Pressure-induced loss of metallicity in RuO₂

Melanie White^(D),^{1,2} Daniel Schacher^(D),^{1,2} G. Alexander Smith^(D),^{1,3} Dean Smith^(D),¹ Changyong Park^(D),⁴ Keith V. Lawler^(D),^{1,*} and Ashkan Salamat^(D),^{1,2},[†]

¹Nevada Extreme Conditions Laboratory, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, Nevada 89154, USA

²Department of Physics & Astronomy, University of Nevada Las Vegas, Las Vegas, Nevada 89154, USA

³Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry, University of Nevada Las Vegas, Las Vegas, Nevada 89154, USA

⁴HPCAT, X-ray Science Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, Illinois 60439, USA

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The density evolution of the physical properties of the transition-metal oxide RuO_2 coupled with a deeper understanding of underlying metastable phases is necessary for correlating universality between similar binary systems. Here, we report the pressure-temperature electrical resistance dependency with the structural evolution of RuO_2 . Conducting quasi-four-probe electrical transport measurements in a diamond anvil cell, a low-temperature loss of metallicity is observed above 28 GPa. This insulative transition is accompanied by a significant drop in pressure, suggesting the electronic transition is linked to a first-order structural phase transition. This is supported by the observation that the insulative electronic state is retained upon warming to room temperature. Density functional theory simulations indicate that the insulative fluorite-type phase can be favorable around these conditions and would exhibit a similar pressure difference through an isochoric transformation from the metallic HP-PdF₂-type phase, however there is insufficient experimental evidence to confirm the presence of the fluorite-type phase. Furthermore, a unique arsenopyrite-type phase of RuO_2 is observed with x-ray diffraction of a post-laser-heated sample at 62 GPa.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Transition-metal oxides are valued for their rich variety of electronic properties facilitated by the presence of d-orbital interactions [1,2]. Examples include metal-insulator transitions like those found in NbO₂ and VO₂ [3-5] and intrinsic magnetic semiconductivity in spintronic materials MnO₂ and TcO_2 [6,7]. The *d*-orbital interactions can also be tuned via chemical or mechanical means to modify these electronic properties, the possibilities of which have been embraced by the high-pressure community. In this work, we focus on RuO₂, a 4d transition-metal oxide and gold-standard electrocatalyst used in numerous industrial processes such as converting CO to CO₂, producing Cl₂ gas and NaOH from salt water, and splitting water to form molecular H₂ [8]. The addition of structural strain reveals more characteristics of RuO₂, such as the enhancement of catalytic efficiency through strain engineering [9], strain-induced superconductivity in thin films [10], and metal-insulator transitions (MITs) in low-dimensional, highly disordered systems [11–13].

The ground-state assembly for RuO_2 is the rutile-type ($P4_2/mnm$) structure, a common polymorph of transitionmetal dioxides. In a reported range of 5–12 GPa, RuO_2 undergoes a second-order transition from a rutile-type to CaCl_2 -type (*Pnnm*) structure [14–17], a phase progression shared by other prominent metal binary oxides such as the geologically abundant stishovite [18]. Recent work on group 14 oxides SnO_2 and GeO_2 probed oxygen sublattice disordering preceding rutile-CaCl₂ transitions, which in SnO_2 presented with orders of magnitude (10⁴) reduction in electrical resistance [19,20]. The driving mechanism behind the disordering and transition is postulated to be universal for MO_2 rutile-CaCl₂ transitions, and as such the electrical performance of isostructural d-block oxides across the same transition is of interest [19,20].

Following the CaCl₂-type phase, RuO₂ undergoes a firstorder transition to a HP-PdF₂-type ($Pa\overline{3}$) structure in a range of 11-30 GPa, with the two phases coexisting to at least \approx 50 GPa, the highest pressure explored experimentally prior to this work [14, 16, 17, 21-23]. Historically, the Pa $\overline{3}$ phase of RuO₂ has been described as a pyrite-type or modified fluorite structure [17,18,22,24–26]. However, since Pa3 RuO₂ lacks the anion-anion bonding of a pyrite-type material, it is better described by the high-pressure cubic phase of PdF2, which is crystallographically identical to the pyrite structure without anion-anion bonds [27,28]. In several studies, the $Pa\overline{3}$ phase was not observed, which in combination with phase coexistence suggests phase metastability, slow kinetics of formation, and possibly a high sensitivity to sample environment and conditions of formation [15–17,29]. Previously, the $Pa\overline{3}$ phase was of considerable interest due to having a bulk modulus near that of diamond, though it has been subsequently ruled out as a potential superhard material [14,30–32]. Computational studies exploring possible other phases above 50 GPa have determined a fluorite-type (CaF₂-type, $Fm\overline{3}m$) structure to be energetically favorable [18,26,32]. The transition to $Fm\overline{3}m$

^{*}keith.lawler@unlv.edu

[†]ashkan.salamat@unlv.edu

would also be accompanied by an MIT, as density-of-states (DOS) calculations indicate the fluorite-type phase is an insulator while the rutile-type, CaCl₂-type, and HP-PdF₂-type are either known or predicted to be metallic [25,33–35].

Here, we probe the phase progression and phase properties of RuO_2 with a combination of electrical resistance measurements and synchrotron x-ray diffraction (XRD), finding that certain thermodynamic pathways can elicit an insulative transition in RuO_2 and access new high-pressure phases.

II. METHODS

All high-pressure measurements were carried out in custom diamond anvil cells (DACs). RuO₂ powder was purchased from Sigma Aldrich, 99.9% trace metal basis. For transport measurements on microscale samples, electrical contacts were cut from 4 μ m thickness Pt foil. Metal gaskets were electrically insulated from the Pt probes with a layer of Al₂O₃ powder mixed with approximately 8% by weight Stycast 1266. The insulating layer acted as the *de facto* pressuretransmitting medium. Pressures were calculated from ruby spheres loaded adjacent to samples or using the Raman spectra of the center of the diamond culet [36,37].

For low-temperature measurements specifically, we employ the ruby fluorescence pressure scale created by Feng *et al.* [38]. Our values for the Feng variable $\lambda_0(T)$ were estimated by applying the temperature corrections of Datchi *et al.* [39] to the room-temperature, pre-compression λ_0 of our ruby manometers. Of the different low-temperature ruby scales in the literature [38–41], we found this scale provided the best consistency between our ruby and diamond pressures in data sets where both quantities were measured.

A Cryomech ST405 cryostat with optical access was utilized for low-temperature measurements. We had *in situ* pressure determination for four of the five low-temperature experiments detailed in this work. Temperatures in the cryostat were cycled twice between 9 and 185 K, with electrical and pressure measurements collected during the "warm-up" portion of each cycle. Above 185 K, we found our cryostat system had limited temperature control capabilities, and as such we only present with confidence the data in the temperature range 9–185 K.

Synchrotron angular dispersive XRD measurements of RuO₂ were carried out using two different types of DAC loadings. The first was a DAC prepared for electrical transport measurements as described above. The second was a DAC prepared for laser heating as follows: RuO₂ powder was placed on a platform of NaCl pellets and gas-loaded with argon as a pressure transmitting medium (PTM) using an in-house gas loader [42]. RuO₂ was compressed to 64 GPa, as determined by diamond culet Raman spectra, and laserannealed in-house using an IPG YLF ($\lambda = 1070$ nm) laser. Experiments were conducted at HPCAT, 16 ID-B, and BM-D beamlines of the Advanced Photon Source with $\lambda = 0.4066$ and 0.4133 Å, respectively. Diffraction was performed axially through the diamond anvil using Boehler-Almax conical design diamonds to allow for a 70° solid angle aperture. Pressures were determined using the equation of state (EOS) of platinum, in the case of the transport cell, and of argon for the laser-annealed cell [43,44]. Diffraction data were integrated using DIOPTAS software, and structural analysis was performed using GSAS-II software [45,46].

Ab initio density functional theory (DFT) utilizing VASP (Vienna ab initio simulation package) 5.4 was used for structural minimization and calculation of the electronic ground state and phonons at varying pressures. Vibrational freeenergy contributions within the harmonic approximation were calculated using PHONOPY [47,48]. The strongly constrained and appropriately normed (SCAN) meta-GGA (generalized gradient approximation) functional was used throughout all calculations [49]. A Γ -centered k-point grid with 0.15 Å⁻¹ spacing was used in each calculation. Gaussian smearing with a width of 0.10 eV was used to determine partial occupancies [50]. The VASP projector-augmented wave (PAW) pseudopotentials were used for both Ru and O with a valence configuration of $4s^24p^65s^24d^6$ and $2s^22p^4$, respectively [51]. The energy and force convergence parameters were set to at least a difference of 10^{-8} eV and 10^{-3} eVÅ⁻¹, respectively. Structural optimizations were performed as a series of two sequential ionic optimizations followed by a final evaluation of the ground-state energy. Crystal structure prediction (CSP) simulations were performed using the evolutionary algorithm of the USPEX package [52-54]. Each predicted crystal structure was optimized twice (once relaxing the cell shape and volume and once relaxing all parameters) with the SCAN functional in VASP. The CSP optimizations used a coarser $0.05 \times 2\pi \text{ Å}^{-1} k$ -grid as well as a smaller Mn PAW pseudopotential with a valence configuration $4p^65s^24d^6$ (i.e., "Mn_pv" instead of "Mn sv").

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of low-temperature, high-pressure electrical transport measurements are shown in Fig. 1. The DACs were pressurized to different starting pressures prior to being situated in the cryostat system. Measurements for the 16, 28, and 42 GPa series were done with the same DAC loading, while the 36 and 60 GPa series were separate loadings. In all five cases, the initial sample resistance prior to cooling was on the order of 3–6 Ω . For the average pressures of 16 and 28 GPa, the RuO₂ sample resistance exhibits a typical temperature response for metals, and it appears to be becoming less metallic with increasing pressure. We see a dramatic increase of approximately three orders of magnitude in electrical resistance for the experiments with average pressures of 36, 42, and 60 GPa. This indicates a possible metal-insulator transition, though semimetals and semiconductors can exhibit similar low-temperature behavior, especially if the concentration of charge carriers is small [55]. The varying degrees of coexistence of the CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases over these pressures further complicates analysis. We found that the transition was not necessarily immediate or stable upon cooling, as seen in Figs. 1 and 2, suggesting some pressure and temperature cycling may be needed to promote or fully complete the transition. Once transformed, the sample remained in the insulator-like state through the rest of the first and entirety of the second temperature cycles. With separate DAC loadings, the lower magnitude of resistance values at 42 GPa compared to 36 and 60 GPa cannot be directly interpreted as changes in electrical performance between these pressures.



FIG. 1. Temperature-dependent electrical transport measurements made at five pressure ranges reveal a significant change in the electronic property of RuO₂ occurring between 28 and 36 GPa. The data are color-coded and labeled based on the average value of measured pressures collected before, after, and during the dual "warm-up" cycles. Solid lines depict the first cycle and dotted lines the second cycle in the range of approximately 9–185 K. Dashed lines in the 16, 28, 36, and 42 GPa series extrapolate from the final low-temperature measurement to the sample resistance after the system has warmed back to \approx 300 K. Room-temperature resistance was not available at the end of the 60 GPa series.

Interestingly, the electronic transition is not immediately reversible upon warming to room temperature, and sample resistance remains in the $k\Omega$ regime. We did observe electrical resistance in the 36 and 42 GPa DAC loadings decreased post-transformation after the DACs had rested awhile at room temperature. Resistance in the post-transformed 36 GPa sample decreased by 600 Ω over the period of 6 months, while the 42 GPa sample decreased by 130 Ω over 1 month. This could indicate that transformed RuO2 will slowly convert back to its pre-transition, more metallic state if continually stored at room temperature. We do not have data of the post-transform room-temperature electrical response for the 60 GPa loading. The persistent nature of this loss in metallicity even at room temperature suggests that exposure to low temperatures resulted in a change to the RuO₂ crystal lattice, such as a strong lattice structural distortion or a transition to a new phase, that has a costly kinetic barrier preventing back-transformation.

The three high-pressure series that exhibit the increases in electrical resistance also experienced uncharacteristically



FIG. 2. Associated pressures for the resistance-temperature data of Fig. 1, not including initial and final room-temperature points. Changes in temperatures cause thermal expansion or contraction in the DAC and cryostat assembly, resulting in pressure changes throughout the warming and cooling cycles. To monitor this, pressure was measured at 10–25 K temperature intervals while warming over the range of 9–185 K. The inset in the 60 GPa plot includes data from the initial cool-down of the cryostat, which captured the dramatic change in resistance and simultaneous decrease in pressure. *In situ* pressure measurements were not available during the 36 GPa cycles.

large drops in pressure. This is captured at 42 GPa in Fig. 2, which shows a ≈ 10 GPa drop in pressure coinciding with the change from roughly 3 Ω to 1.8 k Ω . After this transition, values of pressure are more smoothly varying, and differences between points are relatively small (within a few gigapascals). Unlike the 42 GPa warm-up cycle, the electrical transitions for the other two series occurred during the initial cryostat cool-down, in the case of 60 GPa, or while reaching thermal equilibrium prior to the first warm-up cycle, in the case of 36 GPa. Thus, the small increase in temperature preceding the electrical transition in the first warm-up cycle of the 42 GPa series is not required for the transformation; rather, the delay is likely sluggish kinetics due to the low temperatures. Variation between samples and nonhydrostatic sample environments may be additional contributing factors to variation in transition behavior, on top of the changing relative percentages of CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases across our experimental pressure range. At 60 GPa in Fig. 2, a nearly 10 k Ω increase in resistance was accompanied by a 14 GPa decrease in pressure (shown in the inset). In situ pressure measurements were not possible in the case of the 36 GPa series, which experienced a $\approx 2.3 \text{ k}\Omega$ increase in resistance; however, pressure measurements before and after the cryostat experiment revealed an overall decrease of approximately 13 GPa.



FIG. 3. Comparison of electrical resistance as a function of pressure from four separate DAC loadings at room temperature. Each series is scaled by the initial resistance of their first pressure point. Phase boundaries are approximated by vertical dotted lines to guide the eye and labeled with Roman numerals, with phase I indicating the rutile-type phase, phase II the CaCl₂-type phase, and phase II + III the regime where the HP-PdF₂-type phase reportedly emerges but coexists with the CaCl₂-type phase [17]. Data are labeled with the simple code names used for each DAC during experiments.

In contrast, such pressure drops are not seen in the two series at 16 and 28 GPa, which exhibit the more common behavior of smoothly increasing pressure as temperature decreases, and vice versa. Sudden jumps in pressure on the order of what we observe in the three series at 36, 42, and 60 GPa are not typical. Rather, they are suggestive of the pressure drops one often observes in high-pressure experiments when samples undergo first-order phase transitions. Further details of pressure, temperature, and electrical resistance during these experiments are provided in [56].

Data from four separate room-temperature compression experiments are combined in Fig. 3, each set scaled by the resistance value of the initial pressure point so that measurements from separate loadings may be viewed and compared on the same scale. They show changes in resistance trends that correlate well with pressures where structural phase transitions are known to occur, marked by vertical dotted lines at 7 and 12 GPa for the CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phase boundaries, respectively [17]. The metallicity of RuO₂ improves upon application of pressure while in the rutiletype phase, but worsens in the CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases. In series with a high density of points, we observe slight but measurable resistance changes between 3 and 6 GPa that could be linked to anion disordering preceding the rutiletype to CaCl₂-type transition that we observe between 6.3 and 7.8 GPa (see the Supplemental Material [56]). The possible disordering does not result in an orders-of-magnitude change in electrical resistance at room temperature, such as the kind seen in SnO₂, likely due to the metallic nature of both rutiletype and CaCl₂-type phases of RuO₂ [19,20]. As none of the room-temperature measurements acquired up to \approx 44 GPa exhibit the same electronic transition as their cryogenically



FIG. 4. Microscope images of RuO_2 in a DAC prepared for electrical transport measurements. Increasing pressure reveals an evolution in color from near-black to predominately yellow. The sample sits atop a white semitransparent layer of Al_2O_3 + Stycast 1226 mixture and four platinum probes. Images were acquired at room temperature.

cooled counterparts, low temperatures appear to be required in addition to pressure to access the state experimentally.

Figure 4 reveals the color evolution of metallic RuO_2 as pressure increases at room temperature. Micrographs were acquired in reflection geometry using polychromatic light. At ambient conditions RuO2 appears dark gray, close to black. A color change to a reddish hue is observed starting at 3 GPa; such a color change for rutile-type RuO₂ has been noted in previous reports [14,15]. The reddish hue is still visible here at 13 GPa. By 22 GPa, yellow emerges and becomes the increasingly dominant color, as seen in the image at 46 GPa. Color changes can indicate changes in the electronic structure of a material. Rosenblum et al. [15] posits that the color change from black to red relates to a small pressure-induced shift in the optical constants, especially with regard to the sharp minimum near 2 eV in ambient rutile-type RuO₂'s reflectivity spectrum [33,57]. The yellow coloration is likely a continuation of this trend with respect to pressure.

Figure 5 displays our enthalpy calculations for the three established phases of RuO_2 as a function of pressure, with the addition of fluorite-type and arsenopyrite-type RuO_2 , two phases we hypothesize may be formed under specific conditions. When compared with the phase boundaries shown in



FIG. 5. Enthalpy as a function of pressure up to 64 GPa using the SCAN (solid) or SCAN+ $U_{eff} = 1.25 \text{ eV}$ (dashed) functional for candidate structures of high-pressure RuO₂, relative to the CaCl₂-type phase.



FIG. 6. Electronic density of states for 40 GPa $CaCl_2$ -type, HP-PdF₂-type, fluorite-type, and arsenopyrite-type RuO_2 . Out of all the candidate structures, the fluorite phase is the only nonmetallic phase with a band gap of 1.494 eV.

Fig. 3, our enthalpy calculations show that the CaCl₂-type phase begins to distinguish itself from the rutile-type phase around 8 GPa, and by 14 GPa the HP-PdF₂-type is the most enthalpically favorable phase. Our calculations suggest that fluorite-type RuO₂ ultimately becomes the most favorable structure under sufficiently high pressures. When vibrational energy contributions are not considered, the fluorite-type phase does not overtake the HP-PdF₂-type phase as the most enthalpically favorable until 55 GPa, implying that the phases observed in the 16, 28, 36, and 42 GPa series of resistance measurements should be confined to the rutile-type, CaCl₂type, and HP-PdF₂-type structures (although the range of pressures experienced within the 36 GPa series is unknown). In agreement with prior calculations [25], the rutile-type, CaCl₂-type, and HP-PdF₂-type phases are all predicted here to be metallic; selected partial electronic densities of states are included in Fig. 6. The density of states at the Fermi level, $N(\epsilon_f)$, in both the CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases tends to decrease monotonically as a function of pressure: from 0 to 48 GPa the HP-PdF₂-type phase goes from 1.675 to 1.393 states/eV/formula unit, and the CaCl₂-type phase from 1.289 to 1.222 states/eV/formula unit.

The metallic nature of the most favorable phases below 55 GPa does not offer an explanation for the low-temperature increase in resistance observed above 28 GPa, even considering that over the investigated pressure range the sample is expected to contain combinations of $CaCl_2$ -type and HP-PdF₂-type phases. We examined RuO₂ in the form of different common MO₂ polymorphs to investigate if a new phase could account for the loss of metallicity. Of the structures evaluated, only the fluorite-type structure was found to have an energy band gap at the Fermi level in the same pressure regime of the

low-temperature resistance measurements. The reason for this can be explained according to crystal-field theory, whereby the Ru^{4+} ion with four localized d electrons should prefer a low spin (S = 0) coordination wherein the e_g states are fully occupied and the t_{2g} are fully unoccupied (i.e., like a tetrahedral coordination). This is opposed to the distorted octahedral coordination of the rutile-type, CaCl₂-type, and HP-PdF₂-type phases; this coordination leads to metallic Ru $d(t_{2g})$ states hybridized with O p states that span the Fermi level. Examination of the electron localization function (ELF) of both the HP-PdF₂-type and fluorite-type phases reveals a shift in the concentration of electrons around the Ru ion indicative of the change in crystal-field splitting from an octahedral complex in the rutile-type, CaCl₂-type, and HP-PdF₂-type phases to a tetrahedral complex in the fluorite-type phase (see the plots in the Supplemental Material [56]).

Crystal structure prediction (CSP) of 50 GPa RuO₂ with 1-4 formula units was employed to determine if any other candidate phases of RuO2 exist that could cause the resistance behavior illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. The known RuO₂ structures as well as other known high-pressure structural archetypes for AX_2 systems (including marcasite, cottunite, orthorhombic-ZrO₂, α -PbO₂, baddeleyite, arsenopyrite, monoclinic-VO2, MoO2, and monoclinic-distorted rutile [4,58-62]) were seeded into the CSP simulation. The lowest enthalpy structure found was the fluorite structure, beating the seeded HP-PdF₂ structure by 6 meV/formula units. The preference for the fluorite structure was found to be a consequence of k-grid convergence, as reevaluation of the energetics of the CSP optimized structures on a denser k-grid found an energy ordering like that shown in Fig. 5. All of the structures predicted within 100 meV/atom of the lowest enthalpy structure optimized to a slightly distorted version of either the fluorite-type of HP-PdF₂-type structures. The enthalpy versus pressure curves for the lowest enthalpy distorted HP-PdF₂-type (identified as space group $Pbc2_1$) and the only distorted fluorite-type that was not identified by USPEX as being $Fm\overline{3}m$ (identified as C2/m) closely follow those of the parent structures (see Fig. S11 in [56]) implying the residual distortions were again an artifact of the coarse-graining used for the CSP calculations. Likewise, their electronic properties mimic those of the parent structures with the $Pbc2_1$ structure being metallic and the C2/m structure having a computed band gap of 1.49 eV.

Beyond the "0 K" enthalpies shown in Fig. 5, the inclusions of thermal vibrational energy contributions do not cause the insulating fluorite-type phase to overtake the favorability of the HP-PdF₂-type phase at an intermediate pressure of 40 GPa. However, if the simulations are performed isochorically instead of isobarically, then a different picture emerges. A setup similar to the quasiharmonic approximation was employed to make isochoric comparisons, wherein the target fluorite-type phase was optimized as a function of pressure and the HP-PdF₂-type phase was evaluated at the same volumes as determined for the target fluorite-type phase. Despite both phases having similar cubic structures, the fluorite phase was found to be significantly denser. This amounts to an external 12-14 GPa worth of pressure needing to be applied to the HP-PdF₂-type structure to have it be isochoric with the fluorite-type structure in the pressure range of 40-64 GPa, for example. This is precisely the range of pressure differences observed when the higher resistance state is accessed, such as the cases of the 42 and 60 GPa series in Fig. 2. Within this isochoric comparison, the fluorite-type phase is more energetically favorable than the HP-PdF₂-type phase at lower temperatures, i.e., from 0 to 550 K in the volume of 46 GPa fluorite-type RuO₂. Even when analyzed isobarically at pressures where the fluorite phase is the most favorable according to Fig. 5, the HP-PdF₂-type phase will become more energetically favorable at a sufficiently high temperature, i.e., by 770 K at 64 GPa. Thus, the fluorite-type phase can be viewed as a possible low-temperature phase of RuO₂ in the pressure region around the electronic transition. Based on these calculations, one hypothesis for what is occurring is that during the low-temperature measurements, the oxygens of HP-PdF₂-type RuO₂ shift to the more highly symmetric positions of fluorite-type RuO₂, resulting in the observed drop in pressure and corresponding increase in electrical resistance.

It has been recently observed that RuO₂ exhibits itinerant antiferromagnetism at ambient conditions, evolving the long-held understanding of the material as a simple paramagnet [63]. The SCAN functional alone does not predict the ambient rutile-type phase of RuO₂ to be an antiferromagnet, and DFT+U using the single-parameter $U_{\rm eff}$ formulation [64] with a $U_{\rm eff}$ of 1.25 eV is required to reproduce the experimental magnetic moment $(0.05\mu_B)$ [63]. Both the 0 GPa rutile-type and CaCl₂-type RuO₂ exhibited antiferromagnetic ordering when treated with DFT+U. Only at 32 GPa does the nonmagnetic state energetically overtake the antiferromagnetically ordered state of those structural phases. However, inspection of the partial density of states of the magnetically ordered states reveals them to be (semi)metallic up to 32 GPa just like their nonmagnetic counterparts. Likewise, no such magnetic ordering could be found for the HP-PdF₂type phase, dictating that magnetic ordering is not responsible for the low-temperature change in resistance observed above 28 GPa.

Using the same empirically determined $U_{\rm eff}$ of 1.25 eV causes the fluorite-type phase to be more enthalpically favorable than the HP-PdF₂-type phase across the entire 0-64 GPa pressure range considered, as shown in Fig. 5. The transition pressure from the CaCl₂-type phase into the fluorite-type phase with DFT+U is around 11 GPa. DFT+U does increase the volumes of the optimized structures for the fluorite-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases relative to the calculations without the +U correction. However, the volume increase is minimal, and its magnitude decreases with pressure with the largest change being 0.293% in the ambient fluorite-type structure. The DFT+U P-V relationships indicate an 8-12 GPa pressure difference between the isochoric structures of the denser fluorite-type phase and the HP-PdF₂-type phase, which is still in line with the pressure drop observed along with the electronic transition. HP-PdF2-type RuO2 remains metallic with the +U correction applied, even with varying $U_{\rm eff}$ up to 6 eV (see the Supplemental Material [56]). In contrast, the fluorite-type phase remains insulative with the band gap increasing with the value of $U_{\rm eff}$. This helps further rule out the possibility of a metal-to-insulator transition in the HP-PdF₂type phase as an explanation for the loss of metallicity, and



FIG. 7. Reitveld refinement (Rwp = 0.47%) of the HP-PdF₂type structure to the XRD of RuO₂ at 43 GPa after being recovered from low-temperature experiments and transitioning to the high resistance state. The diffraction includes contributions from the Al₂O₃ mixture electrical insulation and Pt electrical leads. The magenta line is the Rietveld refinement of the $Pa\overline{3}$ structure to the raw data, marked by black circles, and the gray line is the difference between both. This plot has been background-subtracted; a version with the original background can be found in [56]. Nonzero intensity Bragg peaks of HP-PdF₂-type RuO₂ are identified with corresponding *hkls*.

further supports the possibility of a low-temperature fluorite-type phase.

To evaluate the structure of this high-resistance state of RuO₂, the 60 GPa series DAC was examined using synchrotron XRD following the completion of low-temperature cryostat experiments. The evident persistence of the high resistance state of RuO₂ above cryogenic temperatures made us hopeful that a significant fraction of any new phase may be detectable even at room temperature. Cognizant of the slow creep in resistance over time seen in the 36 and 42 GPa loadings, diffraction was acquired within 3 days of the sample being retrieved from the cryostat assembly. Diffraction of post-transformed RuO₂ is shown in Fig. 7, and it includes contributions from the Al₂O₃ insulating mixture and platinum leads also present in the sample chamber. Given that the insulator-like behavior is more indicative of the fluorite-type phase than the HP-PdF₂-type phase, the aim was to verify which cubic structure was present in our sample. The diffraction data can be structurally refined using the Le Bail method to both Pa3 and Fm3m phases, which is not unexpected. As mentioned earlier, the key crystallographic difference between the two cubic phases is the position of the oxygen atoms, which can make distinguishing between the two phases difficult when XRD is the probe. In both structures, the oxygens occupy an 8c (u, u, u) Wyckoff site with u > 0.250 in HP- PdF_2 -type RuO_2 and u = 0.250 in fluorite-type RuO_2 [14,24]. Many $(hk\ell)$ reflections are common to the two structures, but the relative intensities of said reflections change based on Wyckoff positional coordinate u of the oxygen atoms. Our simulations typically yielded $u \sim 0.36$ for optimized HP-PdF₂-type structures in line with previous simulation



FIG. 8. Relative diffraction peak intensities of the HP-PdF₂-type structure as a function of Wyckoff 8*c* site coordinate *u* over the range of 0.25 < *u* < 0.435, encompassing the values seen when comparing fluorite-type (u = 0.25) to HP-PdF₂-type structures. Intensities were calculated in VESTA with lattice parameters from the 43 GPa Rietveld refinement of Fig. 7. Star symbols (\star) at u = 0.376 represent the computed relative intensities extracted from that refinement as well, and indicate most agreement with an HP-PdF₂-type *Pa* $\overline{3}$ solution as compared to an *Fm* $\overline{3}m$ -type solution.

studies [18,25,26]. Using VESTA software, we calculated the relative intensities of these $hk\ell s$ for a simulated HP-PdF₂-type structure as a function of changing u (Fig. 8) ranging from the fluorite-type u = 0.25 to u > 0.44, which exceeds the u value range for HP-PdF₂-type structures [24,65]. A Rwp = 0.47% Rietveld refinement, shown in Fig. 7, finds greater agreement with the $Pa\overline{3}$ structure based on the relative intensities of peaks, with V = 104.21(3) Å³ and u = 0.376(1). Platinum is refined as a = 3.7745(2) Å and V = 53.775(9) Å³, which corresponds to approximately 43 GPa based on the Rose-Vinet universal EOS of Holmes *et al.* [43] as opposed to 56 GPa when determined with the Raman spectra of the diamond culet [37].

Throughout the latter half of the 20th century, the fluoritetype phase was considered a likely high-pressure polymorph for a great number of rutile-type dioxides including SnO₂, PbO₂, RuO₂, SiO₂, and even the archetypal rutile itself, TiO₂ [14,66–69]. Early XRD work on high-pressure phases of SnO₂, PbO₂, and RuO₂ discovered a common cubic structure that was ascribed as fluorite-type $Fm\overline{3}m$ phase [14,68,70]. However, Haines et al. [22] starting in 1996 showed this cubic phase to be in fact $Pa\overline{3}$, which led to questioning the $Fm\overline{3}m$ assignment in other metal dioxides. Since then, multitudinous XRD, neutron diffraction, and Raman studies have consistently found the presence of Pa3 rather than Fm3m for SiO₂, RuO₂, SnO₂, and PbO₂ [24,58,71-74], although confusion understandably persists where $Pa\overline{3}$ is referred to as the fluorite-type phase [75-78]. Other cases, like TiO₂, have an experimentally known high-pressure cubic polymorph but have, to our knowledge, been unable to unambiguously determine between $Pa\overline{3}$ or $Fm\overline{3}m$ lattices [67,79–81]. More recent experiments claiming to find the $Fm\overline{3}m$ phase of these materials are exceedingly rare [82]. In cases like SiO₂, experimental and computational work indicates the $Fm\bar{3}m$ phase to be increasingly unlikely due to thermodynamic instability [72,83,84]. This is not the case universally, as many of these materials still have DFT predicted transition pathways to a high-pressure $Fm\bar{3}m$ phase [18,32,79,85–87], with an unfortunate dearth of experimental work to support them. While CaF₂-type metal dioxides are not unheard of—they are found in actinide dioxides such as AmO₂ and CmO₂ [88] and lanthanide dioxides such as CeO₂ [89]—finding this structure in the phase space of specifically a rutile-type precursor remains surprisingly elusive. This work is another example that seems to indicate that some barrier exists between DFT methods and experiment when it comes to revealing an $Fm\bar{3}m$ phase in these materials.

Our calculations of the temperature dependency between $Pa\overline{3}$ and $Fm\overline{3}m$ phases have interesting implications for RuO₂ prepared under different thermodynamic conditions. A different sample was prepared for XRD experiments by pressurizing to approximately 64 GPa and laser heating. The resulting XRD data contained a cubic phase that can be refined as the expected HP-PdF₂-type structure as well as a new, lower symmetry phase. The new phase was present throughout the powder sample, but phase fractions varied by location. The sample region where the intensities of the peaks belonging to the new phase were at their highest exhibited poor powder averaging overall, making Rietveld refinement of that data intractable. The integrated diffraction pattern from this region is shown in Fig. 9, and it was analyzed using the Le Bail method of structure refinement.

The multitude of peaks attributed to the new phase indicates a lower symmetry structure than either of the cubic HP-PdF₂-type or fluorite-type phases. Combining XRD structural refinement and computational methods, we tested many candidate structural archetypes known for AX_2 systems while trying to identify the new phase. This includes the same phases seeded into the crystal structure prediction simulations: marcasite, α -PbO₂, baddeleyite, arsenopyrite, monoclinic-VO₂, monoclinic-distorted rutile, and even a Pclattice derived by relaxing the symmetry constraints of a $P2_1/c$ lattice [4,58–61]. None of these structures were more enthalpically favorable than the fluorite-type or HP-PdF₂-type structures (Fig. 5 and Ref. [56]) indicating that the lower symmetry phase is likely a metastable phase recovered from the nonequilibrium laser heating conditions. Of these candidate structures, the Pc and arsenopyrite-type $P2_1/c$ structures provided the best results in terms of Le Bail structural refinement to the diffraction data (detailed in [56]). Of these two structures, the Pc structure was significantly less enthalpically favorable compared to the arsenopyrite-type structure, which is the most enthalpically favorable of all the monoclinic candidates evaluated. As such, we tentatively ascribe the newly discovered phase as an arsenopyrite-type $(P2_1/c)$ structure, which is a monoclinic distortion of the marcasite-type structure that is closely related to the $CaCl_2$ -type structure [90–92]. Figure 5 shows that at this pressure, such a monoclinic distortion is more enthalpically favorable than its CaCl₂-type counterpart, which coexists with the HP-PdF₂ structure at pressures just below this measurement [14,17,58]. This assignment is not unique to this work, and it has been previously



FIG. 9. (a) Le Bail refinement with multiple phases of RuO_2 present after laser heating and at 62 GPa. XRD featured here is from the sample region with the highest phase fraction of the tentatively assigned $P2_1/c$ phase. (b) Le Bail refinement of the same sample recovered after decompression at 0 GPa. We can see that the proportion of the $Pa\overline{3}$ phase is higher for this region and pressure. Asterisks mark peaks belonging to the "4th phase," which here was fit as a second $Pa\overline{3}$ structure of a larger volume.

offered as a possibility for distortions seen in $CaCl_2$ -type RuO_2 under pressure [14].

At 62 GPa, a Rwp = 1.62% Le Bail refinement returns a volume of 95.40(0) Å³ for the arsenopyrite-type structure with lattice parameters a = 5.28(2) Å, b = 4.3347(8) Å, c =4.75(1) Å, and $\beta = 118.93(3)^{\circ}$. The refined lattice parameters of the HP-PdF₂-type Pa $\overline{3}$ phase are a = 4.6305(4) Å and V =99.29(3) Å³. In addition to the phases of RuO₂, the diffraction pattern of Fig. 9 also has contributions from the argon PTM and NaCl pellets that were incorporated in the sample chamber. These contributions are included in the refinement with argon in the Fm $\overline{3}m$ phase with a = 3.8555(2) Å, and NaCl in the Pm $\overline{3}m$ phase with a = 2.857(2) Å.

To confirm the cubic phase as HP-PdF₂-type $Pa\overline{3}$, a Rietveld refinement was performed from diffraction data in a sample region that had better powder statistics and a minimum amount of the additional phase. A Rwp = 1.81% Rietveld



FIG. 10. Pressure-volume relationships obtained upon decompression for the four recovered phases from the laser-heated sample shown in Fig. 9, as well as for the HP-PdF₂-type phase in Fig. 7 measured following low-temperature experiments. Volumes were computed with Le Bail refinement of XRD acquired during decompression; errors in volumes are within the size of the symbol. The equation of state (as described in the text) for the HP-PdF₂-type phase recovered from the laser heating experiment is shown with a dashed line.

refinement of a HP-PdF₂-type structure to diffraction from this region returned lattice parameters a = 4.6492(2) Å, V = 100.49(1) Å³, and anion position u = 0.3618(6). The calculated relative intensities for this structure were also plotted in a similar fashion as in Fig. 8 (included in [56]) and show good agreement with behavior expected for $Pa\bar{3}$ RuO₂.

The post-laser heated sample was decompressed to 0 GPa, and XRD of the recovered sample includes the HP-PdF₂type and arsenopyrite-type structures in addition to other peaks that were not present at 62 GPa, shown in Fig. 9. A Le Bail refinement, Rwp = 0.64% to the HP-PdF₂-type and arsenopyrite-type phases, returns V = 115.00(1) and 114.20(1) $Å^3$, respectively, with the volume of decompressed HP-PdF₂-type RuO₂ in good agreement with previous reports [14,17,35]. Some of the new peaks present can be attributed to the rutile-type structure, $P4_2/mnm$, which other studies have found upon decompression as well [14,35]. Our refinement with the rutile-type phase returns a volume of V = 62.4(2) Å³, which is in good agreement with reported values for ambient RuO₂ [14,17,56]. The other additional peaks seen upon decompression are evident in the broadening and splitting of the Pa3 peaks. The Debye-Scherrer rings of these peaks are smoother than the spotty rings assigned to the HP-PdF₂-type RuO_2 (image in [56]). We found that no single phase could account for all the multiple peaks overlapping in the HP-PdF₂-type pattern. This led us to treat the closely situated and overlapping features as the original HP-PdF₂-type structure with an additional, similar phase that either formed or became more pronounced upon decompression. These peaks, called the "fourth phase" in Figs. 9 and 10, can be successfully fitted with Le Bail and Rietveld methods as a second $Pa\overline{3}$ phase or as a lower symmetry, *Pbca*, orthorhombically distorted HP-PdF₂-type phase. Such an orthorhombic phase has been seen or predicted in some HP-PdF₂-type metal difluorides during decompression from high pressures [93–95]. While refinements of the *Pbca* structure provide reasonable results, DFT optimizations of that structure between 0 and 66 GPa resort to the *Pa* $\overline{3}$ structure. The CSP generated *Pbc*2₁ and *C*2/*m* phases, as well as fluorite-type RuO₂ and common orthorhombic *M*O₂ phases of α -PbO₂-type and orthorhombic ZrO₂-type (i.e., SrI₂-type) phases, were also tested but did not provide better solutions compared to either *Pbca* or *Pa* $\overline{3}$ structures (see the Supplemental Material [56]). Therefore, without additional data we are inclined to assign this "fourth phase" as a second, more strained, finer-grained HP-PdF₂-type phase in the sample that possibly arose due to inhomogeneities in the laser heating.

Unit-cell volumes of multiple RuO₂ phases in the postlaser-heated RuO₂ sample are plotted as a function of pressure, in addition to volumes of the $Pa\overline{3}$ phase from the 60 GPa series post-cryostat XRD experiment, in Fig. 10. These data were acquired during decompression. A secondorder Birch-Murnaghan EOS is fitted to the HP-PdF₂-type structure using $V_0 = 115.0$ Å³ and B'_0 constrained to equal 4. The fitted bulk modulus is found to be B = 306(4) GPa. This is less than previously reported when the $Pa\overline{3}$ phase was initially characterized, but more than other subsequent experimental studies [14,17,22].

In addition to its absence in the post-cryostat XRD, the density of states (Fig. 6) of arsenopyrite-type RuO₂ shows that the phase is metallic in nature. This supports that arsenopyrite-type RuO₂ is not responsible for the lowtemperature, high-pressure electronic transition observed in our electrical resistance measurements. We also do not detect with XRD the presence of the *Fm3m* phase in either postcryostat or post-laser-heated samples. In the latter case, this is not unexpected based on the conclusion from our simulations that the fluorite-type phase could be preferable at low temperatures in this pressure region. By compressing at room temperature and laser heating, we ensured that the sample environment was most favorable to the formation of the HP-PdF₂-type phase. For the post-cryostat sample, we expect the phase fraction of $Fm\overline{3}m$ RuO₂, if present, to be maximized while at low temperature. If the observed loss of metallicity is indeed caused by the emergence of the fluorite-type phase at low temperature and high pressure, it could be that the fraction remaining in our room-temperature sample could not be distinguished from the majority HP-PdF₂-type phase.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

We performed electrical transport measurements at high pressures and low temperatures, revealing a loss in metallicity in RuO₂ above 28 GPa. We found that such a change in electronic behavior could not be attributed to any previously established phase of RuO₂, i.e., rutile-type, CaCl₂-type, or HP-PdF₂-type. In addition, the low-temperature resistance behavior of CaCl₂-type and HP-PdF₂-type phases at 16 and 28 GPa agrees with electronic structure calculations, which predict the phases to be metallic. The only simulated phase identified in this work that exhibits insulative behavior is the fluorite-type phase. However, this phase was not detected in room-temperature XRD of a sample that had undergone lowtemperature cycling. Powder x-ray diffraction measurements of a separate sample after laser-heating at 64 GPa revealed the coexistence of the HP-PdF2-type phase and a new monoclinic phase, which we view as a distortion of the closely related CaCl₂-type structure and assign as the arsenopyritetype phase. DFT calculations predict this arsenopyrite-type phase to be metallic.

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