

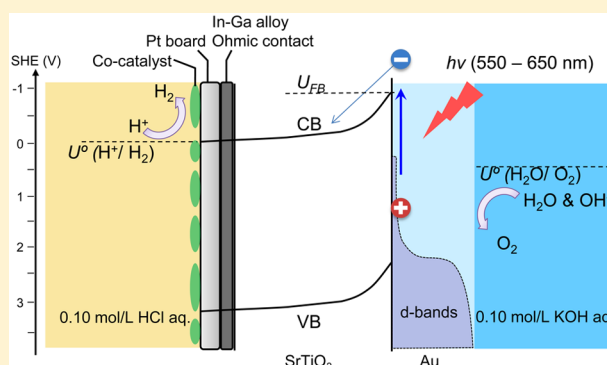
Cocatalyst Effects on Hydrogen Evolution in a Plasmon-Induced Water-Splitting System

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: We explored the performance of hydrogen (H_2) evolution using noble metals or their metal oxides as cocatalysts in the plasmon-induced water-splitting system. Although many studies have employed n-type semiconductor particle systems to investigate cocatalyst effects, evaluating only the catalytic activity of H_2 and oxygen (O_2) evolution has been limited by (1) the difficulty of transferring an electron injected into the conduction band of a semiconductor to a cocatalyst due to the formation of a Schottky barrier when a metallic cocatalyst for H_2 evolution contacts the n-type semiconductor and (2) the potential for a reverse water-splitting reaction, which occurs due to the promotion of the reduction of the evolved O_2 by the cocatalyst. To overcome these limitations, in the present study, we eliminated the adverse effect of the Schottky barrier by obtaining ohmic contact between the semiconductor and the metal or metal oxide cocatalysts, and we used two separate reaction chambers for H_2 and O_2 evolution to avoid reverse water-splitting reactions such as H_2 – O_2 recombination or the photoreduction of O_2 . A 2–3 nm thick rhodium layer deposited on a platinum board exhibited relatively high performance, a 3-fold increase compared with the absence of a metal or metal oxide cocatalyst thin layer.



INTRODUCTION

The development of clean, environmentally friendly, and sustainable energy sources as substitutes for fossil fuels has attracted considerable attention. Solar energy will likely play a key role in the development of new energy sources because it is abundant, clean, and uniquely renewable. Hydrogen has attracted significant interest as an energy carrier that offers both high energy capacity and minimal environmental impact. As a sustainable approach for new energy sources, photocatalytic hydrogen production utilizing solar energy is a promising strategy.^{1–4}

Photoelectrochemical water splitting has been of great interest since the early 1970s after the first demonstration of water splitting using a titanium dioxide (TiO_2) photoelectrode under ultraviolet radiation by Fujishima and Honda.^{5,6} However, a disadvantage of TiO_2 is that it can only be excited by ultraviolet light, i.e., wavelengths shorter than approximately 400 nm, and consequently, only a very small portion of solar radiation (3–5%) can be utilized to drive water splitting. Thus, extension of the absorption wavelength range of TiO_2 to the visible region is critical. Attempts to extend the cutoff wavelength of the water-splitting system to use visible light have included doping,^{7–12} defect creation,^{13–16} and organic dye or plasmon sensitization.^{17–22} We recently demonstrated plasmon-induced water splitting with visible-light irradiation using a strontium titanate ($SrTiO_3$) single-crystal photoelectrode loaded with gold nanoparticles (Au-NPs).²³ We

successfully separated the evolution of hydrogen (H_2) and oxygen (O_2) by using two sides of the same $SrTiO_3$ substrate as the cathode and anode.

Investigating cocatalysts for the evolution of H_2 and O_2 is crucial to improve the water-splitting efficiency. Adequate loading of semiconductors with cocatalysts significantly enhances water-splitting activity. However, evaluating the cocatalyst effect for H_2 evolution correctly in water-splitting systems using semiconductor particles is complicated by two factors. First, in H_2 evolution, the Schottky barrier formed by loading metal on the surface of the semiconductor slows the rate of electron transfer from the conduction band of the semiconductor to the metallic cocatalyst due to the increased probability of the back electron-transfer reaction. Such effects are difficult to evaluate because experimental results reflect not only cocatalyst effects but also Schottky barrier effects. Second, reverse water-splitting reactions, such as H_2 – O_2 recombination to form H_2O and the photoreduction of O_2 , are simultaneously induced in semiconductor particle systems because the cocatalysts also promote the reduction of the evolved O_2 . Therefore, evaluating the cocatalyst effect for H_2 evolution may not be simple.

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To overcome these drawbacks, in the present study, we eliminated the adverse effect of the Schottky barrier by obtaining ohmic contact between the semiconductor and the metal or metal oxide cocatalysts. An In–Ga alloy paste was inserted between the SrTiO₃ substrate and the platinum (Pt) board to eliminate the Schottky barrier, and a thin layer of a noble metal or metal oxide cocatalyst for H₂ evolution was subsequently deposited on the surface of the Pt board. H₂ and O₂ were evolved in different chambers with the cathode and anode, respectively. The Au-NP side functioned as the anode for O₂ evolution, whereas the Pt board with the metal or metal oxide cocatalyst side functioned as the cathode for H₂ evolution. Therefore, O₂ and H₂ were separately evolved from the surface and the back of the same SrTiO₃ substrate. Eliminating the Schottky barrier effect and preventing the reaction enabled the evaluation of the effects of the cocatalyst on H₂ evolution. In this study, we explored the performance of H₂ evolution using noble metals such as rhodium (Rh) and ruthenium (Ru) or their metal oxides as cocatalysts in the plasmon-induced water-splitting system.

■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Preparation and Characterization of Au-NPs on the SrTiO₃ Substrate. Single-crystal strontium titanate (SrTiO₃, 0.05 wt % niobium doped, 10 × 10 × 0.5 mm³, Furuuchi Chemical Co.) with a (110) surface was used as a semiconductor substrate for water splitting. The SrTiO₃ substrate as purchased was rinsed with acetone, methanol, and deionized water in an ultrasonic bath for 5 min, followed by drying under a flow of pure nitrogen. The substrate was subsequently exposed to ozone for 5 min via excimer lamp (PC-01-H, N-Cobo Co.) irradiation under an O₂ atmosphere. A 3 nm thin gold film was deposited on the front side of the SrTiO₃ by helicon sputtering (MPS-4000, ULVAC Co.) with a deposition rate of 1 Å/s and annealed at a temperature of 800 °C for 1 h in a nitrogen atmosphere to form Au-NPs on the SrTiO₃ surface. The Au-NPs on the SrTiO₃ surface were observed by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM, JSM-6700FT, JEOL); the maximum resolution attainable at an electron acceleration voltage of 15 kV was 1 nm. The extinction spectrum of the Au-NPs was monitored using a UV/vis spectrometer (UV-3100, Shimadzu Co.).

Preparation and Characterization of Noble Metal and Metal Oxide Cocatalysts. Pt thin films were sputtered on the back side of the SrTiO₃ using a Super Fine Coater ESC-101 (ELIONIX Co.) at a deposition rate of 0.2 Å/s. The Ru and Rh thin films were deposited onto the Pt substrate by a cosputtering system (ACS-4000-C3-HS, ULVAC Co.), and the distance from the target to the substrate was maintained at 150 mm. The targets were ruthenium and rhodium metal with purities of 99.95%. For the Ru and Rh oxide thin-film deposition, a mixture of Ar and O₂ flow was maintained during the sputtering process. However, for the metallic Ru and Rh fabrication, an Ar gas flow rate of 29 sccm was maintained in the absence of O₂ flow. The deposition pressure was maintained at 2.9 × 10⁻¹ Pa. The substrate was not heated intentionally during the deposition processes. An X-ray photoemission spectrometer (JPS-9200, JEOL) was used to obtain the X-ray photoemission spectrum (XPS). The center 3 mm × 3 mm area of the substrate surface was used for XPS characterization. The Al Kα line was used as the X-ray source. The C 1s signal was used as an internal reference (284.6 eV). The cross-sectional structure and the elemental distribution of

the thin films on the Pt board were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) on a JEOL JEM-ARM 200F with aberration correction.

Construction of the Water-Splitting Device. An In–Ga alloy (4:1 weight ratio) paste was applied to the back side of the Nb–SrTiO₃ substrate to form ohmic contacts. Subsequently, a Pt board (10 × 10 × 0.2 mm³, 99.98%, Nilaco Co.) with a noble metal or metal oxide thin film on the surface was adhered to the back side of the substrate with Ag paste (D-550, Fujikura Kasei Co.). The water-splitting device contained sealed reaction cells with two solution compartments separated by the Nb–SrTiO₃ substrate. The Au-NP-loaded surface was on the front side of the photoelectrode, which was irradiated by visible light to induce O₂ evolution, whereas a Pt board with various cocatalysts was used for H₂ evolution on the back side. To adjust the chemical bias between the H₂- and O₂-evolution chambers, the pH was regulated using hydrochloric acid (HCl) and potassium hydroxide (KOH) aqueous solutions with concentrations of 0.1 mol/dm³. The volumes of the H₂- and O₂-evolution chambers were 600 and 230 μL, respectively. To maintain the charge balance between the chambers, a salt bridge with 2 wt % agar was used. The pH values of the solutions were examined using a pH meter (AS600, AS ONE Co.).

■ Quantitative Determination of H₂ and O₂ Evolution.

The amounts of evolved O₂ and H₂ were quantitatively determined by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS 2010-plus, Shimadzu Co.) and using a gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (GC-TCD 2014, Shimadzu Co.), respectively. We analyzed the area counts of the peaks and the identity of the gas based on the calibrated carrier times. The KOH aqueous solution on the O₂ evolution side of the cell was labeled with ¹⁸O-water (17.4 atom % isotopic purity) to quantify the oxygen evolution. Ar and N₂ gases were injected into the O₂ evolution side and the H₂ evolution side, respectively, as reference gases for the yield calculations. The GC–MS used to separate and measure O₂ was equipped with an electron ionization (EI) source and a 30.0 m RT-Msieve 5A column (RESTEK); He was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 42 mL/min. The gas evolved (5.0 μL) from the front side of the photoelectrode was injected in split mode with a split ratio of 30, and selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode was used for O₂ detection. The column and sample injection temperatures were maintained at room temperature. The EI source temperature was set to 200 °C. The GC-TCD was equipped with a 6.0 m packed column (Shincarbon ST 50/80, Shimadzu Co.), and Ar at a flow rate of 30 mL/min was used as the carrier gas. The gas evolved (10.0 μL) from the back-side chamber was injected. The column and sample injection temperatures were 120 and 200 °C, respectively. The detector temperature was 200 °C. The gold-nanostructured Nb–SrTiO₃ substrate was irradiated through an optical window (ϕ6 mm) of the cell by a xenon lamp with a light intensity of 0.32 W/cm² and a wavelength from 550 to 650 nm. The incident photon flux was measured using a spectroradiometer (MSR-7000N, Optoresearch Co.).

■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Water-Splitting Apparatus Construction and Characteristics of the Au-NPs. A 0.05 wt % niobium-doped strontium titanate (Nb–SrTiO₃) single crystal with a band gap of 3.2 eV was employed as a semiconductor photoelectrode for

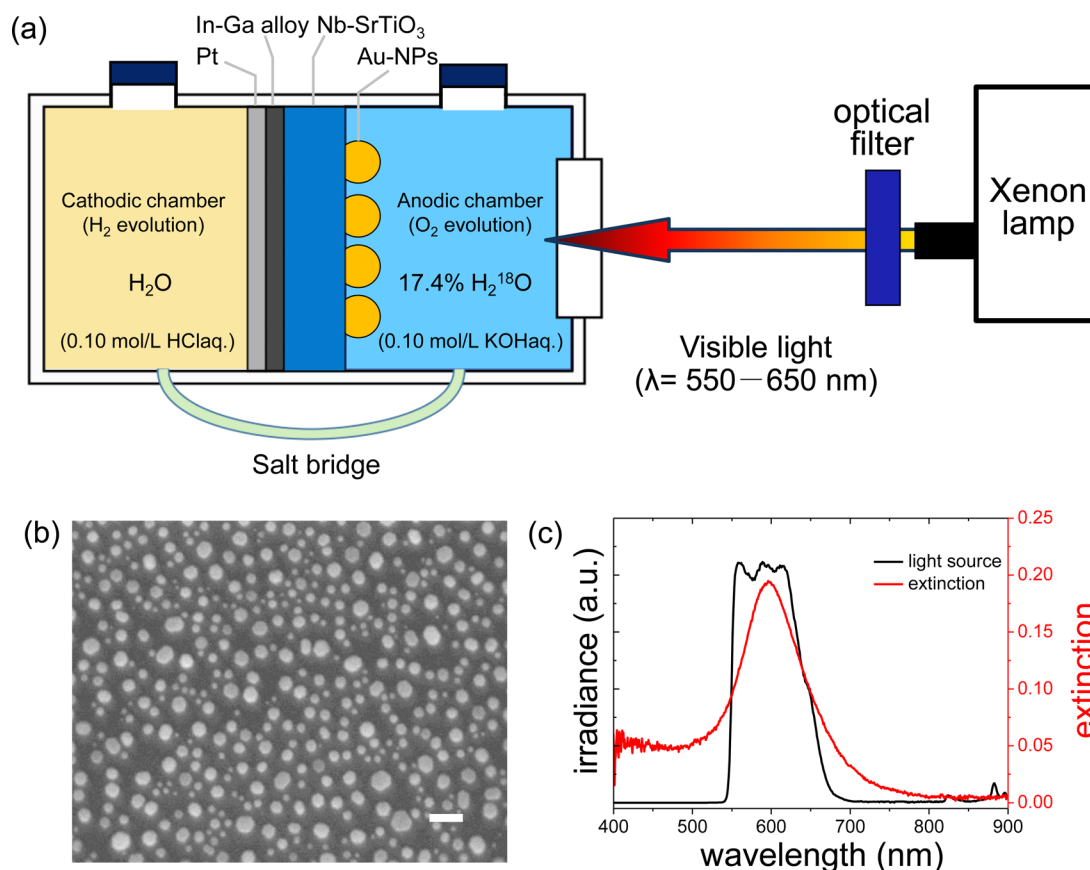


Figure 1. (a) Schematic diagram illustrating the water-splitting device using the Au-NP-loaded Nb-SrTiO₃ photoelectrode. (b) The scanning electron microscope top-view image of the Au-NPs on Nb-SrTiO₃ prepared using the sputtering and annealing method. The scale bars represent 100 nm. (c) The plasmon resonance band of the Au-NPs loaded on the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate surface and the irradiance wavelength region confined by the sharp-cut filters. The particle size of the Au-NPs was approximately 52 nm, with a standard deviation of approximately 10 nm.

efficient water splitting. A schematic diagram of the water-splitting system using a Au-NP-loaded Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate is shown in Figure 1(a). To facilitate the water-splitting reaction, a chemical bias was applied between the two chambers separated by the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate. Specifically, the pH in the front-side chamber (O₂ evolution) was set to 13, while the pH in the back-side chamber (H₂ evolution) was set to 1, using alkaline and acidic aqueous solutions, respectively. According to the Nernst equation, the relationship between the redox potential (U^0) and the pH value at 25 °C is as follows

$$U^0 = U^0 (\text{pH} = 0) - 0.059 \times \text{pH} \quad (1)$$

Therefore, the estimated chemical bias applied between the two chambers was 0.71 V.^{24,25}

Under irradiation with visible light, plasmon-induced charge separation between Au-NPs and Nb-SrTiO₃ and subsequent water oxidation are expected to occur in the front chamber to promote the evolution of O₂. However, in the back-side chamber, H₂ evolution is expected because of the reduction of protons by the electrons injected into the conduction band of Nb-SrTiO₃ at the Pt surface used as a cathode material. A conventional salt bridge with 2% agar by weight was employed to maintain the charge balance between these compartments. The pH value did not change before and after irradiation in each experiment, confirming the effectiveness of the salt bridge.

Scanning electron microscope top-view images of the Au-NPs on Nb-SrTiO₃ single-crystal substrates are shown in Figure 1(b). The images confirmed that the gold films transformed to

discontinuous nanoparticles after annealing at 800 °C in a nitrogen atmosphere, and the interisland spacing was comparable to the nanoparticle size. The diameters of the Au-NPs were distributed nearly symmetrically, with an average size of approximately 52 nm and an estimated standard deviation of 10 nm (Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). Figure 1(c) shows the extinction spectrum of the Au-NPs on the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate and the spectrum of irradiated light whose irradiance wavelength region is defined by sharp-cut optical filters. A localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) band peaking at a wavelength of 600 nm was clearly observed. On the basis of this plasmon band peak position, a xenon light spectrally filtered to the wavelengths from 550 to 650 nm with an intensity of 0.32 W/cm² was used as a visible-light source in this experiment.

Elimination of the Schottky Barrier Effect between the Semiconductor Material and the H₂ Evolution Cocatalyst. To demonstrate the effect of the Schottky barrier on water-splitting activity in the present system, substrates with different cathode structures with and without In–Ga alloy between SrTiO₃ and Pt were fabricated. Their architectures and irradiation time dependences for H₂ and O₂ evolution are shown in Figure 2. For a contrasting structure, a Pt thin film with a thickness of 1 nm was sputtered on the back side of the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate as a substitute for the Pt board. The average thickness of the Pt film was controlled by the sputtering time and determined by an absolute calibration method. The film may have been discontinuous because the film thickness

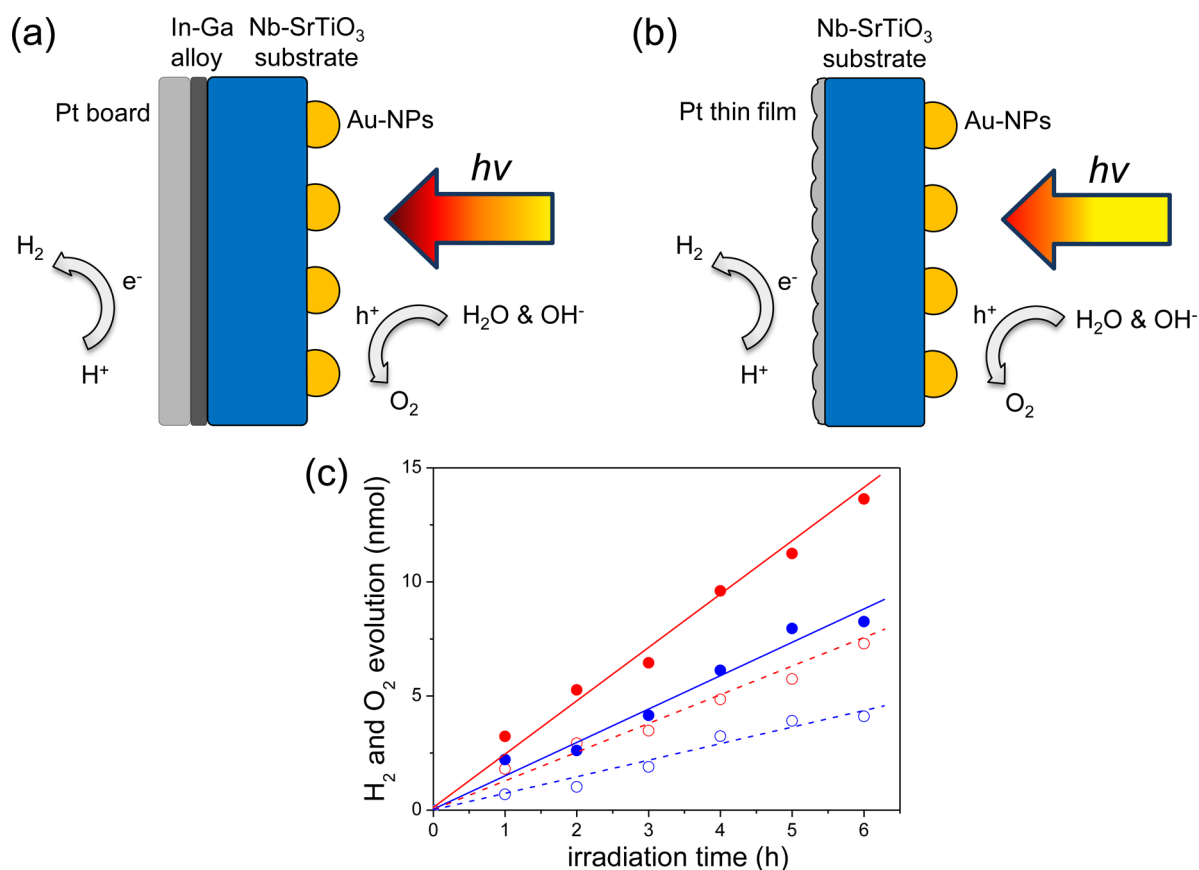


Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the photoelectrode architecture for water splitting using a Pt board (a) and a Pt thin film (b) as the hydrogen evolution site and the dependence of H₂ (solid circles) and O₂ (open circles) evolution on irradiation time (c). The red and blue colors correspond to the Pt board and Pt thin film, respectively.

was set to less than a grain size of 2 nm in this Pt sputtering process.

Under irradiation, the evolution of H₂ and O₂ linearly increased with irradiation time for both structures as shown in Figure 2(c). Stoichiometric evolution of H₂ and O₂ (2:1) was observed in both cases. H₂ and O₂ evolution by the photoelectrode with the Pt thin film was decreased by half compared with the Pt board adhered to Nb-SrTiO₃ with an In-Ga alloy. Therefore, it was concluded that the Schottky barrier influenced the water-splitting activity. Without Au-NP decoration, on the other hand, neither H₂ nor O₂ evolved from the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate under the same irradiation conditions. No production of H₂ or O₂ was observed from either photoelectrode architecture for up to 6 h in the absence of irradiation.

Figure 3 depicts the energy band alignment of the composite substrate structure. An excited electron is likely transferred to the conduction band of SrTiO₃ immediately following the inter- or intraband transition of the Au-NPs induced by the plasmonically enhanced optical near field. Consequently, a hole is trapped on the surface states of the SrTiO₃ near the Au/SrTiO₃/water interface; the trapped holes can subsequently induce the oxidation of hydroxyl ions or water molecules efficiently via multielectron transfer.^{26–28} A potential gradient was established between the two sides of the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate because a chemical bias was applied by the pH regulation. Under the influence of this potential gradient, the photogenerated electrons injected into the conduction band of SrTiO₃ were transferred to the back side and subsequently induced the reduction of protons at the Pt surface. With the Pt

nanoparticles on the back side of the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate, there was an undesired Schottky barrier between the Nb-SrTiO₃ and Pt, which hindered electron transfer to the cathode, resulting in lower H₂ and O₂ evolution efficiencies. However, when the In-Ga alloy was used to adhere the Pt board to the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate, ohmic contact was very important for H₂ evolution in the plasmon-induced water-splitting system by facilitating electron transfer.

Characteristics of Ru and Rh Thin Films on the Pt Board. A water-splitting system is commonly composed of a semiconductor material and cocatalysts for H₂ and O₂ evolution. The photocatalytic activity of the system is highly dependent on the cocatalysts and their properties, and different cocatalysts must be evaluated.^{29–32} The elimination of the Schottky barrier between the cocatalyst and the semiconductor in the composite structure enabled the verification of the performance of various types of cocatalysts.

Ruthenium (Ru)^{33–37} and rhodium (Rh)^{38–42} species are excellent cocatalysts for H₂ evolution. A thin film of one of these two metals with a thickness of 2–3 nm was deposited by sputtering on the Pt board and served as a cocatalyst for H₂ evolution. By precisely controlling the oxygen flow during the sputtering process, oxides of Ru and Rh were also prepared. A cross-sectional view of a transmission electron microscope (TEM) image confirming the deposition of a Rh thin film with a thickness of 3 nm on the Pt board by sputtering is shown in Figure 4(a), and its corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) image is shown in Figure 4(b). A cross-sectional view of a TEM image of rhodium oxide with a

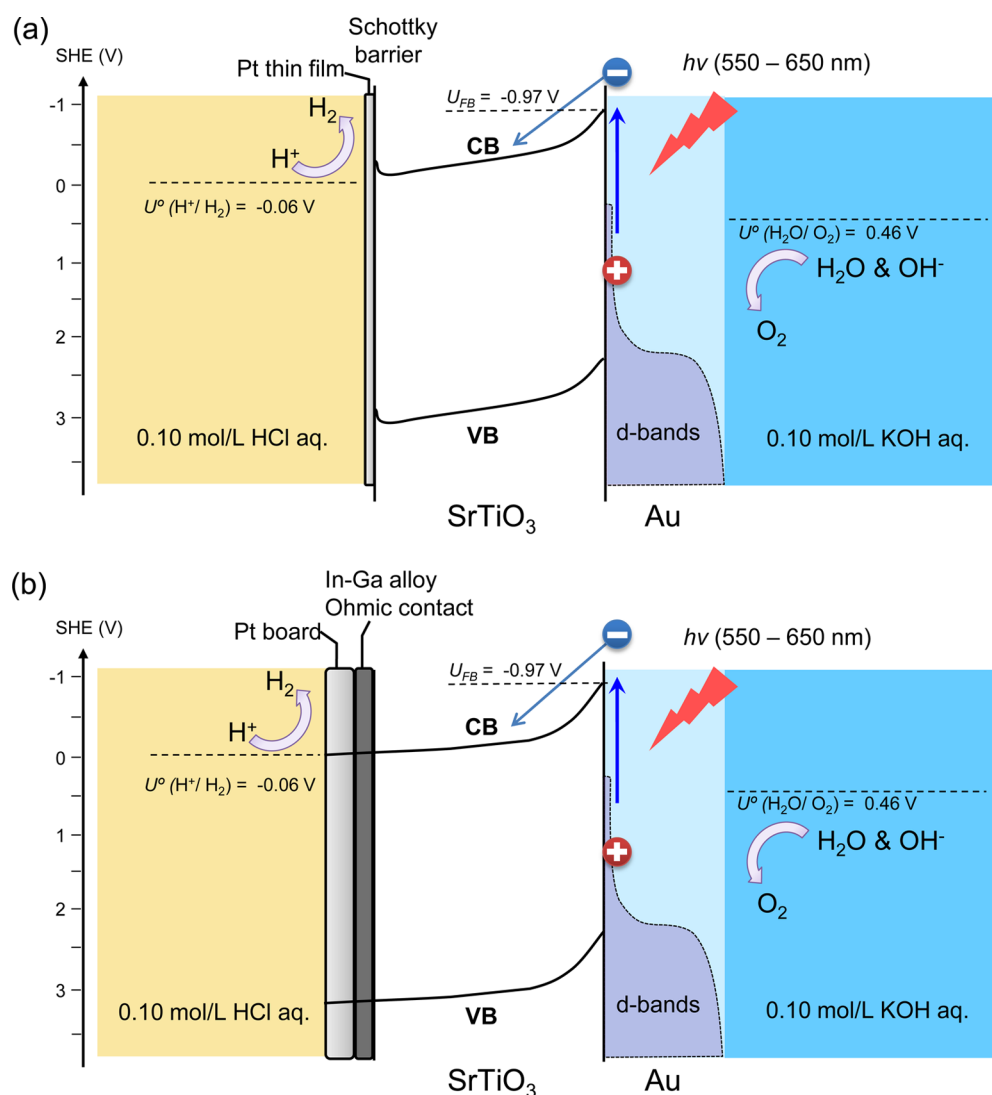


Figure 3. Energy band alignment of the plasmon-induced water-splitting system with the Au-NP-loaded SrTiO₃ substrate using Pt nanoparticles (a) and a Pt board (b) as the hydrogen evolution site. U_{FB} and U° indicate the flat band potential of SrTiO₃ and the redox potentials versus the SHE (standard hydrogen electrode), respectively. The symbols [−] and [+] indicate electrons and holes.

thickness of 4 nm and its corresponding EDS image are shown in Figure 4(c) and (d), respectively. Although a thickness of 4 nm was used instead of 2 or 3 nm films to facilitate TEM observation, importantly, the surface of the rhodium oxide film was clearly rougher than that of the Rh film.

The XPS spectra of the Ru and Rh metals and oxides are shown in Figure 5. Without O₂ flow during the sputtering process, the peak positions of the Ru species were 461.3 and 483.5 eV for Ru 3p_{3/2} and 3p_{1/2}, and the peak positions of the Rh species were 306.5 and 311.3 eV for Rh 3d_{5/2} and 3d_{3/2}, in good agreement with the standard values for the metallic species.^{43–45} However, with O₂ flow during the sputtering process, the deposited Ru and Rh species were clearly oxidized, although to a lesser extent than the RuO₂ or Rh₂O₃ bulk references (462.7 and 484.8 eV correspond to the Ru⁴⁺ oxide RuO₂ and 308.4 and 313.2 eV correspond to the Rh³⁺ oxide Rh₂O₃). Consequently, the oxides will be referred to as RuO_x and RhO_x. XPS measurements confirmed that the ratio of the XPS peak area between Ru 3p and Pt 4f increased almost linearly with increasing RuO_x thickness (Figure S2 in the Supporting Information).

Water-Splitting Performance Using Various Noble Metals and Metal Oxides as the H₂ Evolution Cocatalyst.

Water splitting was conducted with all of the cocatalysts and with a bare Pt board as a control experiment. A schematic illustration of the photoelectrode architecture is shown in Figure 6(a). Figure 6(b) depicts the irradiation time dependence of photocatalytic H₂ and O₂ evolution over 2 nm Rh on the Pt board. Stoichiometric evolution of H₂ and O₂ (2:1) was still observed for the Rh cocatalyst. Thus, noble metals deposited on Pt do not undergo any side reactions and work well as cocatalysts for H₂ evolution. Figure 6(b) also shows the result of recycling reactions to verify the stability of the water-splitting system. Significantly, the reaction proceeded with no noticeable deactivation in the 4-round recycling reactions with irradiation time spans up to more than 80 h, demonstrating the good stability of the present architecture. Hence, various noble metals and metal oxides were used as H₂ evolution cocatalysts for comparison, and the corresponding rates of H₂ and O₂ evolution are shown in Figure 6(c). The evolution of both H₂ and O₂ linearly increased with irradiation time in all cases. The quantity of H₂ evolved from the surfaces of all reduction

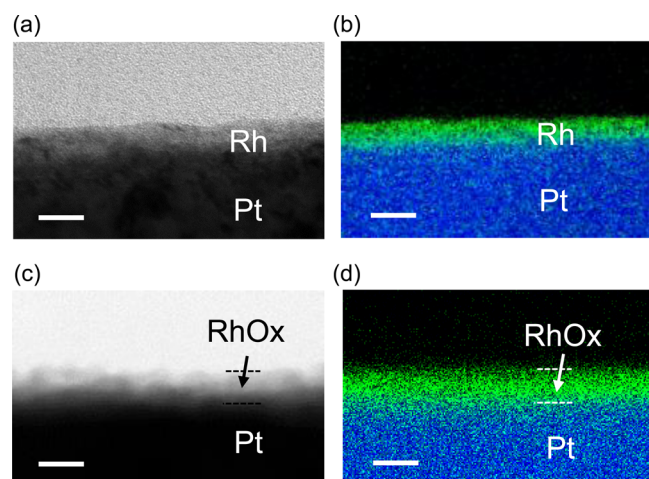


Figure 4. Cross-sectional view of transmission electron microscope images for (a) Rh and (c) RhO_x and the corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray spectrometry (EDS) images for (b) Rh and (d) RhO_x thin films deposited on the Pt board by sputtering. The Rh and Pt signals in the EDS images are indicated by green and blue colors, respectively. The scale bars represent 5 nm in all images.

cocatalysts was twice that of O_2 evolved from the Au nanostructured surface. Therefore, stoichiometric evolution of H_2 and O_2 was clearly demonstrated by various cocatalysts.

Compared with the bare Pt board, the H_2 evolution rate was enhanced by all of the cocatalysts to varying degrees. These cocatalysts are thought to facilitate electron transfer and reactions with the protons in acidic solution environments. The primary role of the noble-metal or metal-oxide thin films on the Pt board is to offer active sites for H_2 evolution.^{46–48} Thus, the results obtained here indicate that the Au-NPs/Nb-SrTiO₃/In–Ga alloy/Pt/cocatalyst architecture is a promising candidate for photocatalysis. Similar results were obtained using a cocatalyst film with a thickness of 3 nm. The stability of the noble metal and the metal oxide cocatalysts under visible-light irradiation was confirmed by XPS. Each of the Pt boards with cocatalysts was collected and measured after 24 h of light irradiation. The Ru 3p, Ru 3d, Rh 3p, and Rh 3d XPS spectra did not change after the irradiation of any of the cocatalysts (Figure S3 in the Supporting Information). Therefore, the evaluated noble metals or metal oxides were stable on the Pt board under the present experimental conditions.

To further confirm the function of the ohmic contact, as a comparison, a RuO_x thin film with a thickness of 2 nm was deposited as the H_2 evolution cocatalyst directly on the back side of the Nb-SrTiO₃ substrate in the absence of the In–Ga alloy and Pt board. As expected, the water-splitting yield declined markedly in the absence of the In–Ga alloy and Pt board (Figure S4 in the Supporting Information).

Some noble metals and metal oxides deposited on a photocatalyst function as cocatalysts for H_2 evolution even in plasmon-induced water splitting. Ideally, the reaction occurring on such cocatalysts should be H_2 evolution. However, undesirable reverse reactions, such as H_2 – O_2 recombination to form H_2O and the photoreduction of O_2 , occasionally occur on the surface of such cocatalysts and consequently hinder the forward reaction. Maeda et al. reported that photodeposition of a Cr_2O_3 shell permeable to protons and H_2 but not O_2 on noble metals or metal oxides can prevent these reverse reactions.^{49–53} Because of its unique two-chamber structure, the water-splitting system presented in this study can also suppress the reverse reactions by separating the evolution of H_2 and O_2 . Furthermore, certain metal oxides, such as RuO_2 , can function as both reduction and oxidation sites for water during the water-splitting reaction.^{54,55} The separation of the H_2 evolution cocatalyst from the O_2 evolution cocatalyst in two different chambers with different solution environments provides a new means of investigating individual cocatalysts by excluding one influence from another.

The relatively higher yield of H_2 evolution obtained using Rh compared with Ru as a cocatalyst is likely attributable to the difference in the free energy of H_2 adsorption, ΔG_{H} , which has been associated with H_2 evolution activity for a wide variety of metals and alloys.⁵⁶ DFT calculations suggest that the absolute value of ΔG_{H} for Rh is lower than that for Ru, indicating that Rh cocatalysts enhance H_2 evolution compared with Ru catalysts. Besides, it is known that the valence state of Rh also affects the water-splitting activity, and metallic Rh is a superior core material.⁵¹ Consequently, a thin rhodium layer with a thickness of 2 or 3 nm deposited on a platinum board exhibited relatively high performance, as evidenced by a 3-fold increase compared with the absence of a thin metal or metal oxide cocatalyst layer. In summary, we successfully evaluated the cocatalyst effects on H_2 evolution in a plasmon-induced water-splitting system by eliminating the Schottky barrier effect

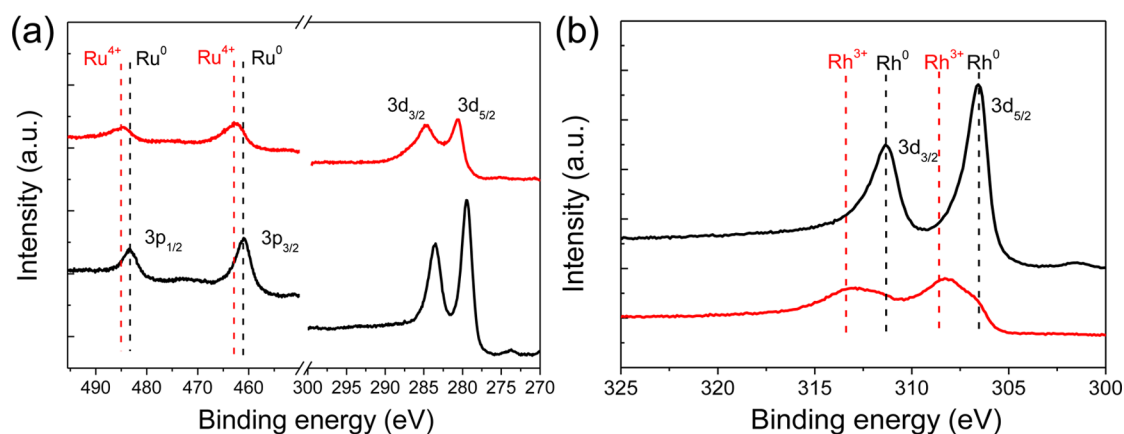


Figure 5. XPS spectra of the (a) Ru 3p and (b) Rh 3d thin films sputtered with (red solid line) and without (black solid line) O_2 flow on the Pt board. The black and red dashed lines indicate the standard metal and oxidation state peak positions of Ru and Rh, respectively.

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