#### **REVIEW**



# Recent Advances in the Regulation of Oxygen Vacancies in MnO<sub>2</sub> Nanocatalysts

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#### **Abstract**

Enhanced oxygen vacancy  $(V_O)$  has been designated as an effective strategy to prepare high-performance  $MnO_2$  nanocatalysts for the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOC) for thereof unbalanced electronic structure, and rapid electron transfer which may even reduce the reaction temperature down to room temperature. Herein, the effects of the  $V_O$  on the catalytic performance of nano-sized  $MnO_2$  were discussed by classifying the  $V_O$  into surface-anchored and bulk-involved ones. Currently used introducing and modulating methods for  $V_O$  including elemental doping, energetic particle bombardment, atmosphere heat treatment, mechanical chemistry, and redox methods are detailly reviewed. Corresponding regulating mechanisms for  $V_O$  are expounded. Commonly used characterization methods including ESR, XPS, HRTEM, and UV-vis are reviewed. Furtherly, the unveiled question which is highly expected to be answered on  $V_O$  of  $MnO_2$  nanocatalysts is proposed. The purpose of this review is to present the current status of research on  $MnO_2$  nanoparticles and to provide researchers with basic research ideas.

**Keywords** Oxygen vacancy · Volatile organic compounds · Manganese dioxide · Low-temperature catalytic oxidation · Heterogeneous catalysis

#### 1 Introduction

In recent years, with the boosted industrialization, the environmental pollution caused by volatile organic pollutant (VOC) emissions has attracted widespread attention [1]. To solve the VOC environmental pollution, among many efficient green catalytic technologies, nanocatalysts are highly promising due to their high response rate, high catalytic activity, and large specific surface area [2].

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As a new inorganic catalytic material, MnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles stand out from other nano-catalytic materials based on the following points.

- (1) Its ability to respond to both light and heat and its ability to catalyse the degradation of organic pollutants at room temperature or in the absence of light, allowing for a wider range of applications [3].
- (2) The wide range of crystalline forms (Fig. 1), can be adjusted by hydrothermal synthesis and high-temperature treatment to modulate their catalytic performance for different pollutants.
- (3) Among all the transition metal oxides, MnO<sub>2</sub> has the highest catalytic activity for formaldehyde [4].
- (4) It has the advantages of high activity, low toxicity, low cost, and abundant raw material reserves.

In addition to the selective modulation of  $MnO_2$  crystalline form, the temperature, precursor concentration, and precursor type can also be regulated to fabricate  $MnO_2$  catalysts with different morphologies such as nanorods, nanowires, and nanoflowers, enabling  $MnO_2$  catalysts with superior



Fig. 1 MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts of various crystal types [5] (a)  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, (b)  $\beta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, (c)  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, (d)  $\gamma$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, and (e)  $\epsilon$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>.

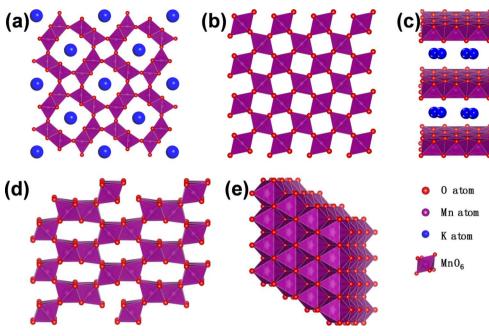
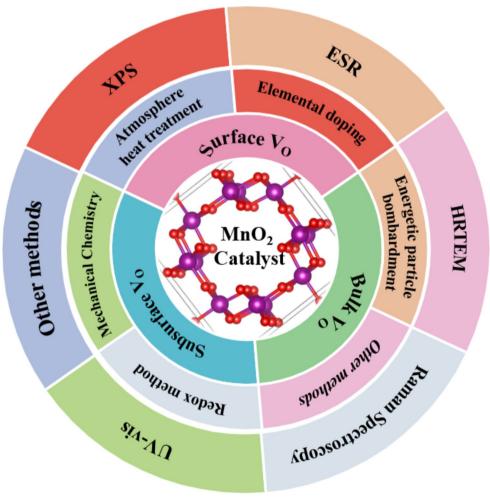


Fig. 2 Classification, introducing and modulating, and characterization methods of Vo for  $\rm MnO_2$  nano-catalyst



catalytic performance. Wang et al. prepared nano- $\alpha$ -MnO $_2$  in the form of rods, wires, and tubes, respectively, and found

that the rod-shaped  $\alpha$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> had the best catalytic degradation performance for formaldehyde [6].



However, the nano-MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts also suffer from high photogenerated electron-hole complexation rates and low catalytic activity at low temperatures [7]. To solve these problems, researchers have tried many methods, such as elemental doping, heterostructure construction, defect engineering [8] (crystal plane control, V<sub>O</sub>), etc. All existing studies have found that oxygen vacancies act as adsorption and active sites that can capture gaseous oxygen and activate it into active oxygen species thus improving the catalytic activity of MnO<sub>2</sub> [9]. A detailed review of the modulation mechanism of oxygen vacancies in MnO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and their effects on the catalytic activity has not been reported. Therefore, this paper presents a review of the recent research progress on the effects of oxygen vacancies (V<sub>O</sub>) on the catalytic activity of MnO<sub>2</sub>, the introduction and modulation of Vo, and the characterization method of  $V_0$  as shown in Fig. 2.

# 2 Effects of The V<sub>O</sub> on The Catalytic Performance of Nano-sized MnO<sub>2</sub>

#### 2.1 The Definition of Vo

The term,  $V_O$ , was first introduced by scientists in 1960. The oxygen-deficient vacancies formed by the escape of lattice oxygen in metal oxides are known as  $V_O$  (oxygen defects), which are anionic defects and a type of crystal defect (Fig. 3) [7].

The formation of  $V_0$  in MnO<sub>2</sub> due to the charge compensation mechanism causes a varied valence state of partial cations to maintain the charge conservation of the catalyst as shown in Eq. (1) [10].

$$2Mn^{4+} + 2O^{2-} + 2Mn^{4+} \rightarrow 2Mn^{3+} + 2V_O + 2Mn^{3+} + O_2 \uparrow$$
 (1)

According to the location of  $V_O$  generated in the catalyst,  $V_O$  can be classified as a surface vacancy, subsurface vacancy, and bulk phase oxygen vacancy [11].

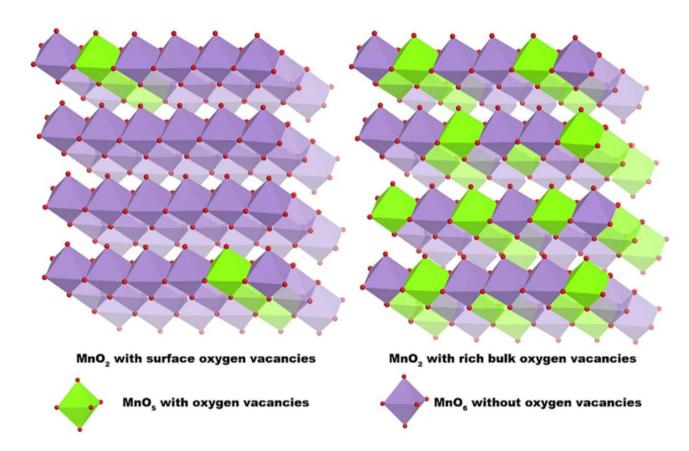


Fig. 3 Bulk-phase and surface  $V_0$  in  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> [7]

### 2.2 Effect of V<sub>0</sub> on The Catalytic Performance of MnO<sub>2</sub>

It was found that the formation of  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$ , due to the Jahn-Teller effect, stretches the bond length of Mn-O and makes it easier to break, thus allowing the escape of oxygen atoms [12]. The surface  $\mathrm{V_O}$ , the bulk phase  $\mathrm{V_O}$ , and thereof concentrations of  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  affect the catalytic performance of  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  catalysts together. Therefore, we will elaborate on the mechanisms of these three factors on the catalytic performance of  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  individually.

### 2.2.1 Effect of Surface $V_0$ on The Catalytic Performance of $MnO_2$

It was found that surface  $V_O$  can act as active sites for catalytic reactions and adsorption sites for oxygen [13] and can activate oxygen  $(O_2)$  to reactive oxygen species, a process that is a key step in the catalytic oxidation of  $MnO_2$  [14].

The effect of surface  $V_O$  on the catalytic performance of MnO<sub>2</sub> is not only an active site's catalytic reaction but also improves the catalytic activity of MnO<sub>2</sub> by promoting the reactivity and mobility of surface lattice oxygen [10]. Santos et al. demonstrated that lattice oxygen can participate in catalytic reactions and partial MnO<sub>2</sub> is reduced to Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> which could be finally reverted to MnO<sub>2</sub> by filling with oxygen [15]. Zhu et al. proved that the MnO<sub>2</sub> surface  $V_O$  affects the lattice oxygen mobility by unbalancing the surface lattice oxygen to allow the escape of  $V_O$  close to the surface [8]. Consumed lattice oxygen in the catalytic oxidation reaction can be replenished by adsorbing gaseous oxygen onto the  $V_O$  [16].

The mechanism by which surface  $V_O$  affects the catalytic performance of  $MnO_2$  is shown in Fig. 4. It is noteworthy that it has not been concluded whether the lattice oxygen participates in the catalytic reaction through  $V_O$  after being oxidized to reactive oxygen species or through other forms.

In addition, Cheng et al. showed by density flooding theory (DFT) calculations that surface  $V_{\rm O}$  can reduce the kinetic potential barrier for oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). The kinetic potential barrier is reduced by 0.96 and 0.55 eV after the introduction of 1 to 2 oxygen vacancies on the surface, respectively [17]. Similarly, Yang et al. suggested that  $V_{\rm O}$  can reduce the energy potential barrier for NO reduction and improve the adsorption capacity of the catalyst. Oxygen vacancies reduce the energy barrier for \*NH2 formation by more than 0.3 eV as confirmed by NH<sub>3</sub>-TPD [18]. Wang et al., suggested that positively charged surface  $V_{\rm O}$  can accumulate free electrons, endowing MnO<sub>2</sub> with a similar role to that of noble metal catalysts [19].

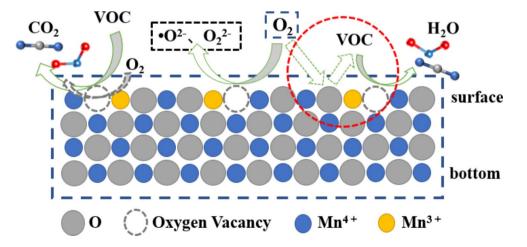
However, some researchers have other views. Wang et al. argued that the oxygen species (i.e.,  $O^{2-}$ ,  $O_2^{2-}$ , etc.) or lattice oxygen is the active center of the catalytic reaction [20]. Zhao et al. argued that in the hydrogen precipitation (HER) and oxygen precipitation (OER) reactions,  $Mn^{3+}$  acts as the active site, and the  $V_O$  promotes  $H_2O$  adsorption [9]. Therefore, it is debatable about the active center of  $MnO_2$ -catalyzed reactions. Zhu et al. suggested that both surface  $V_O$  and cations associated with  $V_O$  synergistically affect the catalytic performance of  $MnO_2$  [21].

Some researchers claimed that the  $MnO_2$  surface  $V_O$  is unstable. Li et al. suggested that the  $V_O$  on the  $\beta$ - $MnO_2$  surface is occupied by oxygen atoms released during the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) [11]. Santos suggested that some intermediates of catalytic degradation accumulate and occupy the surface  $V_O$  [15]. In a word, the stability of  $V_O$  on the  $MnO_2$  surface can be affected by various reaction environments.

### 2.2.2 Effect of Bulk-phase V<sub>0</sub> on The Catalytic Performance of MnO<sub>2</sub>

As we all know, MnO<sub>2</sub> is a catalyst of photothermal catalyst. The absorbance of the photo is significant in increasing the performance of the catalyst. The narrowing of the

Fig. 4 Mechanism of surface V<sub>O</sub> affecting the catalytic performance of MnO<sub>2</sub>(side view)





forbidden band width can promote the absorption of light and thus increase the concentration of photogenerated carriers. However, too small a band gap will reduce the redox ability of photogenerated carriers, thus reducing or even losing the photocatalytic ability of MnO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the effect of the regulation of the MnO<sub>2</sub> band gap on its catalytic performance is also very important. Li et al. found that moderate bulk phase V<sub>O</sub> concentration can reduce the band gap of MnO<sub>2</sub> and improve its conductivity through simulations. However, high V<sub>O</sub> concentration broadens the band gap and affects its conductivity, and Vo can form new crystalline phases in β-MnO<sub>2</sub> [11]. Zhang et al., calculated by density flooding theory (DFT) that bulk-phase Vo can reduce the band gap of MnO<sub>2</sub>, accelerate the electron transfer rate and obtain electron leaving domains [7]. And due to the limitation of objective preparation methods, it is not possible to produce oxygen vacancies only in the bulk phase and not on the surface, so there are fewer studies on the bulk phase oxygen vacancies.

### 2.2.3 Effect of The Concentration of V<sub>0</sub> on The Catalytic Performance of MnO<sub>2</sub>

No matter whether for bulk  $V_O$  or surface  $V_O$ , it's not that the higher the concentration, the better the catalytic performance of  $MnO_2$ . The relationship between the electronic structure and catalytic activity of  $\beta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub> in the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) and the concentration of  $V_O$  in the bulk phase was determined by Li et al. [11]  $Mn_2O_3$  is formed when the  $V_O$  concentration is too high, and the catalytic performance of  $Mn_2O_3$  is lower than all  $MnO_2$  catalysts generated by the pyrolysis of Mn (NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, [22] which is not favorable for the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). However, Wang et al. found that the order of catalytic degradation activity of  $MnO_2$ ,  $Mn_2O_3$ , and  $Mn_3O_4$  for phenol was  $Mn_2O_3 > Mn_3O_4 > MnO_2$ . They concluded that the catalytic

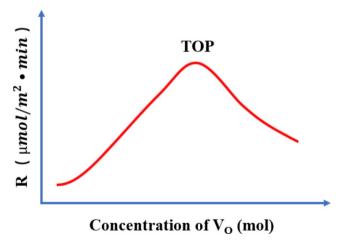


Fig. 5 Relationship between catalyst specific rate and oxygen vacancy content

activity of manganese-based oxides is related to oxidation valence and oxygen mobility [23]. Therefore, there is still a debate about the relative strength of the catalytic activity of  $Mn_2O_3$  and  $MnO_2$ .

Qu et al. [16] confirmed, for example, by programmed temperature rise reduction of  $H_2$  ( $H_2$ -TPR), that in  $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, too high surface  $V_O$  concentrations reduce the reduction and mobility of oxygen species in the catalyst, as well as the reduction of Mn<sup>3+</sup>, to the detriment of the oxidation of toluene. Therefore, in the catalytic degradation of VOC, the effect of oxygen vacancy concentration on the catalytic performance of MnO<sub>2</sub> is shown in Fig. 5. MnO<sub>2</sub> photocatalytic performance is evaluated by detecting the change of VOC and  $CO_2$  content at a certain time under a certain intensity of light. The thermocatalytic performance of VOC at 30 °C is generally evaluated by a fixed reaction bed and Eq. (2)."

$$R(\mu mol/m^2 \bullet min) = \frac{C_{VOC} \div 22.4 \times F \times \eta}{S_{BET} \times m} \times 10^{-5}$$
 (2)

where R is the specific rate,  $C_{VOC}$  is the inlet VOC concentration (ppm), F is the flow rate (mL/min),  $\eta$  is the VOC conversion calculated from  $CO_2$  generation (%),  $S_{BET}$  is the sample-specific surface area, and m is the sample weight.

### 3 The Introduction and Regulation Method of MnO<sub>2</sub> V<sub>O</sub>

 $\rm V_O$ , as an intrinsic defect, is often present already during the preparation of the catalyst at low concentrations. The catalytic performance of  $\rm MnO_2$  can be enhanced by up-regulating the  $\rm V_O$  concentration. Therefore, the desire to obtain  $\rm MnO_2$  catalysts with a suitable concentration of  $\rm V_O$  requires artificial introduction and modulation. The following methods for the regulation and introduction of  $\rm MnO_2$   $\rm V_O$  have been reported in the literature.

#### 3.1 Elemental Doping

Elemental doping refers to the introduction of other elements into  $\mathrm{MnO}_2$  crystals by physical or chemical methods. From the type of doped elements, it can be divided into metal ion doping and non-metal ion doping. From the doping position, it can be divided into substitution doping and interstitial doping. The  $\mathrm{V}_\mathrm{O}$  concentration can be effectively controlled by controlling the molar ratio of doping elements to Mn elements to introduce  $\mathrm{V}_\mathrm{O}$ .

The doped metal cation is generally used to replace Mn<sup>4+</sup> in MnO<sub>2</sub>, whose valence state is generally smaller than Mn<sup>4+</sup>. Wang et al. introduced V<sub>O</sub> in MnO<sub>2</sub> by replacing



Mn<sup>4+</sup> in the MnO<sub>2</sub> lattice with Fe<sup>3+</sup> and Mn<sup>3+</sup> by a "redox precipitation" method [19]. In addition, Ye et al. prepared Fe, V, and Co-doped MnO<sub>2</sub> electrode materials with good electrical conductivity by electrodeposition, [33] which enhanced the electrocatalytic performance of MnO<sub>2</sub> electrode materials. However, it has not been verified whether the co-doping of multi-metal ions can make MnO<sub>2</sub> obtain more excellent chemical catalytic properties than the single-metal-doped MnO<sub>2</sub>.

Non-metallic element doping usually replaces the oxygen element in  $MnO_2$ . Chu et al. concluded by DFT calculations that boron doping results in the formation of  $V_O$  near the oxygen ions replaced by boron ions in  $MnO_2$ , which facilitates the formation of a more stable thermodynamic structure [34]. He et al. obtained N-element substituted and interstitially doped  $MnO_2$  samples by  $N_2$ -plasma treatment at different times, and they found that the interstitial doping of N elements can reduce the formation energy of  $V_O$  and is more favourable to the formation of  $V_O$  [35]. However, the characterization of interstitial N doping needs further improvement. Doping of other non-metallic elements such as F has not been reported.

Some doping elements did not enter the lattice gap or replace  $Mn^{4+}$  but replaced  $K^+$  in the  $MnO_2$  tunnel or interlayer to form  $V_O$  [36]. Qu et al. introduced  $V_O$  in  $MnO_2$  by replacing  $K^+$  in the  $\delta$ -  $MnO_2$  interlayer with  $Cu^{2+}$  and proposed a mechanism for the formation of the corresponding  $V_O$  [16].

#### 3.2 Energetic Particle Bombardment

 $V_{\rm O}$  can also be created by breaking the metal-oxygen bonds on the surface of metal oxides through bombardment with high-energy particles (protons, ions, and electrons) and detaching the surface lattice oxygen. By controlling the timing and power of the energetic particle bombardment, the number of  $V_{\rm O}$  introduced can be controlled. The method is more commonly used in metal oxides such as  ${\rm TiO_2}$  and less commonly reported for  ${\rm MnO_2}$ .

Baeck et al. introduced  $V_{\rm O}$  on the surface of MnO<sub>2</sub> by irradiating it with a high-energy proton beam. The principle is that the water molecules in the air are ionized and decomposed by proton beam irradiation, forming highly reactive radicals. Such radicals further break the Mn-O bond in MnO<sub>2</sub>, causing the oxygen element to break away from the lattice and form  $V_{\rm O}$  [37]. However, this method introduces an uncontrollable number of  $V_{\rm O}$ , has high energy consumption, and is not of practical application.

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#### 3.3 Atmosphere Heat Treatment

Heat treatment in inert or reducing atmospheres, high temperatures can cause lattice oxygen to escape, thus introducing  $V_{\rm O}$  on the MnO<sub>2</sub> surface and subsurface [38]. At high temperatures, oxygen usually refills the  $V_{\rm O}$  to make them burst, so commonly used atmospheres are nitrogen, argon, hydrogen, etc. The concentration of  $V_{\rm O}$  can be regulated by controlling the temperature and time of deoxygenation.

Zhu et al. introduced  $V_{\rm O}$  on the surface of  $\alpha\text{-MnO}_2$  nanowires by vacuum deoxygenation at a high temperature, and the concentration of  $V_{\rm O}$  could be adjusted by the temperature and time of deoxygenation [8].  $\beta\text{-MnO}_2$  nanosheets with abundant  $V_{\rm O}$  were obtained by calcining  $\gamma\text{-MnO}_2$  in the air to cause its phase transformation by Yang et al. [18] The introduction of  $V_{\rm O}$  by atmospheric heat treatment is energy-intensive, the treatment process is complicated, and mass production is not possible.

#### 3.4 Mechanical Chemistry

Mechanochemistry is a method of introducing  $V_O$  on  $MnO_2$  by ball milling. During ball milling, friction, and collisions between the spheres and the  $MnO_2$  catalyst break the Mn-O bond on the surface of the latter. Subsequently,  $V_O$  is formed by the escape of oxygen from the surface lattice. The content of  $V_O$  on the  $MnO_2$  surface can be easily regulated by controlling the time and speed of ball milling [21].

Yang et al. successfully introduced  $V_{\rm O}$  on the MnO<sub>2</sub> surface using ball milling and the modified MnO<sub>2</sub> catalyst had high catalytic activity for VOC [10]. The ball milling method is simple, inexpensive, and solvent-free, and can be supplemented with moderate pressure and temperature regulation to increase the efficiency of  $V_{\rm O}$  generation [39].

#### 3.5 Redox Method

It has been studied that  $V_{\rm O}$ , as an intrinsic defect, is widely distributed in metal oxides [40]. The ultra-thin structured MnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, which are usually formed under hydrothermal conditions, possess certain  $V_{\rm O}$  [9].



The production of  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$  on the surface of  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  catalysts facilitates the formation of  $\mathrm{V_O}$ . The chemical reaction method regulates the content of  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$  by adding weak reducing reagents such as ammonia and ammonium chloride to the  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  precursor so that the prepared  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  catalysts have more abundant  $\mathrm{V_O}$ .

The degree of the redox reaction is changed by adjusting different molar ratios of the reactants to achieve the introduction of oxygen vacancies. The method allows the introduction of  $V_{\rm O}$  in both the surface and bulk phases.

Huang et al. successfully prepared  $\delta$ -MnO $_x$  loaded on activated carbon using a mixture of ammonia and potassium permanganate, which has excellent degradation performance for formaldehyde at room temperature [41]. Yan et al. introduced  $V_O$  on  $\delta$ - MnO $_2$  using the reducing ability of NaBH4 and the oxidizing ability of  $H_2O_2$ , respectively,[42] and proposed a redox mechanism.

Notably, surface  $V_O$  is not only formed on  $MnO_2$  by adding weak reducing agents. Liu et al. prepared nanocarbon-modified  $\delta$ -MnO $_2$  nanoflowers with high manganese vacancy ( $V_{Mn}$ ) content by a one-step hydrothermal method using a redox reaction of glucose or sucrose with potassium permanganate [43]. Zhang et al. in the presence of sodium citrate by a simple generation process  $\delta$ -MnO $_2$  nanosheets with abundant bulk-phase  $V_O$  were prepared [7].

#### 3.6 Other Methods

In addition to the above common methods, other methods such as hydrothermal (crystal growth), ultrasonic, and plasma treatments have also been used to introduce  $V_{\rm O}$  on  $MnO_2$ .

Chen et al. obtained  $\alpha$ -MnO $_2$  with abundant  $V_O$  by adjusting the precipitation temperature. Fast-growing crystals are more prone to form crystal defects, and thus  $V_O$  on MnO $_2$  [12]. Cui et al. disrupted the chemical bonding on the surface of  $\alpha$ -MnO $_2$  by the surface erosion of ultrasonic treatment making it easier for lattice oxygen to be released to form  $V_O$  [44]. Cai et al. used different times of hydrogen plasma (H-plasma) treatment of  $\delta$ -MnO $_2$  to introduce surface  $V_O$ . The  $V_O$  can be partially refilled by subsequent treatment with oxygen plasma (O-plasma) after the introduction of  $V_O$  [45]. This experimental phenomenon indirectly proves the existence of  $V_O$ .

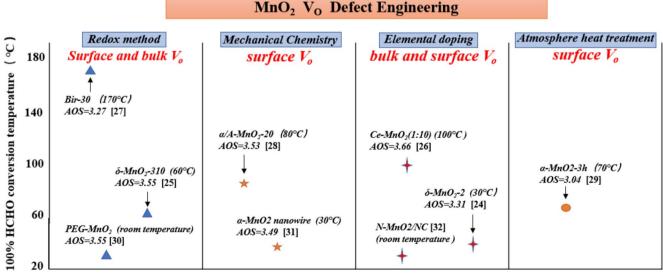
The AOS and complete degradation temperature of HCHO via different fabrication methods were summarized in Fig. 6.

### 4 Common Characterization Methods for Vo

## 4.1 Quantitative Characterization Method of $MnO_2$ $V_0$

#### 4.1.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

XPS analysis is commonly used to study the ratio of surface elements in different chemical valence states of catalysts and therefore can also be used to assess the concentration of surface  $V_{\rm O}$  on the MnO<sub>2</sub> surface [49]. The spontaneous charge balance makes the production of  $V_{\rm O}$  usually accompanied by the reduction of a certain chemical equivalent of Mn<sup>4+</sup> to Mn<sup>3+</sup>. Therefore, the surface  $V_{\rm O}$  concentration can usually be evaluated in terms of the Mn<sup>3+</sup> content. The two



Average oxygen state of manganese (AOS)

Fig. 6 Summary of the activity of various catalysts prepared using the above strategies at the complete degradation temperature of HCHO [24–32]



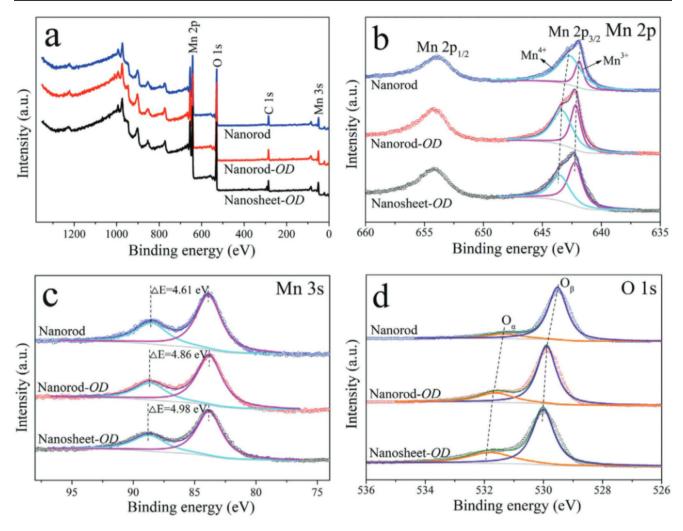


Fig. 7 The XPS spectra of MnO<sub>2</sub> Nanorod and MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods with V<sub>O</sub> (Nanorod-OD) and MnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with V<sub>O</sub> (Nanosheet-OD) (a) survey spectra, (b) Mn 2p, (c) Mn 3s, (d) O 1s

**Table 1** Content and ratio of each element on the surface of  $MnO_2[53]$ 

Sample	Binding energy (eV)				
	Mn <sup>3+</sup>	Mn <sup>3+</sup> Mn <sup>4+</sup> Surface adsortion of oxygen			Sur- face lattice
					oxygen
Nanorod <sup>a</sup>	641.9	642.7	531.3	529	0.5
Nanorod-OD b	643.4	643.4	531.7	529	0.9
Nanosheet-OD c	643.5	643.5	531.9	530	0.3

a MnO<sub>2</sub> Nanorod

components at 641.9-642.2 eV and 642.7-643.5 eV correspond to  $Mn^{3+}$  and  $Mn^{4+}$ , respectively, by fitting the split peaks of  $Mn 2p_{3/2}$ , [50] as shown in Fig. 7 [18].

The relative content of Mn<sup>3+</sup> on the surface of MnO<sub>2</sub> can be calculated by integrating the peak area after splitting peak fitting (Table 1). In addition, the average oxidation state (AOS) of surface Mn can also be calculated by

the empirical formula, AOS =  $8.956-1.126 \times \Delta E$ ,  $\Delta E$  being the splitting width of Mn3s, [51] with smaller AOS values representing higher Mn<sup>3+</sup> content and higher concentrations of surface  $V_O$ .

Finally, the concentration of surface  $V_O$  can also be assessed by the content of surface adsorbed oxygen species, since  $V_O$  acts as active sites to promote oxygen adsorption and activation, [18] with peaks at 529.5–530.0 eV attributed to lattice oxygen and 531.4-531.8 eV to surface adsorbed oxygen [52].

However, the penetration depth of XPS is usually within 10 nm, [50] which is only applicable to the characterization of surface  $V_{\rm O}$ . For the characterization of  $V_{\rm O}$  in MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts with larger particle sizes, the ESR method is more suitable.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> MnO<sub>2</sub> nanorods with V<sub>O</sub>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> MnO<sub>2</sub> nanosheets with V<sub>O</sub>

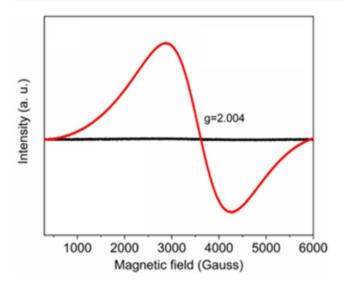


Fig. 8 ESR spectra of  $MnO_2 V_O$ 

#### 4.1.2 Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (ESR) Method

Electron paramagnetic resonance (ESR) can quantitatively assess the concentration of  $V_O$  in catalysts (Fig. 8a) [46]. g value of  $MnO_2$   $V_O$  is about 2.00, [47] the ESR signal is caused by the paramagnetic signal generated by unpaired electrons in  $MnO_2$ , [48] and the intensity of the ESR signal (spins/g) is linearly and positively correlated with the

Fig. 9 (a) TEM image of nano- $\delta$ -MnO<sub>2</sub>, (b) Raman spectra of the MnO<sub>2</sub> catalysts, (c) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectrum of NS-MnO<sub>2</sub>, (d) TG analysis curves of the a-MnO<sub>2</sub> and u-a-MnO<sub>2</sub> samples

concentration of  $V_O$  [7]. ESR can be used to characterize both surface and bulk phase  $V_O$ .

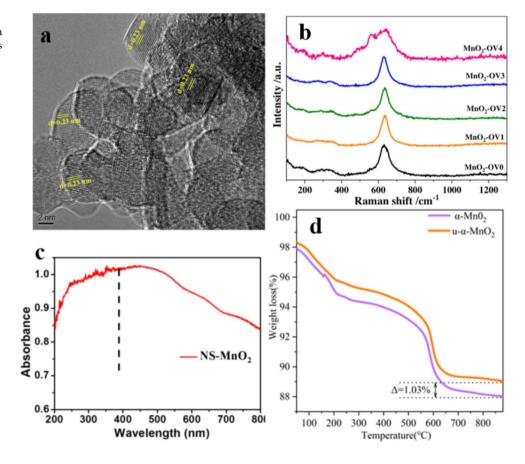
### 4.2 Qualitative Characterization Method of $MnO_2$ $V_0$

### 4.2.1 High-resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM)

High-resolution transmission electron microscopy allows the qualitative characterization of surface oxygen vacancies in MnO $_2$  (Fig. 9a). some of the lattice stripes on the  $\delta\text{-MnO}_2$  (100) crystal plane become disordered and blurred, possibly due to the formation of surface  $V_O$  defects [16]. However, this method needs to be assisted by other characterization methods to further confirm the presence of  $V_O$ .

#### 4.2.2 Raman Spectroscopy

Raman spectra can reflect the structural information of the samples, and with the increase of  $V_{\rm O}$  concentration, the summits at  $\approx 500$  and  $\approx 630–650$  cm<sup>-1</sup> of the Raman spectra of MnO<sub>2</sub> undergo a significant blue shift, indicating the enhancement of Mn-O vibrations in the [MnO<sub>6</sub>] group, which is due to the lattice distortion caused by  $V_{\rm O}$  (Fig. 9b)





[16]. The depth of Raman detection is about 10 nm, it always is used to characterize the exit of surface  $V_{\rm O}$ .

#### 4.2.3 UV-visible Diffuse Reflectance Spectrum (UV-vis)

The UV-visible diffuse reflectance spectrum (UV-vis) can also provide evidence for the presence of  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$  in  $\mathrm{MnO_2}$  (Fig. 9c). The peak at  $\approx 380$  nm is the characteristic peak of  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$  [9]. However, its penetration capability is weak and it can only detect the presence of surface  $\mathrm{Mn^{3+}}$ , thus indirectly characterizing the presence of surface  $\mathrm{V_O}$ .

#### 4.2.4 Thermogravimetry(TG)

As shown in Fig. 9d [50], the weight loss of the u-a-MnO $_2$  sample is 1.03% less than that of the well-prepared a-MnO $_2$  sample. The results indicate that the repopulation of oxygen atoms at Vo during the thermal process suppressed the weight loss of the u-a-MnO $_2$  sample. Thus, the TG analysis confirmed the presence of V $_0$ .

#### 4.2.5 Other Characterization Methods

In addition, noise-filtered images, [34]  $\rm H_2$  programmed temperature rise reduction ( $\rm H_2$ -TPR),  $\rm O_2$  programmed temperature rise desorption ( $\rm O_2$ -TPD), [40] X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS), and positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy (PALS) are available for the qualitative characterization of catalyst surface or bulk phase  $\rm V_O$  (Fig. 8d) [47].

### 5 Issues and Prospects

At present, the study of V<sub>O</sub> in MnO<sub>2</sub> nanocatalysts has attracted much attention.

Surface  $V_O$  and bulk  $V_O$  contributions were found to improve the catalytic performance of the MnO<sub>2</sub> nano-catalyst together. The surface  $V_O$ , acting as active sites, will continuously switch the environmental  $O_2$  into active oxygen species. While moderate bulk  $V_O$  will facilitate the separation of photon-induced electrons and holes and thus extend the lifetime of carriers. The variation of the band gap of MnO<sub>2</sub> depends strongly on the content of oxygen vacancies, and the removal of oxygen ions leads to additional spin-polarized vacancy states (thus further reducing the band gap), As the number of  $V_O$  increases, the interaction with Mn atoms disappears, and the lower-lying d orbitals fade away. The band gap broadening follows this. (Fig. 10).

However, the following important questions are still highly expected to be answered.

- It has been advocated that surface lattice oxygen is also involved in the catalytic reaction. While whether it was oxidated into oxygen species by V<sub>O</sub> as surface-adsorbed O<sub>2</sub> has not been concluded.
- (2) Whether the doping of other non-metallic elements such as F can also weaken the Mn-O bond to allow more easily escape of the lattice oxygen?
- (3) As shown in Fig. 10, both bulk oxygen vacancies and surface oxygen vacancies can improve the catalytic activity of MnO<sub>2</sub> in different ways, and the simultaneous presence of both can increase the light absorption

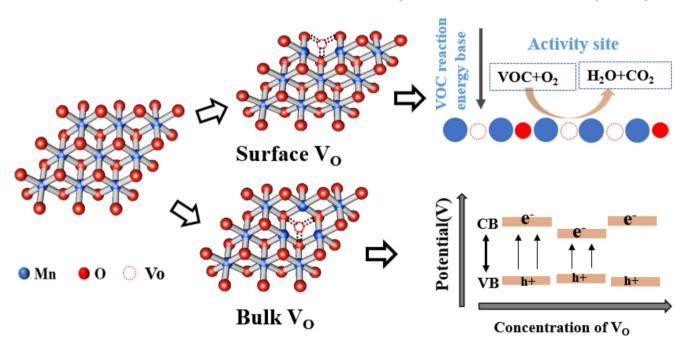


Fig. 10 The mechanism of action bulk and surface V<sub>O</sub>



efficiency of MnO<sub>2</sub> while reducing the reaction energy base of VOC.

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#### **Declarations**

**Conflict of Interest** No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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