



Precursor solution concentration-dependent electrochemical supercapacitive behavior of spray-deposited RuO₂ films using aqueous/organic solvent mixtures

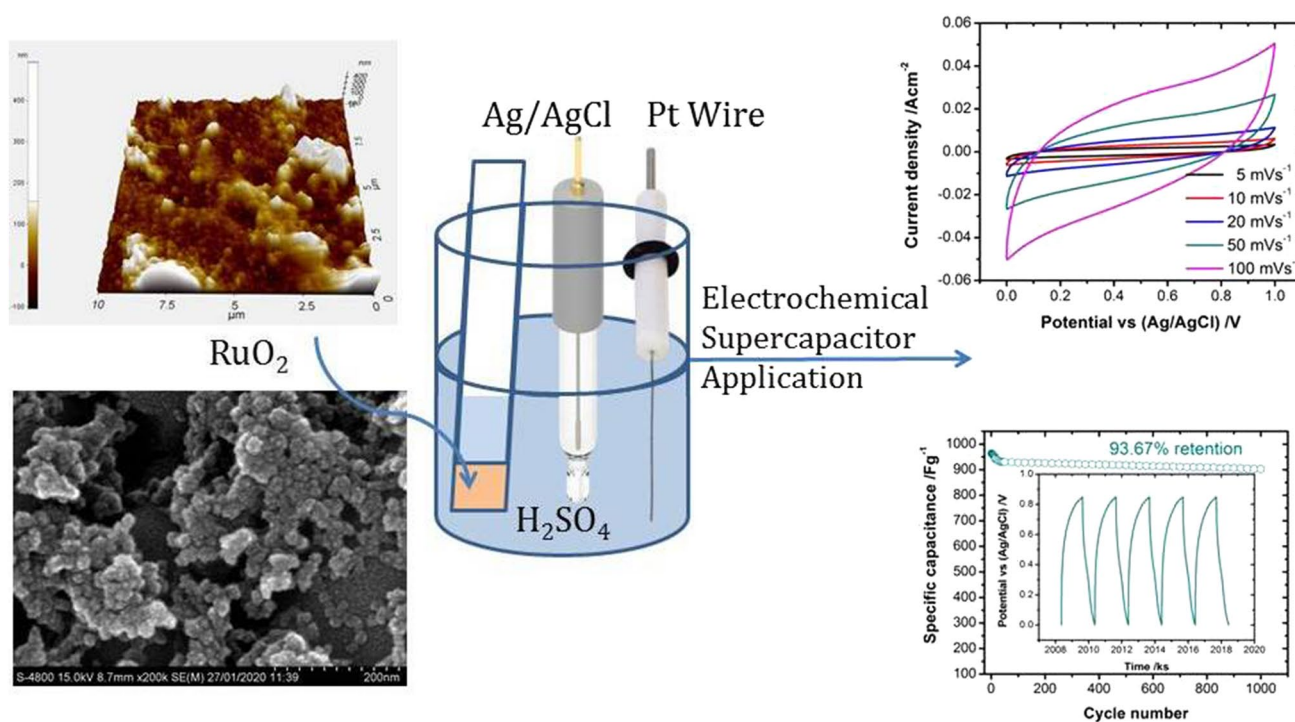
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Abstract

RuO₂ electrodes are spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations using aqueous/organic solvent mixtures. RuO₂ has a preferential growth along the (110) plane of the rutile tetragonal crystal structure with porous morphology. The bandgap decreases from 2.05 to 1.77 eV with increasing precursor solution concentrations. Electrical resistivity of $0.12 \times 10^4 \Omega\text{cm}$ has been observed for RuO₂ films prepared with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration. RuO₂ film showed a specific capacitance of 893 Fg^{-1} at a scan rate of 5 mVs^{-1} and 964 Fg^{-1} at 0.5 Ag^{-1} with 93.67% capacitance retention over 1000 cycles. As a RuO₂ electrode supercapacitor device, the energy density reaches 76.56 Whkg^{-1} at a power density of 1701 Wkg^{-1} . The solution resistance is about 0.32Ω for the RuO₂ electrode prepared with a precursor solution concentration of 50 mM. The use of an aqueous/organic mixture as solvent improves the electrochemical supercapacitive performance of RuO₂ electrodes.

Graphical abstract



Keywords Spray pyrolysis · RuO₂ · Precursor solution concentration · Aqueous/organic solvent mixture · Supercapacitor

1 Introduction

The need for energy on a global scale is continuously rising because of economic and scientific growth. However, the fossil fuel supplies on Earth are running out. In addition, using fossil fuels will pollute the environment through the greenhouse effect and other means. As a result, all nations are making investments in sustainable and renewable energy sources [1]. To meet the problems of rising energy demand and the recurrent nature of renewable sources, like solar and wind, there is an increased need for sustainable energy storage technology [2]. Supercapacitors and other electrochemical capacitors are gaining popularity as cutting-edge energy storage technologies and are frequently utilized in portable electronic equipment, automobile systems, backup power systems, hybrid power cars, laptops, mobile phones, digital cameras, and other applications [3–5].

Pseudo-supercapacitors and electric double-layer capacitors (EDLCs) are two categories of supercapacitors based on different energy storage mechanisms. The capacitance of pseudo-supercapacitors result from rapid and reversible intercalation or redox reactions of electroactive species on the electrode surface, such as conducting polymers or transition metal oxides/hydroxides [1, 6]. At the interface between the electrode and the electrolyte, charge builds up through electrostatic interactions to store energy in the EDLC. Consequently, the accessible surface of the electrode material has a significant influence on the capacity of EDLCs. Since no chemical reaction occurs during the charge–discharge process, EDLCs have a lower capacity than pseudo-supercapacitors but a higher energy density and better cycling stability [7].

Two identical electrodes immersed in an electrolyte and a separator form a supercapacitor. To achieve excellent supercapacitive characteristics, there must be effective contact between the electrode and the electrolyte [8]. In supercapacitors, the quality of the electrode material is critical. Three different categories of electrode materials exist: conducting polymers, transition metal oxides/hydroxides, and carbon-based compounds. Carbon based electrodes have good electrical conductivity and chemical stability but a low specific capacity [9]. Conducting polymers exhibit high specific capacitance but have limited cycle life [10]. Compared to conducting polymers and carbon-based electrodes, metal oxides typically have multiple oxidation states that favor faster redox reactions, resulting in higher specific capacitance [11]. Among the transition metal oxides considered as supercapacitor electrode materials are ruthenium dioxide

(RuO₂), manganese oxide (MnO₂ and Mn₃O₄), nickel oxide (NiO), molybdenum oxide (MoO₃), cobalt oxide (Co₃O₄), nickel cobaltite (NiCo₂O₄), iron oxide (Fe₂O₃), vanadium (V) oxide (V₂O₅), etc. [12–23].

RuO₂ has a quasi-rectangular cyclic voltammogram and a faradaic charge-transfer process. RuO₂'s large surface area, fast proton transport, and good electrical conductivity all help produce a fast, reversible faradaic reaction with a high specific capacitance [12, 24, 25]. Majumdar et al. [26] have reviewed the progress of RuO₂ in terms of fabrication, design, and electrochemical performance. Patake et al. [27] deposited amorphous and porous RuO₂ films using electrodeposition and obtained a specific capacitance of 650 Fg^{−1} in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte. Warren et al. [28] studied RuO₂ deposited by atomic layer deposition and measured a specific capacity of 644 Fg^{−1} with a high power density at 17 kWkg^{−1}. Park et al. [29] prepared RuO₂ electrodes by cathodic electrodeposition and studied the effect of film thickness on the electrochemical properties. A specific capacitance of 788 Fg^{−1} is obtained with an electrode thickness of 0.0014 gcm^{−2}. Zhang et al. [30] prepared nanotubular RuO₂ using template synthesis. A specific capacitance of 860 Fg^{−1} has been obtained at 500 mAg^{−1} in H₂SO₄ electrolyte.

Several methods have been used to deposit RuO₂ thin films, including sputtering [31], atomic layer deposition [32], electrode deposition [27, 29], template synthesis [30], SILAR [32], chemical bath deposition [33], spray pyrolysis [34–36], etc. Among these methods, spray pyrolysis is used to deposit thin films of noble metals, metal oxides, spinel oxides, and superconducting compounds without vacuum, and is simple and effective on both small and large-scale substrates. Therefore, a spray pyrolysis method was used to deposit RuO₂ films. The aim of the present work is to show how the electrochemical supercapacitive behavior of spray-deposited RuO₂ films can be improved by changing precursor solution concentrations in the aqueous/organic solvent mixture.

2 Experimental

To deposit RuO₂ films using spray pyrolysis, ruthenium(III) chloride trihydrate (RuCl₃·3H₂O) was used as a precursor at an optimized substrate temperature of 290 °C. Required amounts of ruthenium(III) chloride trihydrate were dissolved in double distilled water to prepare precursor solution concentrations of 12.5 mM, 25 mM, 37.5 mM, 50 mM, and

62.5 mM. For each deposition, 20 ml of final spray solution was prepared by mixing 10 ml of this precursor solution with 10 ml of ethanol. The precursor solution was sprayed through a specially designed glass nozzle at a spray rate of 3–4 mlmin⁻¹ onto preheated ultrasonically cleaned amorphous glass and fluorine doped tin oxide (FTO) substrates, using air as the carrier gas at a pressure of 176 kPa. The distance between the glass nozzle and the substrate was kept approximately 28 cm.

The structural properties of the spray-deposited RuO₂ films were investigated with Cu-K α radiation (wavelength $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) using an X-ray diffractometer (Ultima IV, Rigaku Corporation, Japan). Surface morphologies of RuO₂ films deposited with various precursor solution concentrations were investigated by Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM), S-4800 Hitachi, Japan and Atomic force microscopy (AFM) (Digital Instruments Nanoscope III). Optical absorption spectra of RuO₂ films were captured using UV–Vis spectrophotometer (Ocean Optics JAZ-3 and NIR-QUEST) to estimate the optical band gap. Electrical resistivity was measured using the DC two-point probe technique. Electrochemical measurements of the RuO₂ films were carried out using an electrochemical analyzer (CHI 608D). A typical three-electrode cell arrangement was adopted with 1 cm² RuO₂ as a working electrode and platinum and saturated Ag/AgCl in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte as the counter and reference electrodes. Galvanostatic charge–discharge (GCD), Cyclic voltammetry (CV), and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were among the electrochemical measures.

3 Results and discussion

When an aqueous/organic solvent mixture of ruthenium (III) chloride trihydrate in ethanol is sprayed onto amorphous glass and FTO coated glass substrates, fine droplets of the aqueous/organic mixture thermally decompose after falling on the surface of the heated substrate. Because the spray solution's reaction and decomposition processes on the substrate surface differ for each of the used solvents, the resulting film has distinct growth kinetics [27, 36]. A ruthenium (III) chloride trihydrate (RuCl₃·3H₂O) in an aqueous/organic solvent mixture sprayed onto hot substrates supplies Ru³⁺ ions, a chemical reaction among Ru³⁺ and OH⁻ forms Ru(OH)₃, which decomposes to well-adherent RuO₂. The adherent dark black RuO₂ thin films are formed at the temperature of deposition. At an optimized substrate temperature, reactions can be,

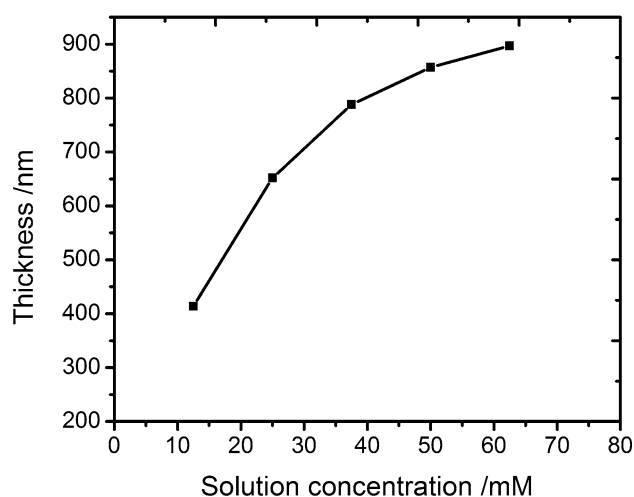
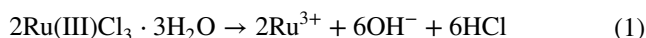
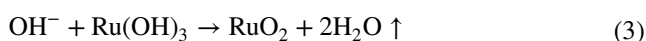


Fig. 1 Variation film thickness with precursor solution concentration for spray-deposited RuO₂ films



Gujar et al. [36] have previously reported a similar reaction for RuO₂ films.

3.1 Film thickness

The spray-deposited RuO₂ electrodes with precursor solution concentrations of 12.5 mM, 25 mM, 37.5 mM, 50 mM, and 62.5 mM have resultant mass-loadings of 0.29, 0.45, 0.55, 0.60, and 0.63 mgcm⁻² respectively. The film thickness was

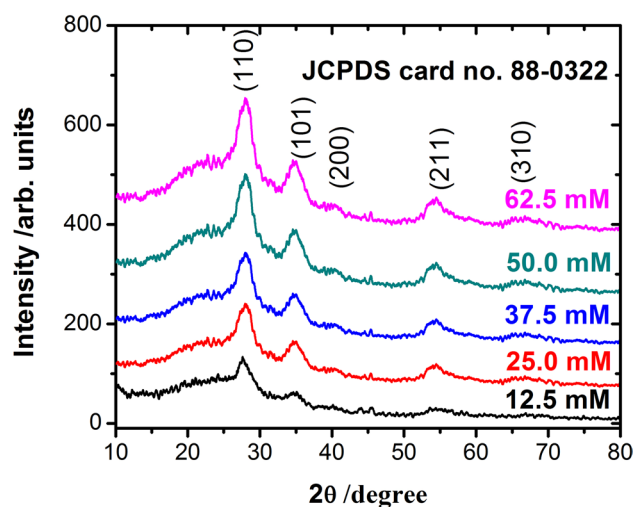


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

Table 1 Structural data for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

| Solution Conc. (mM) | 2θ (°) | d (Å) (Cal.) | d (Å) (Std.) | hkl | a (Å) | c (Å) | D (nm) |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------|---------|---------|----------|
| 12.5 | 27.24 | 3.271 | 3.177 | 110 | 4.565 | 3.108 | 25 |
| | 34.89 | 2.569 | 2.555 | 101 | | | |
| | 40.00 | 2.252 | 2.247 | 200 | | | |
| | 53.89 | 1.700 | 1.687 | 211 | | | |
| | 66.40 | 1.407 | 1.421 | 310 | | | |
| 25 | 27.82 | 3.204 | 3.177 | 110 | 4.517 | 3.168 | 16 |
| | 34.55 | 2.594 | 2.555 | 101 | | | |
| | 40.00 | 2.252 | 2.247 | 200 | | | |
| | 54.20 | 1.691 | 1.687 | 211 | | | |
| | 66.43 | 1.406 | 1.421 | 310 | | | |
| 37.5 | 27.71 | 3.216 | 3.177 | 110 | 4.518 | 3.153 | 14 |
| | 34.66 | 2.586 | 2.555 | 101 | | | |
| | 40.16 | 2.243 | 2.247 | 200 | | | |
| | 54.00 | 1.697 | 1.687 | 211 | | | |
| | 66.48 | 1.405 | 1.421 | 310 | | | |
| 50 | 27.98 | 3.186 | 3.177 | 110 | 4.500 | 3.175 | 13 |
| | 34.54 | 2.594 | 2.555 | 101 | | | |
| | 40.08 | 2.248 | 2.247 | 200 | | | |
| | 54.24 | 1.690 | 1.687 | 211 | | | |
| | 65.96 | 1.415 | 1.421 | 310 | | | |
| 62.5 | 27.84 | 3.202 | 3.177 | 110 | 4.510 | 3.157 | 12 |
| | 34.65 | 2.586 | 2.555 | 101 | | | |
| | 40.10 | 2.247 | 2.247 | 200 | | | |
| | 54.17 | 1.692 | 1.687 | 211 | | | |
| | 65.52 | 1.423 | 1.421 | 310 | | | |

2θ Bragg's angle, d interplanar spacing, hkl Miller indices, ' a ' and ' c ' lattice constants, D crystallite size

measured using the gravimetric weight difference method [37] with a sensitive microbalance considering the bulk density of RuO₂ ($\rho = 6.97 \text{ g/cm}^3$). For spray-deposited RuO₂ films, Fig. 1 depicts the variation of film thickness against precursor solution concentration. According to the graph, the film thickness increases gradually for each concentration as the precursor solution concentration increases up to 50 mM before saturation. It is clear that as the precursor solution concentration increases up to 50 mM, more precursor material contributes to the formation of the RuO₂ film, which also increases its thickness. The formation of tensile tensions, which have a propensity to disintegrate and make the film bulky, can be credited for the saturation of RuO₂ film thickness. Further, it can be seen that for a fixed amount of precursor solution (20 ml), the growth rate increased as the precursor solution's concentration increased, resulting in thicker RuO₂ films. The growth rate, however, was not proportional to the concentration of the precursor solution. Dhole and colleagues [38] observed similar film thickness behavior for electroplated NiO electrodes.

3.2 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

XRD patterns of RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations are shown in Fig. 2. Spray-deposited RuO₂ films are polycrystalline. The obtained interplanar spacing values match the standard values, indicating that the spray-deposited films are composed of RuO₂ with rutile tetragonal crystal structure and space group P42 [39]. The diffraction peaks observed at 28.06°, 35.09°, 40.10°, 54.33°, and 65.65° can be attributed to the (110), (101), (200), (211), and (310) planes of RuO₂, respectively [JCPDS 88-0322]. As the precursor solution concentration increases to 50 mM, the film crystallinity increases and then begins to saturate. The increase in (110) peak intensity with increasing precursor solution concentration is either due to a continuous increase in film thickness from 414 to 897 nm, or an increase in the degree of crystallinity with increasing precursor solution concentration, or both [40]. Spray-deposited RuO₂ films show an orientation along the (110) plane, regardless of the precursor solution concentration used for deposition. Kim et al. [41] observed similar XRD patterns for electrospun

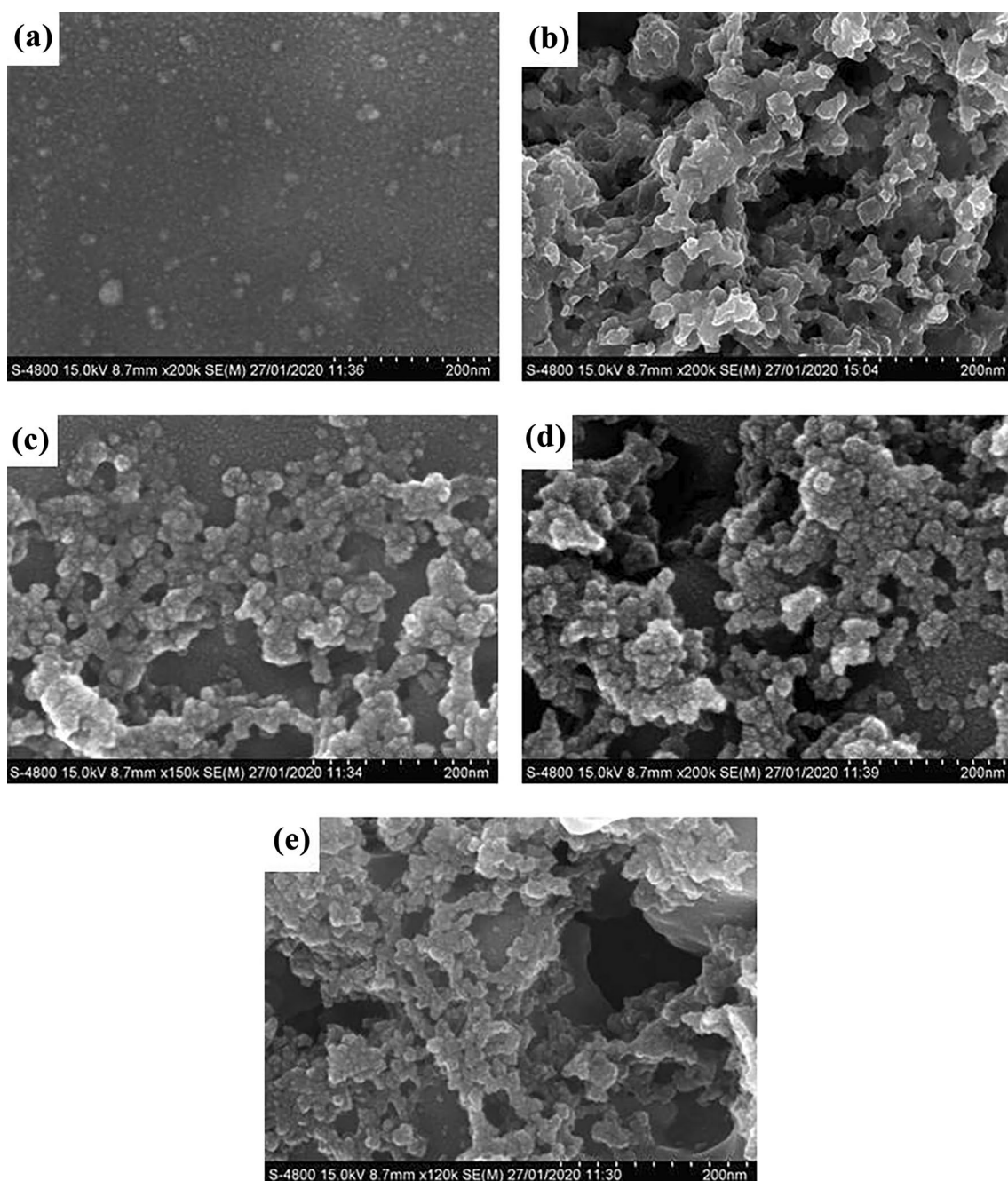


Fig. 3 FESEM images of RuO_2 films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations **a** 12.5 mM, **b** 25 mM, **c** 37.5 mM, **d** 50 mM, and **e** 62.5 mM, respectively

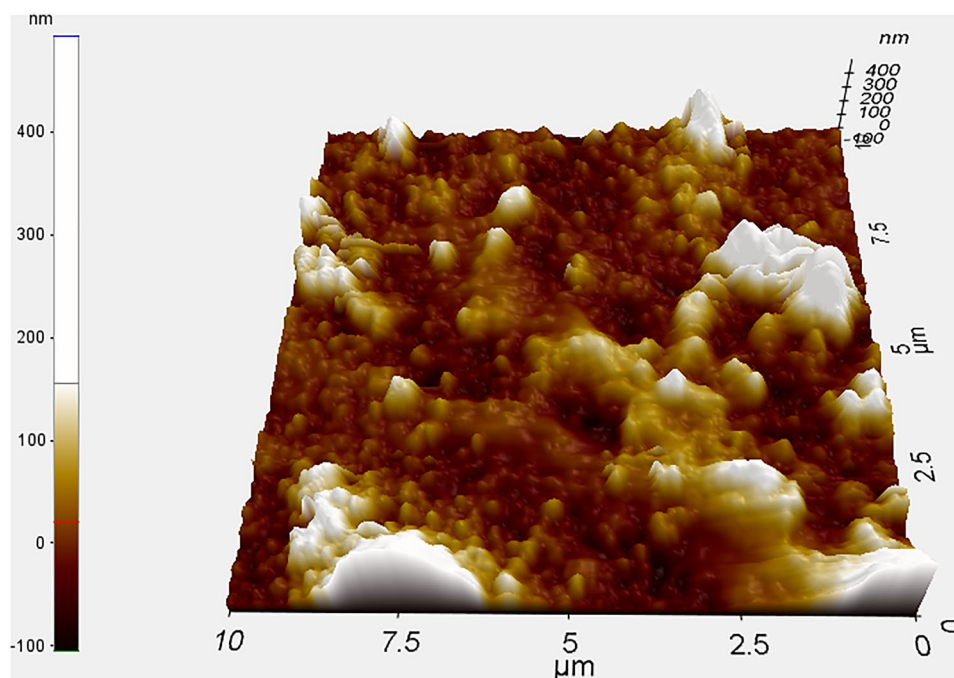
RuO_2 . In the present work, no other phases indicating the formation of pure RuO_2 films were detected.

The lattice parameters ‘ a ’ and ‘ c ’ were determined using a standard relation given elsewhere [42]. The lattice parameters for tetragonal RuO_2 are $a = b = 4.5220 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 3.1522 \text{ \AA}$, which are in good agreement with the standard values $a = b = 4.4930 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 3.1063 \text{ \AA}$ [JCPDS Card No. 88-0322]. Table 1 shows structural data for RuO_2 films. It is

observed that, by changing the concentration of the precursor solution, the lattice parameters do not change.

Crystallite size was determined using the Debye–Scherrer equation [43]. The width of the diffraction peaks increases with the concentration of the precursor solution, which clearly indicates a decrease in the crystallite size. The average crystallite size for the standard (110) plane was determined and found to decrease from 25 to 12 nm as the

Fig. 4 AFM image of RuO₂ film spray-deposited with precursor solution concentration of 50 mM



precursor solution concentration increased from 12.5 to 62.5 mM. This behavior can be attributed to an increase in the film thickness of RuO₂ with an increase in the concentration of the precursor solution, resulting in improved order and reduced local states/defects [44]. Kannan and Sundararajan [45] reported 6–25 nm crystallite sizes for biosynthesis processed RuO₂ nanoparticles. Table 1 displays crystallite sizes for spray-deposited RuO₂ films.

3.3 FESEM

FESEM images of spray-deposited rutile RuO₂ films with various precursor solution concentrations are presented in

Fig. 3a–e. RuO₂ films showed good crystalline particle structure. The surface morphology of RuO₂ films is modified by varying precursor solution concentrations. For RuO₂ films spray-deposited with a precursor solution concentration of 12.5 mM, the particles are more dense and agglomerated (Fig. 3a). With a rise in precursor solution concentration to 25 mM, RuO₂ film shows porous morphology and larger particles formed by controlled agglomeration of smaller particles (Fig. 3b). The porosity of spray-deposited RuO₂ films enhanced with an increase in the precursor solution concentration above 37.5 mM (Fig. 3c–e). Yang and colleagues [46] have reported such porous morphology for hydrothermally prepared RuO₂/RGOH and Lenar et al. [47] obtained

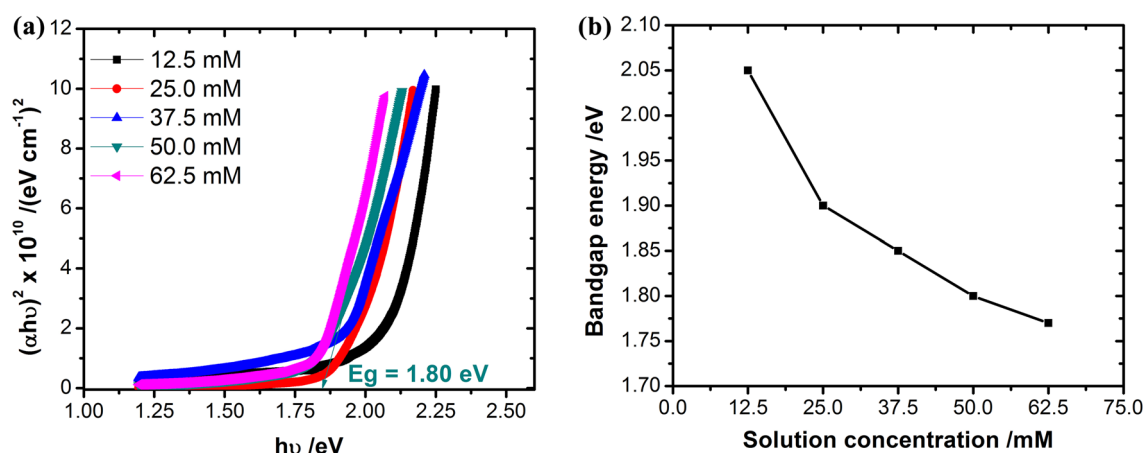
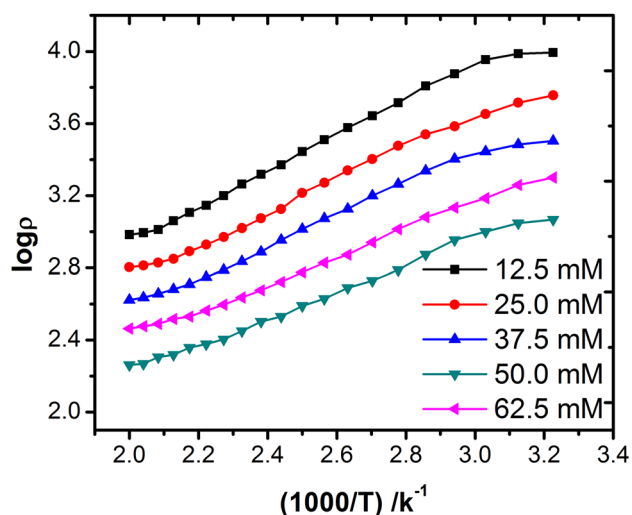


Fig. 5 **a** Variation of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ as a function of $h\nu$ used for determination optical bandgap and **b** variation of bandgap energy with precursor solution concentration for RuO₂ films

Table 2 Optical and electrical properties of RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

| Solution Conc. (mM) | Band gap (eV) | Electrical resistivity (Ω -cm) | | Activation energy (eV) | |
|---------------------|---------------|--|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| | | 300 K ($\times 10^4$) | 500 K ($\times 10^2$) | LT | HT |
| 12.5 | 2.05 | 0.99 | 9.62 | 0.054 | 0.061 |
| 25.0 | 1.90 | 0.57 | 6.35 | 0.054 | 0.044 |
| 37.5 | 1.85 | 0.32 | 4.19 | 0.046 | 0.043 |
| 50.0 | 1.80 | 0.12 | 1.83 | 0.054 | 0.048 |
| 62.5 | 1.77 | 0.20 | 2.91 | 0.055 | 0.033 |

LT low temperature, HT high temperature

**Fig. 6** Plot of $\log(\rho)$ versus $1000/T$ for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

similar morphologies for RuO₂ nanoparticles. Indicatively, this porous morphology is useful in solar cells and energy storage devices.

3.4 AFM

Figure 4 shows the 3D surface topography of a $10 \times 10 \mu\text{m}^2$ area of a spray-deposited RuO₂ film with a precursor solution concentration of 50 mM. The surface topography clearly shows the complete coverage of the substrate surface distributed by interconnected grains. Aggregation of particles is evident from the AFM images, which illustrate the crystalline nature of the RuO₂ films. The observed surface roughness of the sample is ~ 100 nm. Surface morphology by FESEM and surface topography by AFM matched well for RuO₂ films. Ingole et al. [48] reported similar surface topography for spray-deposited nanoporous RuO₂ electrodes.

3.5 Optical

A useful tool for understanding the optical properties of nanostructured materials is UV–visible spectroscopy. The optical properties of RuO₂ depend on the synthesis method, experimental conditions, dopants and their concentration, and surface morphology [44]. UV–visible absorption spectra in the 350–1050 nm wavelength range are used to investigate the bandgap of spray-deposited RuO₂ films with various precursor solution concentrations. Absorption spectra showed a strong absorption band around 605 nm (12.5 mM), 653 nm (25 mM), 670 nm (37.5 mM), 688 nm (50 mM), and 700 nm (62.5 mM). The absorption variation is dominated by the precursor solution concentration and the absorption edge shifts toward longer wavelengths due to the Burstein–Moss shift [49].

Plots of $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ versus $h\nu$ were plotted to determine the bandgap of RuO₂ films, as illustrated in Fig. 5a. Straight lines in the high-energy region specify direct allowed optical transitions. The bandgap of spray-deposited RuO₂ films was found from the absorption data using the well-known Tauc's law [50]. The bandgap was found by extrapolating the linear portion of the $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ versus $h\nu$ plot along the energy axis at $\alpha = 0$. Figure 5b shows that the direct bandgap decreases from 2.05 to 1.77 eV with an increase in the concentration of the precursor solution. Table 2 shows the bandgap energies of RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations. These values are close to the threshold bandgap of 1.8 eV obtained for RuO₂ single crystal [51]. The bandgap values obtained in the present work are close to 1.87 eV obtained by El-Tantawy et al. [52] for sol–gel prepared RuO₂, and 2.2 eV obtained by Patake and Lokhande [50] for chemically prepared RuO₂.

3.6 Electrical

Electrical characterization of spray-deposited RuO₂ films with various precursor solution concentrations was performed by the DC two-point probe method. The room temperature and high temperature electrical resistivities of the RuO₂ films are given in Table 2. A high electrical resistivity ($0.99 \times 10^4 \Omega\text{-cm}$) at room temperature is observed for RuO₂ film spray-deposited with 12.5 mM. As the precursor solution concentration increases upto 50 mM, the resistivity reaches a low value ($0.12 \times 10^4 \Omega\text{-cm}$) and then increases again to $0.20 \times 10^4 \Omega\text{-cm}$ for an increase in the precursor solution concentration to 62.5 mM. This may be due to the increase in film thickness of RuO₂ associated with the increase in precursor solution concentration [40]. To estimate the activation energy (E_a), the variation of film resistivity versus temperature from 300 to 500 K was recorded. Figure 6 depicts the plot of $\log\rho$ against $1000/T$ for RuO₂ films. The electrical resistivity of RuO₂ films reduced with

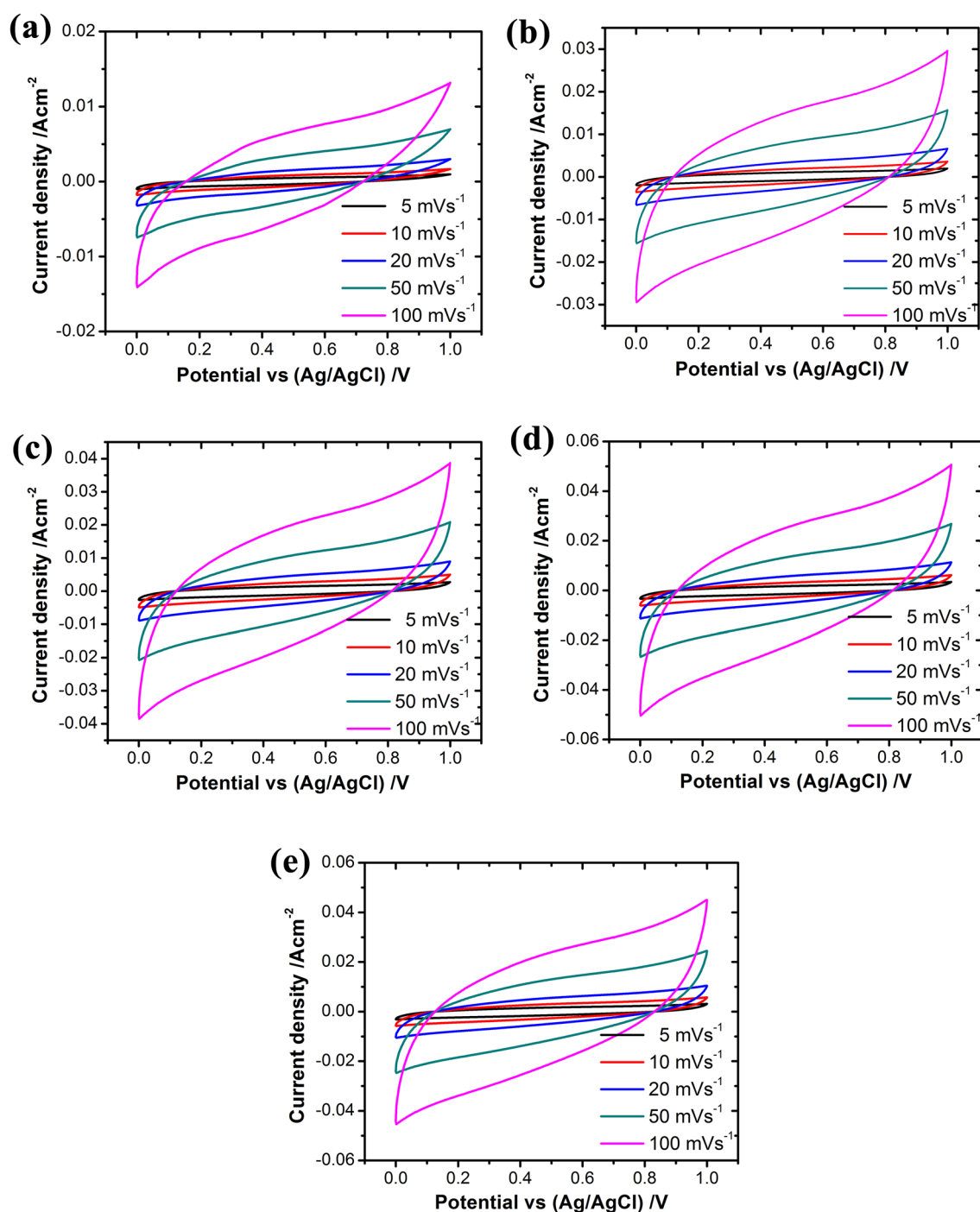


Fig. 7 CV Plots at scan rates of 5–100 mVs^{-1} for RuO_2 films prepared by spray pyrolysis with various precursor solution concentrations **a** 12.5 mM, **b** 25 mM, **c** 37.5 mM, **d** 50 mM, and **e** 62.5 mM; respectively

an increase in temperature, suggesting semiconducting behavior. The resistivity variance of RuO_2 films is approximated by the Arrhenius equation [53]. The activation energies were 0.046–0.055 eV and 0.033–0.061 eV in low temperature and high temperature regions, respectively. These

activation energies are in accordance with values estimated from the work of Ribera et al. [54].

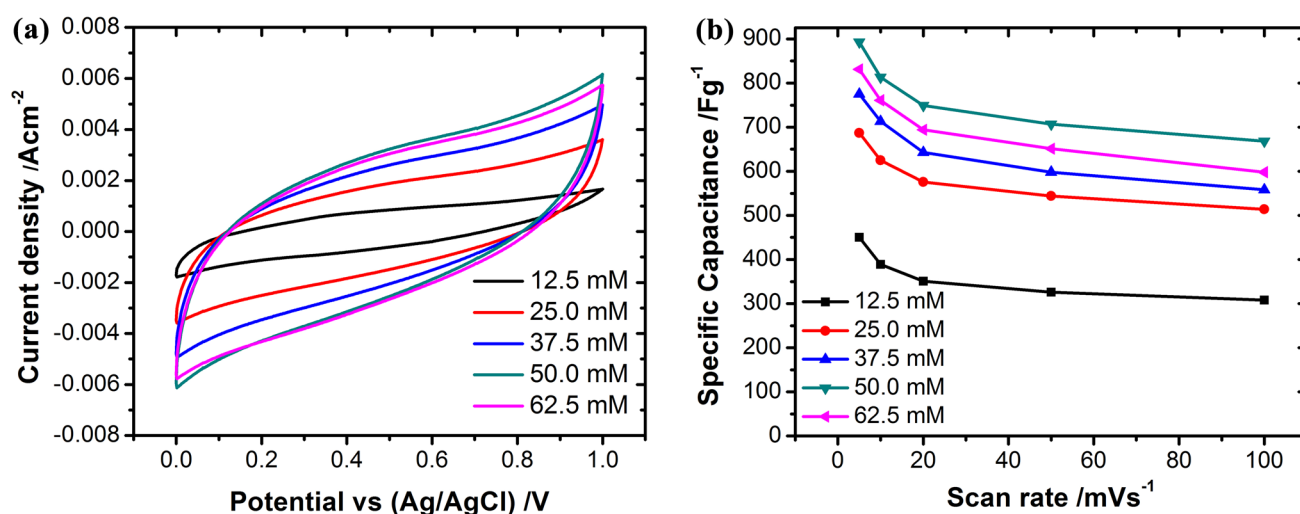


Fig. 8 **a** CV plots at scan rate of 10 mVs⁻¹ and **b** variation of specific capacitance with scan rate for RuO₂ films prepared by spray pyrolysis with various precursor solution concentrations

Table 3 Specific capacitance at different scan rates from CV for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

| Solution Conc. (mM) → | 12.5 | 25.0 | 37.5 | 50.0 | 62.5 |
|----------------------------------|--|------|------|------|------|
| Scan rate (mVs ⁻¹) ↓ | Specific capacitance from CV (Fg ⁻¹) | | | | |
| 5 | 450 | 687 | 775 | 893 | 831 |
| 10 | 389 | 625 | 713 | 813 | 761 |
| 20 | 351 | 576 | 643 | 749 | 694 |
| 50 | 326 | 544 | 598 | 707 | 651 |
| 100 | 308 | 514 | 558 | 668 | 598 |

3.7 Electrochemical

To investigate the potential applications, spray-deposited RuO₂ films with various precursor solution concentrations were fabricated into supercapacitor electrodes and evaluated using CV, GCD, and EIS, respectively.

3.7.1 CV

Figure 7a–e shows the CV plots in a wide potential range from 0.0 to 1.0 V (Ag/AgCl) in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte at scan rates of 5–100 mVs⁻¹ for RuO₂ films. All of the CV curves are slanted at low scan rates because the high electrical resistivity of RuO₂ contributes significantly to the total equivalent series resistance, lacking identifiable redox peaks and curves deviates from the ideal rectangle form. All of the RuO₂ electrodes showed much larger integrated areas, indicating excellent electrochemical performance. Figure 8a displays CV plots in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte at 10 mVs⁻¹ scan rate of RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor

solution concentrations. It is perceived that as the precursor solution concentration increases from 12.5 to 50 mM, the integrated area under the curve increases, which is attributed to the enhanced electrical conductivity [55]. At a 62.5 mM precursor solution concentration, the integrated area under the curve slightly decreases. The integrated areas under the CV curves were used to obtain the specific capacitance of RuO₂ using the equation given elsewhere [56]. Table 3 shows the specific capacitances (C_{sp}) obtained from CV for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations. Figure 8b shows the variation of C_{sp} with scan rate for RuO₂ films. From the graph, the C_{sp} for RuO₂ film prepared with 50 mM falls from 893 to 668 Fg⁻¹, as the scan rate is increased from 5 to 100 mVs⁻¹. This illustrates the voltammetric current dependency on the scan rate. As the scan rate increases from 5 to 100 mVs⁻¹, the specific capacitance decreases due to the presence of inner active sites that cannot fully sustain redox transitions at higher scan rates [57].

The specific capacitance at scan rate 5 mVs⁻¹ of RuO₂ film spray-deposited with 12.5 mM precursor solution concentration is 450 Fg⁻¹, which increased with an increase in precursor solution concentration up to 50 mM (893 Fg⁻¹). Specific capacitance at scan rate 5 mVs⁻¹ was decreased to 831 Fg⁻¹ for RuO₂ film spray-deposited with 62.5 mM precursor solution concentration due to the decreased electrical conductivity of the RuO₂. Overall, high specific capacitance is due to the nanocrystalline feature and porous morphology of the RuO₂. The specific capacitance of 893 Fg⁻¹ obtained in present work is better than 209 Fg⁻¹ at 5 mVs⁻¹ for RuO₂ nanoparticles [58] and is comparable to 650 Fg⁻¹ reported by Patake and colleagues [27] for electrodeposited RuO₂

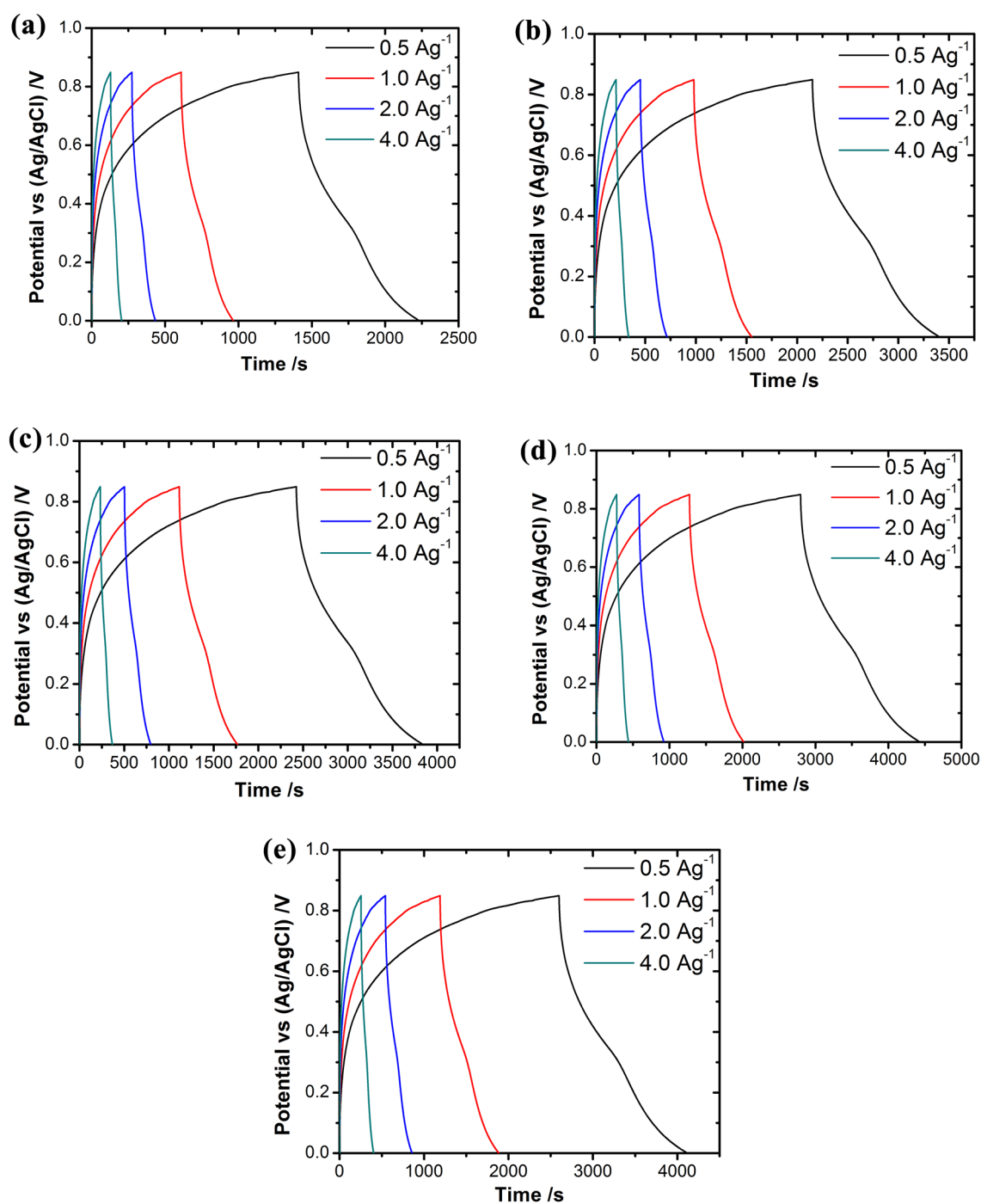


Fig. 9 GCD curves at different current densities for RuO₂ films prepared by spray pyrolysis with various precursor solution concentrations **a** 12.5 mM, **b** 25 mM, **c** 37.5 mM, **d** 50 mM, and **e** 62.5 mM; respectively

films and the 606 Fg⁻¹ reported by Raja et al. [59] for RuO₂ particles.

3.7.2 GCD

Figure 9a–e shows GCD curves in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations with the potential range of 0.0–0.85 V (note that this is distinct from CV analysis). Using the

Table 4 Specific capacitances from GCD for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

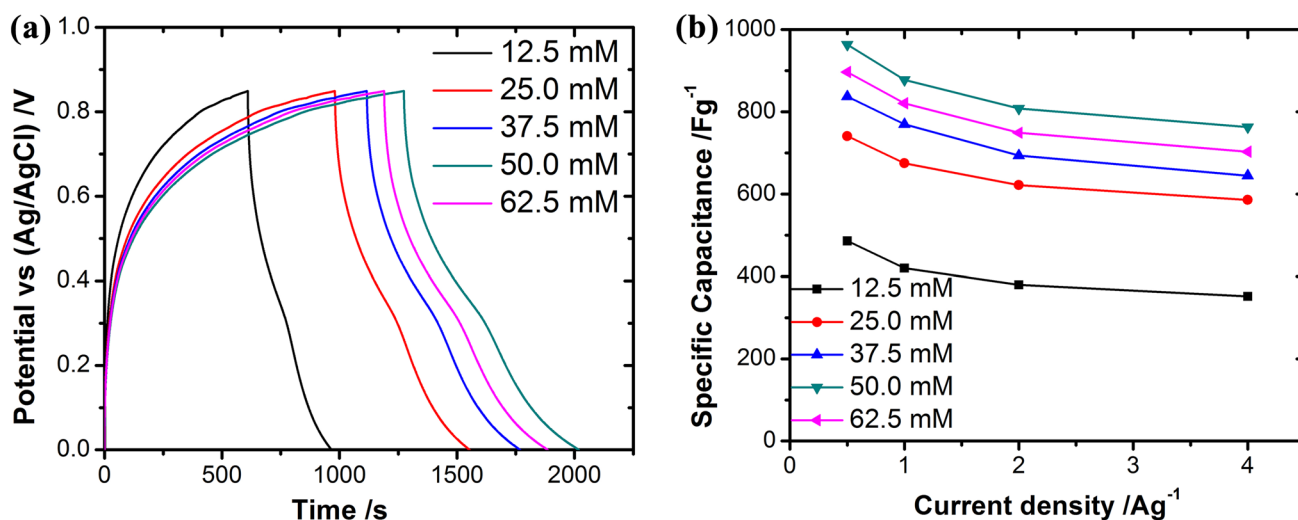
| Solution Conc. (mM) → | 12.5 | 25.0 | 37.5 | 50.0 | 62.5 |
|---------------------------------------|---|------|------|------|------|
| Current density (Ag ⁻¹) ↓ | Specific capacitance from GCD (Fg ⁻¹) | | | | |
| 0.5 | 486 | 741 | 837 | 964 | 897 |
| 1 | 420 | 675 | 770 | 878 | 821 |
| 2 | 380 | 622 | 694 | 808 | 749 |
| 4 | 352 | 586 | 645 | 763 | 703 |

experimental data demonstrated in the GCD curve, the specific capacitance has been calculated from the relationship

given elsewhere [26]. Table 4 shows the specific capacitances obtained from GCD curves. Accordingly, as the precursor solution concentration increases from 12.5 to 50 mM, the specific capacitance (at a current density 0.5 Ag⁻¹) increases from 486 to 964 Fg⁻¹. The increase in specific capacitance with increasing precursor solution concentration is due to improved microstructure and morphology (as observed from XRD and FESEM). The results acquired in this work (964 Fg⁻¹ at 0.5 Ag⁻¹ current density) are equivalent to or exceeding those mentioned in the literature for RuO₂ based systems, where the specific capacitance was reported to be around 200 Fg⁻¹, 276 Fg⁻¹, and 788 Fg⁻¹ [29, 60, 61]. Table 5 summarizes the recent research works that

Table 5 The capacitive performance comparison of RuO₂ films in this work with various RuO₂ reported in some literatures

| Order | Material | Electrolyte | Measurement Protocol | Max capacitance | Refs. |
|-------|----------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------------|-------|
| 1 | RuO ₂ NNs/Ta/Cu | diluted H ₂ SO ₄ | GCD@50 mA cm ⁻² | 580 Fg ⁻¹ | [12] |
| 2 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@20 mVs ⁻¹ | 650 Fg ⁻¹ | [27] |
| 3 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@10 mVs ⁻¹ | 788 Fg ⁻¹ | [29] |
| 4 | RuO ₂ | 1 M H ₂ SO ₄ | GCD@500 mAg ⁻¹ | 860 Fg ⁻¹ | [30] |
| 5 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@10 mVs ⁻¹ | 162 Fg ⁻¹ | [32] |
| 6 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@5 mVs ⁻¹ | 551 Fg ⁻¹ | [36] |
| 7 | RuO ₂ | 1 M KOH | CV@5 mVs ⁻¹ | 787 Fg ⁻¹ | [48] |
| 8 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@20 mVs ⁻¹ | 50 Fg ⁻¹ | [50] |
| 9 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@5 mVs ⁻¹ | 209 Fg ⁻¹ | [58] |
| 10 | RuO ₂ | 1 M H ₂ SO ₄ | GCD@0.1A g ⁻¹ | 111 Fg ⁻¹ | [59] |
| 11 | RuO ₂ | 1 M KOH | GCD@0.8A g ⁻¹ | 200 Fg ⁻¹ | [60] |
| 12 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | GCD@13.33A g ⁻¹ | 276 Fg ⁻¹ | [61] |
| 13 | RuO ₂ | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@2 mVs ⁻¹ | 73 Fg ⁻¹ | [62] |
| 14 | This work | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | CV@5 mVs ⁻¹ | 893 Fg ⁻¹ | – |
| | This work | 0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ | GCD@0.5 Ag ⁻¹ | 964 Fg ⁻¹ | – |

**Fig. 10** **a** GCD curves at current density of 1Ag⁻¹ and **b** plot of specific capacitance versus current density for RuO₂ electrodes prepared by spray pyrolysis with various solution concentrations

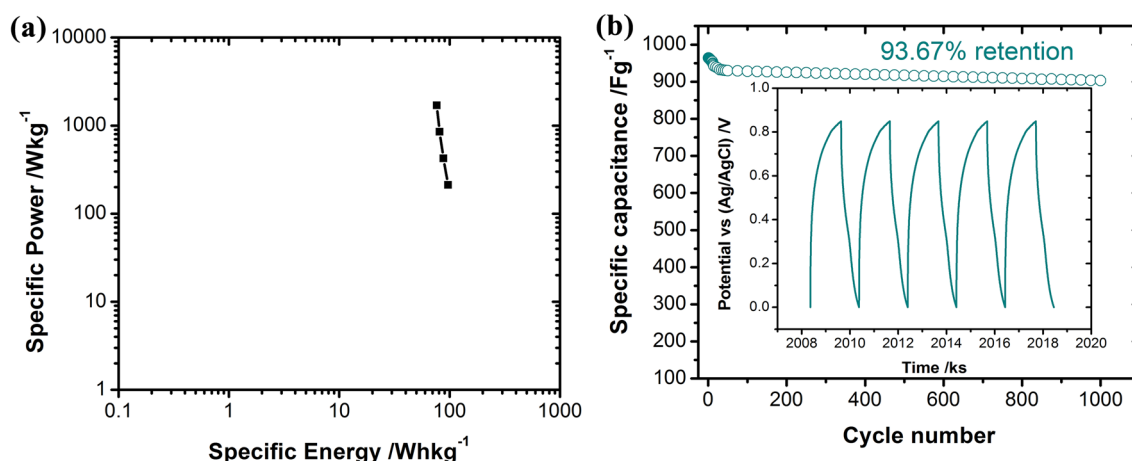


Fig. 11 **a** Ragone plot of RuO₂ electrode prepared with precursor solution concentration of 50 mM and **b** long-term cycling performance of the RuO₂ films spray-deposited with solution concentration

of 50 mM and at the current density of 1 Ag⁻¹. The inset shows the charge–discharge curves of the last 5 cycles of the RuO₂ films

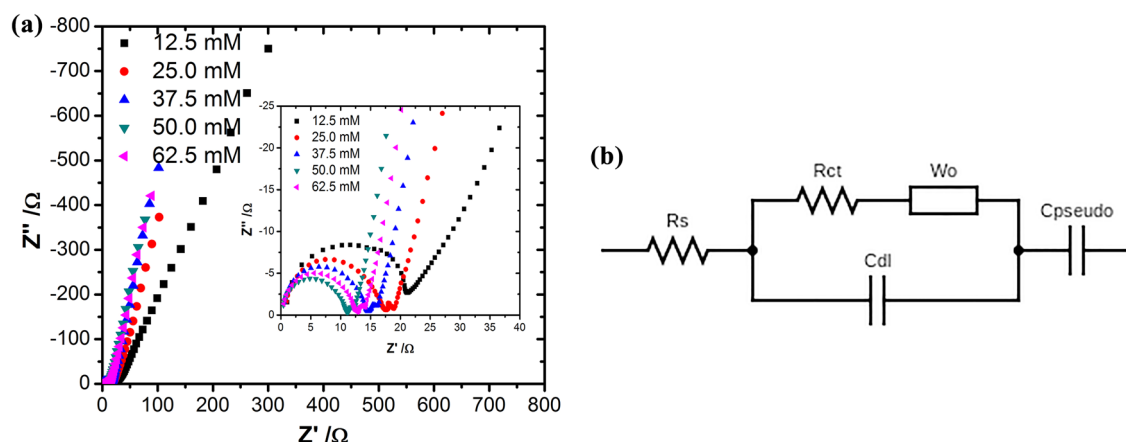


Fig. 12 Nyquist plot for RuO₂ film electrodes prepared by spray pyrolysis with various solution concentrations. (The inset is the enlarged Nyquist plots in high frequency region) and **b** equivalent circuit diagram proposed for analysis of the EIS data

were carried out in the literature for RuO₂ based systems, including different electrolytes employed.

Figure 10a displays the GCD curves at 1 Ag⁻¹ current density for RuO₂ electrodes spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations. All the charge–discharge curves are linear and symmetric in the voltage range 0–0.85 V, indicating good electrochemical properties. Moreover, the potential–time relationship of GCD curves shows a nonlinear relationship, demonstrating a combination of EDLC and pseudocapacitance.

Figure 10b shows the plot of specific capacitance against current density for RuO₂ electrodes spray-deposited with various solution concentrations. As expected, the specific capacitance of RuO₂ electrodes decreased with the increase in current density. What should be stated is that at a large current density (4 Ag⁻¹), specific capacitance of RuO₂

electrodes prepared with 50 mM still remained at about 763 Fg⁻¹, while the specific capacitance of RuO₂ electrodes prepared with 12.5 mM precursor solution concentration reduced to only 352 Fg⁻¹. Such outcomes indicate that the RuO₂ electrodes prepared with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration show remarkable electrochemical performance.

Specific power and specific energy of device fabricated with RuO₂ electrodes have also been calculated using equations given elsewhere [26] and are shown as Ragone plot in Fig. 11a. The highest specific power and specific energy of RuO₂ electrodes prepared with 50 mM precursor solution concentration are 1701 Wkg⁻¹ and 76.56 Whkg⁻¹ respectively, at 4 Ag⁻¹. These values are comparable to specific energy values of 3.57 Wh kg⁻¹ and specific power values of 151 Wkg⁻¹ reported by Patil et al. [62] for chemically

Table 6 Nyquist data for RuO₂ films spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations

| Solution Concentration (mM) | Rs (Ω) | Rct (Ωcm^2) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| 12.5 | 0.78 | 21.15 |
| 25.0 | 0.40 | 17.10 |
| 37.5 | 0.35 | 14.50 |
| 50.0 | 0.32 | 11.38 |
| 62.5 | 0.33 | 13.63 |

synthesized hydrous RuO₂. Overall, the electrochemical study makes the RuO₂ electrode prepared with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration as a great electrode for supercapacitor applications.

Another critical factor in evaluating the quality of supercapacitors is cycling stability. Figure 11b shows the long-term cycling performance at 1 Ag⁻¹ current density for 1000 cycles of RuO₂ electrode spray-deposited with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration. The capacitance retention remains as high as 93.67% after 1000 charging/discharging cycles. RuO₂ electrode does not experience substantial structural changes during charging/discharging processes, as shown by the charging-discharging curve of RuO₂ film in the last 5 cycles, which is depicted in the inset of Fig. 11b.

3.7.3 EIS

EIS is a very significant measure to assess the quality of supercapacitors. Figure 12a displays the impedance curves of the supercapacitors based on RuO₂ electrodes spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations, measured in a 0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte solution. The inset is the enlarged Nyquist plots in high frequency region. The EIS data can be fitted by an equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 12b. The elements in the equivalent circuit are solution resistance (Rs), the charge-transfer resistance (Rct), the double-layer capacitance (Cdl), the Warburg diffusion element (Wo), and the pseudocapacitance element (Cpseudo). The horizontal axis intercepts in the high frequency region in the Nyquist plots for the supercapacitors based on RuO₂ electrodes spray-deposited with various precursor solution concentrations 12.5 mM, 25 mM, 37.5 mM, 50 mM, and 62.5 mM, are, respectively, 0.78, 0.40, 0.35, 0.32, and 0.33 Ω indicating that with the change in precursor solution concentration, the solution resistance (Rs) changes unnoticeably. The RuO₂ electrode deposited with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration had an upright slope in the low frequency region in synchrony with the CV graphs than RuO₂ electrodes deposited at other precursor solution concentrations, indicating that the RuO₂ electrode deposited with a 50 mM precursor solution concentration had a higher capacitive response and lower diffusion resistance toward the

electrolyte ions on the electrode surface. The radius of the semicircle represents the charge transfer resistance (Rct) at the RuO₂ electrode/0.5 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte interface. The values of Rct are tabulated in Table 6. From Table 6 and Fig. 12a the RuO₂ electrode spray-deposited with a precursor solution concentration of 50 mM showed a minimum Rct demonstrating improved electronic and ionic conductivities [63].

4 Conclusion

The use of aqueous/organic mixtures improves the electrochemical performance of RuO₂ electrodes. Structural analysis indicated that the RuO₂ film was oriented along the (110) plane. The (110) peak intensity increased with the increasing concentration of the precursor solution. Surface morphology studies of RuO₂ electrodes have shown that it is possible to obtain a porous morphology by varying the precursor solution concentration. The direct allowed bandgap of the RuO₂ electrode decreases from 2.05 to 1.77 eV with precursor solution concentration from 12.5 to 62.5 mM. The electrical resistivity of the RuO₂ decreases with an increase in precursor solution concentration and is least $0.12 \times 10^4 \Omega\text{cm}$ at a precursor solution concentration of 50 mM. The RuO₂ electrode with a precursor solution concentration of 50 mM showed outstanding electrochemical performance with specific capacitance from CV of 893 Fg⁻¹ at 5 mVs⁻¹ scan rate, with a specific capacitance from GCD of 964 Fg⁻¹ at 0.5 Ag⁻¹, retaining a specific capacity of 93.67% capacitance after 1000 cycles, specific energy of 76.56 Whkg⁻¹, and specific power of 1701 Wkg⁻¹ than others. Findings from this study will help in the fabrication of RuO₂ film-based supercapacitors with good energy retention and high specific energy and push forward the progress of supercapacitors into practical applications.

Author contribution All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by all authors. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Chandrashekar R., and Dr Abhijit Yadav commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Data availability It is hereby assured that materials described in the manuscript, including all relevant raw data, will be freely available to any researcher wishing to use them for non-commercial purposes, without breaching participant confidentiality.

Declarations

Conflict of interest There is no conflict to declare.

Human and animal participation This article does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects.

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