

# Chapter 2

## Atomically Precise Nanoclusters as Electrocatalysts



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**Abstract** This chapter summarizes recent advances in electrocatalytic application of atomically precise metal nanoclusters (NCs). Metal nanoclusters with determined structures can serve as new model catalysts for electrochemical catalytic study at the atomic level and offer insights into the underlying mechanisms. In recent years, electrocatalysis by metal nanoclusters has been reported and shows promise in several important reactions, including oxygen reduction reaction, water splitting, and CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction. By tuning the structure/ligand of the metal nanoclusters, it is possible to achieve catalytic property modification at the atomic level. Overall, the new material of atomically precise metal nanoclusters holds great promise in precise control of catalytic properties and investigation of the fundamental catalytic mechanism at the atomic level.

**Keywords** Metal nanocluster · Atomic precision · X-ray structure · Electrocatalysis · Doping

## 2.1 Introduction

### 2.1.1 Atomically Precise Metal NCs

Atomically precise metal nanoclusters have attracted broad interest due to the crystal structure availability and unique properties in optical and catalysis applications [1–3]. Compared with the traditional plasmonic metal nanoparticles, the ultra-small NCs (<3 nm) show quantized electronic structures because of the quantum confinement effect [4]. As a result, a single atom change can significantly alter the properties of NCs. The UV-vis spectrum can be used as the “fingerprints” of NCs [5] because it shows certain distinct peaks for each size of NCs, rather than similar plasmonic peaks for regular nanoparticles. Similarly, the catalytic properties of various metal NCs can be totally different because of the major change in surface and electronic structure of

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NCs with subtle difference in atom numbers or size. Therefore, it is of great interest to correlate the structure and catalytic application using NCs as model catalysts [6]. Indeed, it is possible to build up a library of NCs structure–catalytic properties since the number of reported NCs is large enough. This library might offer great insights into the interpretation of catalytic process and reaction mechanism, and further offer some guidelines in the future design and synthesis of new NCs.

### ***2.1.2 Electrochemical Catalysis with Atomically Precise Metal NCs***

The global energy crisis and pollution issues have driven scientists to investigate the alternatives of fossil fuels. One of the strategies is using the secondary energy (such as solar energy and wind energy) derived electricity to split water for producing H<sub>2</sub> as a clean energy source [7]. In the water splitting system, hydrogen is produced at the cathode through hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), and oxygen is formed at the anode through oxygen evolution reaction (OER). Currently, Pt group metals are proved to be the most effective catalysts in HER, while Ir/Ru materials are successful in OER. However, the high cost of noble metals has motivated scientists to study alternative catalysts for these reactions.

On the other hand, the obtained hydrogen from HER and other fuels, such as methanol, can be utilized in the fuel cell system. The fuel cell is an electrochemical device to efficiently transform chemical energy of fuel without combustion [8]. Due to its high efficiency and environmentally friendly properties, fuel cells have been used in vehicles [9]. Currently, the disadvantage of fuel cell technique is the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) in cathode electrode. It is believed that the ORR is the rate limiting reaction with very sluggish kinetics because of multi-electron transfer during the reaction [10]. Similar to the HER, ORR also favors Pt as the catalyst. Therefore, alternative catalysts are yet to be found to reduce the high cost of noble metals.

Another popular electrochemical catalytic reaction is the CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR). In the past decades, the global warming has been considered as a serious issue caused by massive CO<sub>2</sub> emission. To relieve the climate change pressure, one of the solutions is to utilize CO<sub>2</sub> as a resource to produce industrial chemicals and fuels [11, 12]. In the CO<sub>2</sub>RR, catalytic materials are required to overcome the intrinsic inertness of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules [13]. Among the catalyst candidates, Au and Ag have been extensively studied because of their high selectivity toward CO [14]. Besides, Cu is also a good catalyst because of its versatility to form various carbon hydrates and low price.

To design better catalytic materials, it is essential to understand the mechanism behind these catalytic reactions. Thus, it is of great importance to find a system to correlate the structure and catalytic properties. Previously, several strategies, including size control and morphology control, have been used to investigate the

relationships between structure and properties [15, 16]. For example, Zhu et al. [17] and Seoin et al. [18] reported the active site probing with Au catalysts of different morphologies from the view of experimental and computational modeling, respectively. Despite the well-designed experiment, the non-atomically monodispersed size of traditional nanomaterials significantly weakens the connection between the structure and properties.

In the past decades, the synthesis strategy of atomically precise metal NCs has been extensively investigated and a number of sizes of NCs between tens and hundreds of atoms (equivalent diameters ranging from sub-nanometer to  $\sim 2.2$  nm) have been reported [1]. For applications as electrochemical catalytic materials, such NCs have several distinctive features such as high surface area and unique surface structure [19]. Besides, the atomic precision and crystal structure availability make metal NCs a perfect system to bridge the structure and properties.

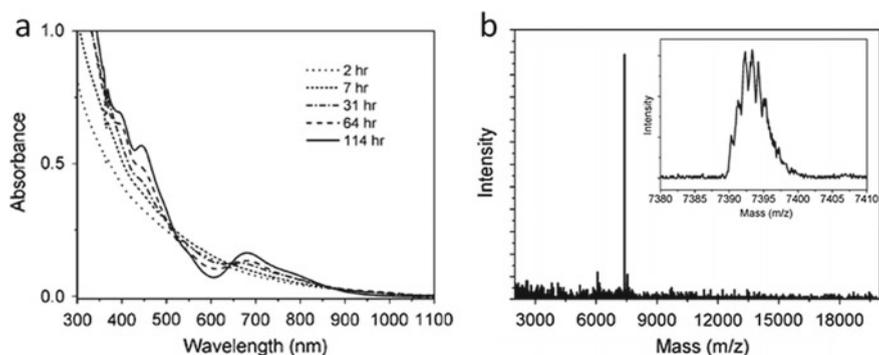
In this chapter, several works about metal NCs as electrochemical catalysts are introduced with a focus on the atomic size effect, morphology effect, doping effect, and charge effect. The computational techniques used in the catalytic mechanism study are also summarized.

## 2.2 Synthesis and Structure Determination of Atomically Precise Metal NCs

### 2.2.1 Synthesis of Metal NCs

Here, we illustrate the size-focusing synthesis and structure determination using atomically precise  $\text{Au}_{25}(\text{SR})_{18}$  NCs as an example. Larger NCs such as  $\text{Au}_{133}(\text{SR})_{52}$  and  $\text{Au}_{279}(\text{SR})_{84}$  can also be synthesized by the size-focusing method [20, 21]. In the size-focusing method, a mixture of NCs with a controlled size distribution is first prepared by carefully controlling the ratio of gold precursor and reduction agent as well as other synthetic conditions. Then, the NCs mixture is subjected to size-focusing under harsh conditions, under which the unstable NCs decompose or convert to more stable ones. Eventually, only the most stable NCs can survive the size-focusing process [22].

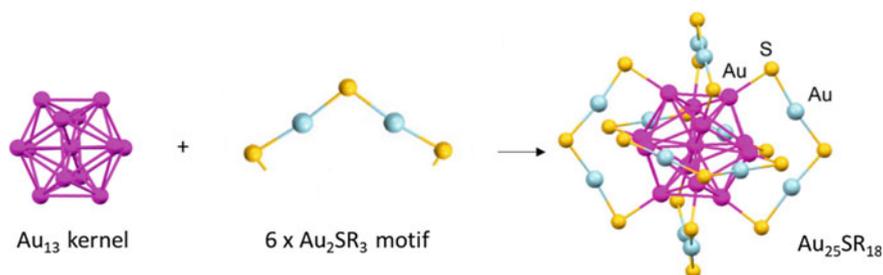
In the case of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  [23, 24], the Au(III) salt is initially reduced to Au(I) by thiols at  $0^\circ\text{C}$  in the first step. The as-obtained Au(I)-SR complex is then reduced by adding a  $\text{NaBH}_4$  aqueous solution. Polydisperse NCs protected by thiolate are obtained after the reduction process. During the following size-focusing process, it can be observed from the evolution of the optical absorption spectra that the monodispersed  $\text{Au}_{25}$  NCs gradually become dominant, as shown in Fig. 2.1a. The mass spectrum also illustrates the molecular purity of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  (Fig. 2.1b).



**Fig. 2.1** **a** Evolution of the UV-vis spectra of the reaction product in the  $\text{Au}_{25}$  synthesis, **b** mass spectrometry analysis of  $\text{Au}_{25}$ . Adapted from Ref. [24]. Copyright 2009 Royal Society of Chemistry

## 2.2.2 Structure Determination of Metal NCs

The crystal structures of NCs can be determined by X-ray crystallography. In the case of  $\text{Au}_{25}$ , the structure comprises a  $\text{Au}_{13}$  icosahedral core and a  $\text{Au}_{12}(\text{SR})_{18}$  shell [23]. The  $\text{Au}_{12}$  shell can be dissected into six dimeric  $-\text{S}-\text{Au}-\text{S}-\text{Au}-\text{S}-$  staple motifs (Fig. 2.2). Due to the atomic precision and the determined crystal structure of metal NCs, it is of great interest to use NCs as catalysts for catalytic mechanism study. Especially for electrochemical catalysis, it is challenging to capture the intermediates during the catalytic process and thus very little is known about the mechanism. However, the well-defined structure of nanocluster catalysts can now facilitate the computational modeling, thus providing opportunities to reveal the mechanism behind electrochemical catalysis.

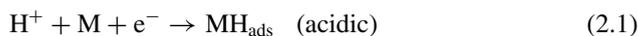


**Fig. 2.2** Dissection of the  $\text{Au}_{25}$  cluster into  $\text{Au}_{13}$  kernel and six surface motifs. Adapted from Ref. [5]. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society

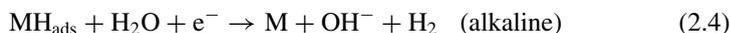
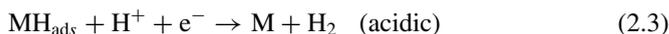
## 2.3 Hydrogen Evolution Reaction with Metal NC Catalysts

The hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) occurs at the cathode when an external voltage is applied. The reaction can be described in three steps:

Volmer reaction:



In the Volmer reaction, hydrogen adsorbs on the catalytic material to form a  $\text{MH}_{\text{ads}}$  intermediate, followed by a Heyrovsky reaction or Tafel reaction. In the Heyrovsky reaction, the dihydrogen is formed through an electrochemical desorption:



The hydrogen can also undergo a chemical desorption process through the Tafel reaction:



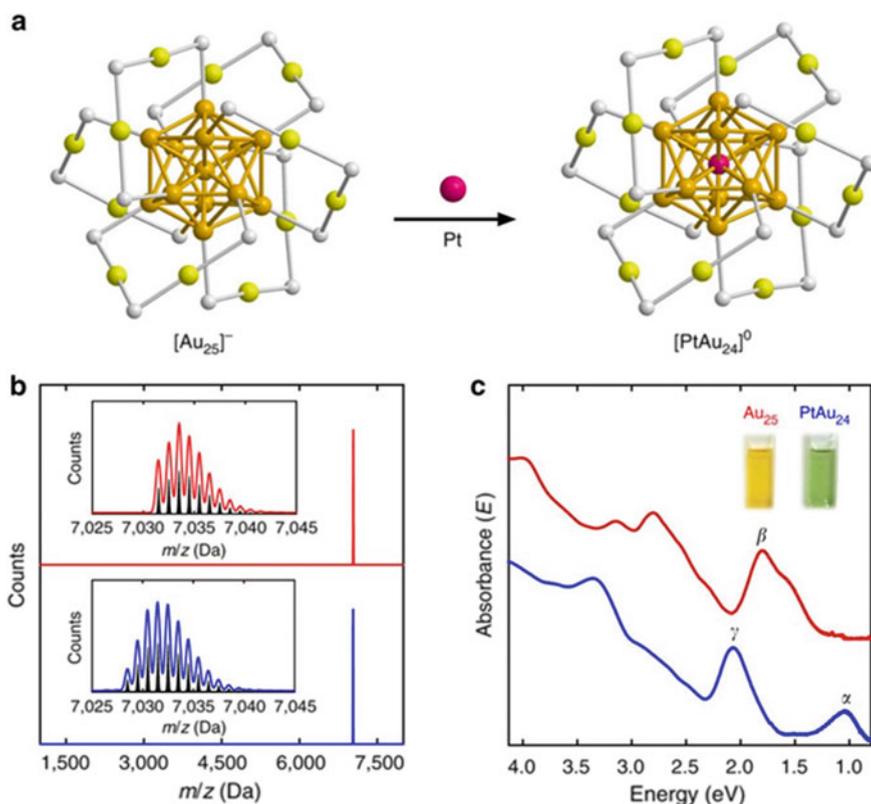
The binding energy of hydrogen to the catalyst is the key factor of HER activity. Among the HER catalysts, noble metals such as Pt and Pd have moderate binding energy with hydrogen, thus showing excellent HER activities [25]. However, the high cost and stability issue of Pt catalysts motivate the scientists to find alternative materials for HER.

Here, we summarize the doping effects and synergetic effects of Au NCs in HER. We also introduce how the computational technique is used in these cases to explain differences in catalytic activity and verify proposed mechanisms. These works offer some insights into the catalytic reactions, which is expected to further pave the way for future design of catalyst materials.

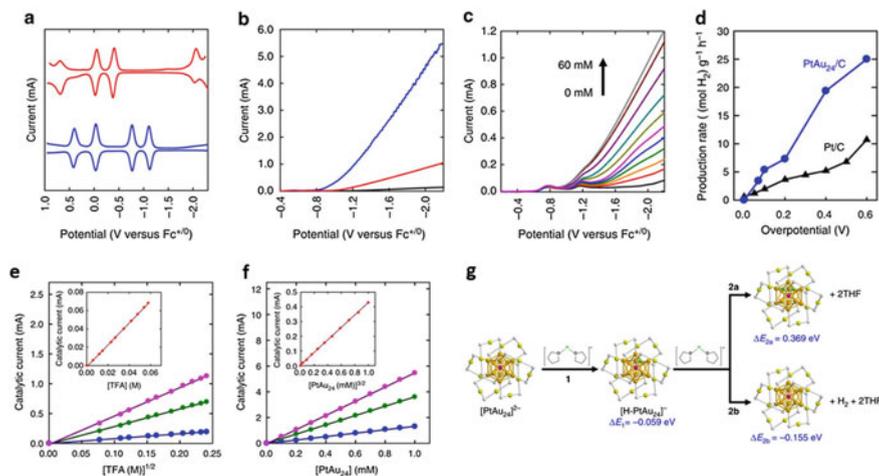
### 2.3.1 Pt or Pd Doped Au<sub>25</sub> NCs in HER

The study of Au NCs as HER catalysts was reported by Kyuju et al. in 2017 [26]. A molecular-like Pt<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub> nanocluster was prepared and used as catalysts in homogeneous HER. Following this work, the same group further studied the Pd<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub>, Pd<sub>2</sub>Au<sub>36</sub> and Pt<sub>2</sub>Au<sub>36</sub> nanoclusters [27]. In the case of Au<sub>25</sub> nanocluster, the doping atom (Pd or Pt) exclusively replaces the central gold atom in the nanocluster. The

overall structure of nanoclusters remains unchanged after doping, while the mass spectrum and optical absorption spectrum obviously changed (Fig. 2.3). In the mechanistic study of nanoclusters as HER catalysts, Voltammetry was used to study the electron transfer properties (Fig. 2.4). The redox potentials are drastically changed after Pt doping. Also, compared with  $\text{Au}_{25}$ ,  $\text{Pt}_1\text{Au}_{24}$  has more positive onset potential and higher current. Combining the voltammetry and linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs) with different concentration of trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), it can be seen that the  $[\text{PtAu}_{24}]^{1-/2-}$  peak at 1.10 V drastically rises with increasing TFA concentration, indicating that the  $[\text{PtAu}_{24}]^{2-}$  is the major contributor for enhanced HER activity. Also, the production rate with the  $\text{Pt}_1\text{Au}_{24}$  catalyst is significantly higher than that of the commercial Pt/C catalyst. Additionally, the charge-state-dependent catalytic activity results show that the catalytic currents at potentials negative to the  $[\text{PtAu}_{24}]^{1-/2-}$  exhibit a linear correlation with  $[\text{PtAu}_{24}]$  and  $[\text{TFA}]^{1/2}$ , corresponding



**Fig. 2.3** **a** Structures of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  and  $\text{PtAu}_{24}$  NCs (golden, Au atoms of the kernel; olive, Au atoms of the shell; gray, sulfur), **b** Mass spectrometry analysis of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  (red) and  $\text{Pt}_1\text{Au}_{24}$  (blue) NCs, **c** UV-vis-NIR absorption spectra of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  (red) and  $\text{Pt}_1\text{Au}_{24}$  (blue) NCs. Adapted with permission from Ref. [26]. Copyright 2017 Springer Nature



**Fig. 2.4** **a** Square-wave voltammetry (SWV) of Au<sub>25</sub> (red) and PtAu<sub>24</sub> (blue) NCs, **b** LSV of Au<sub>25</sub> (red) and PtAu<sub>24</sub> (blue) NCs, **c** LSVs of PtAu<sub>24</sub> in THF in the presence of 0, 4, 8, 12, 17, 21, 27, 34, 45, 55, and 60 mM of trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), **d** H<sub>2</sub> production rates per mass of metals in catalyst at various overpotentials on PtAu<sub>24</sub> (blue) and Pt/C electrodes (red), **e** Dependence of the catalytic current I<sub>c</sub> on the concentration of TFA in the presence of PtAu<sub>24</sub> (1 mM), **f** Dependence of the catalytic current I<sub>c</sub> on the concentration of PtAu<sub>24</sub> in TFA (1 M) solution at -1.3 V (blue), -1.8 V (green) and -2.2 V (purple), insets show dependence of the I<sub>c</sub> on the concentration of **e** TFA and **f** PtAu<sub>24</sub> at -1.0 V, **g** calculated reaction energies for HER on PtAu<sub>24</sub>. Adapted with permission from Ref. [26]. Copyright 2017 Springer Nature

to the Volmer–Heyrovsky mechanism [28, 29]. Meanwhile, the currents exhibit a linear correlation with [TFA] and [PtAu]<sup>3/2</sup> at -1.0 V where [PtAu<sub>24</sub>]<sup>1-</sup> is dominant, corresponding to the Volmer–Tafel mechanism [28]. These results are reasonable considering the charge state of Pt<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub> at different potential. To be specific, the dominant [PtAu<sub>24</sub>]<sup>2-</sup> at negative potential adsorbs a proton to form [H–PtAu<sub>24</sub>]<sup>1-</sup> with negative charge, which is prone to react with another proton to evolve H<sub>2</sub>. On the other hand, the dominant [PtAu<sub>24</sub>]<sup>1-</sup> at -1.0 V will form [H–PtAu<sub>24</sub>]<sup>0</sup> after adsorbing a proton. Therefore, the Tafel pathway is preferred at this potential.

DFT calculations are also utilized to explain the enhanced catalytic activity of Pt<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub> (Fig. 2.4g). The results show that the adsorption of the first proton on Pt<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub> is thermodynamically neutral, while the second proton adsorption is endothermic. This result is consistent with the charge-state-dependent catalytic activity. On the other hand, the geometry optimization shows that the proton is prone to bind with the Pt atom in the icosahedral center. Therefore, the stronger H–Pt interaction with respect to H–Au is a key factor for the enhanced HER activity. Using the same strategies, the group also studied the HER activities of Pd<sub>1</sub>Au<sub>24</sub>, Pt<sub>2</sub>Au<sub>36</sub> and Pd<sub>2</sub>Au<sub>36</sub> [27]. These works proved the versatility of metal NCs in catalytic mechanism study. Especially, the introduction of SWV and DFT calculation makes the metal NCs a perfect tool to correlate the structure and properties.

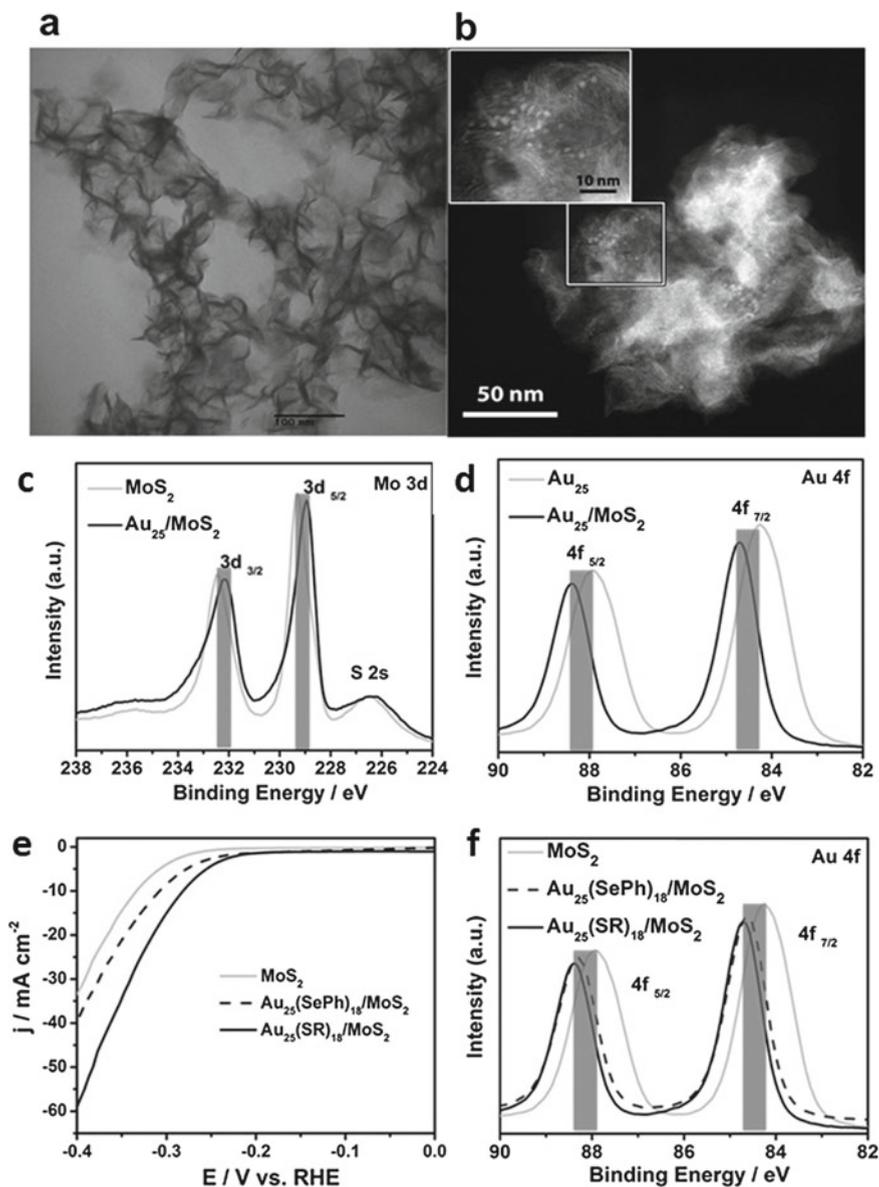
### 2.3.2 Boosting HER Activity with Au NCs/MoS<sub>2</sub> Composite

Besides the doping effects, metal NCs are also reported to show strong synergetic effects when loaded on other materials. In 2017, the synergetic effect was reported by Zhao et al. [30]. In this work, Au<sub>25</sub>(SR)<sub>18</sub> and Au<sub>25</sub>(SePh)<sub>18</sub> NCs are loaded on the MoS<sub>2</sub> ultra-thin nanosheets. These two NCs have a similar kernel structure but different protecting ligands. The TEM images and XPS spectra indicate the successful loading of Au NCs on the surface of MoS<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2.5). The Mo 3d XPS of composites exhibits negative shifting compared with MoS<sub>2</sub>, while the Au 4f spectra of composites show obvious positive shifting compared with Au<sub>25</sub> NCs. The XPS results clearly indicate that the electron density transfers from Au<sub>25</sub> to MoS<sub>2</sub>. In the HER activity test, the thiolate-protected Au<sub>25</sub> NCs exhibit a more positive onset potential and higher current density compared with MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets. On the other hand, the benzeneselenolate-protected Au<sub>25</sub> NCs loaded MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets show similar synergetic effects. However, the enhancement is less obvious compared with the thiolate-protected Au<sub>25</sub> NCs. To explain the different enhancement in HER catalytic activity, Au 4f XPS spectra of Au<sub>25</sub>(SR)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub>, Au<sub>25</sub>(SePh)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> and pure MoS<sub>2</sub> are obtained. The Au<sub>25</sub>(SR)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composites exhibit more positive shifting compared with the Au<sub>25</sub>(SePh)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composites, indicating stronger electron density transfer effects of thiol protected Au<sub>25</sub>. Therefore, the electron interaction between MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and Au NCs is a key factor for the HER activity. Based on these results, the authors proposed a dual interfacial effect, where the core/ligand interface of Au NCs and the MoS<sub>2</sub>/Au NCs interface are both important in the HER catalytic activity.

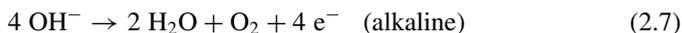
Du et al. also studied the synergetic effects between Au<sub>2</sub>Pd<sub>6</sub> NCs and MoS<sub>2</sub> [31]. In this work, DFT calculation is used to investigate the origin of the enhanced HER activity. The DFT calculation shows the  $\Delta G$  for a proton adsorbed at Au<sub>2</sub>Pd<sub>6</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite is more negative than that of MoS<sub>2</sub>, indicating better HER activity of the composites. Besides, it is found that in the Au<sub>2</sub>Pd<sub>6</sub> composites, both Au atoms and S atoms have appropriate  $\Delta G$  for proton adsorption. In contrast, only the Au–Pd bridge site has proper  $\Delta G$  in Au<sub>2</sub>Pd<sub>6</sub> NCs, and no proper active site for proton adsorption can be found in defect-free MoS<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, the significant increase in active sites in the composites is a key factor for boosted HER activity. Meanwhile, the DOS analysis also explained the enhanced activity of composites. The Au<sub>2</sub>Pd<sub>6</sub> composites have a defect state near the Fermi level. This unique defect state narrows the band gap, leading to a better electronic conductivity.

## 2.4 Oxygen Evolution Reaction with Metal NCs

Oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is the other half reaction in water splitting and is indeed critical. Oxygen can be formed through several proton/electron-coupled steps in OER. The reaction can be described as follows:



**Fig. 2.5** **a** TEM image of the MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, **b** HAADF-STEM image of the Au<sub>25</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite, **c** high-resolution Mo 3d XPS spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub> nanosheet and Au<sub>25</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite, **d** high-resolution Au 4f XPS spectra of Au<sub>25</sub> NCs and Au<sub>25</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite, **e** HER LSV curves, **f** high-resolution Au 4f XPS spectra of MoS<sub>2</sub>, Au<sub>25</sub>(SePh)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> and Au<sub>25</sub>(SR)<sub>18</sub>/MoS<sub>2</sub> composite. Adapted from Ref. [30]. Copyright 2017 Wiley-VCH



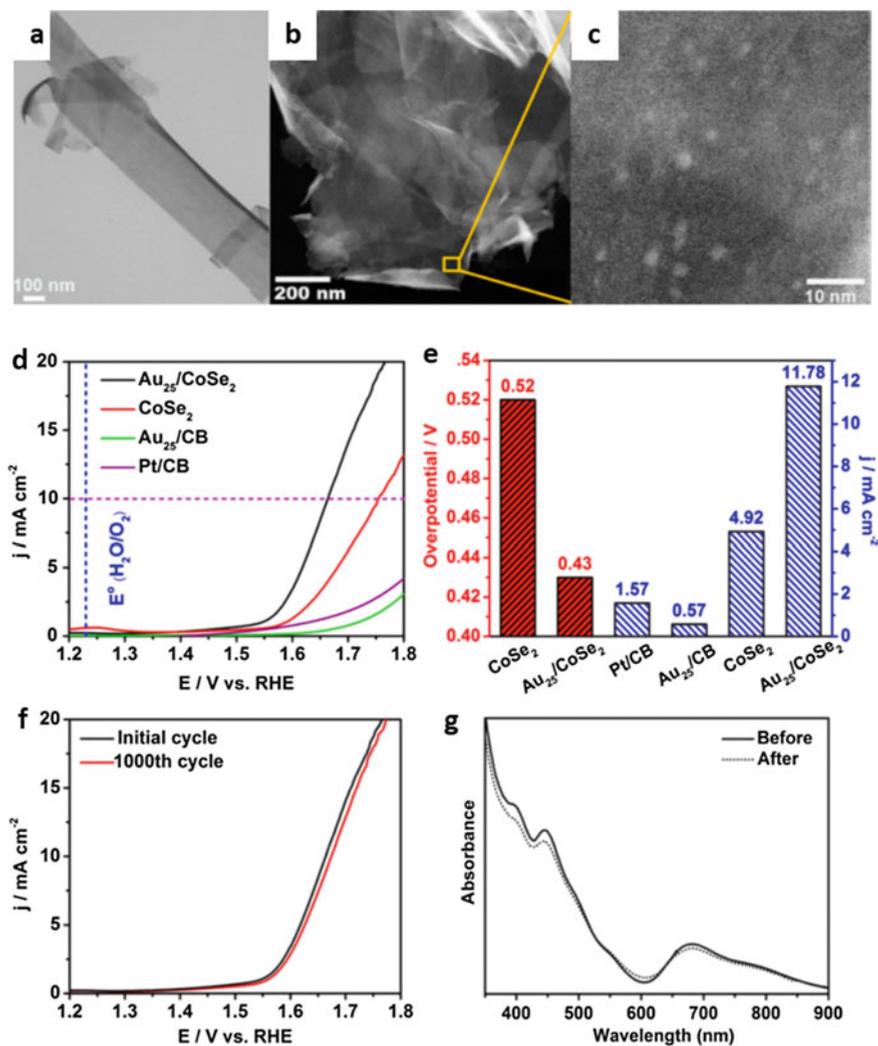
In OER, the formation of oxygen requires a four-electron transfer, and the reaction kinetically favors single electron transfer at each step [32]. Therefore, catalysts are required to overcome the energy barrier and lower the high overpotential in the sluggish OER [33, 34]. To reduce the cost of catalyst materials, cheaper and efficient alternative catalytic materials are extensively studied to replace the current Ir-based materials. In previous reports, anchoring a small amount of gold onto cobalt-based materials can enhance the OER activity [35, 36]. However, the mechanism for the improvement was not well understood due to the variability and complicity of the gold-loaded composites. In this section, the synergetic effects between Au NCs and CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets are introduced. This unique composite may provide valuable insights into the mechanistic study by taking advantage of the precise atomic structures of Au NCs [1].

#### ***2.4.1 Au<sub>n</sub> NCs Promote OER at the Nanocluster/CoSe<sub>2</sub> Interface***

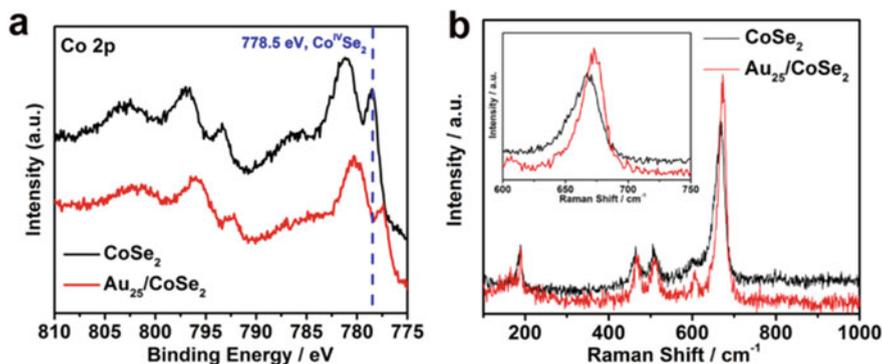
The OER performance of metal NCs was first reported by Zhao et al. in 2017 [37]. In this work, composites of Au<sub>25</sub> and ultra-thin CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets were synthesized and tested as OER catalysts. TEM images clearly show the ultra-thin nanosheet structure of CoSe<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2.6a–c). In the high-angle annular dark field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM), it can be observed that Au nanoclusters are homogeneously dispersed on the surface of CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets.

In the electrochemical test (Fig. 2.6d–f), the Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites show much smaller onset potential (1.406 V vs. RHE) and higher current density than CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets and Au<sub>25</sub>-loaded carbon. At 1.68 V, Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites achieve a current density of 11.78 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, which is 2.4 times that of CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets (4.92 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and 20.7 times that of Au<sub>25</sub>-loaded carbon (0.57 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>). Also, the composites exhibit higher current density and smaller overpotential than commercial Pt/C catalysts. In the stability test, the polarization curve and UV-vis spectra of the Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites exhibit the same features before and after 1000 cycles, indicating excellent stability of the composites as OER catalysts (Fig. 2.6g).

The XPS and Raman analysis of CoSe<sub>2</sub> and composites were conducted to explain the enhanced OER activity of Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites (Fig. 2.7). The binding energy of Co 2p in the composites shows a ~1 eV decrease compared with CoSe<sub>2</sub>, indicating electronic interaction between the Au<sub>25</sub> and CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheet. Also, the Raman peak at ca. 657 cm<sup>-1</sup> exhibits a shift toward higher wavenumber, suggesting the electronic interaction. It is believed that such an electronic interaction is a key factor that stabilizes the hydroperoxyl intermediates and optimizes interaction between CoSe<sub>2</sub> and oxygen.



**Fig. 2.6** **a** TEM image of CoSe<sub>2</sub> nanosheets, **b, c** HAADF-STEM images of Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composite, **d** OER polarization curves of Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub>, CoSe<sub>2</sub>, Pt/C and Au<sub>25</sub>/C, **e** overpotential at the current density of 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, and the current density at the overpotential of 0.45 V for Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub>, CoSe<sub>2</sub>, Pt/C and Au<sub>25</sub>/C catalysts, **f** stability test of Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub>, HER LSV curves, **g** UV-vis spectra of Au<sub>25</sub> NCs before and after the stability test. Adapted from Ref. [37]. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society



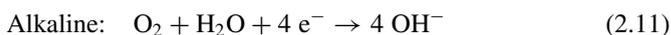
**Fig. 2.7** **a** High-resolution Co 2p XPS spectra of CoSe<sub>2</sub> and Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites, **b** Raman spectra of CoSe<sub>2</sub> and Au<sub>25</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> composites. Adapted from Ref. [37]. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society

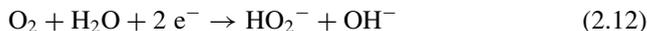
### 2.4.2 Au<sub>n</sub> NC Size Effect in OER

The size of gold nanoclusters is also important for the catalytic activity. To study the potential size dependence of Au<sub>n</sub> NCs for OER, Zhao et al. compared gold nanoclusters of Au<sub>10</sub>(SPh-<sup>t</sup>Bu)<sub>10</sub>, Au<sub>25</sub>(SR)<sub>18</sub>, Au<sub>144</sub>(SR)<sub>60</sub> and Au<sub>333</sub>(SR)<sub>79</sub>, with the latter three being protected by the same phenylethanethiolate ligand. These NCs were loaded onto CoSe<sub>2</sub> (all at 2.0 wt%, denoted as Au<sub>n</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub>). The OER polarization curves show a moderate increase of OER activity with an increase in cluster size. The Au<sub>333</sub>/CoSe<sub>2</sub> catalyst possesses the smallest overpotential (~0.41 V for 10 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) and the largest current density (15.44 mA cm<sup>-2</sup> at the overpotential of 0.45 V).

## 2.5 Oxygen Reduction Reaction with Au NCs

The ORR is the rate-determining step of the fuel cell system because of its sluggish kinetics [38, 39]. In both acidic and alkaline electrolyte, different mechanisms have been documented for ORR. These processes can be described as follows:



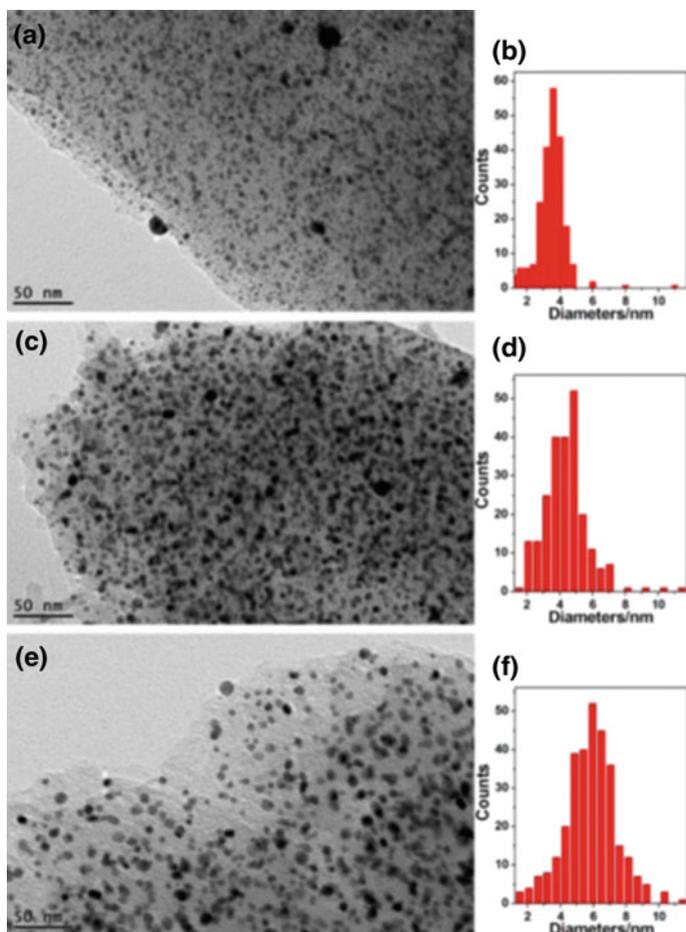


From the equations, it can be seen that two possible pathways can be observed in ORR in both electrolytes. One of them is the direct  $4\text{e}^-$  pathway where oxygen is reduced to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in acidic electrolytes or  $\text{OH}^-$  in alkaline electrolytes. The other pathway is the  $2\text{e}^-$  mechanism where  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  or  $\text{HO}_2^-$  is first formed before the sequent reduction to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{OH}^-$  with another  $2\text{e}^-$  transfer. It is believed that the commercial Pt/C electrode favors the direct  $4\text{e}^-$  pathways. However, the complicated surface structure of Pt/C catalysts makes it challenging to figure out the reaction occurring in the catalytic process [40–42]. To understand the ORR mechanism, several noble metal nanoparticle-based catalytic materials with either direct  $4\text{e}^-$  or  $2\text{e}^-$  pathways have been extensively studied [43–49]. Among these catalysts, Au has shown several unique properties in ORR. In 2007, Zhang et al. found that Pt catalysts can be stabilized against dissolution by modification with Au NCs [50]. In their electrochemical study, the Au NCs-modified Pt catalysts exhibit ultra-high stability where the polarization curve remains unchanged after 30,000 cycles. Later, Yin et al. reported in 2012 the Au NCs/graphene hybrids for high-performance ORR [51]. The hybrid catalytic materials exhibit high current density and excellent stability comparable to that of the commercial Pt/C catalysts. Yet, no study about combining the atomically precise Au NCs with DFT calculations is reported. The precise structure and ultra-small size make the Au NCs a perfect system to study the size effect in ORR. In this section, the reports on the size effects of atomically precise Au NCs are introduced.

### 2.5.1 Nanocluster-Derived Ultra-Small Nanoparticles for ORR

The size effect has been extensively studied for Au nanoparticles in the past decades [52, 53]. However, reports are rare for ultra-small Au nanoparticles (i.e., core diameter  $<2$  nm) for ORR. In 2016, Wang et al. reported porous carbon-supported ultra-small nanoparticles as ORR catalysts using thiolate-capped  $\text{Au}_{25}$ ,  $\text{Au}_{38}$  and  $\text{Au}_{144}$  NCs as precursors [54]. The average diameters of Au nanoparticles were estimated to be  $3.7 \pm 0.9$  nm for  $\text{Au}_{25}$ -derived catalyst (AuPC-1),  $4.9 \pm 1.1$  nm for  $\text{Au}_{38}$ -derived one (AuPC-2), and  $5.8 \pm 1.25$  nm for  $\text{Au}_{144}$ -derived one (AuPC-3), as shown in Fig. 2.8. All the Au nanoparticles are larger than the sizes of the original nanoclusters because of aggregation of clusters during the calcination.

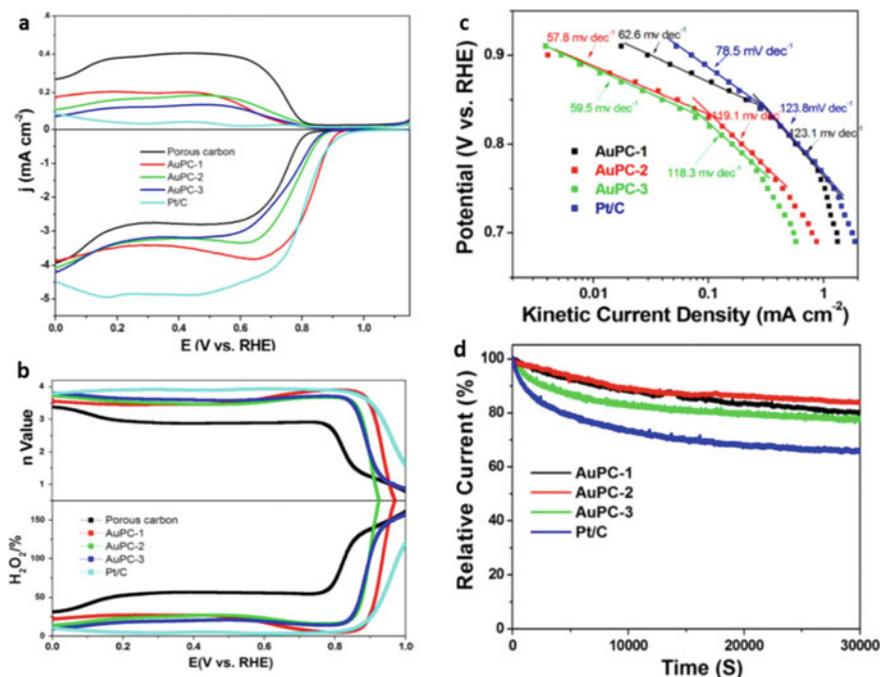
In the electrochemical test (Fig. 2.9), it is found that the AuPC-1 sample exhibits a peak current density similar to that of commercial Pt/C ( $0.57 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ). The rotation ring and disk electrode (RRDE) measurements show that the onset potential is 0.95, 0.91, and 0.89 V for AuPC-1, AuPC-2, and AuPC-3, respectively. Also, the diffusion-limited current density of AuPC-1 ( $3.61 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) is obviously higher than



**Fig. 2.8** TEM images of **a** AuPC-1, **c** AuPC-2, and **e** AuPC-3, with the corresponding size distribution in panels **b**, **d**, and **e**. Adapted with permission from Ref. [54]. Copyright 2016 American Chemical Society

that of AuPC-2 ( $3.21 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) and AuPC-3 ( $3.16 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ). It is noted that the ORR activity of AuPC-1 is similar to that of the commercial Pt/C catalysts ( $0.95 \text{ V}$  for onset potential and  $4.98 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  for limiting current density). Taking all the results together, one can find that the ORR activity increases with the decreasing Au nanoparticle size. Especially, the smallest AuPC-1 sample shows a comparable activity with the commercial Pt/C electrode.

In the Tafel plots (Fig. 2.9c), it can be seen that the specific activity increases with the decrease of AuPC nanoparticle size. At  $0.8 \text{ V}$ , the current density increases in the order of AuPC-3 ( $0.16 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) < AuPC-2 ( $0.195 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) < AuPC-1 ( $0.612 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ) < commercial Pt/C ( $0.615 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ). Additionally, similar



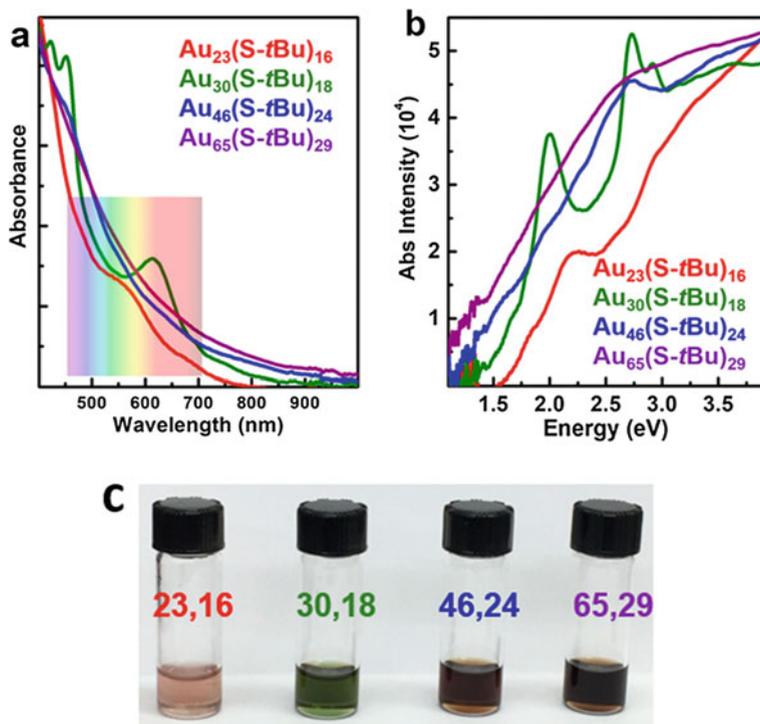
**Fig. 2.9** **a** CV curves, **b** the ORR polarization curves, **c** Tafel plots, **d** Chronoamperometric profiles of AuPC-1, AuPC-2, AuPC-3 and Pt/C catalysts. Adapted with permission from Ref. [54]. Copyright 2016 American Chemical Society

features of the Tafel plots can be observed for all the catalysts. Two clear linear regions are displayed at low and high overpotentials. In the low overpotential region, the slopes of these catalysts are all close to  $60 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$ , indicating that a pseudo-two-electron reaction might be the rate-determining step. However, the similar slopes of approximately  $120 \text{ mV dec}^{-1}$  for the four catalysts suggest that the rate-determining step is probably the first electron transfer to oxygen molecules. Also, the stability test of AuPC and commercial Pt/C catalysts indicate superior stability of Au nanoparticles in ORR. The relative current of AuPC-1, AuPC-2, and AuPC-3 shows a loss of 19.2%, 15.6%, and 22.7%, respectively, after 8 h. While for commercial Pt/C catalysts 35% loss of current is observed. The authors ascribe the superior performance of nanoclusters-derived ultra-small nanoparticles to the low-coordination surface Au atoms of small-sized nanoparticles and the synergetic effects between carbon and Au.

In summary, the small-sized Au particles are beneficial for the activation of oxygen, thus increasing the catalytic activity of ORR.

## 2.5.2 Size Effect of Au NCs in ORR

Au NCs were first reported for ORR by Chen et al. in 2009 [55]. Four Au NCs with different sizes: Au<sub>11</sub>, Au<sub>25</sub>, Au<sub>55</sub>, and Au<sub>140</sub> are synthesized. (On a note, we found that the UV-vis spectrum of “Au<sub>11</sub>” [55] instead resembles that of the Au<sub>25</sub> rod cluster [1]). In the electrochemical test, it was found that the “Au<sub>11</sub>” exhibits the highest limiting current density and smallest overpotential in ORR. Overall, the catalytic activity decreases as the cluster size increases. However, the crystal structures of Au NCs were not obtained at that time. Therefore, the assignment of precise atom numbers was preliminary. Later, Jones et al. reported in 2018 a series of t-butylthiolate protected Au NCs with increasing sizes for ORR [56]. These four nanoclusters, namely Au<sub>23</sub>, Au<sub>30</sub>, Au<sub>46</sub>, and Au<sub>65</sub>, show distinct UV-vis spectra as shown in Fig. 2.10, and different colors were observed for these four nanoclusters. The same t-butylthiolate ligand and different core sizes make it ideal to compare the atomically precise size effect with this series of Au NCs.



**Fig. 2.10** **a** UV-vis spectra, **b** photon energy plot (eV), and **c** photograph of Au<sub>23</sub>, Au<sub>30</sub>, Au<sub>46</sub> and Au<sub>65</sub>. Adapted with permission from Ref. [56]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society

**Table 2.1** Experimental parameters for Au NC-catalyzed ORR ( $n$ : the number of transferred electrons)

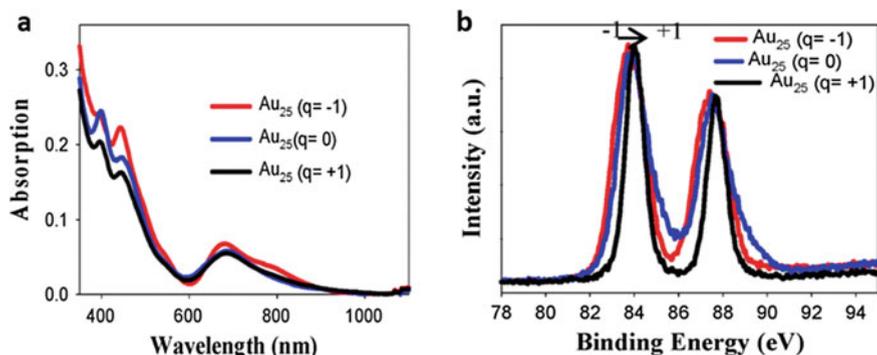
Sample	$\eta(V)$ at $j = -1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$	$n$	$\text{HO}^-$ (%)
$\text{Au}_{23}/\text{SWNT}$	0.68	2.1	53
$\text{Au}_{30}/\text{SWNT}$	0.25	2.5	63
$\text{Au}_{46}/\text{SWNT}$	0.24	2.0	50
$\text{Au}_{65}/\text{SWNT}$	0.08	3.2	80

Data from Ref. [56]

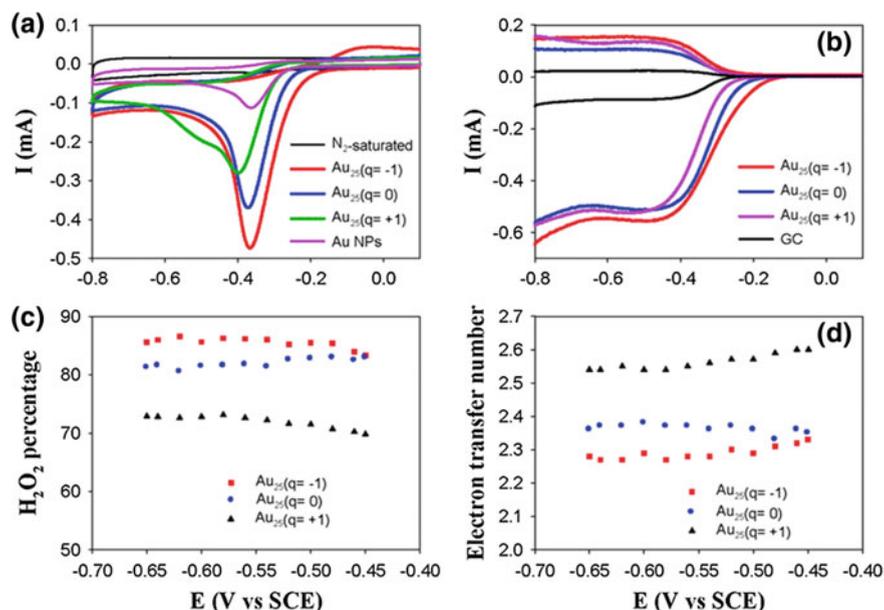
In the electrochemical test (Table 2.1), the  $\text{Au}_{65}$  exhibits a transfer of 3.2 electrons, which is higher than that of other NCs (approximately 2 electrons). Also, the potential at  $-1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  shows a trend of  $\text{Au}_{65} < \text{Au}_{46} < \text{Au}_{30} < \text{Au}_{23}$ , indicating that the ORR catalytic activity increases as the nanocluster size grows. Therefore, it can be concluded that larger NCs can facilitate the ORR with smaller overpotential, higher diffusion-limiting current and higher selectivity toward  $\text{OH}^-$  production.

### 2.5.3 Charge-State-Dependent ORR Activity of $\text{Au}_{25}$ NCs

In 2007, Negishi et al. reported the charge state of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  NCs can be tuned between  $-1$ ,  $0$  and  $+1$  [57]. This unique property provides an ideal model to study the charge-state effect of Au NCs in electrochemical catalysis [58–60]. Later in 2014, Lu et al. synthesized these atomically precise  $\text{Au}_{25}$  NCs protected by dodecanethiolate with different charge states ( $-1$ ,  $0$  and  $+1$ ) for ORR [61]. The UV-vis spectra clearly show the different features of the as-prepared NCs. In addition, the Au  $4f_{7/2}$  binding energy shows a positive shift when the charge state becomes more positive, further indicating the different charge state of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  NCs (Fig. 2.11).



**Fig. 2.11** **a** UV-vis spectra and **b** XPS spectra of  $\text{Au}_{25}$  NCs with different charge states. Adapted with permission from Ref. [61]. Copyright 2014 Royal Society of Chemistry



**Fig. 12.12** **a** CV of the ORR on Au nanoparticles and Au<sub>25</sub> NCs with different charge states, **b** RRDE voltammograms recorded on glass carbon electrode and the Au<sub>25</sub> NCs, **c** selectivity of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, **d** the electron transfer number as a function of the applied potentials. Adapted with permission from Ref. [61]. Copyright 2014 Royal Society of Chemistry

The electrochemical test results show that the Au<sub>25</sub><sup>-</sup> shows a more positive onset potential and higher diffusion-limiting current density compared with Au<sub>25</sub><sup>0</sup> and Au<sub>25</sub><sup>+</sup> (Fig. 2.12). Also, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production percentages show a trend of Au<sub>25</sub><sup>-</sup> (86%) > Au<sub>25</sub><sup>0</sup> (82) > Au<sub>25</sub><sup>+</sup> (72%), indicating that the two-electron pathway is dominant with the Au<sub>25</sub> nanoclusters. Thus, the Au<sub>25</sub><sup>-</sup> can be used as a promising catalyst for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production in ORR. The combined experimental results and previous DFT calculations suggest that charging the cluster can increase the chemical activity with respect to O<sub>2</sub> [62]; the authors proposed that the strong charge-state effects on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production can be attributed to electron transfer from the anionic Au<sub>25</sub> core into the LUMO ( $\pi^*$ ) of O<sub>2</sub>, activating the O<sub>2</sub> molecule and generating peroxo-like species.

## 2.6 CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction Reaction with Metal NCs

CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction (CO<sub>2</sub>RR) has been extensively investigated in order to remediate the global climate change issues during the past decades. As a multiproton and multi-electron process, the CO<sub>2</sub> RR is a complicated process with several products produced at various voltages as shown in Table 2.2 [63]. Especially, the formation of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> key intermediate consumes a large amount of energy. On the other hand, the

**Table 2.2** Reduction potentials (vs. RHE) of various products in CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions

Product	Reaction	$E^0$ [V vs. RHE]
CO	$\text{CO}_2 + 2 \text{e}^- + 2 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	-0.11
HCOOH	$\text{CO}_2 + 2 \text{e}^- + 2 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{HCOOH}$	-0.25
HCOH	$\text{CO}_2 + 4 \text{e}^- + 4 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{HCOH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	-0.07
CH <sub>3</sub> OH	$\text{CO}_2 + 6 \text{e}^- + 6 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.02
CH <sub>4</sub>	$\text{CO}_2 + 8 \text{e}^- + 8 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.17
C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	$2 \text{CO}_2 + 12 \text{e}^- + 12 \text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 4 \text{H}_2\text{O}$	0.06
CO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO}_2^-$	-1.5
H <sub>2</sub>	$2 \text{H}^+ + 2 \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$	0.0

Data adapted from Ref. [63]

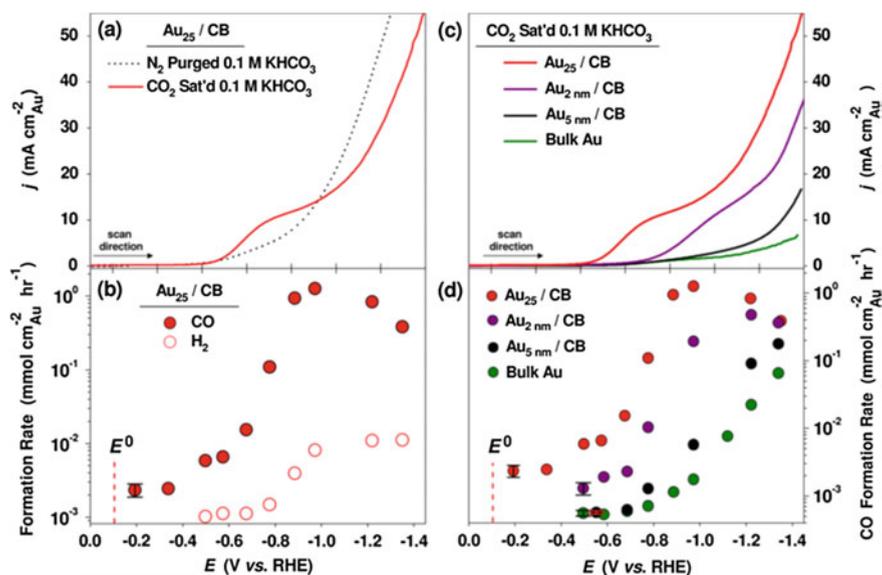
competing HER also hinders the efficient CO<sub>2</sub>RR in aqueous solutions. Therefore, highly efficient catalysts are critically required to lower the energy barrier in CO<sub>2</sub>RR [64–66].

Among the catalytic materials, Au has been extensively studied due to its high selectivity toward CO formation [14]. On the other hand, Cu is also attractive because of its versatility in forming various hydrocarbon products [67]. In this section, we summarize the Au and Cu NCs as catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The application of atomically precise NCs offers an opportunity for correlating the structure and catalytic properties, hence providing insights into the mechanism and also fundamental rules for future design of advanced catalytic materials for CO<sub>2</sub>RR.

### 2.6.1 Au<sub>25</sub> for CO<sub>2</sub>RR

In 2012, Kauffman et al. first reported atomically precise Au<sub>25</sub> NCs as catalysts for CO<sub>2</sub>RR [68]. The electrochemical results show that Au<sub>25</sub> have much higher activity in CO<sub>2</sub>RR than Au nanoparticles and bulk Au as shown in Fig. 2.13. To be detailed, the Au<sub>25</sub> exhibits higher current density in LSV and higher CO formation rate than Au nanoparticles and bulk Au.

To explain the superior activity of the Au<sub>25</sub> nanocluster, the same group used DFT calculations to obtain the free energy diagram of the CO<sub>2</sub>RR process (Fig. 2.14) [69]. They proposed that partial ligand removal would occur in order to expose the active sites for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. The free energy diagrams of both fully ligand-protected Au<sub>25</sub> and singly dethiolated Au<sub>25</sub> cluster were obtained. In the energy diagrams, it can be seen that the most endergonic step for both cases is the \*COOH formation. The U<sub>onset</sub> for fully ligand-protected Au<sub>25</sub> is -2.04 V, much larger than that of singly dethiolated Au<sub>25</sub> cluster (-0.34 V) and experimentally value (-0.193 V), indicating that their proposal of ligand removal is correct. Therefore, they concluded that the cluster can facilitate the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> by partial removal of the thiolate ligand.

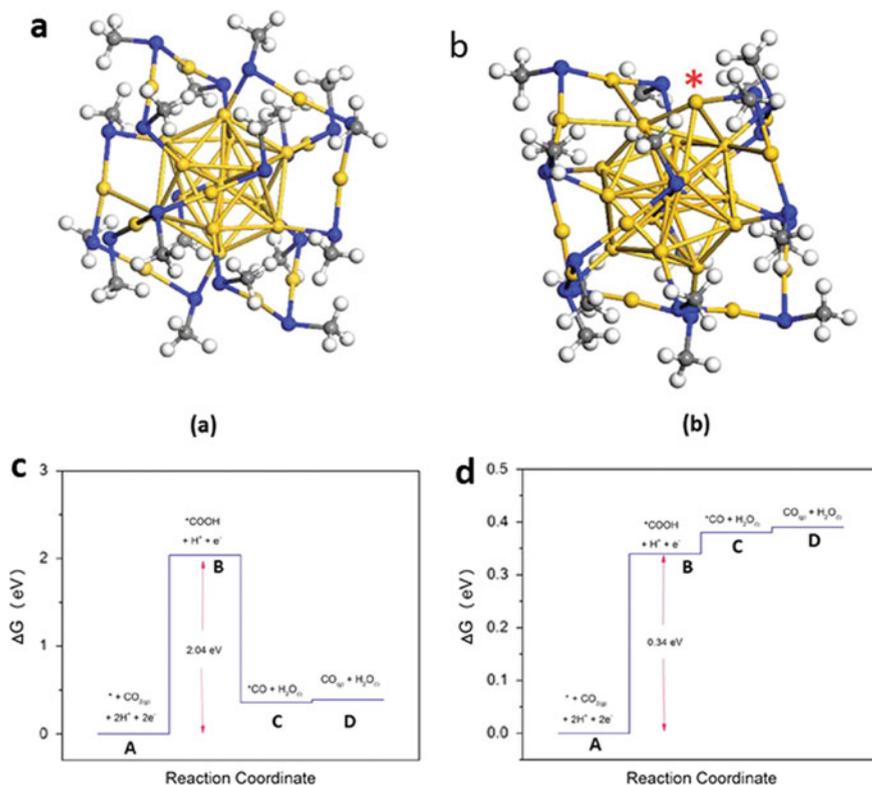


**Fig. 2.13** **a** LSV of Au<sub>25</sub>/CB, **b** potential-dependent H<sub>2</sub> and CO formation rates for Au<sub>25</sub>/CB, **c** LSV of various Au catalysts in quiescent CO<sub>2</sub> saturated 0.1 M KHCO<sub>3</sub>, **d** potential-dependent CO formation rates for the various Au catalysts. Adapted from Ref. [68]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society

The exposed Au site can reduce the free energy of the COOH intermediate formation, thus lowering the overpotential for CO formation. This group also reported the long-term stability of Au<sub>25</sub> NCs in CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The results show that Au<sub>25</sub> can catalyze the CO<sub>2</sub>RR for 6 days with steady production rate of  $745 \pm 59$  L/(g<sub>Au</sub> h) and CO selectivity of  $86 \pm 5\%$ , indicating the exceptional stability of Au<sub>25</sub> NCs in CO<sub>2</sub>RR [70].

## 2.6.2 Atomic-Level Morphology Effects in CO<sub>2</sub>RR

Previously, Au nanomaterials with different morphology have been extensively studied in testing the catalytic activity of facet, edge, and corner. Despite some interesting results, the nonavailable atomic-level structure of these nanomaterials made it difficult to connect the structure and the catalytic properties. To find more solid evidence of morphology effects of Au catalysts in CO<sub>2</sub>RR, Zhao et al. prepared atomically precise Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere and nanorod and tested their electrochemical performance as CO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts [71]. These two NCs exhibit distinct features in UV-vis spectra, corresponding to their spectroscopic fingerprints (Fig. 2.15). The Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere comprises an icosahedral Au<sub>13</sub> core protected by six dimeric surface staples (–SR–Au–SR–Au–SR–), showing a spherical morphology; while the Au<sub>25</sub>

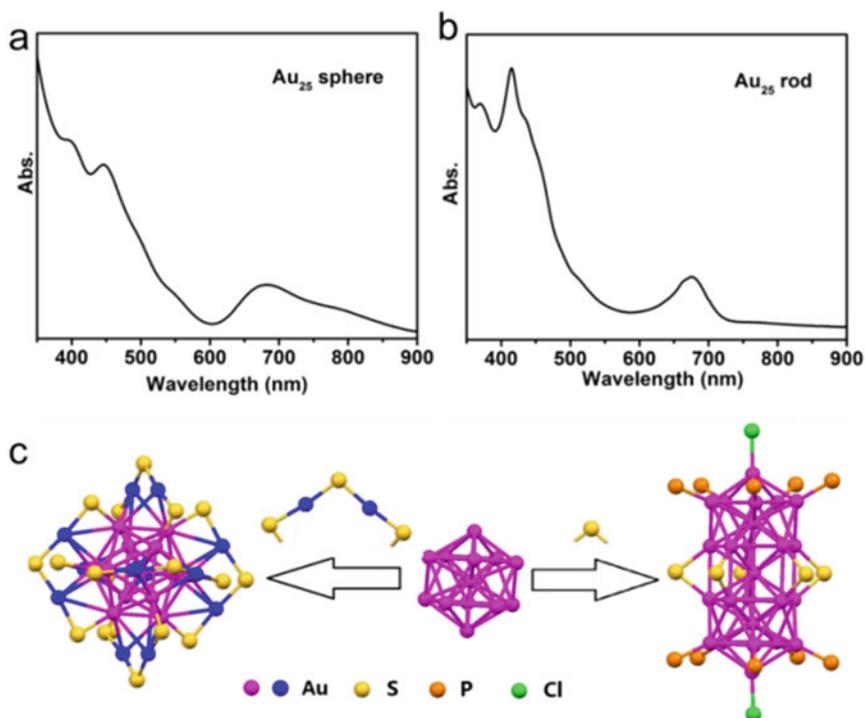


**Fig. 2.14** Optimized structure of the model: **a** fully ligand-protected Au<sub>25</sub>(SCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>18</sub><sup>-</sup> NC and **b** singly dethiolated Au<sub>25</sub>(SCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>17</sub><sup>-</sup> NC. Free energy diagram for electrochemical reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CO: **c** over the fully ligand-protected Au<sub>25</sub>(SCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>18</sub><sup>-</sup> NC, and **d** over the singly dethiolated Au<sub>25</sub>(SCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>17</sub><sup>-</sup> NC. White, gray, blue and golden balls represent H, C, S, and Au atom, respectively. Adapted from Ref. [69]. Copyright 2016 the American Institute of Physics

nanorod comprises two Au<sub>13</sub> icosahedra fused together by sharing one vertex gold atom, and the rod is protected by five bridging thiolates (–SR–) at the rod’s waist, 5 phosphine ligands and one chloride on each end of the nanorod.

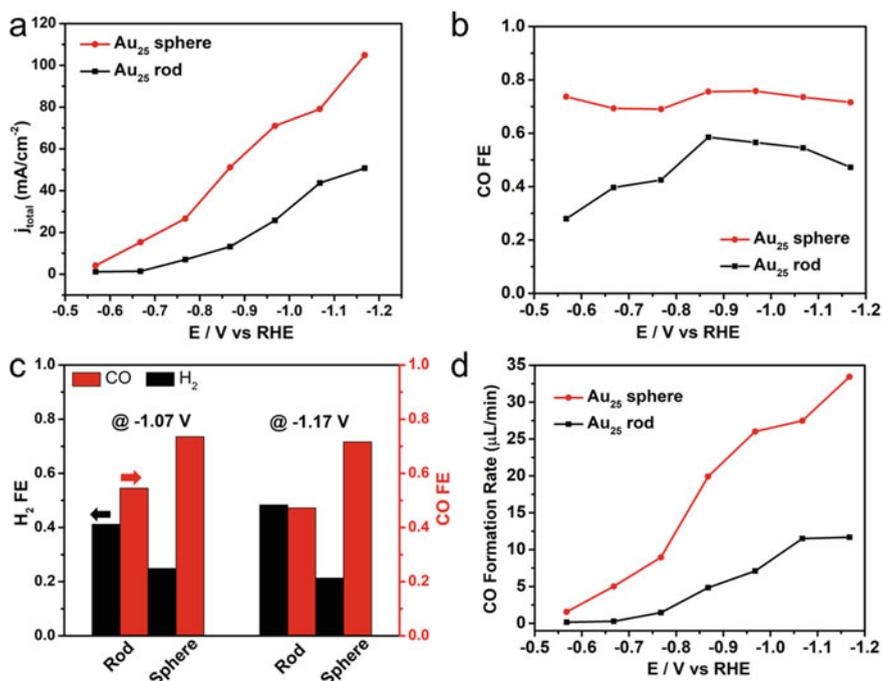
The electrochemical results in Fig. 2.16 show that Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere has higher CO Faradaic efficiency around 70% than the Au<sub>25</sub> nanorod (30–60%). The Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere also exhibits a much higher CO formation rate. Especially, at high potential of –1.17 V, the CO formation rate of Au<sub>25</sub> sphere (33.3 μL min<sup>-1</sup>) is 2.8 times that of Au<sub>25</sub> nanorod (11.7 μL min<sup>-1</sup>). The larger CO FE and higher CO formation rate of the Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere indicate its high catalytic performance compared with the Au<sub>25</sub> nanorod.

DFT calculations are used to evaluate the free energy of reaction steps to understand the mechanism of the better performance of the Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere (Fig. 2.17). First, the ΔG values for ligand removal from NCs are calculated. For the Au<sub>25</sub>

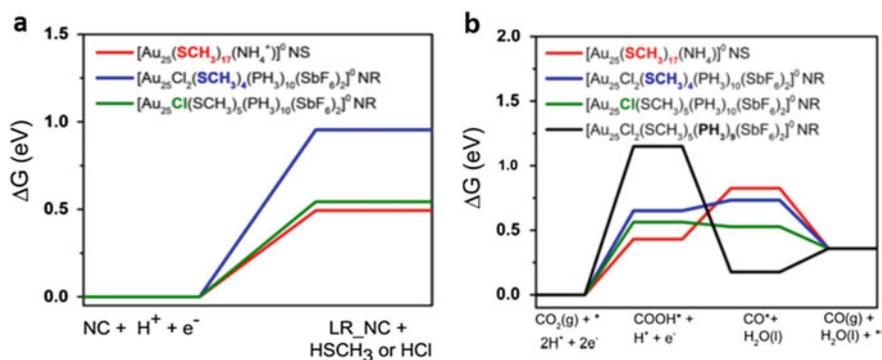


**Fig. 2.15** UV-vis spectra of: **a**  $Au_{25}$  nanosphere and **b**  $Au_{25}$  nanorod; **c** Atom packing structures of  $Au_{25}$  nanosphere and nanorod. Adapted from Ref. [71]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society

nanosphere, removal of a single  $-SCH_3$  is considered, while for the nanorod, removal of  $-SCH_3$ ,  $-Cl$  and  $PH_3$  is calculated. The results show that the desorption of  $-PH_3$  and the removal of  $-Cl$  from the  $Au_{25}$  nanorod have the same  $\Delta G$ : 0.54 eV. For the  $-SCH_3$  removal energy of the nanosphere and the nanorod,  $\Delta G$  is calculated to be 0.49 eV and 0.95 eV, respectively. These results indicate that the removal of  $-PH_3$  and  $-Cl$  is more favored for the nanorod. However, the ligand removal from the nanosphere is less endergonic than that from the nanorod. The free energy diagram after ligand removal shows that  $^*COOH$ , an important intermediate in  $CO_2$  reduction to  $CO$  on  $Au$ , is more stabilized on the  $Au_{25}(SCH_3)_{17}$  nanosphere with one  $-SCH_3$  ligand removed compared with any of the other ligand-removed systems of the nanorod. Therefore, it is concluded that the energetically favorable removal of  $-SCH_3$  from the  $Au_{25}$  nanosphere to expose active sites and the stabilization of  $^*COOH$  intermediates on the obtained  $Au_{25}(SCH_3)_{17}$  nanosphere contribute to the superior catalytic performance of the  $Au_{25}$  nanosphere. This work has successfully correlated the atomic-level morphology with catalytic performance, explaining the factors that determine the  $CO_2RR$  activities with the aid of DFT calculations. It has shed light on the mechanism for the  $CO_2RR$  in the future.



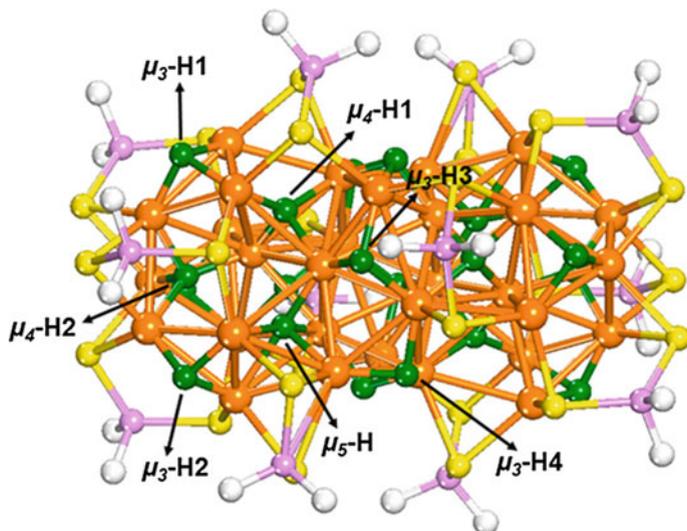
**Fig. 2.16** **a** Total current density of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction and **b** Faradaic efficiency (FE) for CO production over the Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere and nanorod; **c** FE for CO and H<sub>2</sub> at the potential of -1.07 and -1.17 V over Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere and nanorod, **d** CO formation rates over Au<sub>25</sub> nanosphere and nanorod. Adapted from Ref. [71]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society



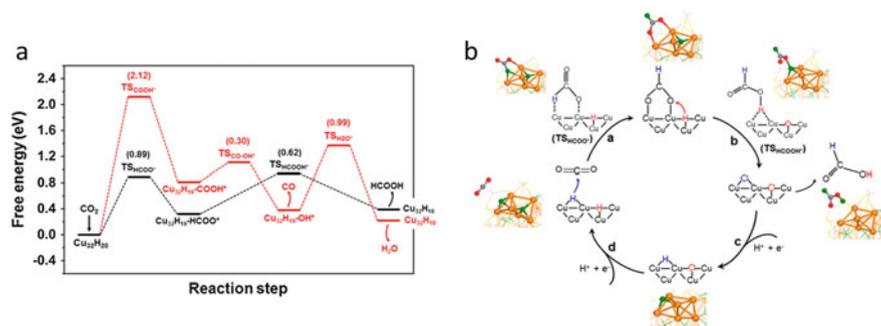
**Fig. 2.17** **a**  $\Delta G$  for ligand removal (eV) from the NCs at 0 V versus RHE, **b** free energy diagrams for CO<sub>2</sub> reduction to CO on the ligand-removed NCs at 0 V versus RHE. Adapted from Ref. [71]. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society

### 2.6.3 Cu NC-Catalyzed CO<sub>2</sub>RR

Cu catalysts are attractive for their ability to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> to hydrocarbon products. However, the mechanisms of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction on nanostructured Cu catalysts are not well understood yet. In 2017, Tang et al. reported a copper-hydride nanocluster for CO<sub>2</sub>RR to study the mechanism of Cu catalysts [72]. This Cu<sub>32</sub>H<sub>20</sub>L<sub>12</sub> NC (L = S<sub>2</sub>P(OiPr)<sub>2</sub>) comprises a distorted hexacapped rhombohedral core of 14 Cu atoms sandwiched by two Cu<sub>9</sub> triangular cupola fragments of Cu atoms, while the hydrides and L ligands are homogeneously distributed on the surface of the nanocluster (Fig. 2.18). The study on the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction mechanism shows that the key initial step of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is where the first hydrogen is added: C or O of CO<sub>2</sub>. The H addition on C would facilitate the formation of HCOOH, otherwise, CO would occur. Based on the structure of the Cu nanocluster, the authors proposed two possible channels to form the critical HCOO\* intermediate: (1) the non-electrochemical absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on lattice hydrides (lattice-hydride channel); (2) the electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reaction with proton and electron (proton-reduction channel). The free energy diagram of both channels for HCOOH and CO production shows that in both cases the lattice-hydride mechanism exhibits more energy downhill compared with the proton-reduction mechanism, suggesting the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction favors the lattice-hydride channel over this Cu NC. After the confirmation of reaction channel, the free energy diagram of CO and HCOOH formation is calculated following the lattice-hydride mechanism (Fig. 2.19a). The results indicate the HCOOH pathway is more favorable than the CO pathway over the Cu cluster.

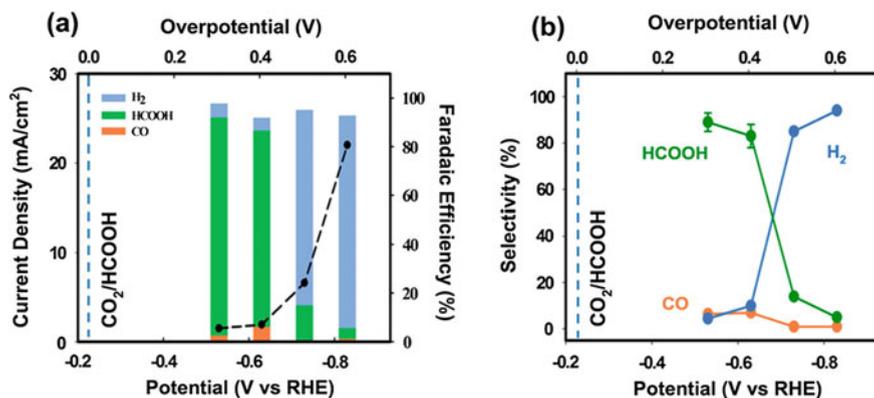


**Fig. 2.18** Atomic structure of the Cu<sub>32</sub>H<sub>20</sub>L<sub>12</sub> NC (L = S<sub>2</sub>PH<sub>2</sub>). Orange, Cu; green, hydride; yellow, S; purple, P; white, H. Adapted with permission from Ref. [72]. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society



**Fig. 2.19** **a** Free energy diagrams for HCOOH and CO formation on the  $\text{Cu}_{32}\text{H}_{20}\text{L}_{12}$  NCs via the lattice-hydrate mechanism, **b** overall mechanism of HCOOH formation from  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction on  $\text{Cu}_{32}\text{H}_{20}\text{L}_{12}$  NCs via the lattice-hydrate channel, orange, Cu; green, hydride; red, oxygen; gray, carbon. Adapted with permission from Ref. [72]. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society

Based on all the DFT calculation results, the authors proposed a complete catalytic mechanism as shown in Fig. 2.19d. It can be seen that the HCOOH is formed through the non-electrochemical lattice-hydrate pathway. Additionally, the Cu NC can be recovered by the electrochemical reaction with two protons and electrons. Electrochemical tests are conducted to verify the theoretical prediction that HCOOH is favored over the Cu NC (Fig. 2.20). It can be seen that HCOOH is the dominant product at low potential with selectivity higher than 80%, while  $\text{H}_2$  becomes dominant at high potential due to the competing HER. Only a small amount of CO is formed throughout the potential window. Therefore, these electrochemical results have successfully verified the accuracy of theoretical prediction. This work has demonstrated the methods of mechanism study using atomically precise metal



**Fig. 2.20** **a** Average current densities (black) and cumulative FE for  $\text{H}_2$ , HCOOH and CO, **b** product selectivity for  $\text{H}_2$ , HCOOH and CO. Adapted with permission from Ref. [72]. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society

NCs by combining DFT calculation and electrochemical experiment. Compared with traditional nanoparticles, the precise structure of nanoclusters makes the computational modeling much more facile and convincing. It is anticipated that the application of metal NCs in CO<sub>2</sub>RR can offer insights in the mechanism study in the future.

## 2.7 Summary and Future Perspective

In this chapter, we have summarized the literature work about metal NCs as electrochemical catalysts. Compared with the metallic nanoparticles, the metal NCs exhibit discrete electronic energy levels due to the quantum size effect. This unique electronic property, plus atomically precise structures, as well as their various atom-packing structures, render the nanoclusters great potential in catalytic applications.

Metal nanoclusters (homogold and doped ones) have been demonstrated in several important electrochemical reactions including HER, OER, ORR, and CO<sub>2</sub>RR. The results show that doping effects, synergetic effects, size effects, thermostability effects, charge effects, and morphology effects all play important roles in the catalytic effects. One of the most important advantages of nanoclusters in catalysis is the feasibility of computational modeling due to the available structure. For example, the catalytic mechanism of CO<sub>2</sub>RR over Cu<sub>32</sub>H<sub>20</sub>L<sub>12</sub> NCs are predicted by DFT calculations and successfully verified by the electrochemical experiment. Metal nanoclusters are expected to be a promising class of model catalysts for correlating the structure and properties, providing exciting opportunities for the understanding of catalysis mechanism at the atomic level.

Future work in NCs electrocatalysis should investigate the following aspects:

- (i) The doping effects. Several bimetallic NCs have been reported. However, the catalytic properties of bimetallic NCs are still rarely studied. The investigation of bimetallic NCs may be helpful to understand the impact of doping atoms, further revealing the fundamental catalytic mechanisms;
- (ii) The synergetic effects. Au NCs-loaded composite materials are reported to show enhanced catalytic activity. It is essential to understand the interaction between supporting materials and metal NCs with more precise interfaces;
- (iii) Metal NCs in other catalytic reactions. Owing to the characterized structure and tunable properties, metal NCs should be broadened to other catalytic reactions to study the fundamental catalytic mechanisms, such as nitrogen reduction reactions (NRR). The new electrocatalytic reactions remain to be explored.

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