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# COMMUNICATION

## A general route for $RuO_2$ deposition on metal oxides from $RuO_4$ <sup>†</sup>

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A novel method for the deposition of  $RuO_2$  from  $RuO_4(g)$  on diverse metal oxides has been developed by grafting dopamine onto the otherwise un-reactive metal oxide surface. Oxygen evolution reaction on TiO<sub>2</sub> and the photoelectrochemical improvement of WO<sub>3</sub> by deposition of RuO<sub>2</sub> are just a few examples where this novel deposition method can be used.

Ruthenium dioxide (and metallic Ru) is widely used, for heterogeneous catalysis including oxidation reactions, reduction/hydrogenation reactions and ammonia synthesis; electrochemical/ photoelectrochemical reactions including Oxygen Evolution<sup>1</sup> (OER), Hydrogen Evolution (HER), Oxygen Reduction (ORR, combined with Pt or Ir)<sup>2</sup> as well as the chloro-alkali process to produce Cl<sub>2</sub> and NaOH. Other applications of Ru and RuO<sub>2</sub> are in electronic materials where the high conductivity can be exploited for usage in DRAM capacitors, and battery materials.<sup>3</sup> RuO<sub>2</sub> is especially regarded as being amongst the most promising electrode materials for super-capacitor<sup>4</sup> applications.

Although there are many uses for Ru and RuO<sub>2</sub> the incorporation, of this high-performance material, into industrial applications, is very limited due to the high cost of Ru. In many cases the overall cost of utilizing RuO<sub>2</sub> could be decreased if an economically feasible method, which provides high stability and increased surface area, could be achieved. Furthermore, due to the great chemical resistance of RuO<sub>2</sub> it is desirable to make thin coatings that can prevent the support material from being in contact with the chemical environment. Advances in chemical synthesis<sup>5,6</sup> have provided mesoporous RuO<sub>2</sub> materials, which provide an increased accessible surface area. In addition, conformal RuO<sub>2</sub> coating can be achieved by atomic layer deposition (ALD). However, this requires expensive setups and in many cases exotic organic Ru complexes which need to be tailored depending on the metal oxide support that is being used.

Until now there was no general synthesis route in which  $RuO_2$  can be deposited from  $RuO_4(g)$  onto a metal oxide, producing a thin semi-continuous, conformal or thin particulate coating that can be applied to any geometry and type of substrate

in an economical and easy way. Herein, we describe a 3 step method that is generally applicable to most metal oxides: (1) functionalization of the metal oxide host with a grafting agent, (2) reaction of the functionalized group with gas phase  $RuO_4$ and (3) post-treatment of the metal-oxide $-RuO_2$  composite to obtain the required properties. This method is flexible, since the modification of these 3 steps could be used to include other families of support materials by changing the grafting molecule or the post-treatment conditions after deposition of  $RuO_2$ .

Titanium dioxide (P25 or Degusa Vp Disp "W2730X" on fluorine doped tin oxide (FTO)) and tungsten trioxide (electrodeposited on FTO) were chosen as examples of metal oxide supports to show how this general  $RuO_2$  deposition method works. Many other metal oxides can also been functionalized with  $RuO_2$  and are shown in Table 1 as a reference. The functionalization (step 1, Scheme 1) of the metal oxide consists of the grafting of 20 mM dopamine hydrochloride ((HO)<sub>2</sub>C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>NH<sub>2</sub>HCl) onto the metal oxide, followed by washing of the metal oxide to remove non-grafted dopamine (see ESI† for full details on the grafting procedure).

X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy of the N1s region for a dopamine functionalized  $TiO_2$  sample (Fig. S4a, ESI<sup>†</sup>) shows two peaks at binding energies of 399.8 and 401.7 eV. The peak

Table 1 List of metal oxides that have been tested for RuO<sub>2</sub> deposition

			-	
RuO <sub>2</sub> deposition		TiO <sub>2</sub> , SrTiO <sub>3</sub> , WO <sub>3</sub> , Cu <sub>2</sub> O, $\alpha$ -Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> , Li <sub>4</sub> Ti <sub>5</sub> O <sub>12</sub> , MgAlO, GaN : ZnO		
No RuO <sub>2</sub> deposition	-	SiO <sub>2</sub> , FTO		
Powder/ substrate	2. Washed by: centrifugation, & decantaton 5 times/rinsed. Dried at 95°C/ compressed air.	Powder Powder Powder Powder OI Rucl <sub>1</sub> , xH,O (aq) + KMnO <sub>4</sub> (aq)	$V_2$ RuCl <sub>1</sub> × H <sub>2</sub> O (aq) + KMnO <sub>4</sub> (aq)	

Scheme 1 Deposition process of  $RuO_2$  for powders and thin film metal oxides.

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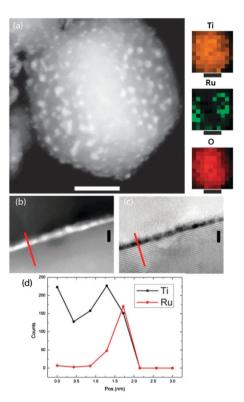
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† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. See DOI: 10.1039/c1cc16759f

at 399.8 eV can be ascribed to the NH<sub>2</sub> group of dopamine<sup>7</sup> while the peak at 401.7 eV could be related to  $NH_3^+$  species.<sup>7,8</sup> The pristine  $TiO_2$  and the  $TiO_2$  with  $RuO_2$  before calcination (R0 and R1) show a peak at 400.1 eV and after calcination (R3) at 400.4 eV, this peak could be related to adsorbed molecular N2<sup>9</sup> and does not correspond to the binding energy reported for N-doped TiO<sub>2</sub>. The XPS spectra is a clear indication that the dopamine is attached in a chelating bidentate structure via the diol groups to the uncoordinated titanium atoms at the surface of titanium dioxide, which is consistent with DFT calculations.<sup>7,10</sup> The absorption of the dopamine on the TiO<sub>2</sub> results in a slight color change as shown by the UV-Vis absorption properties (Fig. S5, ESI<sup>†</sup>), in which the bandgap of TiO<sub>2</sub> is decreased from 3.2 eV to 3. Changes in the absorption properties of TiO<sub>2</sub> are due to the removal of band gap states in the TiO<sub>2</sub> valence band<sup>7</sup> caused by adsorption of dopamine.

Deposition of  $\text{RuO}_2$  on the metal oxides is done by a new method, in which gas phase *in situ* generated  $\text{RuO}_4$  is reacted with the dopamine functionalized metal oxide; this methodology has never been reported in literature before. Previous work in this area was limited to biological samples,<sup>11</sup> polymers<sup>12</sup> and etched metal surfaces<sup>12</sup> since most metal oxides will not reduce  $\text{RuO}_4$  to  $\text{RuO}_2$  and therefore the  $\text{RuO}_2$  will not be deposited (see  $\text{ESI}^{\dagger}$ ).  $\text{RuO}_4$  was synthesized by *in situ* oxidation<sup>12</sup> of  $\text{RuCl}_3$  with KMnO<sub>4</sub> in a closed container, such that the toxic  $\text{RuO}_4$  gas evolves from the reaction mixture and reacts with the functionalized metal oxide.

Consideration of the type of support must be taken into account when delivering the gas phase RuO<sub>4</sub>, so that there are no gas diffusion limitations to the surface in order to ensure a homogeneous distribution of the RuO<sub>2</sub> on the sample. Thin film substrates used were attached to the lid of a pyrex crystallizer (coating by convection of  $RuO_4(g)$ ), while powders were packed in a pressurized glass tube flow reactor (forced flow, due to mass transport limitations). The loading of RuO<sub>2</sub> can be controlled by the amount of  $RuO_4(g)$  that is generated in situ by controlling the amount of RuCl<sub>3</sub> and KMnO<sub>4</sub> used or by repeating the deposition process several times (safety precautions and deposition details given in ESI<sup>†</sup>). RuO<sub>4</sub> in the gas phase will react with organics such as Kapton<sup>®</sup>, phenol and paraffin, but will not be reactive to most metal oxides. This is clear from control experiments, which we have performed-in which no RuO<sub>2</sub> is observed on the non-functionalized TiO<sub>2</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub> samples; results that were also observed by Rolison et al.<sup>12</sup> However in the case when dopamine is grafted to a great variety of metal oxides, which can be coated with hydrated RuO<sub>2</sub> (Table 1), SiO<sub>2</sub> and FTO could not be coated with RuO<sub>2</sub> since dopamine adsorbs weakly on these substrates, however by using a different grafting agent they could be functionalized.

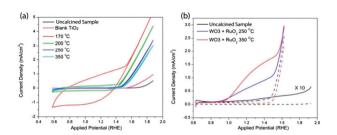
After deposition of  $RuO_2$  on the functionalized metal oxides, a distinct color change is observed, indicative of the deposition of  $Ru/RuO_x$  (see photography S1, and UV-VIS S5, ESI†). STEM HAADF imaging (Fig. 1a) shows a P25-Dopamine particle that has been reacted with  $RuO_4(g)$ ; STEM EDX mapping shows the ruthenium distribution on the TiO<sub>2</sub> particle: the brighter contrast in the image corresponds to that of Ru nanoclusters covering the darker TiO<sub>2</sub> particle. X-Ray diffraction patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> can only be indexed to anatase and rutile phases (S2) indicating that the Ru deposit is not crystalline or/and is



**Fig. 1** (a) STEM HAADF image of P25 TiO<sub>2</sub> with RuO<sub>2</sub> deposition and EDX elemental map, prior to calcination, scale bar 5 nm. (b–c) STEM HAADF and bright field of a RuO<sub>2</sub> layer on a (123) anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> surface after 450 °C calcination, scale bar 1 nm; and (d) EDX spectrum profile acquired along the red line in (b–c).

present in minute amounts or as small particles. Once the sample is calcined at 450 °C in air, STEM (Fig. 1b) reveals that RuO<sub>2</sub> predominantly covers the surface of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle and is sintered into large homogeneous amorphous  $\sim 1$  nm thick layers. The predominantly small cluster from the uncalcined sample disappears leaving behind an empty TiO<sub>2</sub> surface and a very sharp interface where RuO<sub>2</sub> is present. Due to the higher Z number, Ru appears brighter in the HAADF image and darker in the corresponding BF image. Lattice fringes on the lower side of Fig. 1b and c relate to the TiO<sub>2</sub> particle where RuO<sub>2</sub> is deposited, while the ones appearing on the uppermost side come from another particle at a different height. STEM EDX line scans performed on the calcined sample show that all of the RuO<sub>2</sub> is present at the TiO<sub>2</sub> grain boundaries. X-Ray diffraction patterns of the sample calcined at 450 °C do not show any RuO<sub>2</sub> features but show a decreased crystallinity of the TiO<sub>2</sub>.

XPS spectra (Fig. S4d, e R2, further details in ESI<sup>†</sup>) of the C 1s–Ru 3d XPS region show two peaks at 281.2 and 282.5 eV in the Ru 3d5/2 region and the corresponding peaks in the Ru 3d3/2 at 285.7, and 287 eV corresponding to  $Ru^{3+}$  or hydrated RuO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>13</sup> and Ru<sup>6+</sup> respectively;<sup>14,15</sup> the C 1s region shows two peaks at 284.9 eV (advantageous carbon) and a second carbon peak at 288.8 eV.<sup>14</sup> Upon calcination at 250 °C (Fig. S4d, f R3, ESI<sup>†</sup>) the XPS spectra show peaks at 280.2 and 281.3 eV for the Ru 3d5/2 and 284.7 and 285.9 eV for Ru 3d3/2 corresponding to Ru<sup>4+</sup> and Ru<sup>3+</sup> or hydrated RuO<sub>2</sub><sup>13</sup> respectively. The C 1 s region has the advantageous carbon peak at 285.3 eV and a second carbon peak at 288.7 eV.



**Fig. 2** (a) Cyclic Voltammogram of TiO<sub>2</sub> on the FTO substrate with and without RuO<sub>2</sub> in 1 M NaOH, (b) cyclic voltammogram of electrodeposited WO<sub>3</sub> on FTO with RuO<sub>2</sub> calcined at 250 °C (blue) and 350 °C (red) and without RuO<sub>2</sub> (black) in 1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>. Dashed lines show the response in the dark, while continuous lines show the photoresponse. Photocurrent of WO<sub>3</sub> without RuO<sub>2</sub> (black) has been scaled to 10 times its original value.

As one of the many potential applications for this RuO<sub>2</sub> coating, the electrochemical performance towards OER was tested using spin coated TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes on FTO as a function of calcination temperature (see ESI<sup>†</sup>). From Fig. 2a it can be seen that activity for OER is negligible for the uncalcined sample at 100 °C (data not shown). At 170 °C the sample has the highest OER activity and also shows hysteresis, which is indicative of proton intercalation into the RuO2<sup>4</sup> However, at higher calcination temperatures the intercalation is decreased and the OER performance decreases due to a reduction in the electrochemical active<sup>12</sup> area due to sintering of the RuO<sub>2</sub>. The latter is verified by observations from the TEM studies (Fig. 1). The overpotentials at 1 mA  $cm^{-2}$  and 0.1 mA  $cm^{-2}$ observed for OER are  $\sim 250$  mV and  $\sim 220$  mV, respectively, which is the range of that reported for RuO<sub>2</sub> and RuO<sub>2</sub> alloys<sup>16-19</sup> (160-280 mV<sup>12</sup>).

The photocatalytic performance of WO<sub>3</sub> with and without RuO<sub>2</sub> was tested as another example of the application of the RuO<sub>2</sub> deposition method being applicable to photocatalysts (see ESI<sup>†</sup>). From Fig. 2b it can be observed that the OER performance of WO<sub>3</sub> in the dark (black dashed lines) is negligible, this is due in part to the poor OER kinetics on  $WO_3^{20}$  as well as to the lack of holes in tungsten trioxide in the dark. Once RuO<sub>2</sub> is deposited (dashed blue and red lines), an increase in current in the dark is observed, which is indicative of an increased OER activity in the dark due to the RuO<sub>2</sub>. This behavior would most probably be indicative of deposition of the RuO<sub>2</sub> near the back contact where there is a lower resistance for OER due to pinholes in the WO<sub>3</sub>, since light would be needed for photoconduction of carriers through the WO<sub>3</sub>. In the case of the photoactivity of the WO<sub>3</sub>, the addition of RuO<sub>2</sub> increased the PEC performance (blue and red curves) as compared to the WO<sub>3</sub> sample without RuO<sub>2</sub> (black curve, magnified 10 times). We can observe that the photocurrent onset potential of the samples with  $RuO_2$  is ~1.0 V vs. RHE as compared to  $\sim 1.2$  V vs. RHE for the WO<sub>3</sub> sample with no RuO<sub>2</sub>. This reduction in the onset potential for photocurrent is indicative that the OER reaction is being efficiently catalyzed when  $RuO_2$  is deposited on the photocatalyst.

A general route for  $RuO_2$  deposition on metal oxides from gas phase  $RuO_4$  has been developed by a simple 3 step process, in which a reactive moiety such as dopamine is grafted to the metal oxide and afterwards reacted with RuO<sub>4</sub>(g) to form RuO<sub>2</sub>. This application of the deposition process to synthesize supported RuO<sub>2</sub> is of great interest for many catalysis and energy storage applications. Two examples have been showcased to demonstrate some of the potential applications that this method has. (1) The deposition of  $RuO_2$  on  $TiO_2$  as an OER catalyst has been shown to give similar results to those found in the literature and TEM microscopy has shown that small RuO2 clusters with a very homogenous coverage can be deposited utilizing this method. (2) The application of  $RuO_2$  as an OER catalyst in combination with WO<sub>3</sub> as a photocatalyst has shown a superb improvement in performance by the deposition of RuO2. These two examples show just how versatile and universal the deposition method of RuO<sub>2</sub> described in this communication is and some of the possible applications for catalysis in the renewable energy area.

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