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RuO2-CeO2 lattice matching strategy enables robust water oxidation electrocatalysis in acidic media via two distinct oxygen evolution mechanisms

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RuO₂-CeO₂ lattice matching strategy enables robust water oxidation electrocatalysis in acidic media via two distinct oxygen evolution mechanisms

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ABSTRACT: The discovery of acid-stable and highly active electrocatalysts for the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is crucial in the quest for high-performance water-splitting technologies. Herein, a heterostructured RuO₂-CeO₂ electrocatalyst was constructed using a lattice-matching strategy. The interfacial Ru-O-Ce bridge structure provided a channel for electron transfer between Ru and Ce, creating lattice stress that distorts the local structure of RuO₂. The resulting RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst exhibited attractive stability with negligible decay after 1000 h of OER in 0.5 M H₂SO₄, along with high activity with an overpotential of only 180 mV at 10 mA cm⁻². *In-situ* attenuated total reflectance surface-enhanced infrared absorption spectroscopy (ATR-SEIRAS), *in-situ* differential electrochemical mass spectrometry (DEMS), and density functional theory (DFT) calculations were used to reveal that the interface and non-interface RuO₂ sites enabled an oxide path mechanism (OPM) and the enhanced adsorbate evolution mechanism (AEM-plus), respectively, during the OER. The simultaneous and independent OER pathways accessible by lattice matching guides improved electrocatalyst design for the OER in acidic media.

INTRODUCTION

Decarbonizing the global energy sector requires the rapid growth of a green hydrogen economy¹⁻³. Electrocatalytic water splitting is widely considered the best approach for producing hydrogen at scale to support a green hydrogen energy infrastructure, with hydrogen ideally being produced from electricity generated by solar photovoltaics, wind turbines, or hydroelectric turbines⁴⁻¹⁰. The two mainstream water splitting technologies currently employed for hydrogen production are proton exchange membrane water electrolyzers (PEMWEs) and alkaline water electrolyzers. Compared to alkaline water electrolysis, PEMWEs offer many advantages including higher energy efficiency, higher current densities, and a purer hydrogen product¹¹⁻¹².

However, a strongly acidic working environment necessitates the use of noble metal catalysts in commercial PEMWEs. For instance, platinum is typically employed for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) at the cathode, while iridium is used for the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode¹³⁻¹⁵. Unfortunately, this reliance on noble metals catalysts impedes the widespread adoption of this technology^{8, 16-17}. The energy barrier associated with OER, which involves four-electron transfer steps, is much higher than that of the HER, which involves only two electron transfer steps. Consequently, PEMWEs typically use 5 times more iridium at the anode relative to platinum at the cathode to achieve optimal performance. Therefore, a primary focus for advancing PEMWE technology is the discovery of highly active, stable, and acid-resistant non-iridium OER electrocatalysts¹⁸⁻²⁰.

 RuO_2 is widely considered the most promising alternative to IrO_2 for acidic OER, due ruthenium's higher earth abundance and good OER activity (higher than that of IrO_2). However, RuO_2 -based electrocatalysts suffer from instability in acidic electrolytes due to the leaching of ruthenium^{9, 21-25}.

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Figure 1. Morphological and structural characterizations. (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC catalyst. (b) XRD pattern (Inset: magnified view of the RuO₂ peak in RuO₂-CeO₂, which has a slightly lower 2θ angle compared to typical RuO₂(110)). (c, d) SEM images, (e) TEM image, (f) aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM image. (g) atomic model of RuO₂-CeO₂ corresponding to the green framed region in f. (h) Line-scanning intensity profiles corresponding to the blue and yellow boxes in f. (i-m) STEM image and elemental mapping images for RuO₂-CeO₂.

To overcome this limitation, various strategies including heterostructure engineering, defect engineering, and doping have been employed to improve both electrocatalyst activity and durability²⁶⁻²⁹. For example, Ling *et al* demonstrated that by constructing a RuO₂/CoO_x interface, the stability and activity limits of RuO₂ can be overcome, resulting in high OER activity (240 mV at 10 mA cm⁻²) and long-term stability (200 h) under neutral conditions¹². Kim *et al* synthesized a Ni-doped metalliccore with an oxide-shell of Ru catalyst through a thermal acid treatment, with the resulting electrocatalyst exhibiting outstanding activity with an OER overpotential of only 184 mV at 10 mA cm⁻² and stability for about 200 h in acidic media³⁰. While significant advances have been made to improve the stability of RuO₂-based electrocatalysts for acidic OER,

performance still falls well short of practical requirements. More robust RuO_2 -based acid-resistant OER catalysts need to be found.

In recent years, CeO₂ has emerged as an excellent support material and co-catalyst in the field of electrocatalysis, often enhancing both catalyst stability and activity³¹⁻³³. This can be attributed to the Ce³⁺/Ce⁴⁺ redox properties and oxygen storage properties of CeO₂, which in RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures can be used to prevent the excessive oxidation of Ru (i.e. electron transfer from Ce³⁺ prevents Ru over-oxidation and dissolution)³⁴⁻³⁷. Engineering electrocatalysts with RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures thus holds great promise in the development of efficient and acid-stable OER electrocatalysts.

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Figure 2. Structural analysis of the catalysts. (a) Ru *K*-edge XANES and (b) Ru *K*-edge EXAFS spectra for RuO₂-CeO₂, commercial RuO₂, and Ru foil. Wavelet transform of Ru *K*-edge EXAFS data of (c) RuO₂-CeO₂ (f) commercial RuO₂, and (i) Ru foil. (d) Ce L_3 -edge XANES and (g) Ce L_3 -edge EXAFS spectra of RuO₂-CeO₂, and CeO₂. Wavelet transform of Ce L_3 -edge EXAFS data of (e) RuO₂-CeO₂, and (h) CeO₂.

Lattice stress strategies that can adjust the d-band center shift and optimize the binding properties of intermediates have been widely used in electrocatalytic systems such as oxygen reduction reaction and CO₂ reduction reaction, but they are rarely mentioned in acidic OER reaction systems. It is worth mentioning that the process of forming a heterostructure through lattice matching between RuO₂ and CeO₂ will induce lattice strain, which will also be a complement to the application of lattice stress in acidic OER reaction systems³⁸⁻⁴³. Moreover, most reports today focus on the study of a single OER path, with there being a lack of understanding about whether the OER paths at heterojunction interfaces and non-interface RuO₂ sites are the same.

Herein, RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticle heterostructures were grown on carbon cloth (RuO₂-CeO₂-CC) using a simple electrodeposition-calcination method. The resulting RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst exhibits remarkable OER catalytic activity in an electrochemical three-electrode system in acid, requiring an overpotential of only 180 mV to achieve a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² (based on geometric area) in 0.5 M H₂SO₄. Furthermore, RuO₂-CeO₂-CC demonstrates outstanding long-term durability over 1000 h. The different OER mechanisms at the heterojunction interface and non-interface of RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures fabricated by lattice matching were investigated using *in-situ* ATR-SEIRAS, *in-situ* DEMS, and DFT calculations. At the non-interfacial RuO₂ sites, an enhanced version of the adsorbate evolution mechanism (AEM- plus) pathway was observed, with lattice strain caused by lattice matching distorting the structure of RuO₂ and activating the O atoms near the active site to behave and a proton acceptor and lower the energy barrier for the formation of *OOH. Conversely, an oxide path mechanism (OPM) occurred at the RuO₂-CeO₂ interfaces, with electron transfer between Ru and Ce atoms through the Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridge producing a strong electronic coupling effect that directly connects dioxygen radicals at adjacent sites. This system offers a low overall reaction energy barrier for OER and fast kinetics. Furthermore, the Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridge acted to suppress Ru dissolution, giving the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst remarkable stability during the OER under acidic conditions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Preparation and characterization of RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. As shown in Figure 1a, a two-step electrodeposition-calcination strategy was used to prepare the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst. Initially, amorphous Ru and Ce compounds (oxide/hydroxide phases) were electrodeposited on the surface of the carbon cloth (RuCeOH-CC) in an electrolyte containing Ru and Ce ions. Subsequently, the obtained RuCeOH-CC was calcined to produce the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst containing RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticles with abundant RuO₂-CeO₂ interfaces supported on carbon cloth. Detailed information about the synthesis of RuO₂-CeO₂-CC is provided in the method section.



Figure 3. Electrochemical OER activity studies at 25 °C. (a) OER polarization curves, and (b) corresponding Tafel slopes for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC, CeO₂-CC and RuO₂-CC in 0.5 M H₂SO₄. The activity of each catalytic material was normalized to the geometric area. (c) Histograms of overpotentials at 10 mA cm⁻²_{geo} and Tafel slopes for various catalysts. (d) OER polarization curves for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC, CeO₂-CC and RuO₂-CC in 0.5 M H₂SO₄. The activities of the catalytic materials were normalized to ECSA. (e) Comparison of the required overpotential to achieve 10 mA cm⁻²_{geo} and stability for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC and other reported catalysts (Supplementary Table S1) during OER in acidic media. (f) Time-dependent current density curves for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC and RuO₂-CC at 1.41 V versus RHE and commercial RuO₂-CC at 1.51 V versus RHE.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern for RuO₂-CeO₂ showed peaks due to CeO₂ (JCPDS No.01-0800) and RuO₂ (JCPDS No. 88-0323). The CeO₂ peaks were broad suggesting small nanoparticles, whereas the RuO₂ peaks were much sharper suggesting the presence of larger particles. The RuO₂ peaks for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC were at slightly lower 2 θ angles (shifted by ~0.2°) compared to those typically observed for RuO₂, suggesting the unit cell of RuO₂ had expanded slightly. This was likely due to the presence of the abundant RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures causing slight distortions of the RuO₂ lattice.

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Next, the morphology of the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst was investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The SEM images (Figure 1c-d) confirmed the presence of typical RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticles firmly connected to the carbon cloth, which helped to explain the excellent stability of RuO₂-CeO₂-CC during OER tests (see below). Further morphological and structural investigations was carried out using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM). The TEM analyses revealed abundant RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures the electrocatalyst, with the RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticles in intimate contact (Figure 1e; Supplementary Figure S1). Lattice fringe spacings were used to identify the individual nanoparticles. As shown in Figure 1e, the lattice spacings of 0.311 nm correspond to the (111) plane of cubic CeO₂, whereas fringes with a spacing of 0.320 nm were readily indexed to the (110) plane of orthorhombic RuO_2 (typically ~ 0.315 nm). The slightly larger lattice spacing here for the $RuO_2(111)$ accords well with the XRD findings (i.e. slight RuO₂) lattice expansion caused by the presence of contacting CeO₂ nanoparticles). To obtain deeper insight into the atomic structure of RuO₂-CeO₂, aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) was employed. In the HAADF-STEM of RuO₂-CeO₂, interconnected lattice fringes with spacings on 0.269 nm and 0.320 nm were observed, and assigned to $CeO_2(200)$ and distorted $RuO_2(110)$ planes, respectively (Figure 1f-h). HAADF-STEM verified intimate heterointerfaces existed between the RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticles in RuO₂-CeO₂. The distinct boundaries were also confirmed by HAADF-STEM elemental mapping studies (Figure 1i-m).

To further explore the electronic structure and local coordination environment of Ru and Ce cations in the nanocomposites, X-ray absorption spectroscopy data for RuO₂-CeO₂ powder was collected at the Ru *K*-edge and Ce L_3 -edge. Ru foil, commercial RuO₂, and CeO₂ were used as reference samples. The oxidation state of Ru in RuO₂-CeO₂ powder was established form the Ru *K*-edge X-ray absorption near-edge fine structure (XANES) region, while the local coordination information was obtained from the extended X-ray absorption

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fine structure (EXAFS) region. The Ru K-edge absorption edge position in the XANES region for RuO₂-CeO₂ (Figure 2a) was similar to that of the RuO₂ reference sample, confirming the predominance of Ru⁴⁺. This was not surprising, since XAS is a bulk measurement with Ru atoms in RuO₂-CeO₂ likely to be unaffected by the Ru-O-Ce interfaces39. The Ru K-edge EXAFS spectrum is R-space (Figure 2b) showed two distinct peaks 1.48 Å (first shell) and 3.19 Å (in the second shell), which could readily be assigned to Ru-O and Ru-Ru/Ce scattering paths (as confirmed by peak fitting routines). The Ru-O scattering path for RuO₂-CeO₂ was similar to that of the RuO₂ reference 10 sample. A wavelet transform (WT) analysis was next applied to 11 the EXAFS data, thus enabling the contributions of different scattering paths to the EXAFS signal of RuO₂-CeO₂ to be 12 explored in further detail. In Figure 2c, three major maxima 13 were observed at $k = -6.1 \text{ Å}^{-1}$, -8.8 Å^{-1} , and -12.8 Å^{-1} , 14 respectively, which are assigned to the first coordination shell 15 i.e. the Ru-O scattering path (k ~6.1 Å⁻¹) and the second 16 coordination shell of the Ru-Ru/Ce scattering path ($k \sim 8.8 \text{ Å}^{-1}$, 17 and k ~ 12.8 Å⁻¹), respectively. By comparison with the WT 18 EXAFS data for RuO₂, we assign the feature at $k \sim 8.8$ Å⁻¹ to 19 Ru-O-Ce, and the other feature at $k \sim 12.8$ Å⁻¹ to Ru-O-Ru. 20 These assignments were further confirmed by subsequent WT 21 analysis of the Ce L_3 -edge data for RuO₂-CeO₂.

22 In the Ce K-edge XANES spectrum of RuO₂-CeO₂ powder 23 (Figure 2d), the absorption edge was located at lower photon 24 energies compared with the reference CeO₂ material. Further, 25 the white line peak intensity of RuO2-CeO2 powder was lower than that of the reference CeO₂ sample, indicating that more 26 electrons were concentrated at the Ce sites in RuO₂-CeO₂ (i.e. 27 RuO₂-CeO₂ contained more Ce³⁺ sites, presumably via electron 28 transfer from RuO₂). The Ce K-edge EXAFS spectrum in R-29 space (Figure 2g) showed main peaks at 1.5 Å and 3.5 Å, which 30 could readily be assigned to Ce-O (first coordination shell) and 31 Ce-Ce/Ru (second shell), respectively. The WT contour map for 32 RuO_2 -CeO₂ showed three intensity maxima at 4.2 Å⁻¹, 7.3 Å⁻¹, 33 and 9.9 Å⁻¹, which were assigned to Ru-O, Ce-Ru, and Ce-Ce 34 scattering paths, respectively (Figure 2e) by comparison with 35 data collected for the CeO₂ reference sample (Figure 2h). This was consistent with the WT EXAFS data for Ru in RuO₂-CeO₂, 36 verifying the presence Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridges in RuO₂-CeO₂. 37 The electronic states in the as-prepared RuO₂-CeO₂ were further 38 probed using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). As 39 shown in Figure S2 (Supplementary), XPS confirmed the 40 presence of Ru, Ce, and O in the RuO₂-CeO₂-CC catalyst 41 surface (along with some C, in the form of adventitious 42 hydrocarbons). The main Ce 3d_{5/2} XPS peak for RuO₂-CeO₂-43 CC was shifted to lower binding energy (882.3 eV) compared 44 with that of the CeO₂-CC (883.2 eV) reference sample, again 45 suggesting a lower average Ce valence in RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. This 46 is consistent with the Ce L_3 -edge XANES data for the same samples (Supplementary Figure S3-S4). Taken together, the 47 XPS and XANES data suggest electronic coupling between the 48 RuO₂ and CeO₂ nanoparticles in RuO₂-CeO₂-CC via the 49 interfacial Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridges (with charge transfer from 50 Ru to Ce). 51

Electrocatalytic performance for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. A standard three-electrode system was adopted to investigate the

OER performance of the different catalysts in a 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte. In this system, the performance of RuO₂-CeO₂-CC was compared with CeO₂-CC and commercial RuO₂ (i.e. RuO₂-CC). Among the three catalysts, RuO₂-CeO₂-CC delivered excellent OER performance (Figure 3a). In the OER reaction, to achieve current densities of 10, 50, and 100 mA cm⁻²_{geo} with respect to the geometric area (1 cm²), RuO₂-CeO₂-CC required overpotentials of only 180, 220, and 242 mV, respectively. In contrast, CeO₂-CC (658 mV) and RuO₂-CC (275 mV) require much larger overpotentials to reach a current density of 10 mA cm⁻²geo. RuO₂-CeO₂-CC delivered a low Tafel slope of only 58.9 mV dec⁻¹ for OER (Figure 3b), much lower than the corresponding Tafel slopes for CeO₂-CC (350.1 mV dec⁻¹) and RuO₂-CC (64.4 mV dec⁻¹). The data confirmed fast OER kinetics on RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. Figure 3c compares the overpotentials (at 10 mA cm⁻²geo) and Tafel slopes for the various catalysts tested in this work. The comparison demonstrates that the Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridges in RuO₂-CeO₂-CC greatly reduce the OER reaction barrier. In general, the electrochemically active surface area (ECSA) of an electrocatalyst is proportional to the double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) and considered an important indicator of the number of surface active sites. The C_{dl} values calculated for the various catalysts followed the order: RuO₂-CC (134.2 mF cm⁻²) > RuO_2 -CeO₂-CC (30.8 mF cm⁻²) > CeO₂-CC (7.0 mF cm⁻²) > CC (2.5 mF cm⁻²) (Supplementary Figure S7-S10). The commercial RuO₂ sample offered the highest ECSA value, suggesting it highest abundance of active sites. However, RuO₂-CeO₂-CC delivered best OER catalytic performance. Hence, the ECSA was only one of the factors affecting the OER activity of the electrocatalysts (and not the most important), which was confirmed in further studies examining the intrinsic activity of the electrocatalysts. By normalizing the OER activities for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC, CeO₂-CC and RuO₂-CC against the ECSA values (Figure 3d), it was found that RuO₂-CeO₂-CC delivered the highest intrinsic activity among the three electrocatalysts in acidic media.

Stability is a further important consideration when applying OER catalysts in large-scale applications. Thus, the timedependent current density curves were collected for RuO2-CeO₂-CC in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ to assess its stability. RuO₂-CeO₂-CC maintained excellent OER activity over 1000 h at a current density of 10 mA $cm^{-2}{}_{geo}$ and an applied potential of 1.41 V vs. RHE (Figure 3f), showing remarkable OER stability. In contrast, the performance of the RuO₂-CC electrocatalyst declined rapidly under the same testing conditions. The outstanding stability of RuO2-CeO2 puts a spotlight on the critical role of Ru-O-Ce heterointerfaces and RuO₂ lattice stress in preventing Ru dissolution during OER (as discussed below). Figure 3e and Supplementary Table 1 compare the performance of RuO₂-CeO₂-CC with previously reported OER electrocatalysts in acidic media. In terms of both activity and long-term stability, RuO₂-CeO₂-CC is far superior to the other OER electrocatalysts reported to date. Moreover, after 1000 h of continuous OER operation, SEM, TEM, and XRD characterization studies verified that RuO₂-CeO₂-CC maintained its initial morphology and structure (Supplementary Figure S11-S13).



Figure 4. OER reaction mechanism investigations. *In-situ* ATR-SEIRAS spectra at various applied potentials for (a) RuO_2 -CeO₂ and (b) RuO_2 . Catalytic sites are indicated by the symbol *. (c) Potential dependence of the intensity of the ATR-SEIRAS peaks for *OOH and *O–O for RuO_2 -CeO₂. (d) Ratio of ³⁴O₂:³²O₂ measured by DEMS as a function of the applied potential. (e) Schematic diagram of the OER active sites and pathways for RuO_2 -CeO₂ catalyst at the interface and non-interface.

Supplementary Figure S14 shows the concentration of Ru in the electrolyte as a function of time during the long-term OER tests for RuO₂-CeO₂-CC and RuO₂-CC. After 50 h of operation, the dissolved concentration of Ru in the electrolyte was 148 ppb for RuO₂-CC. For RuO₂-CeO₂-CC, the Ru dissolution rate was much lower and showed no change after 10 h of operation. Clearly, the RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructure inhibited the dissolution of RuO₂ during acidic OER. The electrochemical data shows that RuO₂-CeO₂-CC is an outstanding electrocatalyst for OER in acidic media.

OER Mechanism and Origins of Enhanced Activity. Insitu ATR-SEIRAS was employed to investigate the OER mechanisms over RuO₂-CeO₂ and commercial RuO₂. The method allows identification of the potential-dependent reaction intermediates formed surface of catalytic materials during OER. For the measurements, each catalyst was dropcoated onto gold-coated silicon prisms. The catalyst-decorated prisms then assembled in the in-situ electrochemical cell of the FTIR system. Figure 4a shows in-situ ATR-SEIRAS spectra for RuO₂-CeO₂ at different working potentials. In addition to an absorption peak at 3261 cm⁻¹ attributed to an O-H stretching mode of *OH, two distinct absorption peaks were seen at 1146 cm⁻¹ and 1192 cm⁻¹, corresponding to O-O stretching vibrations of *OOH and *O-O adsorbed on the catalyst surface, respectively¹⁸⁻¹⁹. Recent reports suggest that the presence of *OOH indicates that the OER process involves an AEM pathway, whereas the occurrence of *O-O species suggests a lattice-oxygen-mediated mechanism or alternatively an OPM45-⁴⁸. In contrast, the *in-situ* ATR-SEIRAS spectra for RuO₂

showed only absorption peaks at 3371 cm⁻¹ and 1049 cm⁻¹ (Figure 4b), associated with *OH and *OOH species. The difference in the *OOH absorption peak position between RuO2 and RuO₂-CeO₂ may be due to the difference in the vibration frequency of *OOH caused by the stretching of the RuO₂ lattice in the RuO₂-CeO₂ heterojunction. No peaks associated with *O–O were observed for the RuO₂ catalyst. The data indicates that OER on RuO₂ follows an AEM-type pathway, consistent with literature findings18,47. It is noteworthy that both the *OOH peak and *O-O peak intensities for RuO₂-CeO₂ (Figure 4a) increased linearly with the applied voltage (Figure 4c), indicating that the OER catalytic pathways were potential independent⁴⁴. These *in-situ* data suggests that, compared with RuO₂, the heterostructured RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst simultaneously enables multiple OER pathways, with one pathway occurring at the RuO₂-CeO₂ interface and a more traditional AEM pathway occurring on non-interface Ru sites. To further elucidate the OER mechanism on the RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst, we measured its electrocatalytic activity in electrolytes of different pH. The current density of RuO₂-CeO₂ at 1.45 V vs. RHE showed a noticeable decrease on increasing the pH from 0 to 1 (Supplementary Figure S15-S17), which indicates that a noncoordinated proton-electron transfer step exists in the OER process of RuO₂-CeO₂. The pH dependence of OER activity strongly illustrates that the RuO₂-CeO₂ process of OER is carried out through multiple pathways simultaneously, that is, in addition to the AEM pathway carried out at RuO₂, there are other OER pathways occurring^{5, 20}.

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Figure 5. DFT calculations of the OER mechanism. (a) The AEM and OPM paths of OER on a RuO_2 -CeO₂ catalyst. The Ru site involved in AEM and OPM on RuO_2 -CeO₂ is labeled as $Ru_{non-interface}$ and $Ru_{non-interface}$, respectively. Right: Comparison of crystal structure models of RuO_2 -CeO₂ and RuO_2 on the right, where lattice adaptation affects the angles and inter-atomic distances in the crystal structure. (b) Free energy diagrams for the preferred OER paths on the surfaces of RuO_2 and RuO_2 -CeO₂. (c) Differential charge density analysis of RuO_2 -CeO₂. The blue and yellow shaded areas correspond to regions of electron density accumulation and depletion, respectively. (d) PDOS of Ru 4d, and O 2p, for RuO_2 , RuO_2 -stretch and RuO_2 -CeO₂.

Next, in-situ DEMS was applied to gain further insights about the OER mechanisms over RuO₂-CC and RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. Initially, the electrocatalysts were labeled with ¹⁸O through electrochemical CV in a H218O/0.5 M H2SO4 solution (with evolved ³²O₂, ³⁴O₂ and ¹⁸O₂ being monitored). If lattice oxygen participated in the isotope exchange process, ¹⁸O would be incorporated in the catalyst surface. Next, an ample amount of H₂¹⁶O was used to wash the catalysts to remove any surface adsorbed H218O. Subsequently, the washed catalysts were subjected to electrochemical CV and DEMS measurements in a $H_2^{16}O/0.5$ M H_2SO_4 solution and the evolved ${}^{32}O_2$, ${}^{34}O_2$ and ${}^{18}O_2$ monitored by mass spectrometry. Supplementary Figure S18-S19 shows the DEMS signals of the O₂ produced during the initial ¹⁸O labeling process. Both ³⁴O₂ and ³⁶O₂ were produced in the CV cycles for RuO₂-CC and RuO₂-CeO₂-CC. The generation of ³⁴O₂ was likely due to some initially adsorbed ¹⁶O species (water or hydroxyl) on the catalyst surface. Four consecutive CV cycles were then conducted in H₂¹⁸O/0.5 M H_2SO_4 in an effort to label ¹⁸O on the catalyst surface. The catalysts were then washed with H₂¹⁶O, then subjected to continuous CV cycles in H216O/H2SO4 electrolyte. 18O introduced in the catalyst lattice could potentially either couple with each other to generate ${}^{36}O_2$, or couple with $H_2{}^{16}O$ in the electrolyte to generate ³⁴O₂. DEMS results for RuO₂ and RuO₂-CeO₂ are presented in Supplementary Figure S20-S21. Both catalysts gave a very weak ³⁴O₂ signal, no ³⁶O₂ signal and a very strong ³²O₂ signal, with the ³⁴O₂:³²O₂ ratio for RuO₂ and RuO₂-CeO₂ changing in the same manner as the OER potential was changed (Figure 4d). Therefore, the DEMS data suggest that lattice oxygen was not important in the OER process on either RuO_2 -CC or RuO_2 -CeO₂-CC⁵. The observation of a weak ³⁴O₂ signal for each catalyst in the DEMS experiments was likely

due to adsorbed H₂¹⁸O of ¹⁸OH formed during the labeling step. It is widely accepted that the OER pathway on RuO₂ does not involve lattice oxygen, consistent with the findings here. Combining the results of electrochemical activity tests and *insitu* ATR-SEIRAS experiments, we postulate that OPM pathway occurs at RuO₂-CeO₂ interfaces in RuO₂-CeO₂-CC, whereas AEM pathway occurs on the RuO₂ nanoparticles spatially-distanced from the interfaces (Figure 4e).

DFT calculations were conducted to gain insight into the origin of the activity of RuO₂-CeO₂. We used the 110 rutile RuO₂ surface and the 100 CeO₂ surface to construct the RuO₂-CeO₂ structures. Four different interfaced structures were considered. The most stable one was selected for further OER analysis. In the most stable RuO₂-CeO₂ structures, the two surfaces aligned very well, forming an extended coordinatively unsaturated site (CUS) row and bridge row via Ru-O-Ce bonds (Supplementary Figure S22). Previous theoretical studies have recommended CUS Ru sites were the main OER active sites^{18,} ⁴⁵. CeO₂ not only induced charge transfer but also introduced lattice strain to RuO₂, playing an important role in tuning the geometrical and electronic structures of RuO2. A significant charge transfer from Ru to Ce through the Ru-O-Ce bridge was observed (Figure 5c; Supplementary Figure S23). The difference in the electronic and oxidation states of Ru and Ce allowed the OPM path (Figure 5a). The RuO₂ portion in RuO₂-CeO₂ experiences a stretch of around 4% along the CUS rows, in good agreement with the experimental measurements. Simultaneously, the Ru-O bond undergoes stretching compared to the pristine RuO₂. To better understand the lattice strain effect, we conducted separate calculations for pristine (110) RuO₂, applying a 2% lattice strain along the CUS row. The results showed that lattice strain shifted the d band center from -2.38 eV for pristine RuO₂ to -2.32 eV (Figure 5d). Such a difference could lead to variations in intermediate adsorption and eventually affect the OER overpotential.

Reaction profiles based on the four elementary steps of AEM and OPM for RuO₂ and RuO₂-CeO₂ are shown in Figure 5b. For pristine RuO₂, OER proceeded favorably via an AEM path, following four-proton-coupled electron transfer steps: $H_2O \rightarrow *OH \rightarrow *O \rightarrow *OOH \rightarrow O_2$. The formation of *OOH is the rate-determining step (RDS) with a large free energy barrier of 2.10 eV. Interestingly, for the RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst, OER can simultaneously proceed via both AEM and OPM but at different sites (site Runon-interface and site Runterface, respectively). At the interface, due to the charge transfer channel, and the different *OH adsorption ability, the dual-site OPM path was activated. The formation of *OH*O intermediate became the RDS, with a free energy barrier of only 1.88 eV, which lowers the overpotential to 0.65 eV. Furthermore, we found the Runon-interface sites in RuO₂ in the RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst become more active. The adsorption of *OH became even stronger due to the shift of the d-band center toward the Fermi level. Even so, the OER still proceeded favorably via the AEM pathway, since the formation of *OOH became easier with a free energy barrier of only 1.96 eV. Therefore, the formation of RuO₂-CeO₂ heterostructures significantly enhanced the OER performance. Since RuO2-CeO₂ interfaces occupy only a small part of the RuO₂-CeO₂ catalyst, the lattice distortion of RuO₂ appears important for achieving enhanced OER performance.

CONCLUSIONS

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26 This work aimed to address one of the critical bottlenecks in 27 water splitting technologies (i.e. the need to develop efficient 28 and acid-stable OER catalysts). We demonstrate that a 29 heterostructured RuO₂-CeO₂-CC electrocatalyst prepared using 30 a simple electrodeposition-calcination strategy demonstrates 31 exceptional activity and stability during OER in acid media. RuO₂-CeO₂-CC required an overpotential of 180 mV to achieve 32 a current density of 10 mA cm^{-2}_{geo} during OER in 0.5 M H₂SO₄, 33 and negligible loss in activity over 1000 hours at 10 mA cm⁻²geo. 34 Detailed mechanistic investigations revealed that the interface 35 and non-interface sites of RuO2-CeO2 simultaneously carry out 36 the OPM and AEM pathways respectively during the OER 37 process. RuO₂ lattice distortions induced by CeO₂ promote the 38 deprotonation of adsorbed *OH atoms near Ru sites, facilitating 39 the stable adsorption of *OOH to lower the energy barrier of the 40 AEM reaction path. In addition, the Ru and Ce atoms at the 41 interface form a strong electronic coupling effect through the 42 Ru-O-Ce oxygen bridge, which makes the direct coupling of 43 dioxygen radicals favorable during the OER process. These findings demonstrate a simple strategy to enable simultaneous 44 AEM and OPM pathways during the acidic OER. Results 45 inform the design of highly active and stable acidic OER 46 electrocatalysts, expediting the future growth of a Green 47 Hydrogen Economy. 48

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information.

The Supporting Information is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

Experimental section, computational detail, materials characterization, and figures and tables (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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ABBREVIATIONS

OER	oxygen ev	olution reaction	on;	
ATR-SEIRAS	attenuated	total reflecta	nce surface-enh	nanced
infrared absorption	spectrosco	py;		
DEMS differenti	al electroch	nemical mass s	spectrometry;	
DFT	density fur	nctional theory	γ;	
OPM	oxide path	mechanism;		
AEM-plus	enhanced	adsorbate evol	ution mechanisi	m;
PEMWEs	proton	exchange	membrane	water
electrolyzers;	_			
HER	hydrogen	evolution reac	tion;	
OER	oxygen ev	olution reaction	on;	
XRD	X-ray diff	raction;		
SEM	scanning e	electron micros	scopy;	
TEM	transmissi	on electron mi	croscopy;	

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HAADF-STEM high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy;

		1.2.7
2	XANES	X-ray absorption near-edge fine structure;
3	EXAFS	extended X-ray absorption fine structure;
<u>л</u>	WT	wavelet transform;
4	ECSA	electrochemically active surface area.
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