

Role of Defects in the Interplay between Adsorbate Evolving and Lattice Oxygen Mechanisms of the Oxygen Evolution Reaction in RuO₂ and IrO₂

Alexandra Zagalskaya and Vitaly Alexandrov*



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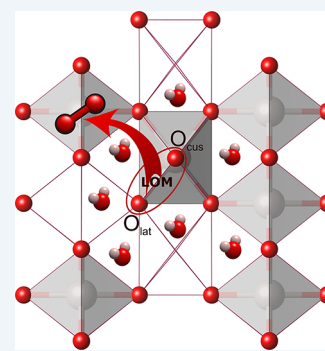
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ABSTRACT: The mechanistic interplay between the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and material degradation during water electrolysis is not yet well understood even for the most studied OER electrocatalysts such as RuO₂ and IrO₂. It is still disputed whether the lattice oxygen mechanism (LOM) may be competitive with the conventional adsorbate evolving mechanism (AEM) of the OER in these materials and, if so, under what conditions. Herein, we employ density functional theory calculations to demonstrate that the LOM can give rise to higher OER activity than the AEM at the active sites involving structural defects, both intrinsic and extrinsic. Specifically, we show that, although the AEM is preferred for the perfect (110) and (211) surfaces, the formation of metal vacancies due to catalyst dissolution may lead to much lower OER overpotentials for the LOM. Also, by screening several metal impurities in RuO₂, we reveal that dopants such as Ni and Co can promote the LOM over the AEM even for the perfectly structured surfaces. Overall, we demonstrate that defective IrO₂ is less LOM active than RuO₂ that should contribute to its superior stability under OER conditions.

KEYWORDS: density functional theory, lattice oxygen mechanism, oxygen evolution reaction, rutile, electrocatalysis



INTRODUCTION

Water electrolysis ($\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2$) is an attractive way to store energy from renewable sources in the form of clean hydrogen.^{1–5} The four-electron oxygen evolution reaction (OER) at the anode ($2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$) exhibits more sluggish kinetics than the two-electron hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) at the cathode ($2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$).⁶ Consequently, the oxidative half-cell reaction (OER) has been the emphasis of a lot of theoretical and experimental studies aimed to develop electrocatalysts with improved OER activity.^{7,8} Despite the scarcity and high cost, rutile-structured RuO₂ and IrO₂ catalysts remain benchmark OER anodes due to their favorable combination of activity/stability characteristics.^{9,10}

Mechanistically, a number of reaction pathways have been proposed in the literature for the OER in metal-oxide catalysts. According to the conventional adsorbate evolving mechanism (AEM), surface metal-ion centers serve as catalytically active sites on which H₂O molecules from solution undergo the four concerted proton-electron transfer steps to yield O₂ (see Figure 1). However, this mechanism has been challenged in a series of experimental studies revealing that oxygen may also evolve from the oxide.^{11–15} For example, in a recent experimental investigation utilizing in situ ¹⁸O isotope labeling mass spectrometry, it has been directly demonstrated that O₂ can be generated from lattice oxygen in perovskites such as SrCoO_{3–δ}, La_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}CoO_{3–δ}, and Pr_{0.5}Ba_{0.5}CoO_{3–δ}.¹³ The reason for the lattice oxygen activation was shown to be the

greater covalency of the metal-oxygen bonds that can be quantified by estimating charge transfer gap between metal 3d and oxygen 2p states. Recently, multiple density functional theory (DFT) studies have shown that the LOM can indeed deliver higher OER activity than the conventional AEM in various oxide catalysts such as ABO₃ (A = alkaline earth, B = transition metal) perovskites^{13,16} and MOOH metal oxyhydroxides.¹⁷

Contrary to the perovskite materials, the lattice oxygen participation in the OER for rutile-structured electrocatalysts such as RuO₂ and IrO₂ is still debated. It was experimentally observed for nanocrystalline RuO₂-based catalysts that the involvement of lattice oxygen in the OER becomes pronounced at potentials above 1.12 V.¹² Specifically, it was detected that the contribution of the oxygen exchange mechanism could reach 50% of the total oxygen for Ru_{0.9}Ni_{0.1}O_{2–δ} and approximately 9% for pure RuO₂. However, a recent experimental study showed no evidence of oxygen exchange on the regular RuO₂ (100), (110), (101), and (111) surfaces in both basic and acidic environments.¹⁸ Therefore, it

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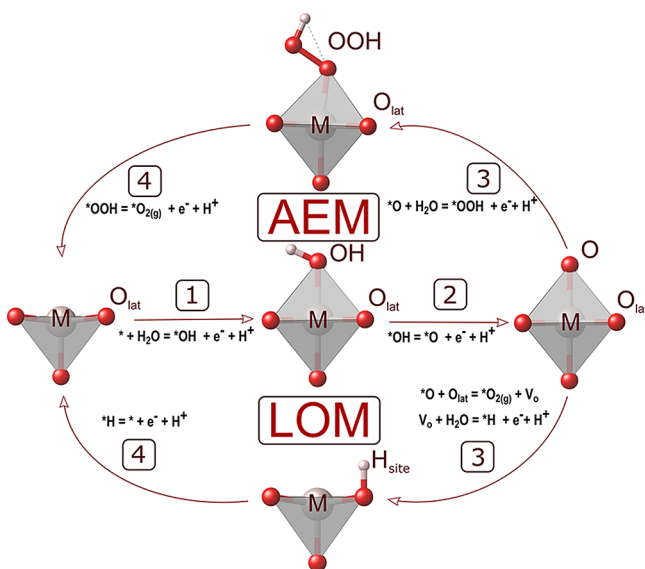


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the adsorbate evolving mechanism (AEM) and lattice oxygen mechanism (LOM) considered in this study. The four electrochemical reaction steps for each mechanism are shown with “*” and V_O denoting bare surface and lattice oxygen vacancy, respectively. M stands for metal (Ru, Ir).

could be hypothesized that the discrepancy between the two sets of experimental results may be due to different chemistries of the surface active sites and surface crystallinity of the used catalysts.

In addition to structural differences between the oriented films and their nanocrystalline analogues, the OER mechanism and kinetics also depend on the structural evolution of nanocatalysts under dynamic OER working conditions.^{19–24} For example, it was recently demonstrated computationally that, even at potentials much lower than the OER onset, RuO_2 and IrO_2 nanoparticles should undergo substantial morphological/compositional transformations affecting their OER activity.²⁵ Such surface reconstruction processes are also expected to be coupled to metal dissolution since it is established that the onsets of the OER and dissolution for RuO_2 and IrO_2 catalysts coincide well.^{9,26} In fact, we have recently demonstrated that RuO_2 dissolution intermediates can greatly lower the theoretical OER overpotential.²² Thus, we may hypothesize that the experimental observation of a more pronounced involvement of the LOM to the OER at higher potentials¹² could be also related to the presence of metal vacancies formed during catalyst dissolution.

Based on this prior knowledge, we set out to answer the following questions in this study: (i) Can the presence of defect sites, such as metal dopants like in $\text{Ru}_{0.9}\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ and/or metal vacancies formed during metal-oxide dissolution, favor the LOM over the AEM? If yes, (ii) is it RuO_2 or IrO_2 that is more LOM active? The latter question is directly related to the stability issue, namely, whether the difference in LOM activity between these two oxides can contribute to the exceptional stability of IrO_2 -based catalysts.

COMPUTATIONAL METHODOLOGY

Spin-polarized DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna Ab Initio Simulation Package (VASP).^{27,28} The revised Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (RPBE) functional^{29,30} along with Grimme’s D3-dispersion correction^{31,32} to take into account

long-range van der Waals interactions were employed. Ionic cores of all atoms were described using projector augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials^{33,34} from the VASP library (PAW_PBE Ru, Ir, O, H, Ni_pv, Co_pv, Fe_pv, Mn_pv, and Cr_pv). A plane-wave cutoff energy of 400 eV was used.

The lattice parameters of the rutile structure were optimized to give $a = 4.543 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 3.140 \text{ \AA}$ for RuO_2 , and $a = 4.545 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 3.190 \text{ \AA}$ for IrO_2 . Periodic slab models of the $\text{MO}_2(110)$ and $\text{MO}_2(211)$ ($M = \text{Ru, Ir}$) surfaces were constructed in VESTA³⁵ using 2×3 and 2×2 surface supercells, correspondingly, with four metal-oxide layers separated by at least $10 \text{ \AA}$ vacuum gap, resulting in the same chemical composition of $\text{M}_{48}\text{O}_{96}$. These (110) and (211) surfaces were chosen for modeling to represent low- and high-energy facets, respectively, that can be observed experimentally for nanocrystalline rutile oxides.^{36,37} The bottom layer of each slab was fixed to the bulk positions, while the top three layers were allowed to relax until the atomic forces became less than $0.05 \text{ eV/\AA}$. For the structures involving metal-ion vacancies, the changes in cell volume with respect to perfect structures were taken into account by re-optimizing geometries prior to OER calculations. A $3 \times 4 \times 1$ Monkhorst-Pack sampling of reciprocal space was used in all slab calculations. DFT-computed surface energies for the ideal (110) and (211) facets are 1.43 and 2.41 J/m^2 for RuO_2 and 1.88 and 3.10 J/m^2 for IrO_2 , respectively, in good agreement with previous theoretical estimates.^{36,38} For the systems involving substitutional dopants, the rotationally invariant version of the DFT+U approach^{39–42} was used with the on-site Coulomb interaction parameters of 3.5 , 3.9 , 5.0 , 3.3 , and 6.45 eV for Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni, respectively, adopted from a previous study.⁴³ The choice of the metal dopants was motivated by previous experimental and theoretical studies of complex metal oxides^{12,15,16,37} allowing us to systematically analyze their effect on the OER.

The computational hydrogen electrode (CHE) approach was employed to evaluate OER thermodynamic overpotentials.^{44,45} The Gibbs free energies for the OER were calculated including zero-point energy (ZPE) and vibrational entropy S_{vib} corrections taken from previous studies^{22,45,46} as 0.36 , 0.07 , 0.40 , and 0.28 eV for $^*\text{OH}$, $^*\text{O}$, $^*\text{OOH}$, and $^*\text{H}_{\text{O-site}}$, respectively, independent of the MO_2 system. We decided not to include implicit solvent effects in our calculations as it is unclear what dielectric constant should be used for the complex interfaces involving defects. Nevertheless, our test calculations for RuO_2 using the VASPsol implementation of the implicit solvent model⁴⁷ indicated that the observed trend (the decrease in the OER overpotential for both the AEM and LOM making the LOM competitive with the AEM for the defective systems) is preserved.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 illustrates the conventional adsorbate evolving mechanism (AEM) versus lattice-oxygen participation mechanism (LOM) of the OER, the competition between which has been widely discussed in the literature.¹⁵ In this work, we examine the interplay between these two mechanisms for RuO_2 - and IrO_2 -based catalysts. First, we discuss the results obtained for the regular (non-defective) $\text{MO}_2(110)$ and (211) facets showing that such ideal surfaces are characterized by greater OER activity for the AEM, in agreement with previous experiments and DFT calculations. Second, we contrast the two mechanisms in the case of transition metal-doped MO_2

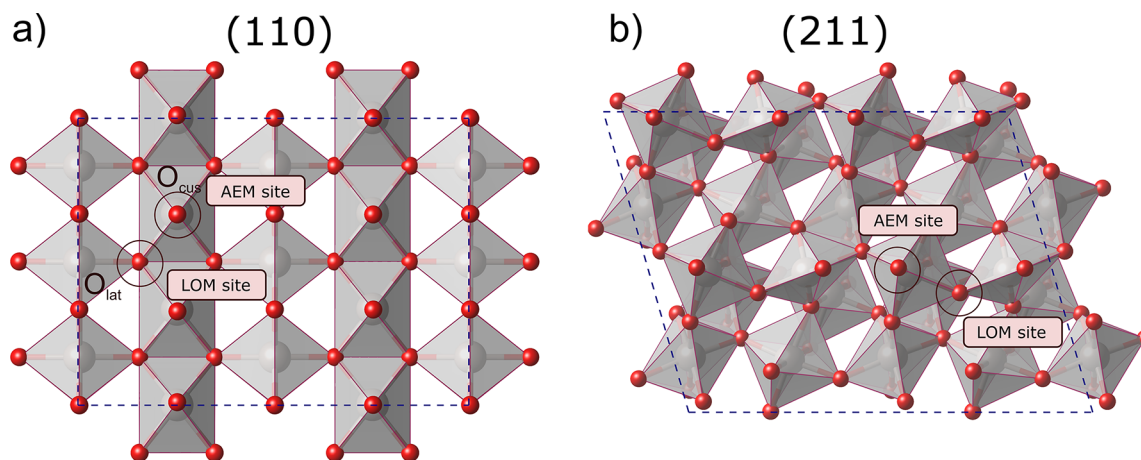


Figure 2. Top view of (a) (110) and (b) (211) surfaces of rutile-structured RuO_2 and IrO_2 employed in DFT calculations of the OER overpotentials. O_{cus} and O_{lat} denote the active sites on which the AEM and LOM are examined, respectively.

demonstrating that certain substitutional dopants can indeed switch the OER mechanism from the AEM to LOM. Third, we compare the OER behavior of the surface active sites in the presence of metal-ion vacancies formed upon dissolution and reveal that such defect sites may also favor the LOM over the AEM. Furthermore, we demonstrate that the synergetic effect in facilitating the LOM over the AEM can be achieved in the presence of both types of defects (dopants and vacancies). Finally, we correlate the calculated overpotentials for the AEM and LOM with the transition metal 3d and oxygen 2p band centers that helps explain why the LOM becomes a more favorable mechanism of the OER.

Ideal MO_2 ($\text{M} = \text{Ru}, \text{Ir}$) (110) and (211) Surfaces. It was discussed above that polycrystalline films or nanoparticles of rutile catalysts exhibit different OER activities than regular low-index surfaces.^{12,15,18} Therefore, we first compare the reaction thermodynamics for both OER mechanisms at the ideal fully oxidized MO_2 (110) and (211) facets chosen here to represent the low- and high-index rutile surfaces (see Figure 2). The OER proceeds at the coordinatively undersaturated site (O_{cus}) in the case of the AEM and at the lattice site (O_{lat}) in the case of the LOM according to the reaction pathways depicted in Figure 1. The DFT-based free energy diagrams for the OER via the AEM and LOM for the RuO_2 and IrO_2 surfaces are presented in Figures 3 and 4. It is seen from the diagrams that the theoretical OER overpotential is always much higher for the LOM (η_{LOM}) than AEM (η_{AEM}). It is interesting to note that the higher-energy (211) facet of IrO_2 appears to exhibit lower AEM and LOM overpotentials than (110). Overall, our OER overpotentials calculated for the AEM are in good

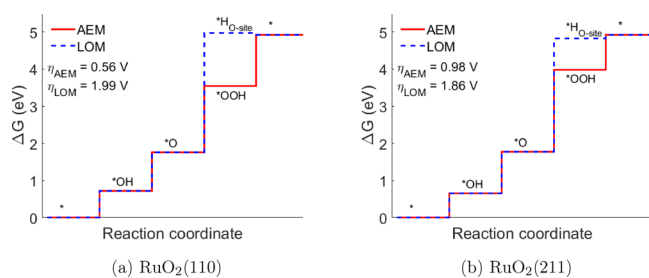


Figure 3. Free energy diagrams for OER via AEM (red solid line) and LOM (blue dashed line) for (a) RuO_2 (110) and (b) RuO_2 (211).

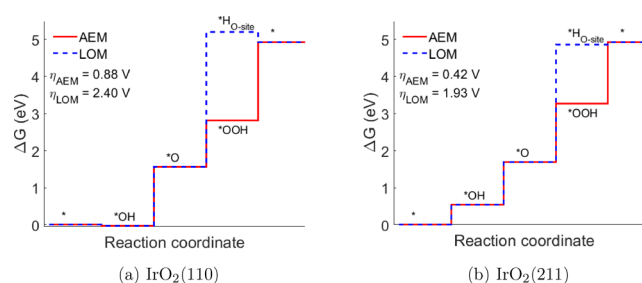


Figure 4. Free energy diagrams for OER via AEM (red solid line) and LOM (blue dashed line) for (a) IrO_2 (110) and (b) IrO_2 (211).

agreement with previous theoretical investigations^{48–50} as seen from Table S1.

Substitutional Metal Dopants at RuO_2 Surfaces. We next proceed to examine the influence of structural defects on OER activity. In this section, we focus on substitutional transition metal dopants (Ni, Co, Cr, Fe, and Mn) considering as an example the RuO_2 (110) and (211) surfaces. Figure 5

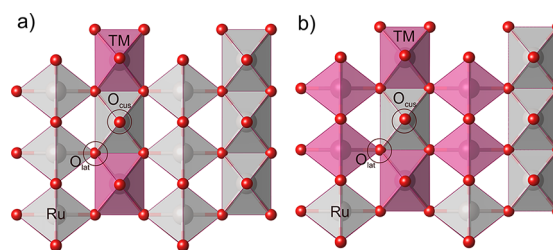


Figure 5. Top view of the transition metal (TM)-doped RuO_2 (110) surface: (a) two M_{cus} are substituted by a transition metal dopant, and (b) six TM sites are substituted by a transition metal dopant corresponding to 16.7 and 50% dopant concentrations at the surface, respectively.

shows two structural models adopted here to investigate the role of dopants corresponding to two different surface concentrations (16.7 and 50%). Since it is expected that the highest dopant concentration (with six surface dopants, Figure 5b) should lead to the most pronounced effect on OER overpotentials, we first screen doped systems at this concentration by looking at the non-oxidized RuO_2 (110) surface (see Table S2). We find that, in all cases, the third

electrochemical step (see the scheme in Figure 1) is potential-determining, similarly to the non-doped rutile surfaces. It is seen that the OER overpotential increases for AEM and decreases for the LOM upon doping. Importantly, in the case of six dopants for Ni and Co, the LOM exhibits higher OER activity than the AEM. It turns out that the presence of only two surface dopants is not enough to switch from the AEM to LOM (Table S2).

We observe exactly the same situation for the oxidized $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ surface, and Figure 6 shows the free energy

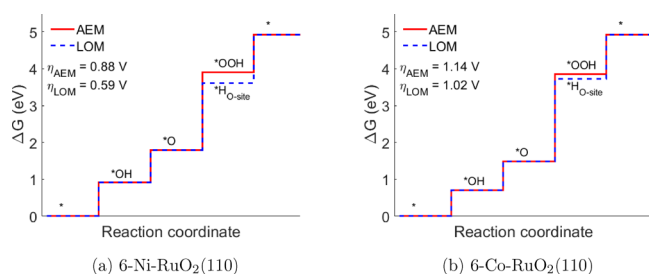


Figure 6. Free energy diagrams for OER via AEM (red solid line) and LOM (blue dashed line) for (a) doped $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ with six Ni atoms and (b) doped $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ with six Co atoms.

diagrams for Ni and Co. For both non-oxidized and oxidized $\text{RuO}_2(110)$, we observe that Ni has a more profound effect than Co on the difference between η_{LOM} and η_{AEM} . Thus, we demonstrate that, even for the regular $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ surface with dopants, there should be a crossover between the two OER mechanisms, and we expect a similar behavior for other facets. This result is in agreement with experimental findings of lattice oxygen exchange that was detected to be significantly higher for $\text{Ru}_{0.9}\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$ than pure RuO_2 .¹² We also find that this OER behavior can be related to the electronic structure of the active O_{cus} and O_{lat} sites, as will be discussed below.

Metal Vacancies at MO_2 Surfaces. We next turn to the analysis of metal-ion vacancies that can be formed at the surface throughout the dissolution process and discuss their influence on the OER. It is established experimentally that instability of RuO_2 and IrO_2 catalysts can be linked to the electrochemical OER process since the onsets of the OER and dissolution coincide well. As a result, unstable species such as RuO_4 and IrO_3 are formed, leaving behind the metal-ion vacancies at the surface and triggering the formation of highly OER active amorphous hydrous layers.^{9,23,51} Recently, we have demonstrated that metastable surface-bound dissolution intermediates can indeed lower the OER overpotential as compared with regular rutile surfaces.²² For the purpose of this study, we now analyze how metal vacancies left behind during catalyst dissolution can affect the OER activity via the AEM and LOM. We discuss first the systems involving only metal vacancies and then extend our study to include models in which both substitutional dopants and metal vacancies are present. This allows us to analyze the combined effect brought out by these defects on the OER activity.

Figure 7 shows several structural models for the (110) surface adopted in this study involving one, two, and three metal vacancies with the AEM and LOM sites denoted as O_{cus} and O_{lat} , respectively. The corresponding OER overpotentials derived from DFT are listed in Table 1. It is seen from the table that the presence of metal vacancies has a marked effect on the OER activity. In the case of RuO_2 , the observed effect is

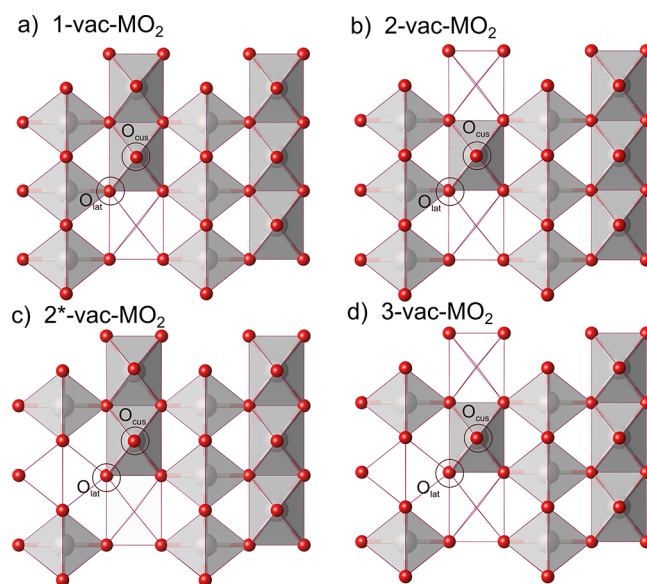


Figure 7. (a–d) Top view of the structural models for $\text{MO}_2(110)$ ($M = \text{Ru}, \text{Ir}$) containing one, two, and three M vacancies. White polyhedra depict the positions of vacancies.

Table 1. Computed OER Overpotentials (in V) via AEM and LOM at the $\text{MO}_2(110)$ ($M = \text{Ru}, \text{Ir}$) Surface with Zero to Three M Vacancies, where Structural Models Are Shown in Figure 7^a

system	mechanism	regular	1-vac	2-vac	2*-vac	3-vac
$\text{RuO}_2(110)$	AEM	0.56	0.43	0.16	0.39	0.23
	LOM	1.99	0.87	0.16	0.64	0.20
$\text{IrO}_2(110)$	AEM	0.88	0.70	0.38	0.30	0.27
	LOM	2.40	1.19	0.81	0.59	0.33

^aThe corresponding Gibbs free energies are listed in Table S3.

similar to substitutional dopants as vacancies lead not only to decreased OER overpotentials but also to rendering the LOM competitive with the AEM. It is also interesting to note that the effect of removing Ru ions from the two cus positions (2-vac- MO_2 model, Figure 7b) is more pronounced than creating one vacancy at the bridge and the second one at the cus site (2*-vac- MO_2 model, Figure 7c). In the case of $\text{IrO}_2(110)$, however, we observe that the AEM still displays greater OER activity than the LOM for all defective models considered.

A similar situation can be observed when comparing the OER behavior of the RuO_2 and $\text{IrO}_2(211)$ surfaces containing metal vacancies. Specifically, we can see from the free energy diagrams in Figures 8 and 9 that two surface vacancies can switch the AEM to a more favorable LOM for RuO_2 , but not for IrO_2 . We can thus conclude that IrO_2 appears to be less active toward the LOM. Since the degree of lattice oxygen participation in the OER can be correlated with the lattice instability,²³ we can suggest that lower LOM activity of IrO_2 can also contribute to its superior stability as compared with RuO_2 .

Combination of Two Defect Types at the Surface.

Further, we also analyze the presence of both types of structural defects, transition metal dopants, and metal vacancies, revealing their synergistic effect on the OER. Since the high dopant content at the surface considered above may not be highly probable experimentally for doped MO_2 , we focus here on the cases of small defect concentrations at the

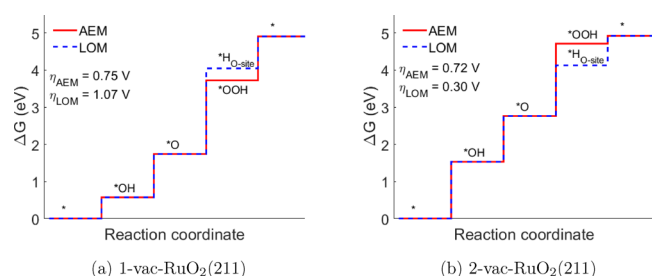


Figure 8. Free energy diagrams for OER via AEM (red solid line) and LOM (blue dashed line) for $\text{RuO}_2(211)$ with (a) one Ru vacancy and (b) two Ru vacancies.

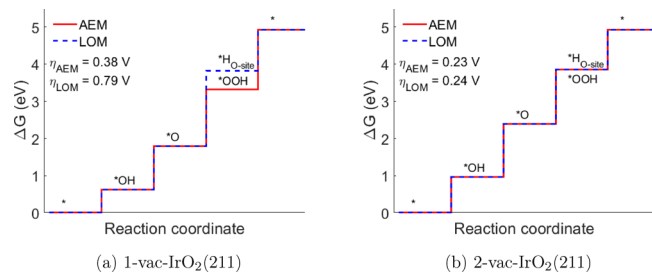


Figure 9. Free energy diagrams for OER via AEM (red solid line) and LOM (blue dashed line) for $\text{IrO}_2(211)$ with (a) one Ir vacancy and (b) two Ir vacancies.

surface by analyzing combinations of one or two Ni dopants with one or two metal vacancies on the example of the $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ surface. As we determine a clear correlation between the OER activity and O 2p-band center position (see the discussion below), we employ the position of the band center as a descriptor in our computational screening. In doing so, we are able to identify the most promising surface structure combining one Ni atom and two metal vacancies, as illustrated in Figure 10. For this structure, we then perform the OER

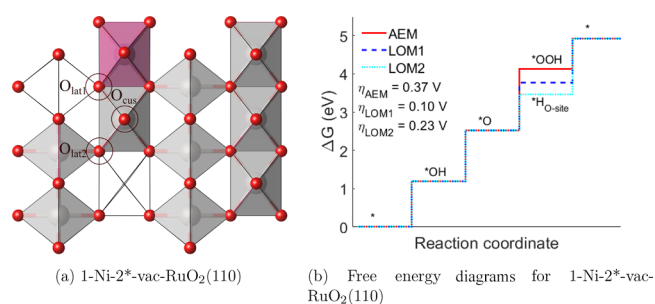


Figure 10. (a) Structural model of $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ with two vacancies doped by one Ni atom ("*" designated one bridge and one cus vacancy). (b) Free energy diagrams for AEM (red solid line), LOM1 (blue dashed line), and LOM2 (cyan dotted line).

thermodynamic calculations for both the AEM and LOM and indeed reveal that the LOM becomes more favorable than the AEM (see Figure 10b).

In addition to the situation of a relatively low defect concentration at the surface, we examine the mixed-defect case with five Ni dopants and one metal vacancy as shown in Figure S1. This case is similar to the one involving six Ni dopants at $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ considered earlier but allows us to further analyze the synergy between two types of defects. It is seen from Table S4 that although AEM is preferred over the LOM in the case of

only one Ru vacancy (0.43 V vs 0.87 V), the situation can be completely reversed by adding five substitutional Ni dopants in the vicinity of the reaction site (0.86 V for the AEM vs 0.46 V for the LOM). If we now compare the latter case with the results obtained for six substitutional Ni dopants (see Figure 6a), it can be observed that η_{LOM} is lower for the mixed-defect situation (0.46 V vs 0.59 V) showing the synergistic effect of two types of defects at the $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ surface. These findings for the mixed-defect situations have important implications for the interpretation of the OER activity in materials where both types of defects can be present such as $\text{Ru}_{0.9}\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{O}_{2-\delta}$.

To even further demonstrate that the phenomenon of switching between the AEM and LOM has a general nature regardless of the chosen atomic-structure model, we also analyze the OER activity at the $\text{RuO}_2(121)$ double kink (see the structural model in Figure S2). It is believed that kinks should play a dominant role in defining the overall dissolution/nucleation kinetics across a number of materials.^{52–54} Previously, the role of $\text{RuO}_2(121)$ double kinks in the OER was considered in a number of theoretical works in the context of a conventional OER mechanism.^{22,50} Here, we extend this analysis by examining the LOM at this model kink site. The pristine kink site (see Table S5) displays an OER overpotential of 0.39 V for the AEM, which is lower than that of the ideal (110) surface.^{22,50} However, when the kink is doped by several Ni atoms (see Figure S2), the LOM becomes as thermodynamically favorable as the AEM. Thus, we find the same trend as for other structural models discussed above where, upon doping, η_{AEM} increases and η_{LOM} decreases, leading to a crossover in OER activity.

Correlation between the OER Overpotentials and Electronic Properties of Catalytically Active Sites. To better understand the AEM and LOM at RuO_2 and IrO_2 surfaces, we investigate the local electronic structure of the O_{cus} and O_{lat} sites using a projected density of states (DOS) analysis. Such analysis has proved to be successful in explaining catalytic activity trends across a variety of catalysts based on electronic-structure descriptors such as transition metal d- and oxygen p-band centers.^{13,50,55,56} Specifically, it was shown that the O 2p-band center can serve as a descriptor for the OER activities of perovskites,⁵⁵ analogously to the d-band center for metal catalysts. This is because the O 2p band is believed to accurately capture the electronic structure properties of oxides, especially in the context of the OER in which the electrochemical steps occur at the oxygen sites. In the case of the OER, oxidation of oxygen becomes thermodynamically favorable when O 2p states at the materials Fermi level lie above the redox energy of the $\text{O}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ couple. It was demonstrated on the example of perovskites¹³ that metal substitution at the A-sublattice of the ACoO_3 structure (e.g., Sr^{2+} by La^{3+}) can promote participation of lattice oxygen in the OER if the Fermi level moves closer to the O 2p states, leading to the more covalent nature of the metal–oxygen bonds.

Figure 11 shows the calculated DOS projected onto the 2p states of the O_{lat} site participating in the LOM. It can be seen that the O 2p-band center clearly shifts to more positive values (closer to the Fermi level) when going from the ideal (110) to one- and two-vacancy surface models for both RuO_2 and IrO_2 . A similar trend is observed when analyzing DOS for the O_{cus} site involved in the AEM shown in Figure S3. To be able to compare the behavior of two catalysts toward the AEM and LOM, we also plot the computed OER overpotentials versus O 2p-band centers for the three structural models with metal

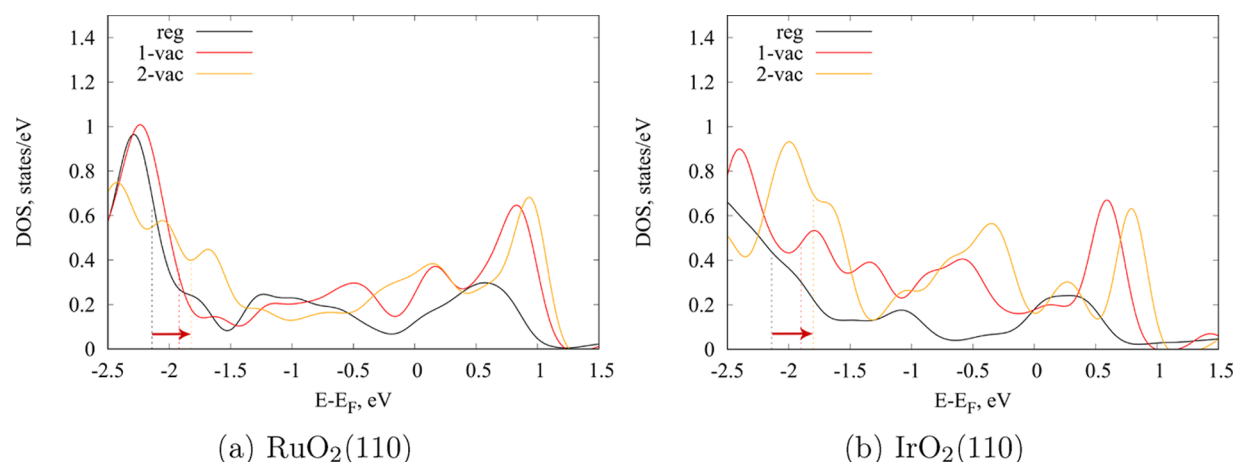


Figure 11. Density of states projected onto the 2p states of the O_{lat} site participating in the AEM at (a) $\text{RuO}_2(110)$ and (b) $\text{IrO}_2(110)$ for regular (reg), one M (1-vac), and two M (2-vac) vacancies surface models. The positions of the O 2p-band center are indicated by dashed lines, showing a shift closer to the Fermi level (taken as zero) when going from the ideal to defective surfaces. The arrows show the band center displacement.

vacancies (Figure 12). It is seen that there is a clear correlation between the two quantities: the closer the O 2p-band center to

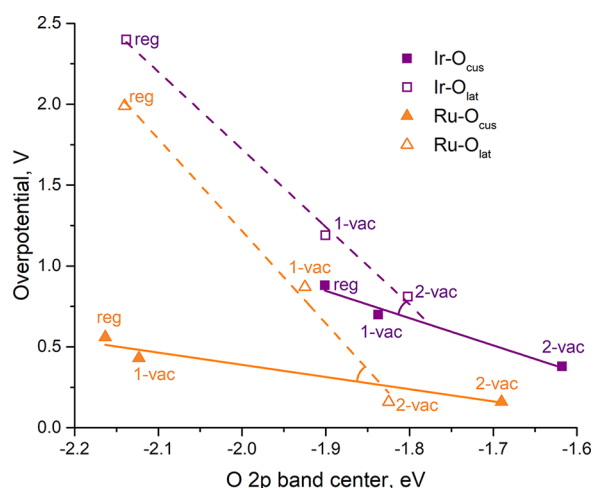


Figure 12. Correlation between the computed OER overpotential and O 2p-band center for the AEM (solid line) and LOM (dashed line) for the $\text{MO}_2(110)$ ($M = \text{Ru}, \text{Ir}$) surface.

the Fermi level, the greater the OER activity. The analogous trend is observed for doped RuO_2 as shown in Figure S4. Moreover, we can observe that the slopes for the AEM and LOM lines are different for a given material, revealing more rapid change of η_{LOM} upon metal-vacancy formation (see Figure 12). What is also interesting is that the LOM in RuO_2 turns out to be more sensitive to the formation of metal vacancies than IrO_2 , as reflected by a larger angle between the lines for RuO_2 than IrO_2 in Figure 12. The same observation can be made when comparing the OER activity of the (211) surfaces where the LOM can outperform the AEM for $\text{RuO}_2(211)$ with two metal vacancies, but not for IrO_2 (see Figures 8 and 9). Therefore, based on these results, we can also hypothesize that lower LOM activity of IrO_2 can contribute to its greater structural stability under OER conditions.

Similar electronic-structure arguments can be applied to explain the difference in reactivity between the two O sites (O_{lat} and O_{cus}) on Ru in pure and doped RuO_2 by analyzing the positions of the d_z^2 and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ band centers of Ru.⁵⁰ Figure

S5 shows the computed DOS projected onto the d_z^2 and $d_{x^2-y^2}$ states of Ru in pure RuO_2 (top panel) and 6-Ni- RuO_2 (bottom panel). It is seen that the d_z^2 -band center is shifted to a higher energy compared to the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ -band center in pure RuO_2 , explaining a greater OER activity of RuO_2 via the AEM than LOM (see Figure 3a). The situation is, however, reversed for the doped system in which the $d_{x^2-y^2}$ states become closer to the Fermi level, making the LOM more preferable ($\eta_{\text{AEM}} = 0.88 \text{ V}$ vs $\eta_{\text{AEM}} = 0.59 \text{ V}$ for 6-Ni- $\text{RuO}_2(110)$, Figure 6a).

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, we have demonstrated that structural defects can make the lattice oxygen mechanism (LOM) competitive with the conventional adsorbate evolving mechanism (AEM) of the OER in rutile RuO_2 and IrO_2 catalysts. Specifically, we have found by considering the (110), (211), and (121) double-kink surfaces that the LOM can outperform AEM at defect sites of RuO_2 such as metal vacancies formed during catalyst dissolution and substitutional dopants (Ni and Co). On the example of Ni-doped RuO_2 with Ru vacancies, we have also revealed a synergistic effect due to the presence of both types of defects at the surface. This helps interpret why the involvement of lattice oxygen was experimentally observed for the nanocrystalline RuO_2 -based materials, but not for the ideal metal-oxide films. IrO_2 is determined to be less LOM active than RuO_2 , suggesting that the LOM should have a weaker destabilizing effect on the IrO_2 lattice. This could be one of the contributing factors to higher IrO_2 stability under electrochemical conditions. The computed projected density of states have provided insights into the differences in the local electronic structure of the AEM and LOM sites for both catalysts, indicating a clear correlation between the O 2p-band center and OER overpotential. To make this study tangible, we needed to set aside a few other aspects that can affect the interfacial behavior of rutile oxides in the OER. These include the effects of the structure and chemistry of the electrical double layer, variations in transition metal oxidation state, and OER kinetics. Future computational investigations are necessary to elucidate the role of those factors in the OER in addition to the impact of structural defects.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.9b05544>.

Additional supporting figures showing structural models and projected density of states, as well as the calculated reaction free energies with the corresponding OER overpotentials. (PDF)

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

Vitaly Alexandrov – Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering and Nebraska Center for Materials and Nanoscience, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, Nebraska 68588, United States; orcid.org/0000-0003-2063-6914; Phone: +1 402 4725323; Email: valexandrov2@unl.edu

Author

Alexandra Zagalskaya – Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, Nebraska 68588, United States

Complete contact information is available at: <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.9b05544>

Notes

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