## Reactions and Catalytic Properties of Ruthenium Dioxide Hydrate with Aqueous Solutions of Cerium(IV)

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The redox catalytic properties of ruthenium dioxide hydrate (RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O) were studied using a test system of Ce<sup>4+</sup> in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. In powder form RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O appeared a poor redox catalyst unless bound to an inert support, such as titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>). This was attributed to the production of ruthenium tetraoxide (RuO<sub>4</sub>), which was observed with RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O and a RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O—TiO<sub>2</sub> mixture but not with a TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. In the absence of a catalyst, or when TiO<sub>2</sub> or Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were used, no decay of the Ce<sup>4+</sup> was observed (t > 200 h).

For many years considerable effort has been directed towards finding chemical processes which are capable of collecting and storing light energy. More recently  $^{3-9}$  work has focused on the photochemical production of  $H_2$  from water, of which one approach is the combination of a photo-redox process, equation (1) (where S represents

$$S + R \xrightarrow{h\nu} S^{+} + R^{-} \tag{1}$$

the photoactive donor and R the electron acceptor), with the catalytic step, equation (2). In many of the systems

$$R^{-} + H_{2}O \xrightarrow{\text{catalyst}} \frac{1}{2}H_{2} + OH^{-} + R \qquad (2)$$

developed so far <sup>10</sup> the back-conversion of S<sup>+</sup> into S is achieved using a donor which undergoes irreversible oxidation according to equation (3). Due to the irreversibility of equation (4), such systems are often called 'sacrificial.'

$$D + S^+ \longrightarrow D^+ + S \tag{3}$$

$$D^+ \longrightarrow permanent products$$
 (4)

Ultimately, however, a practical device must use water as the electron donor as in equation (5). For this

$$4S^{+} + 2H_{2}O \xrightarrow{\text{catalyst}} 4S + O_{2} + 4H^{+}$$
 (5)

reason there is a great deal of work and interest surrounding the study of catalysts capable of O<sub>2</sub> production from equation (5). The difficulties lie in finding a catalyst able to operate, without corrosion, under the very oxidising conditions necessary to oxidise water. In addition, the catalyst must be specific to water oxidation, especially as they are often used in the presence of readily oxidisable organic material, such as dye sensitisers. Such problems are not new and a great deal of electrochemical work has gone into finding suitable anode materials for water oxidation. Interestingly, ruthenium dioxide hydrate (RuO2\*xH2O) has a low overpotential and great stability toward Cl2 and O2 evolution when bound to an electrode surface.<sup>11</sup> In the study of suitable catalysts for equation (5), it is mostly the noble metal oxides 11-18 that have been used with any success and, of these RuO2.xH2O has been used most extensively. 13-18 Indeed, whether it is used as a powder, 13 colloid,14,15 or bound to some inert material, such as

titanium dioxide, <sup>17</sup> RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O is now generally recognised as one of the best catalysts capable of mediating O<sub>2</sub> evolution from water via equation (5).

In a previous communication <sup>19</sup> we briefly outlined work on  $RuO_2\cdot xH_2O$ , both in powder and  $TiO_2$ -bound forms, as a mediator in equation (5) using a test system of  $Ce^{4+}$  in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup>  $H_2SO_4$ . Under these conditions the  $Ce^{4+}$  ion is stable, although from its redox potential  $[E^0(Ce^{4+}/Ce^{3+})=+1.44\ V]$  it should spontaneously liberate  $O_2$  from water. This reaction fails due to kinetic factors <sup>20</sup> and a redox catalyst is required. In this paper I describe, in more detail, this and subsequent work which brings into question the redox catalytical properties of  $RuO_2\cdot xH_2O$  in the presence of strong oxidising agents and offers  $RuO_2$  bound to  $TiO_2$  as an alternative catalyst.

## EXPERIMENTAL

Materials.—Samples of RuO<sub>2</sub>:xH<sub>2</sub>O from both Aldrich Chemicals and Alpha Inorganics were used. Concentrated volumetric solutions of cerium sulphate were purchased (B.D.H.) and diluted with 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> as required. Ruthenium tetraoxide and titanium dioxide were obtained from Pierce Inorganics and B.D.H. respectively. The RuO<sub>2</sub>-TiO<sub>3</sub> 'unbound 'catalyst was prepared by thoroughly grinding TiO<sub>2</sub> (1 g) with RuO<sub>2</sub>:xH<sub>2</sub>O (8 mg). The TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst was prepared as outlined by Grätzel and co-workers, <sup>21</sup> using TiO<sub>2</sub> in place of CdS. Using ca. 10 mg of RuO<sub>4</sub> to 1 g of TiO<sub>2</sub>, the final product had a ruthenium content of 5.7 mg/g as determined by atomic absorption.

Methods.—Absorption spectra were recorded on a Perkin-Elmer-Hitachi 200 spectrophotometer. Dissolved oxygen measurements were made on a Clark membrane oxygen electrode purchased from Rank Brothers (Cambridge). A detailed description of the experimental arrangement, sensitivity, and calibration of this instrument is given elsewhere.22 The Ce4+ concentrations were determined by absorption spectroscopy ( $\lambda_{max.}=320~\text{nm}$ ;  $\epsilon_{320}=5~580~\text{dm}^3~\text{mol}^{-1}~\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) <sup>23</sup> after filtration through a 0.2  $\mu$ m disposable filter holder (Schleicher and Schüll) coupled with a 1 cm<sup>3</sup> syringe to remove any powder. This allowed samples (1 cm³) to be taken free from catalyst, diluted with 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and the optical density at 320 nm determined in a 1 cm quartz cell. Analysis of the RuO2 bound to TiO2 powder for Ru, using atomic absorption, was performed by Butterworths Ltd. (Teddington). Electron micrographs were recorded at Westfield College, University of London on a AEI 801 transmission electron microscope, with the help of C. Walker.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Previous work by Kiwi and Grätzel <sup>13,14</sup> established RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O as a suitable redox catalyst to mediate O<sub>2</sub> production from water using the test system of Ce<sup>4+</sup> in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. They reported <sup>14</sup> a rate constant of 0.3 h<sup>-1</sup> for equation (5), where S<sup>+</sup> represents Ce<sup>4+</sup>. Unfortunately I have been unable to reproduce these results. Indeed, small amounts of RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O, well dispersed in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, on addition to a Ce<sup>4+</sup> solution appeared to dissolve completely with no concomitant rapid Ce<sup>4+</sup> decay, the solution remaining stable over several weeks. In an attempt to resolve this situation a more rigorous study was undertaken.

If a sonicated RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O suspension (5 cm<sup>3</sup>) (1 mg cm<sup>-3</sup> in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup>  $H_2SO_4$ ) is added to 250 cm<sup>3</sup> of a 3.5  $\times$ 10<sup>-3</sup> mol dm<sup>-3</sup> Ce<sup>4+</sup> solution, the black dioxide 'catalyst' appears to dissolve. Minutes later, any organic material introduced above the solution is rapidly blackened. Further work with starch-iodide paper indicated that a strong oxidant was released into the gas phase upon addition of the oxide to the Ce4+ solution. Using a 10 cm quartz cell, the change in optical density of the gas phase above a RuO2.xH2O-Ce4+ solution mixture was recorded, at intervals, over a period of 5 h. The results showed conclusively that a substance was indeed released into the gas phase on addition of RuO2·xH2O to the Ce4+ solution and, in addition, the absorption spectrum of this substance could be identified as that of RuO<sub>4</sub> vapour,<sup>24</sup> a very strong oxidant. The vapour could also be condensed onto a cold-finger and the resultant absorption spectrum of the collected solution identified as that of an aqueous RuO<sub>4</sub> solution.<sup>24</sup> Using chlorine as an oxidant, instead of Ce4+, it was found that this too would oxidise RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O to RuO<sub>4</sub>. In contrast, neither Ce<sup>4+</sup> nor chlorine appeared to oxidise anhydrous RuO<sub>2</sub>. The reasons for this are not known.

Further work showed that  $RuO_4$  in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup>  $H_2SO_4$  appears to decay slowly in the dark back to the +4 state; not to  $RuO_2*xH_2O$  but instead to a red-brown water-soluble species, identified from its absorption spectrum ( $\lambda_{max} = 500$  nm) <sup>25</sup> as  $RuO^{2+}$ . This cationic species appeared readily oxidisable, using  $Cl_2$  or  $Ce^{4+}$ , to  $RuO_4$ . Addition of alkali to a  $RuO^{2+}$  solution resulted in precipitation of a fine dark brown-green solid which, in contrast with  $RuO_2*xH_2O$ , was soluble on reacidification. The identity of this precipitate is unclear but, if allowed to age, it appears to take on some of the characteristics of  $RuO_2*xH_2O$  (e.g. colour, acid insolubility etc.).

In neutral solution, RuO<sub>4</sub> appears to decay over a period of days to a green, water-soluble species (possibly a Ru<sup>VI</sup> complex) which, on further standing, decays to a fine black solid (probably RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O). In alkaline solution, RuO<sub>4</sub> is reduced (at a rate which is dependent upon OH<sup>-</sup> concentration and impurities present) to the perruthenate ion (RuO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>). This anionic species ( $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 385$  and 310 nm) <sup>26</sup> is unstable <sup>27</sup> and decomposes to O<sub>2</sub>

and the orange  $(\lambda_{\rm max.}=465~{\rm nm})^{26}$  ruthenate ion (RuO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>). Both species were identified by absorption spectroscopy. The literature <sup>26,28</sup> is divided on the stability of the RuO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> species, but I have found that solutions could be kept for long periods of time (t>6 months) with no decomposition. Here, as with the +7 and +8 oxidation states, the reduction of ruthenium appears to be very sensitive to minute traces of impurities.<sup>26</sup>

In agreement with work by Gortsema and Cobble,<sup>29</sup> the Ce<sup>4+</sup> concentration dropped rapidly on addition of the oxide powder and this fall in concentration corresponded to more than (up to two times) the number of equivalents necessary to oxidise the RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O to RuO<sub>4</sub>. These extra equivalents are believed to oxidise water bound to the oxide.<sup>29</sup> From this work I propose the qualitative scheme shown in equations (6)—(11).

$$RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O \xrightarrow{\text{Ce}^{4} + (0.5 \text{ mol dm}^{-2} H_{8}SO_{4})} RuO_{4} + nO_{2} \uparrow \qquad (6)$$

$$RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O \xrightarrow{\text{fast}} RuO_{4} \qquad (7)$$

$$RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} RuO^{2} + H_{2}O + O_{2} \qquad (8)$$

$$RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} \text{green intermediate} \xrightarrow{\text{slow}} RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O \qquad (9)$$

$$RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{neutral}} RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{oH}^{-}} RuO_{4} \qquad (10)$$

$$RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O$$

$$RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O$$

$$RuO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O \xrightarrow{\text{fast}} RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{oH}^{-}} RuO_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{oH}^{-}} RuO_{4} \qquad (11)$$

The rapid nature of reaction (6) is illustrated in Figure 1 from which we can see that on addition of the dispersed oxide, the  $Ce^{4+}$  concentration drops 'instantaneously' (i.e., within the time taken for the measurement) to an approximately constant value (this variation in  $Ce^{4+}$  concentration is repeated when further amounts of oxide are added). If no more oxide is added, the  $Ce^{4+}$  con-

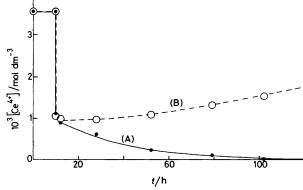


FIGURE 1 Ce<sup>4+</sup> concentration versus time profiles for RuO<sub>2</sub>:xH<sub>2</sub>O (15 mg), dispersed in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-2</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (15 cm<sup>2</sup>), added (at t=10 h) to a Ce<sup>4+</sup> solution (100 cm<sup>3</sup>). Curve (A) represents no N<sub>2</sub> purging and (B) represents continuous N<sub>2</sub> purging (causing a slow increase in Ce<sup>4+</sup> concentration due to solvent evaporation)

centration remains constant over 1-2 h but over a period of days the Ce4+-RuO2 solution mixture decays to Ce3+ and RuO2+ [Figure 1, curve (A)] owing to the cyclic nature of equations (8) and (11).

Some confirmation of the above hypothesis was obtained by passing a continuous stream of  $N_2$  through the solution. Owing to the volatile nature (b.p. 40 °C) 27 of RuO<sub>4</sub>, the N<sub>2</sub> should sweep it out, preventing the cyclic equations (8) and (11). The Ce4+ concentration versus time profile [Figure 1, curve (B)] was compared with that of an identical system, with no N<sub>2</sub> purging [Figure 1, curve (A)]. Although, in both cases, the Ce4+ concentration dropped instantaneously on addition of the oxide, only the non-N<sub>2</sub> purged solution decayed further over the following hours. In contrast there was no subsequent slow decay of the Ce4+ concentration in the continuously N<sub>2</sub> purged solution. Further work on RuO<sub>4</sub>, using an oxygen-detecting membrane electrode, indicated that equation (8) was light catalysed. For example, a dilute solution of RuO<sub>4</sub> (10<sup>-4</sup> mol dm<sup>-3</sup>) in the dark gave a rate of oxygen production of  $2 \times 10^{-8}$  mol dm<sup>-3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> and, upon illumination with a 900 W xenon lamp, the rate increased to  $1.6 \times 10^{-7}$  mol dm<sup>-3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>.

These findings bring into question the suitability of RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O as a redox catalyst to mediate water oxidation from strong oxidants, such as Ce4+. Also, these results, in particular the loss of RuO<sub>4</sub> to the gas phase, may help to explain the irreproducibility found by other workers using powdered RuO2.xH2O as a redox catalyst.30-32 Ruthenium dioxide hydrate appears to act more as a catalyst when bound to TiO<sub>2</sub> (ca. 9.5 mg RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O:1 g TiO<sub>2</sub>). In contrast, if approximately the same amount of RuO<sub>2</sub>·xH<sub>2</sub>O, as that on the TiO<sub>2</sub>bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst, is added to an identical Ce<sup>4+</sup> solution, only a slow Ce4+ decay is observed. In addition, there is evidence for RuO<sub>4</sub> in both vapour and liquid phases, whereas with the TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst no such evidence for RuO<sub>4</sub> formation is found. The role of TiO<sub>2</sub> in the TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst appears not to be one of simply absorbing the unstable RuO<sub>4</sub>. Evidence for this comes from a study of the catalytic properties of an unbound RuO<sub>2</sub> powder. In the presence of Ce4+ this unbound catalyst shows many of the features of RuO2·xH2O alone (see above) and none of those associated with the bound form.

There was no appreciable decrease in Ce4+ concentration in the absence of catalyst or when TiO2 or Al2O3 were used. In contrast, the TiO2-bound RuO2 powder was found to catalyse the Ce4+ to Ce3+ decay on the addition of not only one but several further aliquots of Ce4+ (Figure 2), although the rate of Ce4+ decay appears slower with each addition (this might partly result from the loss of available overpotential for O<sub>2</sub> evolution due to the accumulation of Ce<sup>3+</sup>). Initial transmission electron micrographs show the TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> powder to consist of particles ca. 50—100 nm which, in a dispersed solution, form aggregates of ca. 600-700 nm. A more detailed study of these particles, using electron microscopy coupled with X-ray analysis, is in progress.

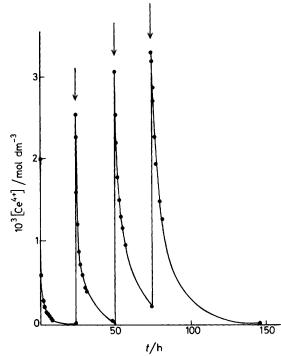


FIGURE 2 Ce<sup>4+</sup> concentration versus time profile on addition (at t=0) of a TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> powder (100 mg), dispersed in 0.5 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (20 cm<sup>3</sup>), to a Ce<sup>4+</sup> solution (80 cm<sup>3</sup>). The vertical arrows indicate further additions of Ce<sup>4+</sup>

Until this and further studies are completed an explanation as to how the TiO<sub>2</sub>-bound RuO<sub>2</sub> catalyst works cannot be attempted.

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