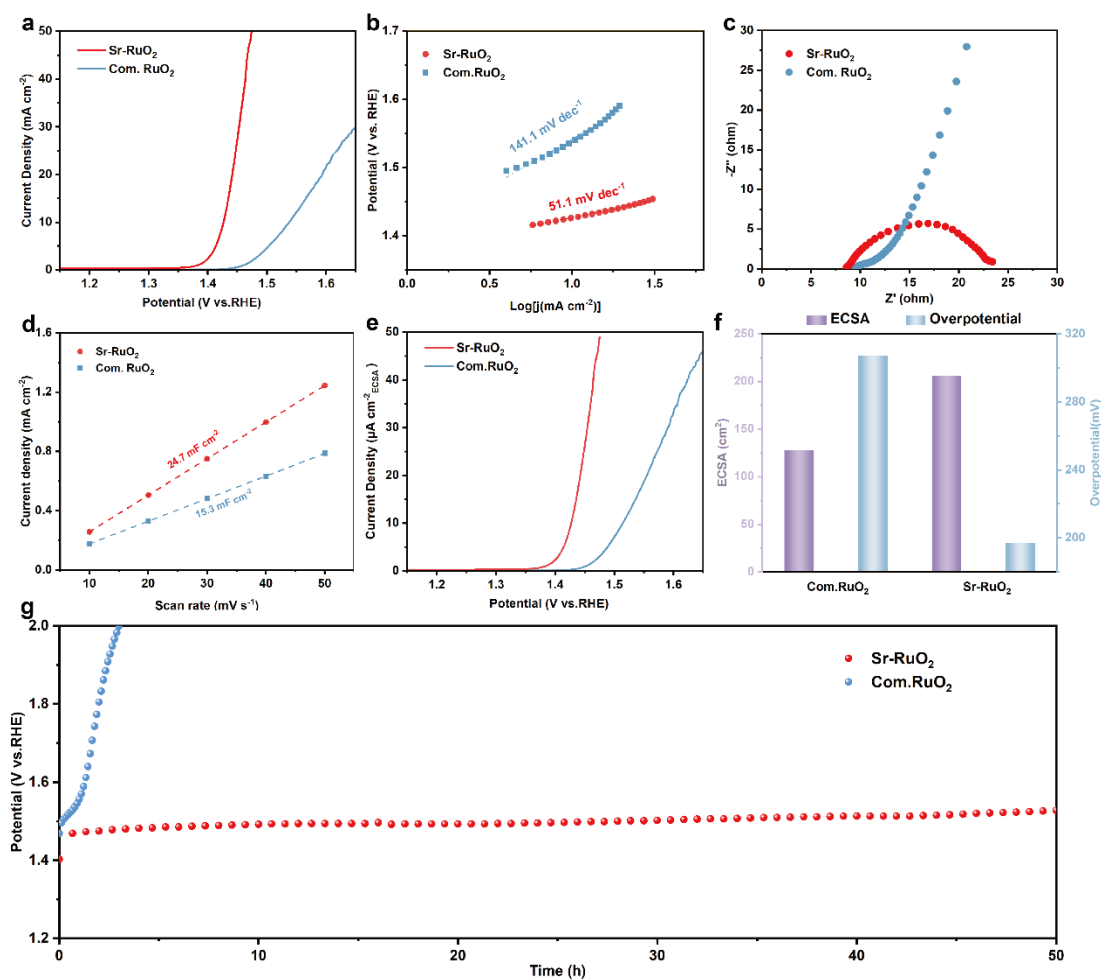
The Raman spectra of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub> were shown in Fig 2a, which two strong peaks in 510 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 626 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The peak at 510 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates the E<sub>g</sub> peak, which is caused by the bending vibrational mode of the Ru-O bonds of rutile RuO<sub>2</sub>. The peak around 626 cm<sup>-1</sup> is the A<sub>1g</sub> peak caused by the stretching mode of the Ru-O bond in rutile RuO<sub>2</sub><sup>[22-24]</sup>. Raman peaks related to Sr were not observed, which may be due to the low level of Sr. Meanwhile, it was found that the doping of Sr shifts the RuO<sub>2</sub> Raman peak to red, because the presence of Sr decreases the arrangement degree of RuO<sub>2</sub> chemical bonds<sup>[25, 26]</sup>. The valence states of different elements in the catalysts are analyzed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As shown in Fig. 2b, the Sr 3d spectra of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> appear to have two peaks at 134.6 eV and 132.9 eV, which are assigned to Sr 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Sr 3d<sub>5/2</sub>, respectively<sup>[27]</sup>. Corresponding Sr peaks were measured, demonstrating successful Sr doping in RuO<sub>2</sub>. The fine spectrum of Ru 3p shows three peaks of Ru 3p<sub>1/2</sub> (485.15 eV) and Ru 3p<sub>3/2</sub> (463.03 eV) (Fig. S6). Sr doping shifts Ru 3p<sub>3/2</sub> by 0.3 eV in the direction of high binding energy. Ru<sup>3+</sup> (464.59 eV), Ru<sup>4+</sup> (462.40 eV), and Ru<sup>0</sup> (458.77 eV) were obtained by split-peak fitting analysis of Ru 3p<sub>3/2</sub> (Fig 2c)<sup>[28]</sup>. The doping of Sr generated more Ru<sup>3+</sup> sites, which favored the activity<sup>[29]</sup>, and the average valence state of Ru in Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> was 3.37, lower than that of RuO<sub>2</sub> (3.61). The reason may be that the electron from Sr<sup>2+</sup> was transferred to nearby Ru sites through bridging oxygen to produce more low valent Ru sites. This enhanced the catalytic activity and stability of OER by modulating the adsorption of oxygen intermediates<sup>[30]</sup>. Three different surface-oxygenated species were deconvoluted at 529.52 eV, 530.52 eV, and 532.51 eV. These correspond to the lattice oxygen of Ru-O, the surface OH sites, and the H<sub>2</sub>O species, respectively (Fig. 2d). The higher proportion of surface OH sites in Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> (38.17%) as compared to RuO<sub>2</sub> (22.78%) predicts a higher activity of the OER<sup>[31]</sup>.

### 3.2. Electrochemical oxygen evolution performance

The OER performances of the electrocatalysts are measured by three-electrode system with 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution. All the potentials are calculated with respect to the



reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) with respect to the calibrated SCE reference electrode. The linear sweep voltammetry result show that a low catalytic overpotential ( $\eta$ ) of 197 mV is required for Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> to provide a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>. This is 110 mV lower than commercial RuO<sub>2</sub>. Tafel slope is calculated from the LSV curve. As shown in Figure 3b, the Tafel slope of the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst is 51.1 mV dec<sup>-1</sup>. The lower the Tafel slope, the higher the electrochemical kinetics.



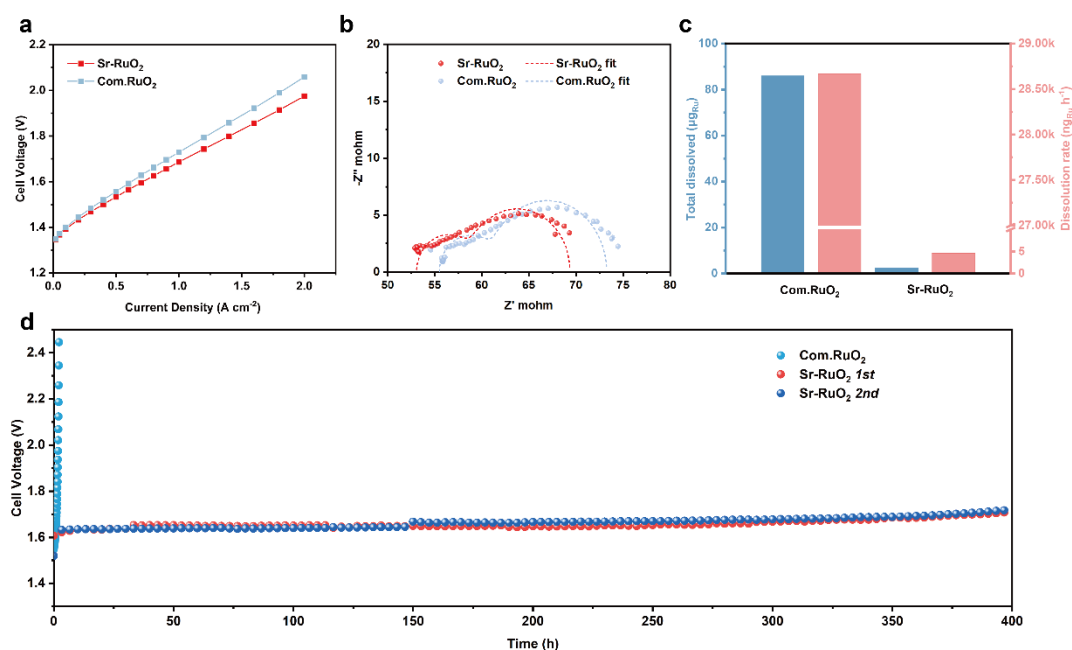
**Figure 3. OER performance in three-electrode systems.** (a) LSV curves with a scan rate of 5 mV s<sup>-1</sup> in 0.5 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at room temperature, (b) Tafel slop, (c) Nyquist plot of EIS, (d) C<sub>dl</sub> of catalysts, (e) LSV normalized by ECSA, (f) ECSA and overpotential in 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, (g) Stability testing in 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>

Charge transfer capability is analyzed by the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The EIS test shown in Figure 3c was performed at an overpotential of 220 mV. EIS is plotted as a Nyquist curve with its intercept on x as ohmic impedance in R<sub>Ω</sub>. The R<sub>Ω</sub> of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub> are similar at 8.8 Ω and 11.5 Ω, respectively. This

indicates that the Sr doping slightly improves the conductivity of RuO<sub>2</sub>. The charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) is obtained by fitting the circuit, and Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> has a lower  $R_{ct}$  (13.9  $\Omega$ ), while RuO<sub>2</sub> is 582.3  $\Omega$ . The lower charge transfer resistance proves that the faster kinetic rate of the Sr doped RuO<sub>2</sub> is higher. Catalyst double layer capacitance ( $C_{dl}$ ) can be calculated from non-Faraday interval CV studies at different scan rates.  $C_{dl}$  of 24.7 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> and 15.3 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> for Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub>, respectively, were obtained by linear fitting, with larger  $C_{dl}$  indicating the possibility of more active site exposure. The electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) was further calculated from the  $C_{dl}$ . The ECSA of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> was 205 cm<sup>2</sup>, which was about 30% higher than that of RuO<sub>2</sub>. This may be due to the smaller particle size. It was found in Fig 3e that the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst also had a higher electrochemical activity, indicating its higher intrinsic activity, using the ECSA-normalizing LSV curves. A constant current test at a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> was used to test the electrochemical stability (Fig. 3g). In our tests, commercial RuO<sub>2</sub> showed a voltage increase of 500 mV in less than three hours, while Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> showed an insignificant voltage increase after 50 hours of testing. This proves that Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> has a higher stability. Simultaneously, the constant CV test method (Fig. S8) was used to test the stability. After 10,000 revolutions of the CV test, we found some variation in the LSV curve before and after, with an overpotential rise of 27 mV at 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>.

For further measurement of the activity and stability of the catalyst under high current conditions, a PEM single cell was used for testing. Commercial 40% Pt/C (0.5 mg<sub>pt</sub> cm<sup>-2</sup>) and Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> (2 mg cm<sup>-2</sup>) were used as anodes, respectively. Another PEM single cell, constructed with commercial RuO<sub>2</sub>, was used for comparison. As shown in Fig. 4a, the PEM cell composed of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> has better performance. In particular, cell voltages of only 1.686 and 1.975 V are required to provide current densities of 1 and 2 A cm<sup>-2</sup>, respectively, far outperforming commercial RuO<sub>2</sub> (1.729 V@1 A cm<sup>-2</sup> and 2.059 V@2 A cm<sup>-2</sup>). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were performed at a cell voltage of 1.6 V and were fitted using the fitting circuit shown in Figure S9. The results show that Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> corresponds to an anodic  $R_{ct}$  of 11.1  $\Omega$  in the PEM cell, which is lower than that of RuO<sub>2</sub> (12.4  $\Omega$ ). This demonstrates higher anodic kinetic rates.

Electrochemical stability was tested at a constant current density of  $500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 4d), Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> has a higher stability. Specifically, the cell voltage hardly increased after 400 h of test, whereas commercial RuO<sub>2</sub> rapidly decomposed within a few hours. Catalyst stability was further determined by analyzing the Ru ion content in the effluent water during PEM cell operation using ICP-MS. The dissolution rate of Ru in the Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> PEM cell was  $4.63 \text{ ng h}^{-1}$ , which was much lower than that of commercial RuO<sub>2</sub> ( $28.67 \text{ mg h}^{-1}$ ). This further demonstrates the higher stability of Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub>.



**Figure 4. Performance test of PEM water electrolyzers.** (a) polarization curve, (b) Nyquist plots and fitting curve of EIS, (c) durability tests at the current density of  $500 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  in PEM water electrolyzers

#### 4. Conclusions

Sr-RuO<sub>2</sub> synthesized using a simple salt capping method has a rutile conformation that maintains RuO<sub>2</sub>. It has more Ru<sup>3+</sup> high activity sites, which is the cause of its high activity. It has high OER activity and stability at 1.5% Sr content. The overpotential ( $\eta$ ) is 197 mV at  $10 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , while only 1.686 V is required to drive a current of  $1 \text{ A cm}^{-2}$  in a PEM electrolytic cell, while maintaining high stability in a 400h test to a highly promising OER catalyst.

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