Assembling Palladium and Cuprous Oxide Nanoclusters into Single Quantum Dots for the Electrocatalytic Oxidation of Formaldehyde, Ethanol, and Glucose


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Assembling Palladium and Cuprous Oxide Nanoclusters into Single Quantum Dots for the Electrocatalytic Oxidation of Formaldehyde, Ethanol, and Glucose

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ABSTRACT: To effectively manipulate the electronic structure of the catalysts, we present here a simple bottom-up synthesis protocol for agglomerating palladium and cuprous oxide ultrasmall nanoclusters into single nanoparticles, forming so-called quantum dot assemblies (QDAs). Our synthesis is based on the galvanic displacement of copper with palladium cations under O₂-free conditions, rendering the simultaneous and unique crystal growth of ~3 nm Cu₂O and Pd clusters. Such assemblies, comprising ultrasmall nanoconstituents, offer much more phase boundaries, where the interfacial electronic effect becomes prominent in catalysis. This is demonstrated in the electrocatalytic oxidation of formaldehyde, ethanol, and glucose. In all three cases, the QDA catalyst, despite its similar Pd loading, outperforms the monometallic palladium catalyst. Indeed, complementing the oxidation of formaldehyde, ethanol, and glucose. In all three cases, the QDA catalyst, despite its similar Pd loading, outperforms the monometallic palladium catalyst. Moreover, the QDA catalyst also shows a fivefold increased charge density at the Pd–Cu heterojunction and the decreased energy barrier of the formaldehyde oxidation on the QDA catalyst. Finally, we applied these catalysts in electroless copper deposition—an industrially relevant process for manufacturing printed circuit boards. The QDA catalysts gave uniform and robust copper wires at a rate that was three times faster than that of the monometallic Pd catalyst, showing their potential for real-life applications.

KEYWORDS: electronic structure, ultrasmall nanoparticles, synergistic effect, electrocatalyst, electroless deposition

1. INTRODUCTION

Engineering the topology of catalysts at the nanoscale is one of the most effective approaches for optimizing their performance. It allows the construction of hybrid systems comprising different components within the same nanostructure.1−3 Such assemblies can result in the formation of optimized active sites thanks to the physical and chemical interactions of constituent components. The synergistic effect is often prominent at the interface, where the electronic and geometric interactions start affecting one another.4−8 Thus, creating more of these boundaries can be beneficial for catalysis.

Intuitively, decreasing the size of the nanoclusters in the assemblies will create more interfaces. In particular, when the clusters become small enough to be considered as quantum dots (d < 3 nm, also called ultrasmall nanoparticles), quantum effects start influencing the catalytic properties significantly.9−13 There are various ways for making nanoclusters. Based on the pioneering work by LaMer and Dinégar,14 monodisperse nanoclusters are produced by controlling the different colloidal growth phases. Surfactants are typically used to influence these growth phases, offering control over the particle size, shape, and crystal structure. This can yield well-defined and highly active catalysts.15−18 Alternatively, one can also use physical methods such as atomic layer deposition or vapor phase deposition.19,20 These gas-based methods give even better control over the final catalyst structure.21−23 They are excellent for lab-scale catalyst synthesis and are often used for making model catalysts for fundamental studies. However, the high cost hinders their practical application in industry.

Notwithstanding the progress in nanocluster synthesis, hybridizing multiple types of nanoclusters to form quantum dot assemblies (QDAs) remains a difficult challenge. Now, motivated by the prospect of strengthening the interfacial electronic effect in such assemblies, we show that simple galvanic displacement is an effective approach for making QDAs. In the literature, this method is often used to grow conventional nanostructures such as core–shell, dumbbells,
nанотрубок, и наносфер.24–27 Их размерные параметры обычно превышают 50 нм. В результате преимущества конкурирующего роста Cu2O и Pd, мы достигли превышения роста двух типов частиц. Результаты квантовых точек Cu2O и Pd под 3 нм в диаметре, агрегировавшись в QDA с 10–25 нм. Спасибо нашему методу используют только воду как растворитель, без добавления никаких добавок, увеличивая возможности для промышленных применений.

2. РЕЗУЛЬТАТЫ И ОБСУЖДЕНИЕ
2.1. Синтетический подход и характеристика материалов. Геометрическая структура и синтез QDA Cu2O/Pd изображены на рис. 1. После получения Cu2O/Pd QDA, мы наблюдали эффекты, которые могут быть улучшены за счет введения Pd в Cu2O. В результате, удалось получить Cu2O/Pd QDA с хорошей стабильностью. Наше предположение заключалось в использовании низкой концентрации Pd, чтобы оптимизировать каталитическую активность. Наша гипотеза состояла в том, что минимальное использование Pd в Cu2O/Pd QDA позволяет снизить Pd в Cu2O и Pd, и напротив. Таким образом, мы получили QDA Cu2O/Pd, которые имеют хорошие каталитические свойства.

\[ \text{Cu}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + 2e^- \rightarrow 2\text{Cu}^{0} + 2\text{OH}^- \]
\[ E_0 = -0.360 \text{ V} \]  
(4)

Мы затем изменили размер и количество наночастиц в QDA Cu2O/Pd, чтобы оптимизировать их каталитическую активность. Наша гипотеза состояла в том, что минимальное использование Pd в Cu2O/Pd QDA позволяет снизить Pd в Cu2O и Pd, и напротив. Таким образом, мы получили QDA Cu2O/Pd, которые имеют хорошие каталитические свойства. Наша гипотеза состояла в том, что минимальное использование Pd в Cu2O/Pd QDA позволяет снизить Pd в Cu2O и Pd, и напротив. Таким образом, мы получили QDA Cu2O/Pd, которые имеют хорошие каталитические свойства.
palladium (Figure 2c, green and pink peaks, respectively). A palladium to copper ratio of 0.72:1 was determined in the Pd-Cu/C QDA using the Pd 3d and Cu 3p peaks (see Figure S2). As Cu 3p is closer in kinetic energy to Pd 3d than Cu 2p, the probing depths will be similar. This ratio is comparable with the theoretical one of 0.63:1 based on the synthetic procedure, which is also verified by the microscopy analysis (vide infra).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) studies of the Pd-Cu/C catalyst reveal that the QDAs, with the size between 10 and 25 nm, uniformly distributed on the carbon surface (see Figure 3a). A clear view of the metallic QDAs was obtained via high angle annular dark field-scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM, Figure 3b) imaging. All the QDAs contain both palladium and copper, as shown by the elemental mappings obtained using energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS, see Figure 3c). No nonmetallic species were observed. This confirms that Pd grows from Cu nanoparticles during the galvanic displacement. We also performed the EDS line scan of the QDAs at the nanoscale (Figure 3d). The scan profile in Figure 3e shows alternating signals for Cu and Pd, implying the formation of the QDA structure as illustrated in Figure 1. In particular, the size of all Cu and Pd domains is less than 3 nm, which corroborates the quantum-dot nature of both Cu2O and Pd particles. Since Cu is not in the metallic but oxide form, the direct bond formation between Cu and Pd is unlikely (see our simulation model below). We thus relied on high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) to understand the local structure and the interface of the cluster. The HRTEM micrograph shown in Figure 3f reveals that the particles are assemblies of multiple quantum dots, showing that Pd and Cu2O are strongly bound at the interface. The interplanar spacings in these nanoclusters are ~0.22 nm, corresponding to either Pd (111) or Cu2O (200) with a small lattice expansion.34,35

2.2. Catalytic Performance of QDAs and Mechanistic Studies. To examine the catalytic performance of the new structure, we used the Pd-Cu/C QDAs in three electro-oxidation examples: formaldehyde, glucose, and ethanol. These oxidations are important in a number of practical applications, such as in fuel cells, (bio)sensing, and wastewater treatment.36 The conversion of formaldehyde is also relevant in the ECD process. For the formaldehyde oxidation reaction, we used a classical 3-electrode setup with an alkaline electrolyte containing KOH, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), and formaldehyde. EDTA was added to simulate the environment of the ECD process (it is commonly added to ensure the stability of Cu2+ and the quality of the deposited layer). The Pd/C catalyst was tested in both the blank bath (formaldehyde-free) and formaldehyde bath (see Figure 4a; Figure 4. (a) CV curves of Pd/C and Cu/C in HCOH-free and HCOH bath; (b) comparison of linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves of Pd-Cu/C QDAs (solid lines) with the corresponding Pd/C (dashed lines) with the same Pd content in formaldehyde oxidation; (c) comparison of peak current density of different catalysts in formaldehyde oxidation; (d) CV curves of Pd/C and Pd-Cu/C for both glucose and ethanol oxidation; (e) schematic structural comparison of QDA with the conventional Pd catalyst with varying Pd ratios. Test conditions are specified in the Supporting Information. the bath compositions are given in the Supporting Information). No parasitic current from EDTA oxidation was observed in our potential range in the blank bath. The cyclic voltammetry (CV) curve in the formaldehyde bath shows an anodic peak in the forward scan at 0.1 V versus the saturated calomel electrode (SCE), which is attributed to the oxidation of formaldehyde. The peak at ~0.1 V in the backward scan originates from the oxidation of organic fragments, which is also documented in the electro-oxidation of other small organics.37 These peaks were not observed in the experiments in the blank bath. In contrast, when the Cu/C catalyst was tested, neither of these anodic peaks were observed. This inactivity was due to the surface oxidation of the Cu nanoparticles. To ensure that the reaction was carried out at the optimum temperature, we performed the CV at different temperatures. The highest oxidation current was observed at 45 °C as shown in Figure S3. This temperature was used in all subsequent experiments.

We then analyzed the catalytic performance of Pd-Cu/C QDAs with varying Pd/Cu mass ratios. Comparing with the corresponding monometallic Pd/C controls, the QDAs containing >1 wt % Pd loadings showed improved activity in the LSV curves. For example, the Pd-Cu/C QDA had a peak oxidation current density of 3.91 mA cm−2, whereas that for Pd/C was 2.34 mA cm−2 (see Figure 4b and c). The structural advantage of Pd-Cu2O QDAs was also valid in the glucose electro-oxidation performed in a 0.5 M KOH + 0.5 M glucose electrolyte. Two peaks are observed in the CV curve (Figure 4d, scan rate 50 mVs−1): a peak in the forward scan at ~0.23 V...
versus the SCE and the other one in the backward scan at −0.43 V versus the SCE. The former is attributed to the oxidation of glucose, while the latter is attributed to the oxidation of bound intermediates, which are not oxidized during the forward scan.[38] The peaks have a small positive shift (0.04 and 0.03 V for the forward and backward scan, respectively) for Pd/C. The peak current density for glucose oxidation of Pd−Cu/C is ~3 times higher than that of Pd/C (7.90 mACm⁻², 17.6 ACM⁻²mg⁻¹ vs 2.67 mACm⁻², 5.93 ACM⁻²mg⁻¹). A similar result was obtained in the ethanol oxidation reaction performed in 1.0 M ethanol and 1.0 M KOH electrolyte. The superior performance of QDA in the degradation of these small organic molecules emphasizes the importance of the interface between the Pd and Cu₂O domains.

We hypothesize that the catalytic advantages of QDAs come from the maximized interfacial electronic effect between Pd and Cu₂O quantum dots (see the illustration in Figure 1). Such an effect is prominent only when the size of Pd and Cu₂O dots is the same, maximizing the phase boundaries. When the Pd ratio decreases, this effect diminishes accordingly and the QDA will perform similar to pure Pd (1 wt % Pd). However, as demonstrated in Figure 4d, the low Pd²⁺ cation concentration in the galvanic displacement bath results in the formation of much less Pd nuclei, which subsequently undergo non-epitaxial and continuous growth. Therefore, nonuniformly dispersed, localized and large Pd dots are observed on the Cu particles (see Figure 4e). Hence, these QDAs perform worse than the corresponding Pd/C with well-distributed Pd nanoparticles.

To understand and verify the interfacial properties, we have constructed a Pd-Cu₂O QDA model and performed density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Figure 5a shows the optimized heterostructure containing a 46-atom Pd cluster on the Cu₂O (111) surface. This structure is thermodynamically favorable, as the interface has more interfacial bonds and less strain stress.[39] Because of the formation of the interfacial Pd–O and Pd–Cu bonds, charge accumulation at the boundary is observed. This has substantially changed the projected density of states (PDOS) in the interface (see Figure 5b). The d-band center of the QDA was upshifted to ~2.53 eV toward the Fermi level compared to ~2.75 eV of Cu₂O. The catalytic benefits of the optimized electronic structure are shown in the potential energy diagram, Figure 5c. We used the optimized Meerakker’s model[40] in alkaline media in which HCHO is in equilibrium with CH₂OOH⁻:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{HCHO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} & \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_2\text{(OH)}_2 \\
\text{CH}_2\text{(OH)}_2 + \text{OH}^- & \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_2\text{OOH}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O}
\end{align*}
\]

The elementary reactions are as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{CH}_2\text{OOH}^- + \text{OH}^- & \rightarrow \text{CH}_2\text{O}_2^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
\text{CH}_2\text{O}_2^{2-} + \text{e}^- & \rightarrow \text{COO}^- + \text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \\
\text{H} + \text{OH}^- & \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{e}^-
\end{align*}
\]

where eq 8 is the rate-determining step. The calculation indicates that the activation energy barrier of CH₂O₂ to COOH decreased by 0.21 eV when the catalytic surface is switched from Pd to the Pd−Cu₂O QDA model.

### 2.3. Industrial Application in Electroless Deposition

We then tested the performance of the Pd-Cu₂O QDA catalysts in ECD. This industrially relevant technique plates a surface with a copper layer for anticorrosion applications or PCB manufacturing.[41,42] The plating is performed in a bath containing metal ions and a reducing agent (eq 10). Although this reaction is autocatalytic, it must be initiated by a catalyst. The state-of-the-art Pd initiator is rather expensive, and replacing it with cheaper and more active materials is industrially important.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{M}^{n+} + \text{Red}^m & \rightarrow \text{M}^{n+m+x} + \text{Red}^{m-x}
\end{align*}
\]

In the traditional alkaline formaldehyde bath, the reduction of EDTA-stabilized Cu²⁺ ions proceeds through the adsorption of formaldehyde hydrate on the catalyst surface followed by anodic oxidation to formate (eq 11).[29] The electrons liberated from this process are transferred for cathodic Cu deposition (eq 12). The combination of both reactions gives the overall cell reaction (eq 13). The initiator catalyzes this reaction via facilitating the oxidation of formaldehyde.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{HCOO}^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 2e^- & \rightarrow \text{HCOH} + 3\text{OH}^- \\
\text{E} & = −1.070 \text{ V} \\
\text{[CuEDTA]}^{2-} + 2e^- & \rightarrow \text{Cu}^0 + \text{EDTA}^{4-} \\
\text{E} & = −0.216 \text{ V} \\
\text{HCOH} + 3\text{OH}^- + \text{Cu}^{2+} & \rightarrow \text{HCOO}^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{Cu}^0 \\
\text{E} & = +0.854 \text{ V}
\end{align*}
\]

We have shown that the Pd-Cu₂O QDAs are excellent catalysts for formaldehyde oxidation (vide supra). Yet, monitoring both the formaldehyde oxidation and copper reduction gives a much clearer picture. Thus, we first used the mixed potential theory to further analyze the activity of both Pd/C and Pd−Cu/C QDA catalysts in ECD. The mixed potential theory concludes that the maximum electrochemical reaction rate is achieved when both the anodic and cathodic reactions occur at the same rate, resulting in no buildup of electrons at the interface. The kinetics can be derived from the intersection between the two half-reaction Tafel curves. Here, we measured the Tafel curves for copper reduction and formaldehyde oxidation for both the Pd/C catalyst and Pd−Cu/C QDA (Figure 6a, b). For Pd/C, the curves intersect at ~0.41 V vs SCE with a current density of 0.28 mACm⁻². In contrast, the Pd−Cu/C QDA intersects at a lower potential (~0.52 V vs SCE), while showing a substantially increased current density of 0.53 mACm⁻². We hence conclude that the Pd−Cu/C QDA also outperformed the monometallic Pd/C catalyst in the ECD.
As the mixed potential theory only gives an indication of the initial activity of the catalyst, we also used an electrochemical quartz crystal microbalance (eQCM) to monitor both the deposition rate and surface potential. The quartz crystals were coated with the catalysts and then subjected to the ECD bath (see Table S2 for both compositions). During ECD, the frequency variations of this crystal were monitored, which are correlated to the mass change. Simultaneously, the potential was also recorded, revealing more information about the electrochemical nature of the plating process. Both the Pd–Cu/C QDA and Pd/C catalysts were examined in this eQCM system. A plot of the potential and mass change versus time is shown in Figure 6c. Deposition rates of 35 and 21 μgCu/mgPd/s were derived from the total plating time for Pd–Cu/C and Pd/C, respectively (deposition rates are denoted as the amount of plated copper per mg of palladium per second). For both catalysts, a linear increase for the mass change is observed after the first 150 s. This linearity comes from the uniformly plated copper on the surface, which autocatalytically grows at a constant rate. The differences in the deposition rate for 150–1200 s period come from the surface area differences of the predeposited copper film.

We thus obtained the plating kinetics of the Pd–Cu/C and Pd/C catalysts from the first 150 s of ECD. The first 15 s is an induction period in which the system equilibrates to the plating bath. After this period, the Pd–Cu/C QDA achieved a deposition rate of 41 μgCu/mgPd/s, which is faster than that of the monometallic Pd/C catalyst, which had a deposition rate of 15 μgCu/mgPd/s. Furthermore, the initial deposition rate of Pd–Cu/C is faster than that during autocatalysis, which is catalyzed by the deposited Cu layer, whereas this rate for Pd/C is lower than that during the autocatalysis. This implies that the activity order is Pd–Cu/C QDA > Cu > Pd/C. This trend is also reflected by the potential profiles of the two materials. From the autocatalysis region in Figure 6c, we found the potential for autocatalyzed ECD is in the range of −0.75 to −0.8 V versus Ag/AgCl. After the initial induction period, the potential of Pd–Cu/C QDA became lower than the autocatalytic ECD potential, whereas that of Pd/C remained higher than the autocatalytic potential.

We finally demonstrate the excellent mechanical and electronic properties of the Cu deposit layer initiated by the Pd–Cu/C QDA by plating copper wires on a flexible silicon rubber substrate. The QDA catalyst was airbrushed onto the substrate using a simple mask with the logo of the University of Amsterdam. After ECD, the copper layer was uniformly and exclusively deposited within the pattern where catalyst was spray-painted (Figure 7a). The copper pattern is highly conductive and could be used as wires to successfully power a light-emitting diode (LED) assembly (Figure 7b). This shows the potential of using the new catalyst in the context of industrial applications.

3. CONCLUSIONS

We developed a novel QDA catalyst via a galvanic displacement approach, consisting of 3 nm Cu2O and Pd clusters. These QDAs are better electrocatalysts for the oxidation of formaldehyde, glucose, and ethanol, outperforming equivalent monometallic catalysts. Together with the DFT simulations, we conclude that the activity enhancement originated from the maximized interfacial electronic effect between Pd and Cu2O quantum dots. The industrial relevance of the new catalyst was demonstrated by the excellent performance in initiating the ECD, yet reducing the Pd-Cu2O metal loading in the future will make the supported catalyst even more promising for industrial processes. We believe that this catalyst structure opens opportunities for designing better catalytic materials at the ultrasmall nanoscale.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsanm.0c02162.

Protocols of materials synthesis, electrochemical test, and materials characterizations; additional XRD, XPS, and electrochemical results (PDF)

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Notes

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