

# Atomically isolated Pd sites within Pd-S nanocrystals enable trifunctional catalysis for direct, electrocatalytic and photocatalytic syntheses of $H_2O_2$

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## ABSTRACT

Although high-efficiency production of hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) can be realized separately by means of direct, electrochemical, and photocatalytic synthesis, developing versatile catalysts is particularly challenging yet desirable. Herein, for the first time we reported that palladium-sulphur nanocrystals (Pd-S NCs) can be adopted as robust and universal catalysts, which can realize the efficient  $O_2$  conversion by three methods. As a result, Pd-S NCs exhibit an excellent selectivity (89.5%) to  $H_2O_2$  with high productivity (133.6 mol·kg<sub>cat<sup>-1</sup></sub>·h<sup>-1</sup>) in the direct synthesis, along with the significantly enhanced  $H_2O_2$  production activity and stability via electrocatalytic and photocatalytic syntheses. It is demonstrated that the isolated Pd sites can enhance the adsorption of  $O_2$  and inhibit its O–O bond dissociation, improving  $H_2O_2$  selectivity and reducing  $H_2O_2$  degradation. Further study confirms that the difference in surface atom composition and arrangement is the key factor for different ORR mechanisms on Pd NCs and Pd-S NCs.

## **KEYWORDS**

Pd-S, universality, direct synthesis of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, oxygen reduction, photocatalysis

# 1 Introduction

Hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$ , as an environmentally benign and atom-economical oxidizing agent, is widely used in chemical synthesis, environmental protection, agriculture and many other fields [1–6]. Currently, the industrial method of large-scale production of  $H_2O_2$  is the anthraquinone process, which involves the sequential hydrogenation and oxidation of anthraquinone molecules [7]. Despite that this technology is mature, it still faces formidable practical sustainability challenges, such as environmental pollution, high energy consumption, industrial waste handling as well as the high cost of capital and operating [8–11]. Thus, developing a highly efficient and economic method to replace the traditional anthraquinone process has important implications for addressing environmental issues and energy depletion.

The ever-increasing demand for  $H_2O_2$  has stimulated substantial efforts to develop the most promising catalysts for  $H_2O_2$  synthesis [12–16]. Up to now, the direct synthesis of  $H_2O_2$ (DSHP) [17–21], 2e<sup>-</sup>-electrochemical oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) [22] and photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  production [23–27] represent three most attractive approaches for producing  $H_2O_2$  with the merits of environmentally friendliness, high efficiency and high safety [28-31]. However, the O-O bond dissociation can readily occur as a side reaction simultaneously during the DSHP, ORR [32-35] or photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production that severely degrades the catalytic selectivity [36-40]. The conventional methods of tackling this issue are to increase the number of isolated metal sites on catalyst surface by forming alloy [41], preparing single-atom catalysts [42-44], etc. For example, Hutchings et al. had synthesized a range of Pd-Sn alloy nanoparticles by an appropriate oxidation-reduction-oxidation heat treatment process, which exhibit very high selectivity (> 95%) for  $H_2O_2$  production in the DSHP [37]. Choi et al. synthesized atomically dispersed Pt catalyst on zeolite-templated carbon (ZTC) containing an extra-large amount of sulfur via a simple wet-impregnation method, which selectively catalyzes a 2e-ORR pathway for producing H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> [42]. Hirai et al. found Au-Ag alloy could produce H2O2 by UV irradiation [41]. Although high selectivity of H2O2 production has been achieved via different methods, there are no versatile catalysts that could simultaneously achieve high productivity in the direct H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis, electrocatalytic and photocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis. It is highly desirable to design universal catalysts to realize high yield of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production simultaneously through direct,

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electrocatalytic and photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  synthesis, which could largely profit the catalyst utilization efficiency.

Herein, we demonstrated that unique Pd-S nanocrystals (NCs) can be adopted as a high activity, selectivity and universal catalyst for the synthesis of  $H_2O_2$ . Compared with Pd NCs, Pd-S NCs can achieve an excellent  $H_2O_2$  production rate of 133.6 mol·kg<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> with 89.5% selectivity of  $H_2O_2$  in the DSHP. The Pd-S NCs also show promising activity in both electrocatalytic and photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  synthesis. It is found that, the electronic transition between Pd and S results in high electron density at Pd sites, benefiting the adsorption of  $O_2$ , while the improved selectivity is attributed to the presence of isolated active Pd atoms, which can inhibit the dissociation of O–O bond. In addition, Pd-S NCs can also maintain satisfactory stability with small activity decay in the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis.

## 2 Experimental

## 2.1 Material preparation

Including palladium(II) bromide (PdBr<sub>2</sub>), sulfocarbamide (CH<sub>5</sub>N<sub>3</sub>S), L-ascorbic acid (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O<sub>6</sub>, AA), and oleylamine (C<sub>18</sub>H<sub>37</sub>N, OAm), ethanol (CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH, analytical reagent,  $\geq$  99.8%), methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH, analytical reagent,  $\geq$  99.5%), sulphuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, analytical reagent, 95%–98%), all the materials and solvents used in this study were described in our previous works [45, 46]. All the chemicals were used as received without further purification.

#### 2.2 Preparation of Pd-S NCs

For typical synthesis of Pd-S NCs, 6.1 mg PdBr<sub>2</sub>, 1.1 mg sulfocarbamide, 36 mg AA, and 5 mL OAm were added into a glass vial. This mixture was sonicated for 0.5 h, then heated to 160 °C and reacted for 5 h. After cooling to 20 °C, the products were washed for twice with a cyclohexane/ethanol mixture (v/v = 1/9) and collected by centrifugation.

#### 2.3 Characterizations

Power X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were collected using an X'Pert-Pro X-ray powder diffractometer equipped with a Cu radiation source ( $\lambda = 0.15406$  nm). The morphology and size of these NCs were determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Hitachi, HT7700) at 120 kV. High-resolution TEM (HRTEM), TEM energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (TEM-EDS), high-angle annular dark-field scanning TEM (HAADF-STEM), and HAADF-STEM-EDS elemental mappings were conducted on a FEI Tecnai F20 TEM at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. Low-resolution EDS was performed on a scanning electron microscope (SEM-EDS, Hitachi, S-4700). All the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were collected by XPS (Thermo Scientific, ESCALAB 250 XI). The concentration of catalyst was analyzed by the inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES, 710-ES, Varian). All these characterization techniques used in this work were described in our previous works [47, 48]. The X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) data were collected at the TPS-44A beamline of the "National Synchrotron Radiation Research Center" (NSRRC, Hsinchu, Taiwan, China) using a Si (111) quick-scanning monochromator. All the XAS data were processed according to standard procedures using the Demeter program package (Version 0.9.24). Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) experiments were similar to the previous study [49]. The background spectrum was acquired after flowing 0.1 MPa Ar for 0.5 h. 0.1 MPa CO and Ar were then allowed to flow into the cell at room temperature for 1.0 and 0.5 h,

#### 2.4 Catalytic tests

H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis by DSHP: For the DSHP, 5 mg catalyst and 10 mL solvent (MeOH and  $H_2O$  (v/v = 7/3)) were added into an autoclave. The autoclave was then purged for three times with O2 (0.2 MPa) before filling with  $O_2$  to a pressure of 0.4 MPa at room temperature. This was followed by the addition of 5%  $H_2/N_2$  (3.6 MPa). Then, in an ice bath, the reaction was carried out at 800 rpm for 0.5 h. The productivity of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was confirmed by the titration volume of acidified  $Ce(SO_4)_2$  (0.01 M), and the developer was ferroin indicator. Gas analysis was carried out with GDX-502 column gas chromatography (GC shiweipx-7806) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector. The conversion rate of H<sub>2</sub> was calculated by the change of H<sub>2</sub> before and after the reaction by gas analysis. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation and hydrogenation experiments were carried out in a similar manner to that of the H2O2 synthesis. The standard reaction conditions adopted for H2O2 degradation were as follows: 5 mg catalyst, 10 mL solvent (7 mL MeOH, 1.97 mL H<sub>2</sub>O and 1.03 mL H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30 %)), 3.6 MPa 5% H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>, 0 °C, 800 rpm, 0.5 h.

The selectivity of DSHP and the  $H_2$  conversion were calculated based on the following formulas

Conversion (H<sub>2</sub>) = 
$$\frac{n(H_2O_2) + n(H_2O)}{n(H_2)_{\text{feed}}} = \frac{n(H_2)_{\text{reacted}}}{n(H_2)_{\text{feed}}}$$
  
Selectivity (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) =  $\frac{n(H_2O_2)}{n(H_2O) + n(H_2O_2)} = \frac{n(H_2O_2)}{n(H_2)_{\text{reacted}}}$ 

H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis by ORR: For ORR, the rotating ring-disk electrode (RRDE) setup was used to perform the electrochemical measurements. The electrode was rotated using a Pine Instrument Company (GroveCity, PA) FMSRX rotator and MSRX speed controller. The electrolyte was 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the reference electrode was saturated calomel electrode (SCE). A carbon rod was used as the counter electrode. The reference electrode was calibrated against and converted to reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). The RRDE with a glassy carbon disk (geometric area 0.196 cm<sup>2</sup>) and Pt ring was used as the working electrode. The catalyst ink (contain carbon, 1 mg·mL<sup>-1</sup>, 5 µL, 20.2% mass loading amount of Pd) was dropped on the glassy carbon disk and dried at room temperature. ORR measurement was carried out in aqueous solution of 0.05 M  $H_2SO_4$  purged with  $O_2$ . The scan rate was 10 mV·s<sup>-1</sup> and rotation rate was 1,600 rpm for the ORR measurement. The ring currents were recorded by fixing the ring potential at 1.2 V (vs. RHE) to detect the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The durability tests were performed at room temperature in O2-saturated aqueous solution of 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> by applying the cyclic potential sweeps at a sweep rate of 100 mV·s<sup>-1</sup> for 5,000 cycles. Selectivity of the catalysts toward H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> formation was calculated using the following Eq. (1)

$$H_2O_2\% = 200 \times (I_R/N) / (I_R/N - I_D)$$
 (1)

The number of transferred electrons (n) at the disk electrode during oxygen reduction process was calculated using the following Eq. (2)

$$n = 4 \times \left| I_{\rm D} \right| / \left( I_{\rm R} / N - I_{\rm D} \right) \tag{2}$$

where  $I_D$  is the disk current,  $I_R$  is the ring current and N is the collection efficiency. The value of N was experimentally determined to be 0.29 by using a standard ferricyanide system.

 $H_2O_2$  synthesis by photocatalysis: 10 mg catalyst was dissolved in 20 mL solvent (1 mL EtOH and 19 mL  $H_2O$ ). Then bubbling with high purity  $O_2$  for 30 min to keep the  $O_2$  balance in the entire system. Finally, visible light irradiation was applied to the system for 2 h. To obtain the calibration curve, the  $H_2O_2$  solution of known concentration was added to the  $Ce(SO_4)_2$  solution and measured using a Techcomp 2600 UV Spectrometer at 316 nm. Based on the linear relationship between signal intensity and Ce<sup>4+</sup> concentration, the  $H_2O_2$  concentrations of different samples can be obtained.

## 2.5 Computational details

All the density functional theory (DFT) calculations were carried out by Vienna *ab-initio* simulation package (VASP), and Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) functional [50] was employed to describe the exchange-correlation effect. The plane waves were constructed using projector augmented-wave (PAW) potentials with an energy cutoff of 450 eV, and the convergence criteria for the geometry optimization was the maximum force of the unconstrained atoms less than 0.05 eV·Å<sup>-1</sup>.

The lattice parameters of bulk Pd and Pd<sub>4</sub>S were optimized initially, and then the Pd (111) and S-terminated Pd<sub>4</sub>S (110) surfaces were chosen for this study because they are most stable in thermodynamics. As shown in Fig. S11(a) in the ESM and Fig. 1(b), the Pd (111) surface was modeled by a  $3 \times 3$  supercell slab with 3 atomic layers. The vacuum space between the slabs is 15 Å, and a  $4 \times 4 \times 1$  *k*-point is employed. For the S-terminated Pd<sub>4</sub>S (110) surface, it is represented by a  $2 \times 1$  supercell with 4 Pd-S layers, as seen in Figs. S11(c) and S11(d) in the ESM. The vacuum space between the slabs is also set to 15 Å, and a  $2 \times 3 \times 1$ *k*-point is employed. To avoid the dipole interaction with periodic images, a dipole correction was set in the surface normal direction. During the structural optimization of the adsorbates, the bottom two layers of the slabs were fixed, and for the frequency calculation, only the adsorbates were relaxed. To obtain the activation energies of the reaction steps, a bond length approach and the climbing image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) calculation were used to search for the transition states.

The Gibbs reaction free energy ( $\Delta G$ ) was calculated with  $\Delta G = \Delta E + \Delta ZPE - T\Delta S$ , where  $\Delta E$ ,  $\Delta ZPE$  and  $T\Delta S$  denote for the difference in total energy, zero-point energy and entropy, respectively. The solvation effect on the ORR reaction is complicated and still not clear. For simplification, we fully ignored the role of solvation in this study because we think it does not affect the qualitative comparison between Pd (111) and Pd<sub>4</sub>S (110) for O–O bond dissociation.

## 3 Results and discussion

The Pd-S NCs were prepared by a simple wet-chemical method (details in the Experimental section). Figure 1(a) shows the TEM image of Pd-S NCs. It can be seen that the Pd-S NCs are highly uniform and monodisperse with an average diameter of 10.8 nm (Fig. S1(a) in the ESM). The composition of the Pd-S NCs was determined to be Pd/S = 66.5/33.5 by SEM-EDS spectrum (Fig. S1(b) in the ESM), being consistent with the ICP-AES result. PXRD analysis was conducted to identify the crystalline structure of Pd-S NCs. As seen in Fig. 1(b), the PXRD pattern of Pd-S NCs reveals a tetragonal phase, where the diffraction peaks at 23.7°, 35.1°, 39.5°, 40.8°, 51.6° and 80.5° can be mainly indexed to (101), (200), (210), (112), (212) and (214) facets of Pd<sub>4</sub>S phase, respectively (JCPDS file, No. 10-0335).

The Pd-S NCs crystallize in a tetragonal symmetry with the space group of  $P\overline{4}21c$  (114). The projected unit cell is composed



Figure 1 Morphology and structure characterizations of Pd-S NCs. (a) TEM image, (b) PXRD pattern and (c) local ball-and-stick model of Pd-S NCs. Pd: red, and S: blue. (d) Fourier transforms for EXAFS spectra of Pd K-edge. The inset in (d) is the enlarged picture. (e) Wavelet transforms for EXAFS spectra, (f) HRTEM image, and (g) HAADF-STEM image and elemental mapping of the Pd-S NCs.

of two non-equivalent Pd-S metallic bonds (Fig. 1(c)). The XAS technique was adopted to reveal the local environment and chemical bonding of Pd-S NCs. The Fourier transformation of the Pd K-edge extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) of Pd-S NCs is shown in Fig. 1(d) and compared with that of Pd foil. The peak at 2.52 Å for the Pd foil can be attributed to Pd–Pd bond. A clear shift of the first shell bond length from 2.52 to 2.39 Å suggests that there is no clear Pd–Pd bond feature in Pd-S NCs, confirming the presence of isolated Pd atoms in the Pd-S NCs. Wavelet transform (WT) at the Pd K-edge EXAFS analysis further confirms the isolated state of Pd atoms (Fig. 1(e)), only a maximum intensity at approximately 8.7 Å<sup>-1</sup> attributes to the S-Pd bond. HRTEM further confirmed the crystalline properties of Pd-S NCs (Fig. 1(f)), in which a crystal plane spacing of 0.174 nm was clearly observed assigned to the (103) plane of Pd<sub>4</sub>S phase. The HAADF-STEM image and corresponding elemental mappings demonstrate that Pd and S are uniformly distributed in the whole NCs (Fig. 1(g)).

To highlight the distinct structure of Pd-S NCs for catalysis, DSHP was firstly carried out. Both the Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs loaded on TiO<sub>2</sub> were used as catalysts (Fig. S2 in the ESM). The Pd NCs exhibit relatively poor activities for the direct  $H_2O_2$  production, where they exhibit low activities of only 35 mol·kg<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 2(a)).

In contrast, the Pd-S NCs reach impressive activity of 133.6 mol·kg<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>, indicating that the distinct structure significantly improves the activity of Pd for the direct H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. We also compared the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> selectivity and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> degradation, where the Pd-S NCs exhibit the highest selectivity (89.5%) and the lowest degradation activity (22 mol·kg<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup>) (Figs. 2(b) and 2(c)). The rate of H2O2 hydrogenation on different catalysts was also investigated, where the Pd-S NCs exhibit the lowest activity for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation (Fig. 2(d)). The turn over frequency (TOF) for Pd-S NCs was calculated to be 15,891 h<sup>-1</sup> by normalizing the surface atom number via CO stripping (Fig. S3 in the ESM), which is 3.6 times higher than that of Pd NCs (4,395  $h^{-1}$ ). It is worth noting that the H2O2 selectivity and productivity of Pd-S NCs are higher than many reported materials (Table S1 in the ESM). We also investigated the recyclability of Pd-S NCs under the same condition, where the catalytic performance did not show obvious activity loss in the four sequential cycles after the initial



**Figure 2** (a) H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> productivity, (b) selectivity, (c) degradation and (d) hydrogenation of different catalysts under optimal conditions. Reaction conditions:  $V_{\text{CH3OH}} = 7.0 \text{ mL}$ ,  $V_{\text{H2O}} = 3.0 \text{ mL}$ ,  $H_2/O_2/\text{Ar} = 0.18/0.4/3.42 \text{ MPa}$ , T = 0 °C, catalyst loading amount: 5 wt.%, catalyst weight: 5 mg, stirring: 800 rpm, and reaction time: 30 min.

run (Fig. S4 in the ESM). The additional characterizations of Pd-S NCs also showed the well-maintained morphology (Fig. S5(a) in the ESM) with only slight leaching of Pd (Fig. S5(b) in the ESM) after DSHP catalysis.

We then investigated the performance of Pd-S NCs towards electrocatalytic H2O2 synthesis. The 2e-ORR performance was evaluated with RRDE method at 1,600 rpm in O2-saturated 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. Both Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs were separately supported on commercial carbon (Fig. S6 in the ESM). Figure 3(a) shows the electrochemical result in 0.05 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The oxygen reduction currents were measured on a disk electrode and the H2O2 oxidation currents were measured on a Pt ring electrode. As shown in Fig. 3(a), Pd-S NCs reveals an onset potential of 0.72 V vs. RHE, close to the thermodynamic potential of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production ( $U_0^{02/H202} = 0.7$  V vs. RHE), and a high current density with respect to the Pd NCs, indicating that Pd-S NCs exhibit higher activity for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> selectivity can be calculated by RRDE experiments. As shown in Fig. 3(b), the  $H_2O_2$ selectivity of Pd-S NCs is more than 90% at a potential between 0.2 and 0.45 V (vs. RHE), while the Pd NCs exhibit a H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production selectivity of lower than 20%. Moreover, the number of transferred electrons (n) for Pd-S NCs was calculated to be around 2.2 from 0.2 to 0.45 V (vs. RHE), indicating a dominant 2e-O2 reduction pathway, while Pd NCs catalyzes the ORR predominately through a 4e<sup>-</sup> pathway (n = 3.7, Fig. 3(c)). All the results above have clearly revealed that the Pd-S NCs is also very promising towards electrocatalytic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis (Table S2 in the ESM).

The potential of producing  $H_2O_2$  during the 2e<sup>-</sup>-ORR process was tested in an electrochemical H-cell. Figure S7 in the ESM shows the accumulated amount of  $H_2O_2$ , normalized by the reaction time at the different applied potentials from 0.2 to 0.4 V in  $O_2$ -saturated 0.05 M  $H_2SO_4$ . It can be observed that the  $H_2O_2$ production rate increases with the negative shift of potential in the investigated potential range. The concentration of  $H_2O_2$  increases linearly as a function of reaction time, indicating the stable and continuous  $H_2O_2$  production. Remarkably, the production rate of  $H_2O_2$  is up to 12.5 mmol·L<sup>-1</sup> at 0.2 V (vs. RHE). To evaluate their ORR durability, we measured ORR polarization curves before and after durability test for 5,000 cycles, where the Pd-S NCs show only 8.6% selectivity loss after the durability test in 0.05 M  $H_2SO_4$ (Fig. S8 and Table S3 in the ESM).



Figure 3 (a) RRDE voltammograms of the Pd NCs and Pd-S NCs at 1,600 rpm in  $O_2$ -saturated 0.05 M  $H_2SO_4$  with the disk current density and ring current. The scan rate is 10 mV·s<sup>-1</sup>. Calculated (b) selectivity and (c) number of transferred electrons for the different catalysts at various potentials in a 0.05 M  $H_2SO_4$  electrolyte. The colour scheme in (a) applies to (b) and (c).

Inspired by the excellent performance of Pd-S NCs for  $H_2O_2$  production through DSHP and ORR, the production rate (36 µmoL·h<sup>-1</sup>), which is about 7.2 and 4.5 times higher than those of TiO<sub>2</sub> and Pd NCs, respectively, indicating the photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  production can also be promoted by the distinct performance of Pd-S NCs for photocatalytic  $H_2O_2$  production was also investigated. TiO<sub>2</sub> was selected as the support for both Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs. Figure S9 in the ESM shows the  $H_2O_2$  production rate of different catalysts structure of Pd-S NCs with independent Pd sites.

To understand the underlying catalytic mechanisms of different catalysts, XPS analyses for Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs were performed. As can be seen from Fig. 4(a), two strong peaks located at 335.9 and 341.3 eV of Pd NCs corresponding to Pdº 3d<sub>5/2</sub> and Pdº 3d<sub>3/2</sub>, respectively. Meanwhile, two weak shoulder peaks at 337.2 and 342.6 eV belong to Pd2+ 3d5/2 and Pd2+ 3d3/2, respectively. However, compared with Pd NCs, a slight shift of Pd<sup>0</sup> 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peak toward the lower values (335.6 and 341.0 eV) is observed for Pd-S NCs, indicating some electron transfer from S to Pd. The surface valance band spectra of Pd NCs and Pd-S NCs were also tested by XPS. The modulated electronic effect further tunes the binding strength of O-related intermediates, which eventually modulates the catalytic activity. As can be seen from Fig. S10 in the ESM, compared with Pd NCs, introducing S to Pd can upshift the gravity of d-band center (Pd-S NCs), which is beneficial to strengthen the adsorption of O-related intermediates.

To figure out the influence of unique structure on catalytic performance,  $O_2$  temperature-programmed desorption ( $O_2$ -TPD) measurements for PdS NCs and Pd NCs were performed. Both Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs show two peaks at 147.6 and 405.5 °C (Fig. 4(b)), which was attributed to the  $O_2$  intermediate and Pd-O bond stretching mode, respectively. The other peak for Pd NCs was located at 301.2 °C, which was assigned to O<sup>-</sup> intermediate. Compared with Pd NCs, the peak of O<sup>-</sup> at Pd-S NCs was not found, indicating the isolated Pd sites can inhibit O-O dissociation, thus enhancing the selectivity of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> synthesis. Moreover, diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) measurement was further employed to study the performance difference between Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs. Figure 4(c) shows the different CO adsorption patterns of Pd-S



**Figure 4** (a) XPS patterns of Pd 3d, (b)  $O_2$ -TPD profiles and (c) *in situ* DRIFTS of CO adsorption in Pd-S NCs and Pd NCs. (d) Schematic illustration of  $H_2O_2$  formation on Pd-S NCs.

and Pd NCs in DRIFTS spectra, which can be ascribed to the linear CO species on isolated Pd sites (2,069 cm<sup>-1</sup>) and bridged CO species on Pd facets (1,897 cm<sup>-1</sup>), respectively [51,52]. It has been accepted that inhibiting the dissociation of O–O bonds is crucial for  $H_2O_2$  synthesis. Therefore, the isolated Pd sites are more favorable for  $H_2O_2$  formation by inhibiting O–O dissociation (Fig. 4(d)).

To further understand the high selectivity of Pd-S NCs for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production comparing to Pd NCs, we performed DFT calculations. The Pd (111) and S-terminated Pd<sub>4</sub>S phase (110) surfaces are chosen for study in this part, because they are most stable in thermodynamics. As depicted in Fig. 5, we calculated the activation free energies required for O2\* and OOH\* dissociation and associative hydrogenation on two surfaces. As shown in Fig. 5(a), in the case of Pd (111), we can find that the dissociation steps are more favored for both of O2\* and OOH\* comparing to their respective associative hydrogenation steps. While for the Pd<sub>4</sub>S (110) surface (Fig. 5(b)), it shows completely opposite results that the associative hydrogenation steps become much more preferred. It is consistent with the experimental measurements that the Pd-S NCs have high selectivity for  $H_2O_2$ , and the  $O_2$  is inclined to be fully reduced on the surface of Pd NCs. To understand the significant difference between Pd (111) and Pd\_S phase (110) at the atomic level, we analyzed the structures of transition states for ORR. From Fig. 5 and Figs. S11-S13 in the ESM, we can find that the S atoms on Pd<sub>4</sub>S phase (110) surface isolate the active sites of Pd, and a direct consequence is that the O\* stays on the top site of Pd in the transition states of dissociation steps, which is energetically unfavorable. By contrast, the energies of transition states for the dissociation steps on Pd (111) can be lowered by the neighboring Pd atoms. Therefore, we can conclude that the difference in the atom composition and arrangement is the key factor for the different ORR mechanisms on the surfaces of Pd (111) and Pd<sub>4</sub>S phase (110).

### 4 Conclusions

In summary, we have revealed that Pd-S NCs with atomically isolated Pd sites can be adopted as highly robust and versatile catalysts for the synthesis of  $H_2O_2$  for the first time. In the DSHP, Pd-S NCs have achieved the excellent activity of 133.6 mol·kg<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup>·h<sup>-1</sup> and selectivity (89.5%) and negligible  $H_2O_2$ degradation. As the ORR electrocatalysts and photocatalytic catalysts, Pd-S NCs can also exhibit promising activity toward  $H_2O_2$  production. Simultaneously, they have exhibited enough



Figure 5 Energetic pathways for  $H_2O_2$  synthesis of (a) Pd (111) and (b) Pd<sub>4</sub>S (110).

capacity to maintain satisfactory stability with slight activity decay for the  $H_2O_2$  production. Detailed mechanism investigation proved that the high electron density of Pd atom enhances the adsorption and activation of  $O_2$ , which is beneficial for improving  $H_2O_2$  production rate. In addition, the presence of S in Pd-S NCs contributes to the formation of isolated Pd atoms, thus boosting the  $H_2O_2$  selectivity and reducing its degradation. The present effort in this work demonstrates a new class of trifunctional Pdbased nanocatalysts with excellent performance for  $H_2O_2$  synthesis and beyond.

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