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## Q1 Correlating Structure and Function of Metal Nanoparticles for Catalysis

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#### ARTICLE INFO ABSTRACT 6 7 Available online xxxx This paper summarizes several studies correlating the structure and function of nanoparticle catalysts. Three 16 8 types of alloy nanoparticles are considered, random alloy, core@shell and alloy-core@shell structures. In the 17 Keywords: first two cases, the focus is to build theoretical models to understand previous experimental results. In the latter 18 10 Nanoparticle case, calculations play a greater role in leading the development of nanoparticle catalysts. We demonstrate that 19 11 Structure iteration between theory and experiment can facilitate an understanding of nanoparticle catalysts and reduce the 20 12Function time and effort involved in the design of new catalysts. 21Alloy $\frac{13}{22}$ © 2015 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. Catalysts 15Core-shell 26

### 27 1. Introduction

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The science and technology of catalysis is particularly important at 28this time due to the energy and environmental challenges facing society. 29 Research in the 1990s, showing surprising activity of Au nanoparticles, 30 has largely motivated a search for new catalytic materials on the nano-31 scale with properties that are different from their bulk counterparts. [1] 32 Another significant factor in the development of new catalysts has been 33 the growth of computing power and improvements in theoretical 34 methods to help understand experiments at the atomic scale and to pro-35 36 vide guidelines for catalyst design. Experiments, demonstrating the 37 high activity of nanoparticle catalysts, have inspired the development of theoretical methods for calculating reaction mechanisms and screen-38 ing for new catalysts. Iterating between theory and experiment is a 39 promising strategy for understanding nanoparticle catalysis and reduc-40 ing the cost of the development cycle for new catalysts. This paper 41 42reviews some of our recent theoretical studies of multi-metallic nanoparticles catalysis, and shows how, with a close coupling to experiment, 43we are able to refine our models and test our predictions. 44

45Dendrimer-encapsulated nanoparticles (DENs) provide an excellent model system which can be synthesized and characterized at the atomic 4647scale for direct comparison with theory. DENs are synthesized by sequestering metal ions within the interior of, for example, 48 poly(amidoamine) (PAMAM) dendrimers, followed by chemical reduc-49tion of the metal-ion/dendrimer complex with a reducing agent such as 5051borohydride. [2-5] Two features of DENs make them a good model sys-52tem for correlating theory and experiment. First, their size, composition,

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.susc.2015.03.018 0039-6028/© 2015 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. and structure can be precisely controlled. [6,7] Second, the dendrimers 53 stabilize the encapsulated nanoparticles and provide a handle for 54 linking them to an electrode surface, but they do not interfere signifi-55 cantly with reactions on the particle surface. [8] 56

Fig. 1 illustrates the synthetic routes to form random alloy [9,7, 57 10–12], core-shell [13–16], and alloy-core@shell DENs [17]. Random 58 alloy DENs are prepared by a co-complexation method, where two 59 types of metal cations are reduced simultaneously to form an alloy par- 60 ticle. Core@shell nanoparticles are produced by a sequential reduction 61 or underpotential deposition (UPD) of a shell metal onto the core. 62 Galvanic exchange, which is also known as redox displacement, is an 63 elegant technique which can then be used to replace reactive elements 64 in the DENs with more noble ones, [18] increasing the variety of shells 65 that are available for the DENs synthesis. 66

Alloy nanoparticles have a broad range of applications for many 67 catalytic processes. In this paper we focus on the oxygen reduction re- 68 action (ORR). The ORR is the cathode reaction of proton-exchange 69 membrane fuel cells. It involves at least two elementary processes, 70 O2 dissociation and the subsequent removal of the dissociated species 71 by further reduction to H<sub>2</sub>O. ORR activity can be measured experi-72 mentally using electrochemical techniques, including cyclic voltamm-73 etry (CV) and rotating disk voltammetry (RDV). Theoretically, the 74 ORR activity of a surface is understood to correlate with the O binding 75 energy. Pioneering work by Nørskov and co-workers have established 76 a volcano-shaped correlation between the O binding energy and ORR 77 activity. [20,21] On the strong-binding side of the volcano, oxygen 78 species over-bind to the catalyst surface and limit the kinetics of prod-79 uct formation. On the weak-binding side of the volcano the reaction is 80 limited by oxygen dissociation and adsorption. Pt offers the optimal 81 tradeoff of the pure metals and the peak of the volcano corresponds 82

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Fig. 1. Routes to synthesize different metallic DENs, including: (a) random alloy, (b) core@shell via sequential reduction, (c) core@shell and (d) alloy-core@shell via underpotential deposition and subsequent galvanic exchange.

to an oxygen binding energy which is slightly weaker than on a
Pt(111) surface. The Underlying reason that oxygen binding is a
good reactivity descriptor is that there is a Brønsted-Evans-Polanyi



**Fig. 2.** The saddle point energy for oxygen dissociation on Pd-shelled particles and singlecrystal surfaces plotted as a function of O binding energy. The linear trend is a BEP relationship. Particles with barriers and binding energies near Pt(111) are promising catalysts for the ORR. Reproduced with permission from Ref. [19].

(BEP) correlation between the binding and transition state energies, 86 so that a single descriptor can describe both limits. In Fig. 2, Tang *et.* 87 *al.* show the BEP relationship between the O<sub>2</sub> dissociation barrier 88 and O binding energy for a 79 atom Pd-shelled nanoparticle (NP79) 89 and single-crystal (111) transition metal surfaces. [19] Thus a similar 90 trade off between the dissociation barrier and weak product binding 91 is expected for ORR on (111) facets of small size nanoparticles. 92

In the following, we consider several nanoparticle alloys and seek to 93 find structures with oxygen binding energies, and hence ORR activities, 94 that approach or exceed that of Pt. 95

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### 2. Random Alloy Nanoparticles

The random alloy structure is one of the most conventional forms of 97 bimetallics, where two elements are randomly or nearly randomly dis-98 persed in the material. Random alloy DENs can be synthesized by the 99 aforementioned co-reduction method shown in Fig. 1(a). A number of 100 random alloys DENs, including Pd/Au, Pd/Cu, Pd/Pt and Au/Ag, in the 101 size range of 1–2 nm have been successfully synthesized. [11,10,7,12, 102 9], The catalytic properties of a random alloy nanoparticle can be 103 tuned by adjusting the ratio of the component elements. Studies on 104 large particles (which behave similar to bulk) have revealed that adding 105 small amounts of metals which bind oxygen strongly (e.g. Co, Ni and 106 Cu) can lower the oxygen binding to more noble metals (Pt or Pd) and 107 improve their ORR activity. [22–25] Download English Version:

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