

## Final Technical Report

DOE grant DE-FG02-99ER15003 "Model Catalysis by Size-Selected Cluster Deposition"

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## I. Introduction

This grant started in 1999, and progress reports have been filed annually, with more detailed annual reports filed tri-annually. This report will focus on the results obtained in the past 5 years.

**Goals:** Supported catalysts are involved in ~20% of the US GDP, and improved understanding of the factors that control catalyst and electrocatalyst activity would be valuable in understanding catalytic mechanisms and designing improved new catalysts. This project has taken advantage of unique instrumentation, developed partially with DOE support, that allows preparation of model catalysts with size-selected metal clusters deposited on well-characterized planar supports in ultra-high vacuum (UHV). These catalysts can then be studied *in situ* without air exposure, allowing detailed studies of their physical and chemical properties, including catalysis under both gas-surface and aqueous electrochemical conditions. The work, therefore, has focused on determining the effects of catalytic site size on activity and product branching. In addition, we have searched for size-dependent correlations between fundamental cluster physical properties and activity or selectivity for the catalytic reactions. When such correlations are found, they reveal what factors control activity and selectivity.

## II. Experimental Approach

### A. Cluster deposition and UHV surface science capabilities:

The experiments were performed using the instrument shown in Fig. 1, consisting of a mass-selected ion deposition beamline (top of figure), connected to an ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) deposition/analysis chamber (bottom; pressure  $\sim 10^{-10}$  Torr). Operating procedures are described in several papers.<sup>1-7</sup> Briefly, clusters are generated using a laser vaporization source operating at 30 Hz, and a magnetron sputtering/gas aggregation source is also available. Cluster ions are collected by a series of quadrupole ion guides, and passed through differential pumping stages to separate the cluster ions from the large flow of helium gas in the source. The beamline includes a bend to allow co-axial injection of the vaporization laser, and prevent neutrals exiting the source from reaching the sample. The beam is passed through a quadrupole mass filter to select the cluster size and composition.

A final quadrupole guides the mass-selected clusters into the main UHV chamber, where they are deposited through a 2 mm diameter mask onto a planar substrate, positioned  $\sim 200$   $\mu\text{m}$  behind the mask. Deposition current is integrated to determine the cluster coverage. To allow study of size effects, samples are prepared with identical coverage of metal, deposited in the form of different size clusters. In most of the example results given below, the metal coverage was equivalent to 0.1 of a close-packed monolayer, with samples differing only in what size cluster was deposited. Deposition has typically been done at 1 eV/atom energy, based on studies where sample properties were found to change only for energy above 3 - 5 eV/atom.<sup>8,9</sup>

Deposition supports have typically been either oxide single crystals or thin films for UHV studies, and for the electrochemistry studies we used glassy carbon wafers or indium-tin oxide (ITO) thin films. The support is mounted to the bottom of a small cryostat, with provisions for both resistive and e-beam heating for temperature control from  $\sim 120$  K to  $>2200$  K. The main UHV chamber also has facilities for support cleaning/annealing and growth of epitaxial films, for *in situ* characterization by x-ray and UV

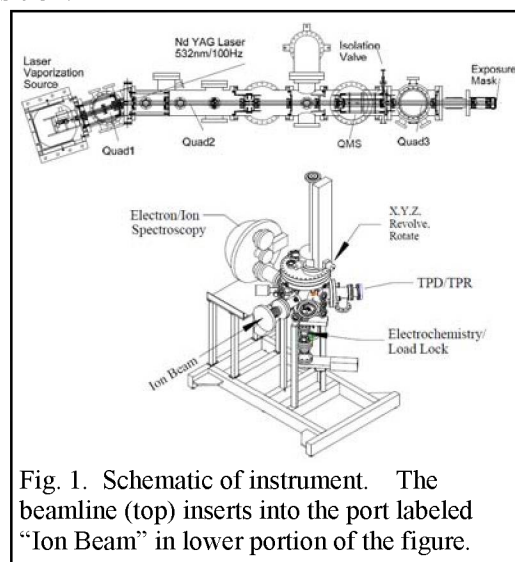


Fig. 1. Schematic of instrument. The beamline (top) inserts into the port labeled "Ion Beam" in lower portion of the figure.

photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, UPS), low energy ion scattering spectroscopy (ISS), and for mass spectrometric probing of adsorbate binding and reactions under gas-surface conditions. XPS probes the top several nanometers of the sample, and provides insight into the electronic environment of the metal clusters, and how it is affected by binding of adsorbates. UPS gives corresponding information about valence energy levels. ISS is sensitive to the identity and relative abundance of each type of atom in the top-most layer of the sample. In combination with XPS, ISS provides insight into cluster morphology, and is also useful for monitoring sintering of the clusters. The mass spectrometer is differentially pumped, and has both pulsed and continuous gas inlets aimed at the sample. Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) provides insight into the density and energetics of adsorbate binding sites, and in conjunction with ISS (temperature-dependent ISS), gives information about adsorbate binding sites.<sup>1, 5</sup> Analogous temperature-programmed reaction (TPR) studies probe the activity, product branching, and energetics for reactions. Experiments where the sample is exposed to continuous or millisecond pulsed flows of reactants at fixed or ramped surface temperature, allow measurement of reactions as a function of reactant flux, and under conditions where one or more reactant does not stick.<sup>10-12</sup>

### B. *In situ* electrochemistry:

The bottom of the main UHV chamber has a triple differentially pumped seal assembly, to which we can attach any one of several antechambers, pumped by a small turbo and TSP, with base pressure in the mid- $10^{-10}$  Torr range. When the sample is in the antechamber, it is isolated, allowing high pressure operations like film growth or electrochemistry with no effect on the main chamber vacuum. To enable electrochemical study of size-selected electrodes to be performed with minimal perturbation from adventitious adsorbates, we developed, with DOE support, an *in situ* UHV-compatible electrochemical cell (Fig. 2) which is housed in the antechamber shown in Fig. 3.<sup>13, 14</sup> One compartment of the cell contains a Pt mesh counter electrode, another contains an Ag/AgCl reference electrode, and the third is open at one end, allowing it to be sealed via an o-ring to the working electrode, surrounding the 2 mm spot of deposited clusters.

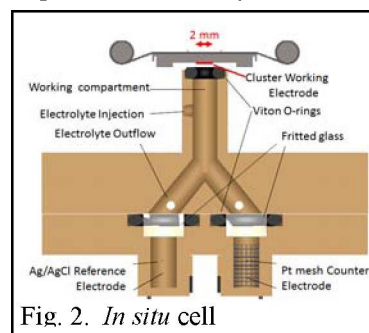


Fig. 2. *In situ* cell

Using Pt clusters as an example, a typical electrochemistry protocol begins with loading a fresh electrode onto the sample holder in the antechamber, and baking the antechamber at 400 K and  $10^{-8}$  Torr overnight. The electrode is then pulled into the main chamber and cleaned by sputtering and/or annealing in UHV as appropriate for the electrode type. XPS is used to check for contamination, and then a particular size  $Pt_n$  is deposited in a 2 mm spot on the electrode, with deposition current used to control the  $Pt_n$  coverage precisely. XPS is then used to characterize the as-deposited  $Pt_n$  electrode. (UPS, ISS, and gas adsorption experiments can be done as well, but those are done on separate samples). The electrode is then lowered into the antechamber, which is pressurized to just above 1 atm with UHP argon. The electrochemical cell is sealed to the electrode surrounding the cluster spot, and then electrolytes are pumped into the cell, and a potentiostat is used to study electrocatalytic activity, typically by measuring cyclic voltammograms (CVs). After completion of electrochemistry, the antechamber and cell are cleaned, and a new electrode is loaded to prepare for the next day's work.

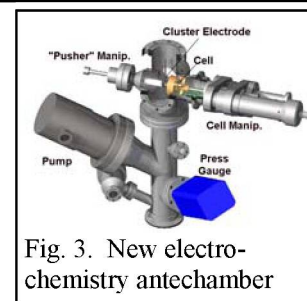


Fig. 3. New electrochemistry antechamber

The electrochemical cell is sealed to the electrode surrounding the cluster spot, and then electrolytes are pumped into the cell, and a potentiostat is used to study electrocatalytic activity, typically by measuring cyclic voltammograms (CVs). After completion of electrochemistry, the antechamber and cell are cleaned, and a new electrode is loaded to prepare for the next day's work.

### III. Experiments reported in the last five years of the grant (complete list below):

All papers listed in the text acknowledged DOE support from this grant. Papers cited by superscript numbers refer to the bibliography section, and may or may not have been supported by this grant.

#### 1. Surface Science Experiments:

**Characterizing Reactivity:** In 2009 we published a paper (*Surf. Sci.* 603 (2009) 2764-77) in which we showed that the oxygen affinity of  $Pd_n$  clusters deposited on alumina films grown on NiAl(110) is anticorrelated with the Pd 3d binding energy (BE) measured by XPS. Unfortunately, because the alumina film that grows on NiAl(110) is too thin to act as an O atom diffusion barrier, it was not possible to study oxidation chemistry catalyzed by the Pd clusters.

To allow such studies, we switched to studying Pd clusters deposited on single crystal  $TiO_2(110)$ ,

and in a paper the same year (*Science* 326, (2009) 826) we reported the first observation of a strong anti-correlation between electron BEs and activity for a chemical reaction - CO oxidation catalyzed by Pd<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>(110). Fig. 4 compares activity vs. deposited cluster size (left axis), with shifts in the Pd 3d BE (right axis – inverted scale), relative to the bulk Pd BE, with an estimated correction for final state charging. This result basically says that catalysts in which the Pd 3d BE is particularly low are particularly active. As shown below we have now seen similar anti-correlations between metal BEs and activity for oxidation catalysis in several other systems, including two involving electrocatalysis.

**Characterizing adsorbate binding energies and sites:** To help elucidate the mechanism leading to the anti-correlation between BEs and activity, it is useful to understand how the reactants bind to the surface. Fig. 5 shows TPD of CO from Pd<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> (*J. Chem. Phys.* 136, 204705 (2012)). The feature below 180 K is assigned to a small amount of CO desorbing from TiO<sub>2</sub> defect sites. The two higher temperature features are seen only when Pd<sub>n</sub> are present, and therefore represent CO desorbing from two Pd-associated sites with quite different desorption energies ( $E_{des}$ ). The solid lines are simulations to the spectra, from which we can say that the ~220 K feature has  $E_{des}$  in the range from 0.5 to 0.8 eV, while the ~430 K feature has  $E_{des}$  from ~1.1 to 1.4 eV. The paper also reported TD-ISS studies which revealed that CO desorbing from sites on top of the clusters is responsible for the higher binding energies, while low binding energies are associated with CO desorbing from sites around the cluster periphery. The combination of TPD and ISS allows us to determine the energetics and qualitative nature of the binding sites, but cannot determine the binding geometry in detail. Fortunately, Liu (BNL chemistry) carried out a high level DFT study of CO binding to Pd<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>15</sup> Among other results, she found that CO binds most strongly in bridging sites on top of the clusters, but that there are sites with about half the adsorption energy at the cluster periphery, in beautiful agreement with the TD-ISS observations.

**Valence spectroscopy:** We also studied the effects of cluster size and CO and O<sub>2</sub> binding, on the valence structure of Pd<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>. Typical raw data near the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ) is shown in Fig. 6, for TiO<sub>2</sub>, Pd<sub>7</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>, and CO-saturated Pd<sub>7</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>. Note the presence of a small peak just below  $E_F$  for TiO<sub>2</sub>, due to the presence of oxygen vacancies and other defect states. The sharp rise below 3 eV is the onset of the O 2p band of the TiO<sub>2</sub>. In the energy range between  $E_F$  and the O 2p band, DOS associated with the Pd clusters can be seen, and the onset energy is size dependent, shifting closer to  $E_F$  with increasing size, to ~0.05 eV below  $E_F$  for Pd<sub>25</sub>. There are also significant

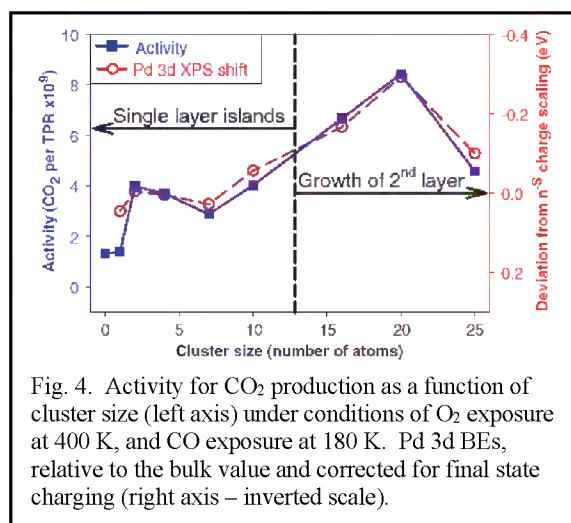


Fig. 4. Activity for CO<sub>2</sub> production as a function of cluster size (left axis) under conditions of O<sub>2</sub> exposure at 400 K, and CO exposure at 180 K. Pd 3d BEs, relative to the bulk value and corrected for final state charging (right axis – inverted scale).

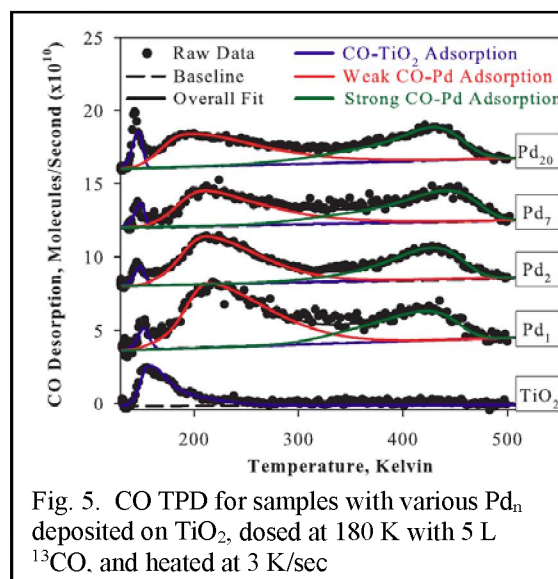


Fig. 5. CO TPD for samples with various Pd<sub>n</sub> deposited on TiO<sub>2</sub>, dosed at 180 K with 5 L <sup>13</sup>CO, and heated at 3 K/sec

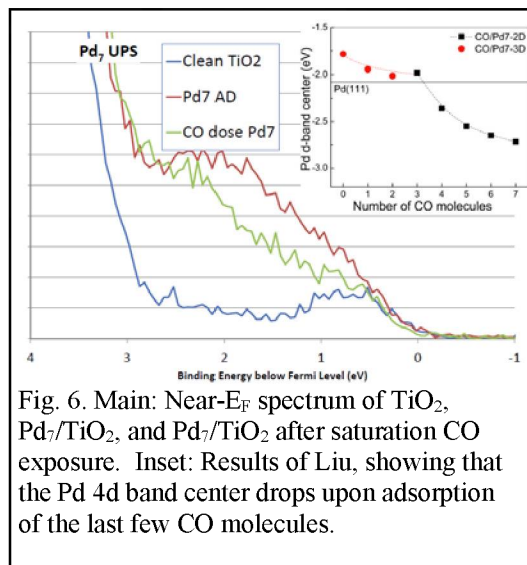


Fig. 6. Main: Near- $E_F$  spectrum of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Pd<sub>7</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>, and Pd<sub>7</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> after saturation CO exposure. Inset: Results of Liu, showing that the Pd 4d band center drops upon adsorption of the last few CO molecules.

shifts from adsorption of CO and O<sub>2</sub>.

Liu's results (inset) suggested an explanation for the effect of CO adsorption, but O<sub>2</sub> adsorption had an unexpectedly small effect on the near-E<sub>F</sub> DOS. We collaborated with Shiv Khanna's group on a joint paper that developed new computational methods to distinguish the effects of orbital hybridization, cluster-support electron transfer, and photoemission final state, on the measured binding energies for both valence and core levels (*J. Phys. Chem. C*, 119 (2015) 6033-6046). A second joint paper discussing adsorbate effects on binding energies is under revision for *J. Phys. Chem. C*. Theory is helpful in understanding details of the experiments, and in addition to the work by the Liu<sup>15</sup> and Khanna groups,<sup>16-20</sup> we have benefited from theoretical studies from the groups of Alexandrova,<sup>21-23</sup> and Hammer.<sup>24</sup> Providing data that is amenable to theoretical treatment is one motivation for this kind of work.

**Additional reactivity – property correlation studies:** To assess support effects on the chemistry, and on the relation between binding energies and activity, we also examined reactions catalyzed by Pd<sub>n</sub>/alumina, using thin alumina films grown on Ta(110) and Re(0001). A study of CO oxidation over Pd<sub>n</sub>/alumina/TiO<sub>2</sub>(110) was published as *Faraday Discuss.*, 162 (2013) 323–340. In that study, we characterized the effects of alumina film thickness on CO oxidation activity, and on the core levels of Pd, Ta, Al, and O, all of which shift with film thickness, up to ~4 nm, then become thickness-independent. CO oxidation activity was measured as a function of size for Pd<sub>n</sub> on ~4.7 nm alumina films, with the result that activity was two to five times higher than for Pd<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> under the same conditions. We also reported (special issue of *Int. J. Mass Spectrom.* 377 (2014) 263–277) an analogous study of Pd<sub>n</sub> deposited on alumina grown on Re (0001), at high temperatures, which resulted in a well ordered film,<sup>25, 26</sup> but also in ~2% Re incorporation into the film, as seen by ISS Re-doping of the alumina. CO oxidation activity for these systems is also anticorrelated with Pd electronic binding energies, and in addition, activity for Pd<sub>n</sub>/alumina was found to be highly stable in repeated experiments (unlike Pd/TiO<sub>2</sub>). It is known that dopant atoms in films can help anchor clusters with respect to diffusion,<sup>27</sup> and that appears to be the case here. UPS was also used to measure size-dependent shifts in the valence (i.e., Pd 4d) band, which also are anti-correlated with the activity.

## 2. Size-Selected Electrochemistry:

The effort in recent years focused on size-selected electrochemistry, so our DOE-supported results in this area are reviewed in somewhat more detail.

**a. Pt<sub>n</sub>/glassy carbon in acidic electrolyte:** (*J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 135 (2013) 3073–3086). The goal was to study size effects on the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) catalyzed by Pt<sub>n</sub> on glassy carbon electrodes (GCEs), however, we also found something more interesting. We used glassy carbon because it is a commonly used electrode material that is inert at low potentials under ORR conditions. The experiments were done using the *in situ* method described above. All samples had Pt<sub>n</sub> deposited in a 2 mm diameter spot, with loading equivalent to ~9.5% of a Pt monolayer. After completion of electrochemical experiments, the samples were removed for optical microscopy.

Fig. 7 compares CVs for Pt<sub>7</sub>/GCE to those measured for a GCE with 5 to 10 nm Pt particles prepared by solution deposition and annealing in H<sub>2</sub> ("Pt<sub>nano</sub>"). The CVs were run in both N<sub>2</sub>-purged (black) and O<sub>2</sub>-

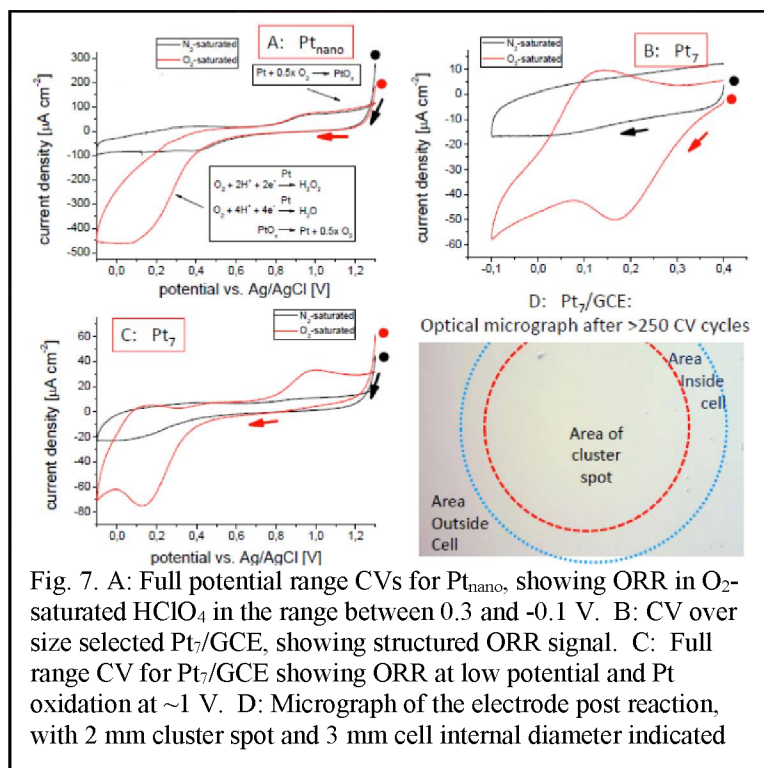
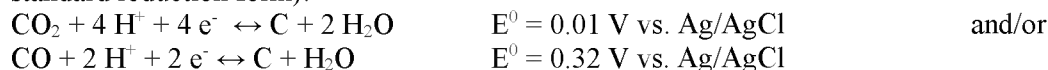


Fig. 7. A: Full potential range CVs for Pt<sub>nano</sub>, showing ORR in O<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub> in the range between 0.3 and -0.1 V. B: CV over size selected Pt<sub>7</sub>/GCE, showing structured ORR signal. C: Full range CV for Pt<sub>7</sub>/GCE showing ORR at low potential and Pt oxidation at ~1 V. D: Micrograph of the electrode post reaction, with 2 mm cluster spot and 3 mm cell internal diameter indicated

saturated (red) 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> solutions, and potentials are given with respect to Ag/AgCl. For O<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub>, the Pt<sub>n</sub> CV (Frame A) is dominated by strong ORR signal between -0.1 and 0.3 V. In both O<sub>2</sub>- and N<sub>2</sub>-purged cases, the Pt<sub>n</sub> sample shows the expected Pt redox (~0.9 V) and hydride adsorption and desorption peaks (-0.1 to 0.2 V), although they are hard to see because the ORR peak is so much larger.

For the Pt<sub>7</sub>/GCE sample, we first examined CVs in a narrow potential range (frame B), avoiding scanning through the Pt redox potential, and then CVs over the full range (Frame C). ORR at the Pt<sub>7</sub> clusters is clearly seen, qualitatively similar to that seen for Pt<sub>n</sub>. The Pt<sub>7</sub> CVs do show some resolved structure, which is presumably washed out in the Pt<sub>n</sub> results because of the particle size distribution. The CVs were unchanged over 40 repetitions in both O<sub>2</sub>- and N<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub>. The peak ORR current density is ~75 μA/cm<sup>2</sup>, which is ~6 times lower than that observed for Pt<sub>n</sub>, which is unsurprising given that the Pt loading in the Pt<sub>7</sub> sample was ~10 times lower. Finally, frame D shows a post-reaction micrograph taken in near-specular illumination, with the 2mm cluster spot and the ~3 mm electrolyte-exposed area indicated. There was no visible damage.

In contrast, many of the small clusters behave very differently, as exemplified by data for Pt<sub>4</sub>/GCE in Fig. 8. The potential range is the same as in frame B of Fig. 7, but it can be seen that the current is positive, ~1000 times larger than seen for Pt<sub>7</sub>, and also rather noisy and decaying with time during the scans. The “noise” is the effect of bubbles forming on the small electrodes, and the decay also results from gas displacing electrolyte. Clearly, instead of ORR, some very efficient oxidation reaction occurred, generating copious gas. The bottom of Fig. 8 shows that this reaction badly damaged the electrode, but only in the 2 mm central region where the Pt clusters were deposited. The total reaction time for this electrode was ~50 times shorter than that for the Pt<sub>7</sub>/GCE shown in Fig. 7, i.e., the damage rate was high, and consistent with the high currents observed for Pt<sub>4</sub>/GCE. Similar effects were observed in experiments in 0.1 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The conclusion is that the GCE was oxidized by water, catalyzed by Pt<sub>n</sub> (reaction written in standard reduction form):



This “carbon corrosion” reaction is observed for many carbon electrodes, and is a significant degradation mechanism, but normally is rapid only at high overpotentials. Our results show that small Pt<sub>n</sub> catalyze carbon oxidation with essentially no overpotential, raising the possibility that even small concentrations of such clusters might contribute to electrode degradation.

Fig. 9 shows one of the most interesting results of this study. This plots the energy of the Pt 4f<sub>7/2</sub> core level as a function of cluster size, measured prior to electrochemistry. It can be seen that the values generally decrease with size, converging towards the bulk value (71.2eV), as expected from final state screening/charging considerations. Superimposed on the overall trend are oscillations, which indicate that there are considerable size-to-size variations in the electronic properties of the clusters. The oscillations are clearly related to the activity of the Pt<sub>n</sub>/GCE for carbon oxidation, i.e., Pt<sub>n</sub> with higher-than-trend BEs, (Pt<sub>7</sub>, Pt<sub>10</sub>, Pt<sub>11</sub>) do not efficiently catalyze carbon oxidation by water, while the rest of the small Pt<sub>n</sub> do.

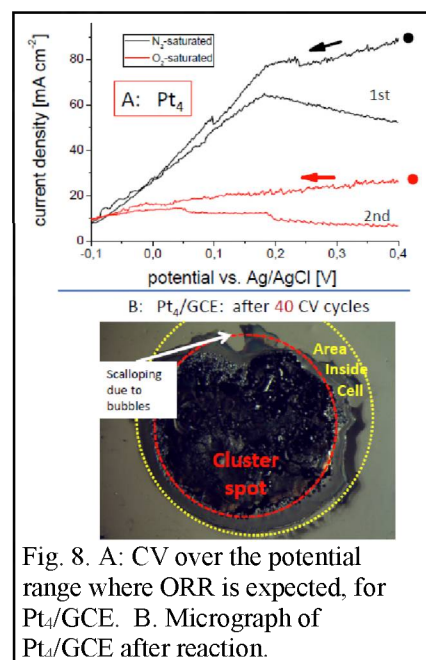


Fig. 8. A: CV over the potential range where ORR is expected, for Pt<sub>4</sub>/GCE. B: Micrograph of Pt<sub>4</sub>/GCE after reaction.

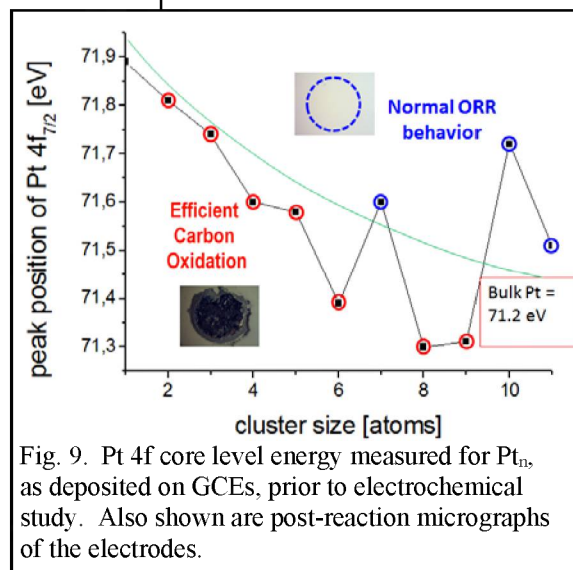


Fig. 9. Pt 4f core level energy measured for Pt<sub>n</sub>, as deposited on GCEs, prior to electrochemical study. Also shown are post-reaction micrographs of the electrodes.

This is a dramatic example of an anti-correlation between core level BE and activity *as an oxidation catalyst*. Here, the effects of cluster size on carbon electro-oxidation are visible with the naked eye! (Factor of >1000 variation in carbon oxidation activity).

**b. Ethanol oxidation at Pt<sub>n</sub>/ITO, n ≤ 14.** (*Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 17 (2015) 17601-17610). The ethanol oxidation reaction (EOR) has been studied extensively due to interest in developing direct alcohol fuel cells.<sup>28-39</sup> Platinum or its alloys are commonly used catalysts, because they can activate the CC bond to reach the energetically favorable CO<sub>2</sub> product, albeit not very efficiently. EOR is a complex reaction involving formation and reaction of multiple intermediates and products which compete for binding sites. EOR efficiency is influenced by the electronic and geometric properties of the surface, and can be modulated by alloying with Ru, Sn and other metals,<sup>30, 40, 41</sup> or by using different crystal planes of Pt.<sup>28, 29, 34</sup>

We studied the EOR under conditions similar to those used in the ORR study discussed above, i.e., N<sub>2</sub>-purged 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>, but with 1 vol % of ethanol added. To avoid competition from carbon oxidation, we did these experiments using ITO thin film electrodes. Fig. 10 shows CVs for Pt<sub>n</sub>/ITO, n ≤ 10. Note that for this and other electrochemical results below, the potentials have been converted to V vs. NHE (normal hydrogen electrode), which simply shifts the scale by 0.281 V compared to V vs. Ag/AgCl.

Three EOR peaks are clearly seen. On the positive-going sweep there are peaks at ~0.85 V and ~1.25 V, which we will refer to as the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> oxidation peaks. On the negative-going sweep, a “reactivation” peak appears at ~0.48 V. In addition to these EOR peaks, the onset of the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) and a peak for H<sub>2</sub> oxidation are observed near 0 V, and the onset of the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) is seen at ~1.5 V. The features are similar to what is seen for polycrystalline Pt (Pt<sub>poly</sub>) or for Pt<sub>nano</sub>/ITO and to results in the literature,<sup>29-34</sup> where vibrational spectroscopy, mass spectrometry and chromatography have been used to identify the reactions responsible. Our unique contribution is the ability to vary the cluster size.

All three EOR peaks increase substantially as size increases from Pt<sub>1</sub> to Pt<sub>4</sub>, then decrease almost back to zero as size increases to Pt<sub>8</sub>. The activity increases again to Pt<sub>10</sub>, and then there is a small decrease as the size increases to Pt<sub>14</sub>. Fig. 11 summarizes the EOR peak currents, normalized to the mass of Pt (1.46 × 10<sup>-9</sup> g), which is precisely known in our experiments. All three peaks show similar oscillations with cluster size, consistent with the raw CVs in Fig. 10. The figure also plots the Pt 4d<sub>3/2</sub> binding energies (BEs) measured for each sample after deposition. The BEs show large oscillations with cluster size, which are, again, strongly anti-correlated with the activities (note inverted scale).

There are several points to note:

1. EOR activity is sharply, and non-monotonically dependent on cluster size, and the sharp size dependence persists for at least 25 cycles through the Pt redox potential. Clearly, processes like sintering or dissolution are slow enough that the

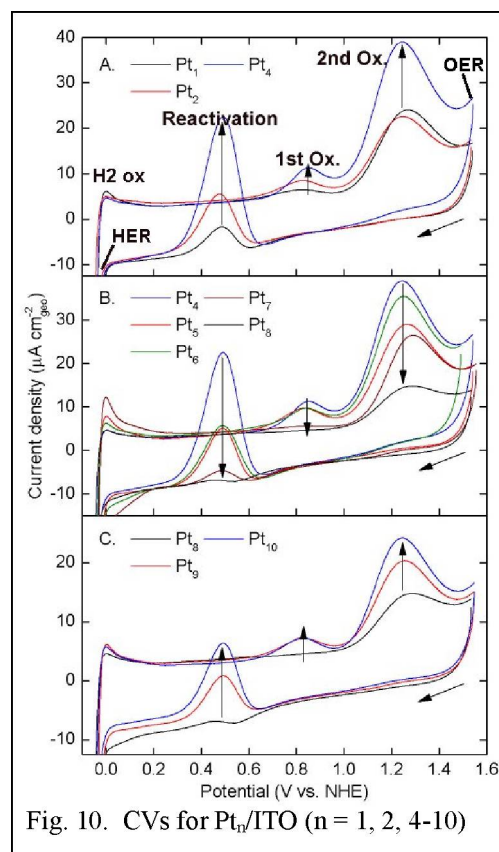


Fig. 10. CVs for Pt<sub>n</sub>/ITO (n = 1, 2, 4-10)

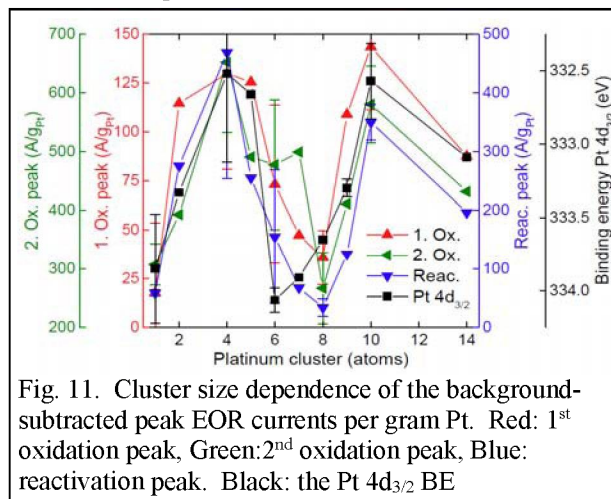


Fig. 11. Cluster size dependence of the background-subtracted peak EOR currents per gram Pt. Red: 1<sup>st</sup> oxidation peak, Green: 2<sup>nd</sup> oxidation peak, Blue: reactivation peak. Black: the Pt 4d<sub>3/2</sub> BE

initial size selection is preserved on this time scale.

2. EOR, HER, OER, and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation are observed even for the smallest cluster sizes.

3. The non-monotonic dependence on size suggests that some factor, other than simply the size of the binding sites available, is responsible for controlling EOR activity. The fact that the Pt BE is anticorrelated with activity shows that the controlling factor is Pt electronic structure.

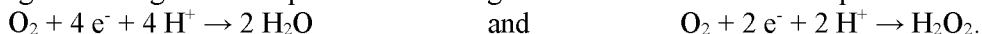
4. While the current densities are strongly dependent on cluster size, there is little effect of size on the peak potentials, other than a slight anti-correlation between activity and the potential of the 2<sup>nd</sup> oxidation peak.

We also examined the coverage dependence of EOR for Pt<sub>1</sub>, because there is evidence from STM,<sup>42, 43</sup> ion scattering,<sup>3, 10, 44, 45</sup> and reactivity studies,<sup>5</sup> that noble metal atoms on oxides are more prone to sintering, compared to pre-formed, deposited clusters. Indeed, there is some evidence that Pt<sub>1</sub> sinters at higher coverages to make small clusters, although it appears that the number of clusters present is still small, i.e., even atoms remain largely un-sintered. Changes observed in EOR currents over time, during ~100 CV cycles, are discussed below.

**c. ORR at Pt<sub>n</sub>/ITO, n ≤ 14.** (*J. Phys. Chem. C*, 119 (2015) 11160–11170) This work was published in a special issue reporting highlights of the 2014 ISSPIC meeting in Japan. Briefly, ORR was studied under conditions identical to those used in the

Pt<sub>n</sub>/glassy carbon work mentioned above, but with inert ITO substrates. Fig. 12 compares typical CVs for Pt<sub>5</sub>/ITO to those measured for Pt<sub>nano</sub>/ITO (i.e., 5-10 nm Pt particles on ITO). (Small ORR currents are observed in the N<sub>2</sub>-purged CVs because the O<sub>2</sub>-saturated CVs were done first, and it is difficult to flush out all the electrolyte *in situ*). The ORR current density *per gram Pt* is ~10 times higher for Pt<sub>5</sub> than Pt<sub>nano</sub>, but this is expected because the clusters have all the Pt in the surface layer.

The more interesting observation is that for the small clusters, there are substantial peaks at high potential due to the hydrogen peroxide oxidation reaction (HPOR). This tells us something interesting about the product branching in ORR. The two reactions possible in ORR are:



As discussed by Katsounaros *et al.*,<sup>46</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> that is formed during ORR at low potentials is oxidized back to O<sub>2</sub> at high potentials, catalyzed by the oxidized Pt surface that forms above ~0.8 V. The much larger HPOR/ORR current ratio for Pt<sub>5</sub>/ITO, compared to Pt<sub>nano</sub>/ITO, indicates that the small clusters have a large branching ratio for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> formation during ORR. Fig. 13 shows how the HPOR/ORR ratio varies with size. The point at the far right is for Pt<sub>nano</sub>/ITO, and the ratio for polycrystalline Pt is similar. Note that the HPOR/ORR ratio is over 50% for Pt<sub>1</sub>, dropping to ~25% for Pt<sub>14</sub>, and ~3% for Pt<sub>nano</sub>. The trend is what might be expected if the physical size of the available binding sites controls the branching. For large clusters or nanoparticles, O<sub>2</sub> dissociation leads to formation of 2 H<sub>2</sub>O, but atoms or very small clusters may not have sites able to dissociate O<sub>2</sub>, thus leading to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The inability to dissociate O<sub>2</sub> could be a purely geometric effect, especially for the smallest clusters, however, the XPS results in Fig. 11 show that the electronic properties of the Pt<sub>n</sub>/ITO vary strongly with size, thus electronic effects may also be important.

As shown above, for both UHV CO oxidation, and for EOR and carbon electro-oxidation, the metal core level BEs were anti-correlated with activity. As discussed in our paper,<sup>14</sup> both initial and final state perspectives suggest that low BEs

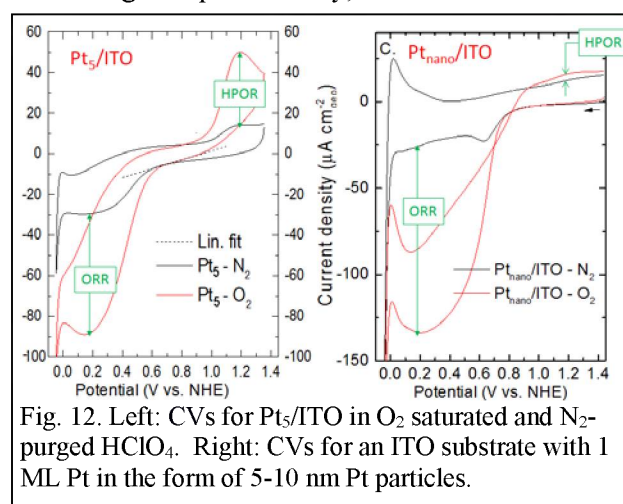


Fig. 12. Left: CVs for Pt<sub>5</sub>/ITO in O<sub>2</sub> saturated and N<sub>2</sub>-purged HClO<sub>4</sub>. Right: CVs for an ITO substrate with 1 ML Pt in the form of 5-10 nm Pt particles.

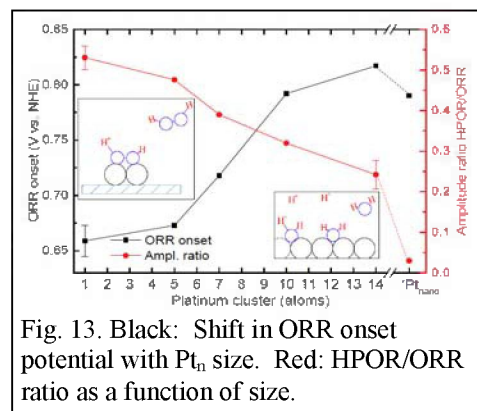


Fig. 13. Black: Shift in ORR onset potential with Pt<sub>n</sub> size. Red: HPOR/ORR ratio as a function of size.

reflect electron-rich metal centers, while high BEs indicate electron-poor clusters. The anti-correlation, therefore, provides the insight that high activity for oxidation catalysis is associated with electron-rich metal centers. This may seem counterintuitive for oxidation, however, the rate-limiting step is not the actual oxidation event, but rather activation of O<sub>2</sub>, CH and OH bonds in the reactants,<sup>39</sup> which may be driven by electron donation to antibonding orbitals.

#### IV. Summary

This grant enabled a number of studies of the effects of cluster size on catalytic activity under both UHV surface science and aqueous electrochemistry conditions. In nearly all systems examined, substantial effects of cluster size on activity were observed, and by carrying out spectroscopic and other surface science experiments on the model catalysts, it was possible to identify the factor(s) responsible for the cluster size effects, i.e., the factors that control the rate-limiting step.

#### V. List of publications acknowledging support from this grant

1. "Sintering, Oxidation, and Chemical Properties of Size-Selected Nickel Clusters on TiO<sub>2</sub> (110)", by Masato Aizawa, Sungsik Lee, and Scott L. Anderson, *J. Chem. Phys.* **117** (2002) 5001-11, DOI: 10.1063/1.1498477
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3. "CO oxidation on Au<sub>n</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts produced by size-selected cluster deposition" Sungsik Lee, Chaoyang Fan, Tianpin Wu, and Scott L. Anderson, *JACS (comm)* **126** (2004) 5682-3, DOI: 10.1021/ja049436v
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