



Defective Ru-doped α -MnO₂ nanorods enabling efficient hydrazine oxidation for energy-saving hydrogen production via proton exchange membranes at near-neutral pH

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ABSTRACT

Proton exchange membrane water electrolysis (PEMWE) shows substantial advantages over the conventional alkaline water electrolysis (AWE) for power-to-hydrogen (PtH) conversion, given the faster response and wider dynamic current range of the PEMWE technology. However, PEMWE is currently still expensive due partly to the high voltage needed to operate at high current densities and inevitable usage of precious iridium/ruthenium-based catalysts to expedite the slow kinetics of the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) and to ensure sufficient durability under strongly acidic conditions. Herein, we report that ruthenium doped α -manganese oxide (Ru/ α -MnO₂) nanorods show outstanding electrocatalytic performance toward the hydrazine (N₂H₄) oxidation reaction (HzOR) in near-neutral media (weak alkaline and weak acid), which can be used to replace the energy-demanding OER for PEMWE. The as-prepared Ru/ α -MnO₂ is found to comprise abundant defects. When used to catalyze HzOR in the acid-hydrazine electrolyte (0.05 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄), it can deliver an anodic current density of 10 mA cm⁻² at a potential as low as 0.166 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). Moreover, Ru/ α -MnO₂ exhibits remarkable corrosion/oxidation resistance and remains electrochemically stable during HzOR for at least 1000 h. Theoretical calculations and experimental studies prove that Ru doping elongates the Mn–O bond and produces abundant cationic defects, which induces charge delocalization and significantly lowers material's electrical resistance and overpotential, resulting in excellent HzOR catalytic activity and stability. The introduction of N₂H₄ significantly reduces the energy demand for hydrogen production, so that PEMWE can be accomplished under remarkably low voltages of 0.254 V at 10 mA cm⁻² and 0.935 V at 100 mA cm⁻² for a long term without notable degradation. This work opens a new avenue toward energy-saving PEMWE with earth-abundant OER catalysts.

1. Introduction

The rapidly increasing energy demand and environmental pollution

have stimulated intensive research on clean, efficient and scalable energy systems [1]. To achieve sustainable energy production, power-to-hydrogen (PtH) conversion via water electrolysis using renewable

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sourced electricity will be playing a crucial role in the emerging hydrogen (H₂) economy [2–4]. To this end, proton exchange membrane water electrolysis (PEMWE), as an emerging technology, has shown significant advantages over the conventional alkaline water electrolysis (AWE), because PEMWE allows for higher operational current densities, higher energy efficiency, more compact system design, and more rapid system response [5,6]. However, driving the energy-demanding oxygen evolution reaction (OER) under acidic conditions in PEM electrolyzers is nontrivial [7–9], and the electrocatalysts have to suffer from chemical/electrochemical corrosion and associated severe over-oxidation and dissolution, especially at high operational voltage [10,11]. In this case, using acid-stable platinum group metals (PGMs) such as iridium (Ir) usually becomes indispensable, but this not only substantially increases the hydrogen production cost, but also poses a worrisome risk of global Ir supply, particularly considering the planned deployment on hundreds of gigawatts scale [12]. To address these challenges, significant effort has been made to reducing the Ir usage for acidic OER [5,9,13–15] and developing novel non-PGM based OER catalysts [16,17]. However, only incremental progress has been achieved so far.

Accomplishing OER in a strong acid essentially dictates a harsh condition for electrocatalysts to survive. Therefore, it is highly preferable if the anodic reaction may occur under a much milder condition to alleviate the requirements for the materials of OER catalysts and other components. To this end, replacing OER with the small molecule electro-oxidation reaction (SMOR) represents a promising approach, and some attempts have been made recently by adding molecules such as alcohols [18,19], amine [20,21], urea [22,23] or hydrazine (N₂H₄) [24,25] into the electrolyte during water electrolysis. In this way, the onset of anodic reaction can be largely shifted negatively, not only enabling a mild anodic reaction condition but remarkably lowering the demand for electrical energy input and thereby realizing energy-saving H₂ production. For example, hydrazine oxidation reaction (HzOR) in couple with the cathodic hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) have been reported by several groups [25–28] as an energy-saving approach to H₂ production, because the HzOR in theory takes place at a fairly low potential of –0.33 V vs. reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) [29]. By doing so, H₂ production was able to be accomplished at a large current density of 500 mA cm^{–2} at a low voltage of only 0.53 V with good catalytic stability [24]. Nonetheless, nearly all previous works on SMOR + HER for water electrolysis were demonstrated in strongly alkaline media, and such a concept, to our knowledge, has not been implemented yet for water electrolysis under near-neutral conditions, due mostly to the lack of corresponding efficient and stable HzOR catalysts [30–32].

Herein, we report the synthesis of ruthenium-doped α -manganese oxide (Ru/ α -MnO₂) nanorods (NRs), which show outstanding HzOR performance in near-neutral electrolytes (weak alkaline and weak acid). Advanced transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and synchrotron X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) measurements revealed that the isomorphical substitution of Mn with Ru in the cryptomelane framework of manganese oxide introduces many cationic defects and elongated Mn–O bonds. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations show that these cationic defects can give rise to charge delocalization and thereby significantly reduce the catalyst's electrical resistance and overpotential for HzOR. Consequently, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ can catalyze the HzOR under weak alkaline conditions (0.05 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄, pH = 8.3) at 10 mA cm^{–2} under a potential of merely 0.166 V vs. RHE, which is 1.687 V lower than that of OER at the same current density. Impressively, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ was able to continuously catalyze HzOR more than 1000 h with minimal degradation. Furthermore, we demonstrate that by coupling commercial Pt/C catalysts for the HER, we can accomplish overall hydrazine-mediated PEMWE (OHZ-PEMWE) under a low cell voltage of 0.254 and 0.935 V at 10 and 100 mA cm^{–2}, respectively, and the OHZ-PEMWE can operate at 100 mA cm^{–2} for at least 120 h without obvious degradation. Besides, PEMWE can also be accomplished in weak acid electrolyte (0.225 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄, pH = 5.9), and show good overall electrocatalytic performance in two-electrode

configuration, which holds great promise for cost-effective H₂ production using PEMWE technology.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Reagents

Potassium permanganate (KMnO₄), manganese sulfate monohydrate (MnSO₄·H₂O) and ruthenium(III) chloride hydrate (RuCl₃·xH₂O) were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich, Probus S.A. and Johnson Mathey, respectively. Nitric acid (65%, HNO₃) - technical grade was bought from Panreac. Nafion® perfluorinated resin solution (5 wt%) and sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Pt/C (20 wt%) catalysts and Nafion 115 membranes were purchased from Fuel Cell Store. All reagents and materials were used as received without further purification.

2.2. Synthesis of Ru/ α -MnO₂

The Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts were synthesized via a method reported previously with some modification [33]. Typically, 2.29 g of KMnO₄ were dissolved in 40 mL of Milli-Q water, which was then added to a solution of 3.52 g of MnSO₄·H₂O in 12 mL of Milli-Q water and 1.2 mL HNO₃ (65%). Subsequently, 0.242 g of RuCl₃·xH₂O was added to the above solution. The mixed solution was refluxed at 100 °C for 24 h. The obtained product was centrifuged, washed with water until the pH was about 7, and then dried under vacuum at 100 °C overnight for further use. The α -MnO₂ materials were synthesized using the same procedure as described above without the addition of RuCl₃·xH₂O.

2.3. Materials characterization

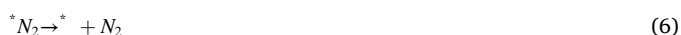
Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) examinations were conducted on an X'Pert PRO diffractometer (PANalytical) working at 45 kV and 40 mA with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.541874 \text{ \AA}$) and a PIXcel detector. Data were collected with the Bragg-Brentano configuration in the 2 θ range of 10 – 80° at a scan speed of 0.01° s^{–1}. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) characterization was performed on an ESCALAB 250Xi instrument with an Al K α X-ray source (1486.6 eV). Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) was performed on an ERTEX 80v vacuum FT-IR spectrometer (Bruker). Raman spectroscopy examination was done on a confocal Raman spectrometer (Witec Alpha 300R). Nitrogen adsorption/desorption porosimetry measurements were conducted using a Quantachrome Autosorb IQ2 system at 77 K, and the surface area of samples was derived from the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. The morphology was characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, FEI Quanta 650 FEG microscope equipped with an INCA 350 spectrometer). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM), high-resolution TEM (HRTEM), and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) investigations were carried out on a probe-corrected transmission electron microscope operating at 200 kV (FEI Themis 60 – 300). The actual metal contents of K, Ru and Mn were detected by the inductively coupled plasma – optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES, ICPE-9000 spectrometer, Shimadzu). The X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) was conducted at the BL22-CLAESS beamline, ALBA Synchrotron (Barcelona, Spain) [34]. The Si111 and Si311 double-crystal monochromators were exploited to acquire the spectra at the Mn and Ru K-edge, respectively, while the higher harmonics were rejected by choosing the appropriate incident angle and coating for the collimating and focusing mirrors. The XAS spectra were acquired in transmission mode by means of ionization chambers. The X-ray absorption near-edge spectra (XANES) were normalized by the linear representation of the pre-edge subtracted post-edge, while a standard procedure based on the polynomial spline function fit to the pre-edge subtracted spectra was employed to extract the extended X-ray absorption fine-structure (EXAFS) oscillations [35,36]. The Fourier transforms (FTs) were

obtained using a Hanning window in the 3–14 Å⁻¹ *k* range.

2.4. DFT calculations

DFT calculations using the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package (VASP) [37,38] were performed to optimize geometry structures, and the projector augmented wave (PAW) [39,40] pseudopotential and Revised Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (RPBE) [41] exchange–correlation functional were employed to calculate all geometry optimizations and self-consistent total-energy. Zero damping DFT-D3 method of Grimme was used for van der Waals correlation correction [42]. A kinetic energy cut-off of 400 eV was set for the plane-wave expansion. The convergence criteria of final energy and force of all structures were less than 10⁻⁶ eV and 0.02 eV, respectively. The Brillouin zone was sampled with 1 × 1 × 1 Gamma *k*-point mesh for energy and 3 × 3 × 1 Monkhorst-Pack *k*-point mesh for electronic structure calculations. The α-MnO₂ supercell is cubic with dimensions of 19.98 × 19.98 × 20.89 Å³ for *x*, *y* and *z* directions, and the periodic condition is employed along *z* direction. The distance between neighbouring cells is 20.89 Å. The following catalyst models were used for the calculations toward the HzOR: pristine α-MnO₂; perfect Ru-doped Ru/α-MnO₂; Ru/α-MnO₂ with cationic defects.

The oxidation of hydrazine into nitrogen and hydrogen occurs via the following six consecutive elementary steps:



where the asterisk (*) represents the active site on the model catalysts of pristine α-MnO₂, perfect Ru/α-MnO₂ and Ru/α-MnO₂ with cationic defects. “*N₂H₄”, “*N₂H₃”, “*N₂H₂”, “*N₂H”, and “*N₂” denote the corresponding chemisorbed intermediate species residing on the model catalyst surfaces.

2.5. Electrocatalytic tests

The catalyst ink was prepared by ultrasonically dispersing 5 mg of catalysts into 0.5 mL of isopropanol containing 50 μL of Nafion® solution. To prepare an electrode for catalytic tests, 20 μL of catalyst ink was loaded on a fine-polished glassy carbon (GC) electrode with an exposed area of 0.50 cm², leading to a loading mass of ca. 0.36 mg cm⁻² for the HzOR and OER, respectively. The electrode was then dried at room temperature (ca. 25 °C) naturally in air.

All electrocatalytic tests of half reactions were carried out in a three-electrode configuration at room temperature (23 °C) using a Biologic VMP-3 potentiostat/galvanostat. The catalyst-loaded GC, a graphite rod and a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) were used as working, counter, and reference electrodes, respectively. The OER and HzOR measurements were carried out in 0.05 M and 0.225 M H₂SO₄. For HzOR tests, different concentrations of hydrazine were dissolved in the electrolyte. The SCE reference electrode was calibrated to the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE) scale through a method proposed by Jaramillo et al. [43]. In short, clean Pt wires were used as the working and counter electrodes, with the SCE as the reference in the target electrolyte. Cyclic voltammetry (CV) curves were then recorded at a scan rate of 1 mV s⁻¹, and the potential crossing the zero current was taken as the potential for calibration on RHE scale in subsequent measurements [43].

The apparent OER activity was characterized using CV at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹, and an *iR*-correction (85%) was made to compensate for the voltage drop between the reference and working electrodes, which was measured by a single-point high-frequency impedance test. The electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted at 1.853 V vs. RHE for the OER and 0.166 V vs. RHE for the HzOR in the frequency range of 10⁵ – 0.01 Hz with a 10 mV sinusoidal perturbation. The stability of the Ru/α-MnO₂ catalyst was assessed using chronopotentiometry (CP) at a constant current density of 10 and 100 mA cm⁻² for the HzOR. The electrochemically accessible surface areas (ECSAs) were calculated from the electrochemical double-layer capacitance of the catalytic surface according to the following equation [44]:

$$ECSA = \frac{C_{dl}}{C_s} \quad (7)$$

where the double-layer capacitance (*C_{dl}*) of catalysts was estimated by performing CV in the non-Faradaic potential range of 0.46 to 0.66 V vs. RHE at different scan rates (*v*) of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90 and 100 mV s⁻¹, followed by extracting the slope from the resulting $|j_a - j_c|/2$ vs. *v* plots (*j_a* and *j_c* represent the anodic and cathodic current at 0.56 V vs. RHE). The specific capacitance value (*C_s*) was assumed to be 0.035 mF cm⁻² according to previous studies on metal oxide catalysts [45].

Furthermore, the overall hydrazine-assisted PEMWE was carried out using the Ru/α-MnO₂ as the anode catalysts for HzOR and commercially available Pt/C (20% Pt, Fuel Cell Store) as the cathode catalysts for HER. 20 μL of 9.1 mg mL⁻¹ Pt/C catalyst ink was loaded on a GC electrode with an exposed area of 0.50 cm². The polarization curve was acquired at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹ and the stability of PEMWE (i.e., HzOR + HER) was tested at 10 and 100 mA cm⁻², respectively. The Nafion® 115 membrane was used in our experiments, which was sandwiched between the anodic and cathodic compartments of a Teflon test cell.

3. Results and discussion

As detailed in the Experimental section, the isomorphically substituted cryptomelane-type Ru/α-MnO₂ catalysts were synthesized by a template/surfactant-free reaction between KMnO₄ and MnSO₄, during which 2 wt% RuCl₃ was incorporated drop-wise as the source of Ru dopants. Fig. 1a shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of as-prepared Ru/α-MnO₂ and the pristine α-MnO₂ control sample, which were in good agreement with those previously reported for cryptomelane-type materials, confirming the tetragonal KMn₈O₁₆ crystal phase (ICDD no. 00-020-0908). No diffraction peaks from any manganese and/or ruthenium segregated phases were detected for Ru/α-MnO₂, suggesting that Ru has been successfully doped into/onto the cryptomelane crystallites forming a pure phase. Furthermore, the diffraction peak intensity becomes weaker and the peak position of Ru/α-MnO₂ slightly shifts toward a lower angle compared to that of pristine α-MnO₂ (Fig. 1a inset), indicating that the Ru doping causes reduced crystallinity and lattice expansion of α-MnO₂. The morphology and microstructure of Ru/α-MnO₂ and α-MnO₂ were further examined by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Fig. S1) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Fig. S2). The pristine α-MnO₂ was found to be composed of crystalline NRs, whose diameter and length are 20 – 30 nm and several micrometers, respectively. Doping Ru into α-MnO₂ did not markedly alter its NR-like morphology but shortened the length of NRs, as revealed by SEM and TEM examination (Fig. 1b-c and S1), which indicates that the addition of RuCl₃ precursors, even little, influences the nucleation and growth of Ru/α-MnO₂ NRs. Fig. 1d shows the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image, where the interplanar spacing of (310) planes of Ru/α-MnO₂ increases from 3.1 Å to 3.7 Å compared to the pristine α-MnO₂ (Fig. S2c), consistent with the XRD results. In addition, defective areas with disordered lattice structure were also observed (Fig. 1e), which could be attributed to the substitution of Mn with larger Ru atoms and the variation of Mn valence [46]. Defect

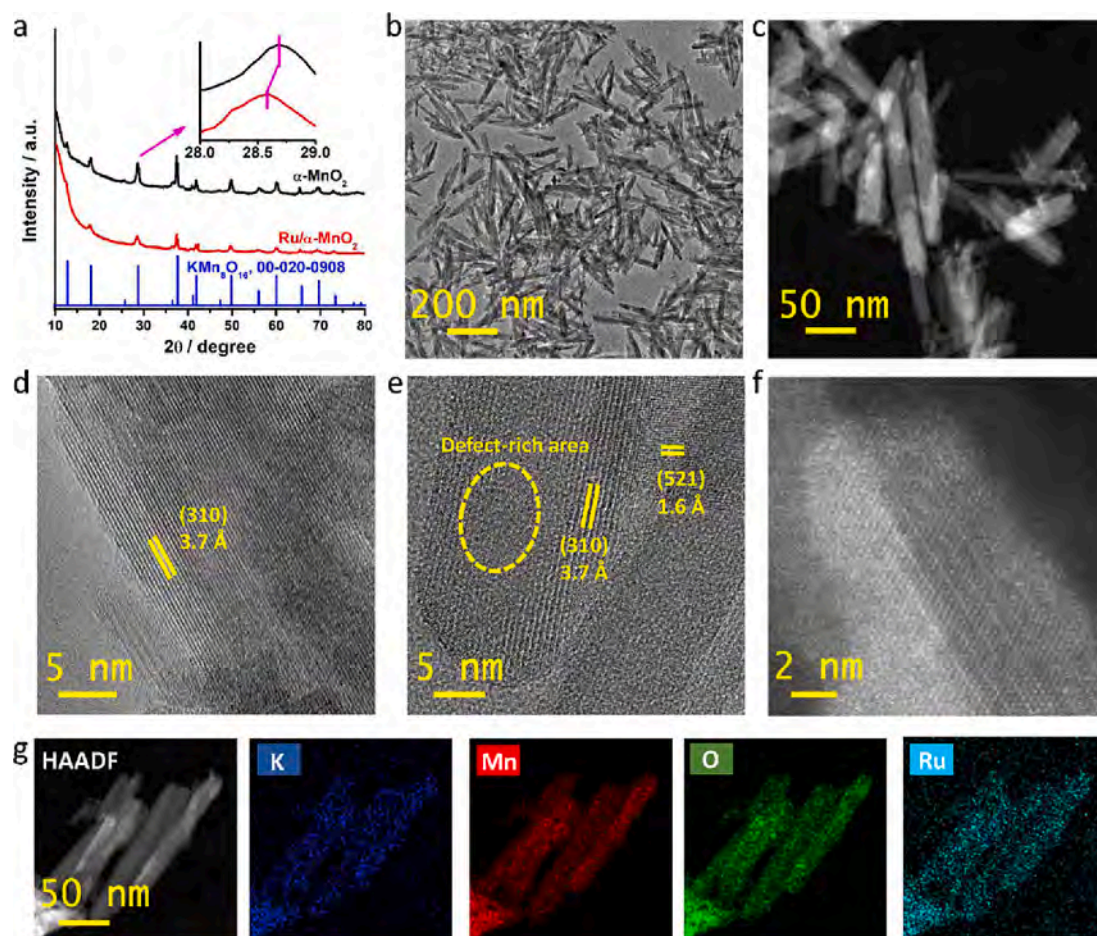


Fig. 1. Morphology and microstructure characterization of Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts. (a) XRD patterns of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and pristine α -MnO₂. (b) Low-magnification TEM image. (c) Low-magnification HAADF-STEM image. (d, e) HRTEM images. (f) HAADF-STEM image. (g) HAADF-STEM image and the corresponding elemental maps of K, Mn, O and Ru.

engineering has been widely used recently to design and optimize microstructure of heterogeneous catalysts [47,48]. Particularly, for metal oxide catalysts, engineering defects, especially cationic defects, turns out to be an effective means to optimize the electronic and orbital structures to create active sites and moderate binding energy with reaction intermediates [49–51].

The incorporation of Ru into α -MnO₂ was further confirmed by inductively coupled plasma – optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) and energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) (Fig. S3 and Table S1). We found that the amount of K nearly remained unchanged after Ru doping, the amount of Mn was reduced, and meanwhile signals from Ru appeared in Ru/ α -MnO₂. Therefore, we believe that Ru atoms were doped into the α -MnO₂ structure and expanded the lattice spacing by replacing the Mn atoms located in the framework rather than substituting the K cations in the tunnels, generating disordered amorphous phases [52,53] and inducing a structural disorder [54,55], which was verified by the attenuated XRD peak intensity and broadened full width at half maximum (FWHM, Fig. 1a). According to previous reports [5,33,56], such an amorphous phase comprises a large number of under-coordinated defects, able to boost the electrocatalytic activity and reaction kinetics; moreover, the structurally flexible amorphous phase could also facilitate charge and electron transfer between the active sites and intermediates [22,57]. We further performed aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) to investigate the atomic structure of Ru/ α -MnO₂. Given that the HAADF signal intensity is proportional to the square of the atomic number (Z), the bright spots in the HAADF-STEM image

(Fig. 1f and S4) are believed to result from Ru atoms ($Z_{\text{Ru}} = 44$ vs. $Z_{\text{Mn}} = 25$), in agreement with a recent report on Ru/MnO₂ [58]. In addition, elemental mapping showed that the K, Mn, O and Ru elements distribute uniformly along and across the NRs (Fig. 1g). The K element originates from the KMnO₄ precursor used during materials synthesis, which is already incorporated into the lattice of α -MnO₂.

The Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) and Raman spectra of Ru/ α -MnO₂ closely resemble those of pristine α -MnO₂, indicating that introducing Ru atoms into α -MnO₂ did not alter the bulk molecular structure of α -MnO₂ (Fig. S5). However, the Mn–O force constant (k) of Ru/ α -MnO₂ (299.143 N m⁻¹), calculated from Raman spectra (Fig. S5b) according to the Hooke's Law, was smaller than the original α -MnO₂ (308.564 N m⁻¹), suggesting that the Mn–O bond has been weakened by Ru doping [59–64]. The nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherm of Ru/ α -MnO₂ was further measured and compared to that of pristine α -MnO₂. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts is 92 m² g⁻¹, substantially higher than that of the pristine α -MnO₂ (61 m² g⁻¹) (Fig. S6), which implies that doping Ru in α -MnO₂ and the induced under-coordinated defects are beneficial to expose more active sites and promote mass transport.

We investigated the surface chemistry of α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The survey spectrum of Ru/ α -MnO₂ shows the presence of K, Mn, Ru, and O elements (Fig. S7), consistent with the above EDS analysis. The high-resolution O1s spectra (Fig. 2a) of all samples can be de-convoluted into several peaks, corresponding to metal–O (529.3 eV), defective O (530.8 eV) and adsorbed water (533.0 eV), respectively [54,65,66]. As shown in Fig. 2a and

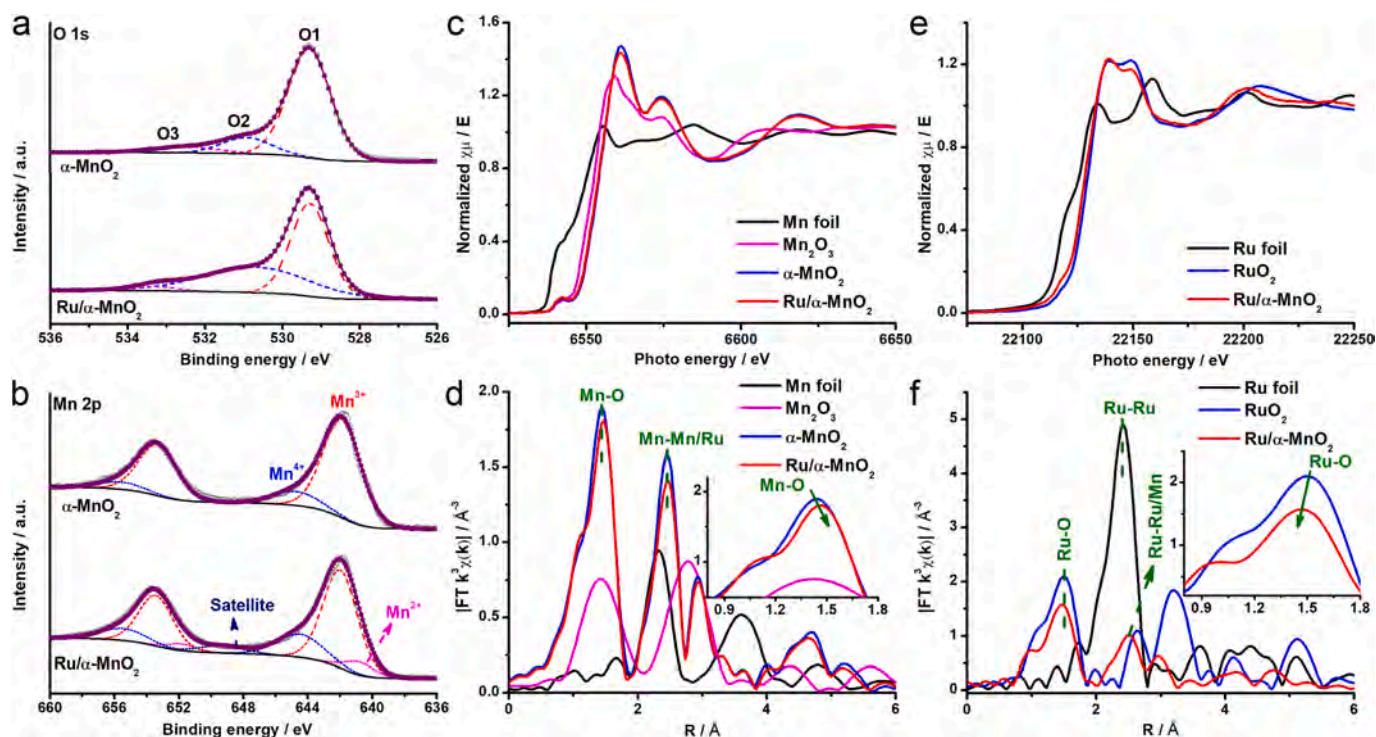


Fig. 2. Electronic structure analyses of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and the pristine α -MnO₂. High-resolution (a) O1s, (b) Mn2p XPS spectra of samples. (c) Mn K-edge XANES spectra of Mn foil, Mn₂O₃, α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂. (d) Fourier transform of the EXAFS spectra in real (R) space. (e) Ru K-edge XANES spectra of Ru foil, RuO₂ and α -MnO₂. (f) Fourier transform of the EXAFS spectra in real (R) space.

Table S2, the proportion of metal–O bonds in Ru/ α -MnO₂ decreases markedly, and Ru/ α -MnO₂ possesses more oxygen defects, with respect to α -MnO₂. Besides, the Mn2p spectra of samples are analyzed (Fig. 2b). The α -MnO₂ shows two de-convoluted Mn2p_{3/2} peaks at 641.9 and 644.7 eV, which can be assigned to Mn³⁺ and Mn⁴⁺ species, respectively [65,67]. For Ru/ α -MnO₂, in addition to the contributions from Mn³⁺ and Mn⁴⁺ species, a new peak that is ascribed to Mn²⁺ (ca. 7.5%) appears, due to the change of valence states of Mn upon Ru doping [60]. Moreover, a weak satellite peak is observed at ca. 649.4 eV, which is the characteristic of Mn²⁺ species [68], corroborating that α -MnO₂ was partially reduced upon Ru doping. Additionally, the high-resolution Ru3p_{3/2} spectrum of Ru/ α -MnO₂ was acquired, which displays two peaks at 463.2 and 467.1 eV, respectively, corresponding to Ru³⁺ and Ru⁴⁺ species (Fig. S8) [67,69].

X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectroscopy measurements were further carried out to gain more insight into the chemical state in the bulk. Fig. 2c shows the Mn K-edge XANES spectra of Mn foil, Mn₂O₃, α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂. The absorption spectra of α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ are very similar to that of Mn₂O₃ with the rising edge at a higher energy than that of the Mn foil reference, indicating that the oxidation state of Mn in these samples is close to Mn³⁺. Fig. 2d displays the Fourier transform (FT) of the k^3 -weighted $\chi(k)$ -function curves of the non-phase corrected Mn K-edge EXAFS spectra. The α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ exhibit two predominant peaks at 1.45 and 2.47 Å, corresponding to the Mn–O and Mn–Mn bonds, respectively [17,70]. In general, the amplitude of oscillation peaks in R -space is related to the atomic coordination number and the mean square disorder, and both a lower coordination number and large mean square disorder are reflected by a lower amplitude [54,55,67]. As revealed in Fig. 2d, the amplitude of the characteristic peaks of Ru/ α -MnO₂ is smaller than that of α -MnO₂, suggesting the existence of a slightly higher local structural disorder around the Mn site in Ru/ α -MnO₂ [25,71]. Additionally, the distance between O and Mn atoms increases after the original Mn atoms are replaced by Ru atoms, consistent with the Raman results (Fig. S5b) [65,71]. The Ru K-edge XANES spectra (Fig. 2e) show

the rising edge of Ru/ α -MnO₂ close to that of RuO₂, indicating that Ru in Ru/ α -MnO₂ carries positive charges, in agreement with the XPS result (Fig. S8). At Ru K edge, two main features appear in the FT of the EXAFS spectra at 1.46 and 2.50 Å for Ru/ α -MnO₂, corresponding to Ru–O and Ru–Ru/Mn bonds, respectively (Fig. 2f) [58]. A closer look at the spectra further discloses that the Ru–O bond in Ru/ α -MnO₂ is shorter than that in RuO₂ (inset, Fig. 2f) [65,69], which indicates that after Ru doping, O atoms are “pulled” toward Ru and go away from Mn atoms. This is expected to have an impact on the electrocatalytic performance of sample, as will be discussed later [65,69].

The electrocatalytic performance of Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts toward HzOR was firstly evaluated in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte with different concentrations of hydrazine at a scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹. As shown in Fig. 3a, within the potential window under investigation (i.e., 0–1 V vs. RHE) there is no oxidative current appearing in the linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curve for the electrolyte without hydrazine (black trace in Fig. 3a), while a remarkable oxidative current can be observed as long as 0.1 M N₂H₄ is added into the electrolyte. The anodic current density keeps increasing with the increased concentration of N₂H₄ and finally becomes constant when the N₂H₄ concentration reaches 0.5 M, which is selected as the optimal concentration in our study. In addition, varying the scan rate from 5 to 100 mV s⁻¹ only led to a negligible change in polarization curves (Fig. S9), indicating efficient charge/mass transport and fast kinetics of the HzOR. To further scrutinize the electrocatalytic activity of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and α -MnO₂, we compared the LSV curves of samples, acquired in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte in the absence and presence of 0.5 M N₂H₄. In the absence of N₂H₄, both samples exhibit mediocre acidic OER performance, requiring a large overpotential to reach a current density of 10 mA cm⁻² (Fig. 3b). After adding 0.5 M N₂H₄ into the electrolyte, the HzOR takes place much earlier than the OER, leading to a significant negative shift of the anodic onset potential for both samples. In particular, Ru/ α -MnO₂ can deliver 10 mA cm⁻² at an anodic potential of only 0.166 V vs. RHE, 1.687 V lower than that for OER (1.853 V vs. RHE) to reach the same current density. Fig. 3c further compares the electrocatalytic HzOR and OER performance of Ru/

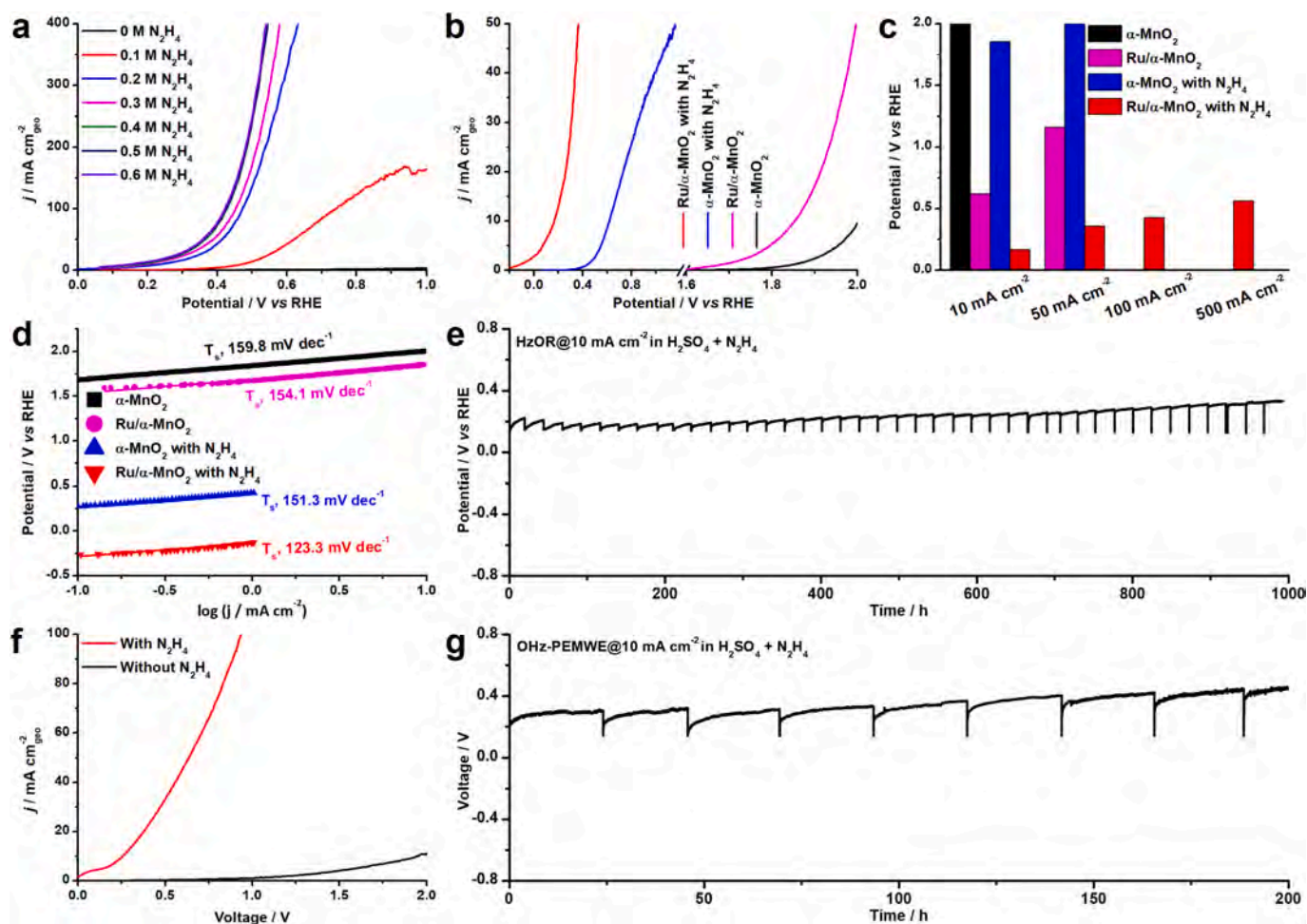


Fig. 3. Electrochemical performance of Ru/ α -MnO₂. (a) The LSV curves measured in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ with different concentrations of N₂H₄. Scan rate: 5 mV s⁻¹. (b) Polarization curves of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and α -MnO₂ catalysts in the absence and presence of 0.5 M N₂H₄. (c) Anodic potential comparison of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and α -MnO₂ catalysts at various current densities in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ with and without the addition of 0.5 M N₂H₄. (d) Tafel plots for HzOR and OER derived from the LSV curves. (e) Chronopotentiometric curves of Ru/ α -MnO₂ for HzOR at a constant current density of 10 mA cm⁻². (f) Polarization curves of a Ru/ α -MnO₂ || Pt/C electrolyzer measured in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ with and without 0.5 M N₂H₄. (g) Chronopotentiometric curve of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ || Pt/C cell recorded at 10 mA cm⁻² in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄, for the overall hydrazine-mediated PEMWE (Ohz-PEMWE). The spikes in (e) and (g) correspond to the replenishment of the electrolyte.

α -MnO₂ and α -MnO₂ in the 0.05 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte with and without 0.5 M N₂H₄, where Ru/ α -MnO₂ exhibits excellent catalytic activities, able to deliver a large current density of 500 mA cm⁻² at an anodic potential of merely 0.564 V vs. RHE in the presence of 0.5 M N₂H₄, better than the α -MnO₂ catalyst tested under the same conditions, confirming the advantage of Ru doping.

The reaction kinetics of catalysts was evaluated by Tafel analysis (Fig. 3d). The Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst shows a smaller Tafel slope of 123.3 mV dec⁻¹ for HzOR, compared to itself toward OER and α -MnO₂ for both reactions, suggesting its more favorable catalytic kinetics toward HzOR (Fig. 3d). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements also disclosed that Ru/ α -MnO₂ exhibits a much smaller charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}), indicative of the rapid charge transfer process at the electrode/electrolyte interface (Fig. S10). To further assess the intrinsic catalytic activity, the ECSA of Ru/ α -MnO₂ and α -MnO₂ was estimated by the electrochemical double-layer capacitance (C_{dl}) method (Fig. S11). The Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst shows an ECSA (371.4 cm²) much higher than α -MnO₂ (291.4 cm²), implying that it has significantly more active sites exposed. Nevertheless, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst still exhibits a larger specific activity than α -MnO₂ for both HzOR and OER (Fig. S12), corroborating its high intrinsic catalytic activity.

The long-term stability is a critically important indicator of electrocatalysts for practical applications in water electrolyzers. The durability

of Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts toward HzOR was evaluated by chronopotentiometry in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄ electrolyte (pH = 8.3). As shown in Fig. 3e, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst is able to continuously catalyze HzOR at 10 mA cm⁻² for at least 1000 h with minimal degradation, showing outstanding durability. Furthermore, the operational stability of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst was tested at a higher current density of 100 mA cm⁻² in the same electrolyte. The HzOR can be accomplished stably under a low potential of 0.428 V for 220 h (Fig. S13), with only a slight increase in potential in the beginning of the test. Additionally, we performed post-mortem XPS and TEM analyses of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalysts after the extended HzOR stability test at 10 mA cm⁻² (Fig. S14). The Mn2p and Ru3p XPS spectra of Ru/ α -MnO₂ after the durability test (Fig. S14a and S14b) reveal that the valence states of Mn and Ru in Ru/ α -MnO₂ kept almost unchanged after the HzOR. Fig. S14c and S14d show that the NR-like microstructure was well retained but some ultrafine clusters with sub-nanometric sizes appeared alongside the Ru atom arrays. The above results demonstrate that adding hydrazine into the electrolyte can remarkably shift the anodic oxidation potential negatively, reducing the electrical energy input for hydrogen production; more importantly, it enables excellent operational stability given that hydrazine will neutralize the strong acid leading to a less aggressive oxidation environment, which in conjunction with the low working potential make Ru/ α -MnO₂ remain electrochemically stable in

a long term.

Considering the superior catalytic activity and long-term stability of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ catalyst toward HzOR, a two-electrode electrolyzer using Ru/ α -MnO₂ as the anode catalysts and commercial Pt/C as the cathode catalysts has been assembled, with a proton exchange membrane (PEM) in between. The mixture of 0.05 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄ was employed as the electrolyte in both anodic and cathodic compartments. The Ru/ α -MnO₂ || Pt/C pair can deliver geometric current densities of 10 and 100 mA cm⁻² at voltages of 0.254 V (E_{10}) and 0.935 V (E_{100}), respectively, in the presence of N₂H₄, significantly lower than the performance of the same electrode pair measured in 0.05 M H₂SO₄ without N₂H₄ (E_{10} = 1.948 V) (Fig. 3f). Additionally, the volume ratio of H₂ over N₂ is close to 2:1 and the Faradaic efficiency of the overall reaction is nearly 100% (Fig. S15). Besides, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ || Pt/C pair also demonstrates outstanding long-term durability for the HzOR-assisted water electrolysis, able to produce H₂ at 10 mA cm⁻² for 200 h without notable degradation (Fig. 3g). More importantly, the electrolysis can be accomplished stably at a higher current density of 100 mA cm⁻² for at least 120 h (Fig. S16). It was noted that as the HER went

on, we did not detect obvious pH difference between the cathodic and anodic compartments within a few hours, likely because the protons consumed at the cathode can be compensated by the PEM.

Furthermore, we confirm that the HzOR and OHZ-PEMWE can also be accomplished using Ru/ α -MnO₂ as the anode catalysts in weak acid electrolyte (i.e., 0.225 M H₂SO₄ + 0.5 M N₂H₄, pH = 5.9). In this case, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ can deliver geometric current densities of 10 and 100 mA cm⁻² at potentials of 0.325 V and 0.627 V vs. RHE, respectively, still showing good catalytic activity (Fig. S17a) and stability (100 h @ 10 mA cm⁻² without degradation, Fig. S17b). Besides, the OHZ-PEMWE based on the Ru/ α -MnO₂ || Pt/C pair is able to be achieved with small cell voltages of 0.491 V (E_{10}) and 1.145 V (E_{100}) at current densities of 10 and 100 mA cm⁻² (Fig. S17c), respectively, exhibiting a favorable feature in energy-saving.

To gain a fundamental understanding of the enhanced HzOR catalytic activity, we further investigated the hydrazine oxidation processes on the pristine α -MnO₂, perfect Ru/ α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ containing vacancies (defects) using density functional theory (DFT) calculations (Fig. S18). As shown in Fig. 4a, the hydrazine oxidation process usually

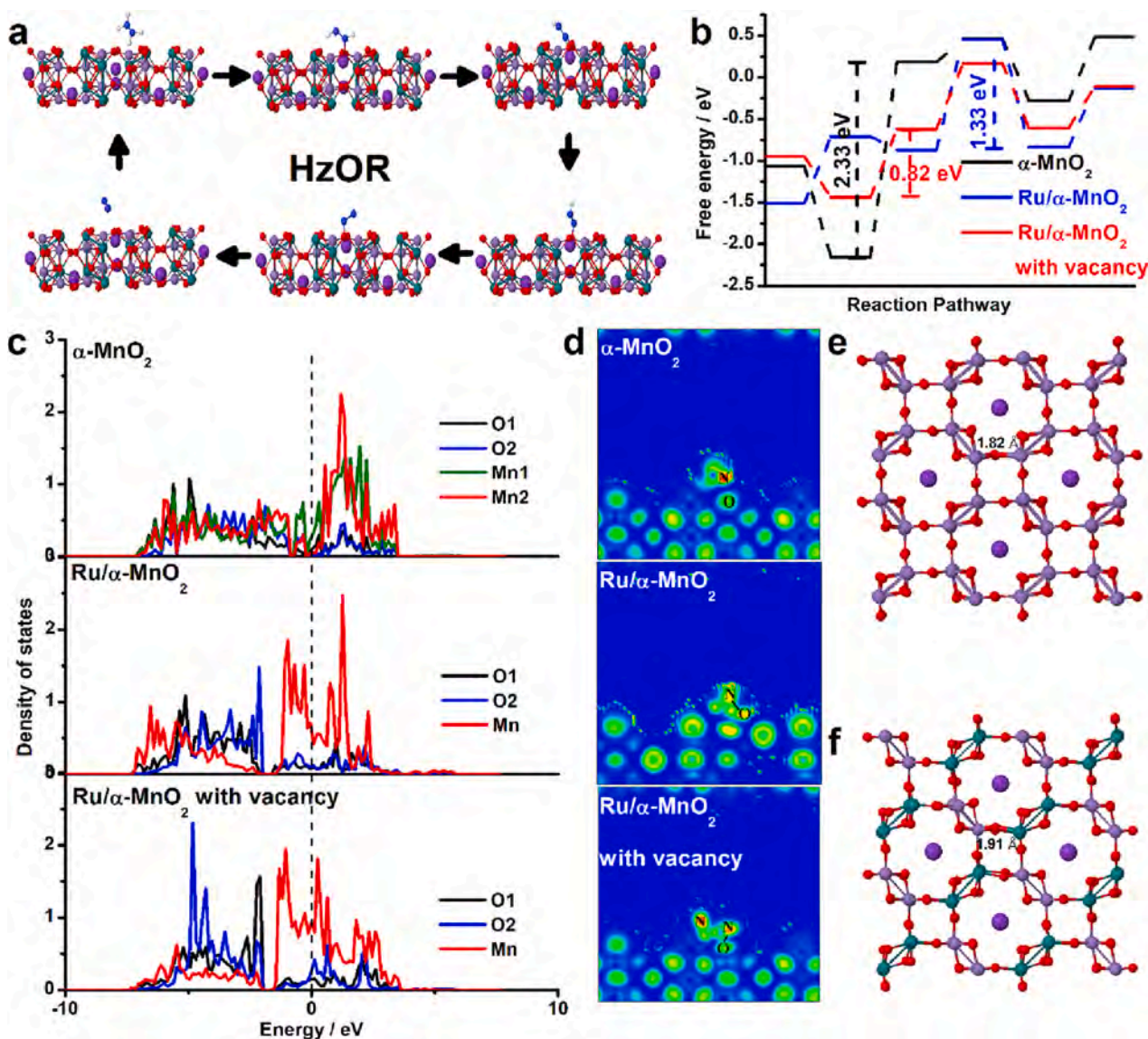


Fig. 4. Computational analyses of the Ru/ α -MnO₂ for HzOR. (a) The proposed HzOR reaction steps. (b) The Gibbs free energy diagrams for the six reaction steps of HzOR. (c) PDOS and (d) ELF analyses of the α -MnO₂, Ru/ α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ with vacancy configurations. The optimized unit cell structures of (e) α -MnO₂ and (f) Ru/ α -MnO₂ showing the bond length. The purple, lavender, green and red spheres represent K, Mn, Ru and O atoms, respectively, in all models. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

involves the adsorption of hydrazine molecules and the following four consecutive dehydrogenation steps (i.e., $^*N_2H_4 \rightarrow ^*N_2H_3 \rightarrow ^*N_2H_2 \rightarrow ^*N_2H \rightarrow ^*N_2$). Therefore, the Gibbs free energies of the above catalyst models during the HzOR were calculated (Fig. 4b). The results show that the potential determining step (PDS) in the four-electron process for α -MnO₂ support is $^*N_2H_3 \rightarrow ^*N_2H_2 + H^+ + e^-$, with a relatively high energy barrier of 1.33 eV [72]. For Ru/ α -MnO₂, the PDS has been altered to the fourth elementary step ($^*N_2H_2 \rightarrow ^*N_2H + H^+ + e^-$) with a much lower energy barrier of 1.33 eV, suggesting that Ru doping reinforces the adsorption strength of the *N_2H_2 intermediates and significantly improves the HzOR performance. Introducing cationic vacancy further helps decrease the barrier to 0.82 eV, demonstrating that under-coordination can accelerate the adsorption kinetics, thus boosting the intrinsic activity of HzOR.

The projected density of states (PDOS) was calculated to study the change in electronic properties after the introduction of Ru and vacancy. As shown in Fig. 4c, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ with vacancy shows a larger PDOS near the Fermi level, compared to the pristine α -MnO₂ and perfect Ru/ α -MnO₂, which can lead to a higher intrinsic electrical conductivity and provide more charge carriers for the catalytic reaction, boosting charge transfer kinetics. To further investigate the electronic interaction between the catalyst and the reactant/intermediates, we analyzed the electron localization function (ELF). While for α -MnO₂, the N atom in the reactant/intermediates does not tend to adsorb on the catalyst forming a bond with O, a bonding state between N and O can be notably observed in Ru/ α -MnO₂ (Fig. 4d). However, this bond is so strong that it is not conducive to desorption, which would result in a higher activation energy. In comparison, the Ru/ α -MnO₂ with vacancy shows a moderate bonding strength, and thus has a better HzOR activity than perfect Ru/ α -MnO₂. The optimized unit cell structures of α -MnO₂ and Ru/ α -MnO₂ are displayed in Fig. 4e and f. The distance between O and Mn atoms increases from 1.82 to 1.91 Å after the original Mn atoms are replaced by Ru atoms. The Mn–O bonds show a tendency of being elongated, and the opposite is observed for the Ru–O bonds, consistent with previous Raman spectroscopy and EXAFS results (Fig. 2 and S5). This likely facilitates the generation of cationic defects, thus promoting the catalytic activity. Overall, our comprehensive DFT calculations revealed that Ru doping and the introduced vacancy increase the inherent conductivity and charge concentration of the catalyst and render a moderate adsorption energy between the catalysts and reactant/intermediates, thus synergistically enhancing the HzOR activity. The theoretical analyses support our experimental results consistently.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we report that Ru-doped α -MnO₂ nanorod catalysts show excellent electrocatalytic performance toward HzOR via proton exchange membranes and we further demonstrate that the HzOR-mediated overall water electrolysis can be carried out in near-neutral electrolytes to produce H₂, with significantly reduced cell voltage and good long-term stability, even at a large current density. Our comprehensive theoretical and experimental analyses reveal that Ru doping and the resultant cationic defects may elongate the Mn–O bond and alter the electronic structure of catalysts and thereby the interaction between catalysts and reactant/intermediates, thus reducing the overpotential and accelerating the reaction. The use of Ru/ α -MnO₂ for the anodic HzOR completely eliminates the need for Ir-based materials to catalyze the OER in PEMWE, and moreover, the coupling of HzOR and HER substantially lowers the demand for electrical energy that accounts for a large amount of H₂ production cost, holding great promise for use in future green hydrogen production.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.144050>.

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