



MASTER THESIS

Synthesis and characterization of $Co_x(SR)_m$ and $Co_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_m$ cluster catalysts

carried out at the Institute of Materials Chemistry of TU Wien

under the supervision of Univ Prof. Dr. Günther Rupprechter Dr. Noelia Barrabés

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DIPLOMARBEIT

Synthese und Charakterisierung von $Co_x(SR)_m$ und $Co_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_m$ Cluster Katalysatoren

ausgeführt am Institut für

Materialchemie

der Technischen Universität Wien

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Abstract

Thiolate protected nanoclusters with less than 100 atoms have recently become an intensively studied field, due to their outstanding properties resulting from non-bulk like structures and electronic configurations. The controlled design at atomic scale, controlling the number of atoms, but also metal composition or ligand functionalization, enables a broad field of applications.

Monodisperse clusters with resolved structures constitute well–suited optimal active phases for catalytic studies. Therefore, the present Master Thesis is focused on the design and synthesis of novel thiolate protected Co– and Co/Au–nanoclusters, as well as on the characterization of their properties, especially catalytic application.

 $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters in the size range of 2 nm were successfully synthesized for the first time, expanding the variety of thiolate protected metal clusters. These clusters have specific structure elements like a core in metallic state, which was determined by XPS, XAFS and EELS, and characteristic staple motifs, which were revealed by MALDI and Raman. Furthermore, cobalt doped thiolate protected gold nanoclusters were synthesized by two different approaches. Preliminary information on cluster composition ($CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$) was obtained by MALDI. The number of dopant atoms and their exact location is debated and may vary between the cluster core and staples, as based on the S K–edge XAFS, UV/Vis spectroscopy and DFT calculations.

The synthesized clusters were supported on CeO_2 by impregnation and the exact composition was determined by GIXRF. The stability and catalytic activity were tested in CO oxidation as model reaction. The prepared catalysts were pretreated and the removal of ligands was followed by XAFS. Supported $Co_x(SR)_m$ did not show any activity. For the Co/Au catalyst, in–situ DRIFTS–MS revealed a strong impact of cobalt doping on the reaction behavior, lowering the reaction onset temperature by 50 °C, as compared to a pure Au_{25} – CeO_2 catalyst.

Abstract

Diese Masterarbeit hatte die erstmalige Synthese und Charakterisierung von ligandenstabilisierte Co- und Co/Au-Nanocluster zum Ziel, da monodisperse Cluster mit bekannter Struktur ideale Materialien für die Katalyseforschung sind.

Thiol-ligandenstabilisierte Nanocluster, die aus weniger als 100 Atome bestehen, wurden letzthin aufgrund ihrer speziellen Eigenschaften intensiv untersucht. Ihre Besonderheiten sind auf ihre Strukturen und Elektronenkonfigurationen zurückzuführen, welche sich deutlich von denen größerer "bulk" Partikel unterscheiden. Die Möglichkeit zur gezielten Kontrolle - auf atomarer Ebene - der Atomanzahl, der Metallzusammensetzung (Dotierung) und Funktionalisierung der Liganden eröffnet eine Vielzahl an Anwendungsgebieten.

 $\mathrm{Co}_x(\mathrm{SR})_m$ Cluster mit einer Größe von 2 nm konnten zum ersten Mal erfolgreich synthetisiert werden und erweitern damit das Spektrum an thiolligandenstabilisierten metallischen Nanoclustern. Diese Cluster haben charakteristische Strukturelemente. Der Kern ist metallisch, was durch XPS, XAFS und EELS festgestellt wurde. Ebenso müssen "Staple-Bindungen" vorhanden sein, was durch Raman und MALDI verifiziert wurde.

Zusätzlich wurden kobaltdotierte Goldnanocluster auf zwei Wege synthetisiert. Eine vorläufige Zusammensetzung (CoAu₂₄(SR)₁₈) wurde mittels MALDI ermittelt. Die Position der Co–Dotierung konnte mittels S K–edge XAFS und UV/Vis, unterstützt durch DFT–Berechnungen, festgestellt werden: in der Oberfläche des Au–Clusterkerns oder in den Staple–Bindungen.

Die synthetisierten Cluster wurden auf CeO_2 deponiert und mittels GIXRF quantifiziert. Aktivitäts- und Stabilitätsstudien wurden für die Kohlenmonoxid-Oxidation als Modellreaktion durchgeführt. Die Katalysatoren wurden vorbehandelt, wobei das Brechen der Staple-Bindungen mittels XAFS beobachtet wurde. $Co_x(SR)_m$ -CeO₂ zeigte keine CO-Umsatz, allerdings wurde ein starker Einfluss der Kobaltdotierung auf das Reaktionsverhalten festgestellt. Im Vergleich zu einem reinen Au₂₅-Katalysator wurde die anfängliche Reaktionstemperatur um 50°C gesenkt.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Metal nanoclusters with less than 100 atoms have recently become an intensively studied field, due to their size-dependent properties, which do not follow the common scaling laws of bulk materials. The difference between typically polydisperse nanoparticles and monodisperse nanoclusters is the knowledge of the exact atom number and composition of the clusters. As shown in Figure I.1, by decreasing the number of atoms, different structures differing from fcc gold can be obtained; for example icosahedra, which fivefold rotation axis are quite uncommon in bulk materials. Furthermore, by decreasing the particle size, the relation of surface atoms to core atoms changes drastically, which leads to an excess of energy that can be used for applications like catalysis. As shown in Figure I.2, due to unique structures and low atom numbers (<100), quantum size effects lead to different electronic states, redox-, photoluminescent-, magnetic and catalytic properties^[1,2,3,4]. This opens to a variety of potential applications in sensor technology^[5,6], biomedicine^[7], nanoelectronics and catalysis^[1,8,9].

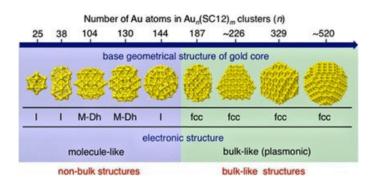


Figure I.1: Structures of gold particles from nanoscale to bulk. The graphic was reproduced from Negishi et al.^[10].

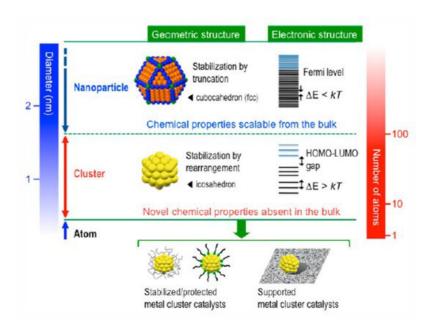


Figure I.2: Relation of particle size, structure and electronic structure of particles. The graphic was reproduced from Yamazoe et al.^[11].

Thiolate protected gold clusters exhibit a high stability due to their characteristic structure elements; Figure I.3 shows the dissected $\mathrm{Au}_{25}(\mathrm{SR})_{18}$ cluster structure. The model of a core in a cage from Iwasa and Nobusada^[12] was calculated by DFT and later proven by single crystal XRD by Zhu et al.^[13]. The core of the cluster is in metallic state and surrounded by "staple motifs". Those are alternating Au and S atoms (—S(R)-Au-S(R)-Au-S(R)-) with covalent bonds, which stabilize the cluster structure. Each sulfur is bonded to an organic group which is responsible for properties like solubility, chirality etc.

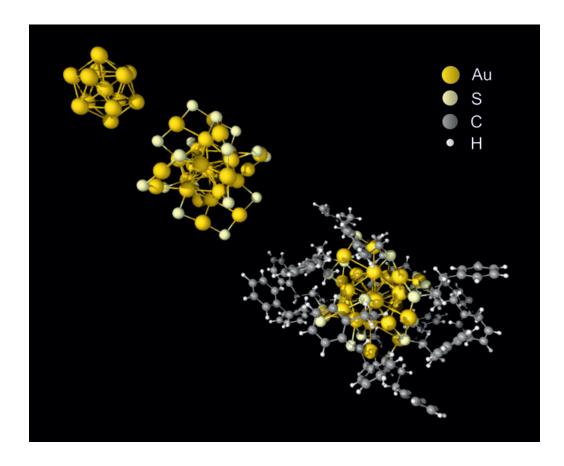


Figure I.3: Structure of $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$. Upper left: core; center: core with staple motifs; bottom right: complete structure. Adapted from Kulesza^[14].

Previous research activities during the last decade have focused on thiolate protected Au and Ag clusters, including optimization of different atomic sizes, composition (bi–, tri–metallic clusters) and structure, revealing exciting properties at the nanoscale^[1]. However, metal nanoclusters other than gold or silver have rarely been studied, due to difficulties in successfully synthesizing stable structures in the range of a few atoms. Recently, new metal clusters such as $Ni_x(SC_2H_4Ph)_m$ (x=6,39,41)^[15,16,17], $Cu_{38}(SC_2H_4Ph)_{25}$ ^[18], or $Ir_9(SC_2H_4Ph)_6$ ^[19] have been reported, showing enhanced properties when compared with pure metal nanoparticles.

Cobalt (Co) is a metal with low ionization potential for d-electrons and exhibits size-dependent structural, magnetic, electronic and catalytic properties. The exponential dependence of the magnetization relaxation time on volume has stimulated intensive studies of Co nanocrystal synthesis for magnetic storage applications^[20]. However, unlike gold or silver, zero-valent cobalt nanometal is very sensitive to oxidation, creating a challenge to stabilize cobalt nanoparticles in different media. A few preceding studies have shown that via passivation by organic thiols the oxidation and agglomeration of metallic Co particles can be avoided,

which would lead to particles in the micron size [21,22].

In addition, several recent studies have focused on the synthesis of defined cobalt sulfide (CoS₂) nanostructures. Cobalt sulfides have phase–dependent electronic, magnetic and catalytic properties, opening potential applications in energy conversion and storage. Due the low overpotential, high durability and good cyclability, CoS₂ may also be used in batteries. CoS₂ also showed high capacitance in electrochemical capacitors due to its high redox activity, for example in dye–sensitized solar cells. High efficiency of CoS₂ has been also observed in hydrogen evolution electrocatalysis^[23,24] and photoelectrochemical^[25] processes^[26,27,28]. Thus, thiolated cobalt nanoclusters may represent an interesting approach towards well defined cobalt sulfide nanostructures, with great potential in several applications.

As mentioned, cobalt exhibits loosely bonded d-electrons and high electrical conductivity, which makes it suitable for catalytic applications both in metallic and oxidic form. Obtaining truly homogeneous and well-defined nanostructures is very beneficial for understanding catalytic reaction mechanisms on an atomic level, since it typically depends on nanoparticle size and structure. For example, when cobalt oxides were grown from colloidal cobalt particles of defined size, better insights into their CO oxidation activity were obtained^[29]. Colloidal particles are usually polydisperse, so that monodisperse cobalt nanoclusters with defined structure could be a better precursor for growing structurally well-defined cobalt oxides. Consequently, the successful synthesis of cobalt nanostructures would be very rewarding, enabling a broad range of applications in catalytic, photo-, and electrochemical processes.

Recently bimetallic thiolate protected nanoclusters have received attention due to catalytic research. Doping by metal atoms like Hg, Cd, Pd, Pt and Cu into well known gold nanoclusters enables fine tuning of cluster properties and can increase their stability. Changes in atomic composition and coordination leads to different electronic configuration, which then affect the properties. Dopant atoms can be located in different positions of the cluster structure, such as the center, core or staples. Yao et al. compared Hg and Cd dopants in $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ clusters and found Cd located in the core, whereas Hg was occupying the stapels^[30]. Christensen et al. found Pt and Negishi et al. found Pd only to take the center position of a $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ cluster core^[31,32]. Doped thiolate protected nanoclusters can be synthesized either directly from two metal salts or by offering metal ions to a cluster solution^[32,33,34,35]. Previous work has shown that atomically precise bimetallic clusters have an enhancement effect in several reactions compared

to un–doped clusters^[36,37,38] that can be related to changes in the electronic configuration depending on the dopant position. Negishi et al. demonstrated a change in electronic structure and redox potential once a gold cluster was doped with copper^[35] and Qian et al. proved an enhancement effect of monoplatinum doped $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ clusters in styrene oxidation^[39]. Thiolate protected clusters thus offer the possibility to create new atomically designed bimetallic active phases.

The catalytic activity of gold nanoparticles in CO oxidation reaction is known for a long time. In 1987, Haruta et al. showed that gold could be an active phase for oxidation reactions if present in nanoscale. CO conversion to CO₂ by gold nanoparticles at low temperatures (-70 °C) was demonstrated^[40]. In cluster research, various experimental and theoretical studies of CO oxidation were performed to get insight into the reaction mechanism. Likely, gold nanoclusters have the highest activity when supported on ceria. This is due to two different mechanistic sources for oxygen. The first one is a Mars van Krevelen mechanism, where active oxygen is provided by CeO₂^[41]. Good et al. found the coordination of lattice oxygen to be the rate limiting step^[42]. Once the thiolate ligands are removed from the clusters by temperature treatment, the second mechanism comes into play^[42], which is a Langmuir Hinshelwood type. The combination of lattice and adsorbed oxygen provides ideal conditions for reactions of adsorbed carbon monoxide on the clusters. Partial removal of the ligands from the gold clusters also affects the activity in a positive or negative way^[43,44]. Lopez-Acevedo et al. connected the catalytic activity of well defined thiolate protected gold nanoclusters with the HOMO-LUMO energy gap, which is associated with the binding of oxygen on the catalyst^[45]. This quantum size effect is related to the number of electrons in the core that can be tuned either by number of atoms or introduction of dopants. Li et al. investigated the activity of bimetallic $M_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_{18}$ (M=Cu, Ag) in CO oxidation^[46] and found an enhancement effect in the doped samples compared to Au₂₅(SR)₁₈. The oxidation of carbon monoxide is a well established model reaction in cluster research. Thus, it was implemented here for the investigation of catalytic property changes originating from cobalt dopants in $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ nanoclusters.

Chapter II

Motivation

The present Master Thesis is focused on the design and development of successful synthesis routes to obtain stable Co– and Co/Au–nanoclusters for the first time. Using various characterization techniques, their atomic structures, physical and chemical properties should be determined, aiming at applications in catalysis.

- Synthesis and characterization of stable monometallic thiolate protected cobalt clusters
- Synthesis and characterization of Co doped Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ clusters
- Determination of atomic structure, oxidation state, optical and chemical properties
- Study of catalytic activity in CO oxidation

Chapter III

Experimental

III-1 Synthesis

1 $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters

The synthesis of $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters follows a modified Brust method^[33]. $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ was dehydrated at 150 °C to make it soluble in THF. To enhance the dehydration and to speed up the dissolving process the salt was grinded once during dehydration with a mortar and pestle. Progress is indicated by a color change from red to blue. Performing the synthesis in small batches leads to best results. $30 \, \text{mg}$ of $CoCl_2$ were dissolved in 10 ml THF under vigorous stirring at room temperature. $100 \, \text{pl}$ phenylethyl mercaptan were added. The color changed to dark blue or black. $80 \, \text{mg}$ of $NaBH_4$ dissolved in ice cold H_2O were added for reduction. The reaction mixture was filtered and cleaned with methanol. The $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters were recovered with DCM from the filter residue without allowing the reaction product to dry up at any time of the procedure. The pink $Co_x(SR)_m$ solution, that still contained impurities like methanol, was mixed with toluene. The solvent mixture was then striped from DCM under rotary evaporation leading to a two phase system. The Co clusters remained in the organic phase.

Table III.1: Reagents of $Co_x(SR)_m$ Synthesis

quantity
$10\mathrm{mL}$
$10\mathrm{mg}$
$100\mu l$
$80\mathrm{mg}$

2 $\operatorname{Co}_x \operatorname{Au}_{25-x}(\operatorname{SR})_y$ Synthesis 1 (S1)

77.2 mg HAuCl₄*3H₂O, 26 mg CoCl₂*6H₂O and 700 µl of the phase transfer catalyst Trihexyltetradecylphosphonium bromide (THTDPB) were mixed in 50 mL of N₂ purged toluene and stirred for 3h under inert atmosphere. Due to high humidity and the hygroscopic nature of the gold salt, it was not possible to quantitatively transfer HAuCl₄*3H₂O from the weighing boats into the reaction flask. During stirring a color change from a golden to a greenish solution occurred. After 3 h the vast majority of CoCl₂*6H₂O was dissolved and the thiol was added that led almost instantly to another change in color to a light blue. The radical starter azobis(isobutyronitril) (AIBN) was added to the reaction mixture in degassed toluene, but no reaction was apparent so the mixture was heated to 80°C and kept overnight, before it was reduced with 530 mg of NaBH₄ dissolved in 10 mL of cooled Milli-Q water. The batch aged over night at room temperature resulting in a dark reddish brown solution. Toluene was evaporated and the precipitant was filtered and cleaned with ethanol several times. The product was dissolved in dichloromethane (DCM) leaving an insoluble black solid, similar to the $Co_x(SR)_m$ synthesis (III-1-1). Later DCM was substituted by toluene and stored at $-20\,^{\circ}$ C over the weekend. Upon evaporation of toluene the same insoluble black precipitant formed again.

Toluene was evaporated and the clusters were dissolved in THF for SEC. The solution has divided into two parts. The faster eluting fraction of darker color did not seem to retard at all, thus a large particle size was expected.

Table III.2: Reagents of Synthesis S1

Reagent	quantity
Toluene	$50\mathrm{mL}$
$\mathrm{HAuCl_4*3H_2O}$	$77.2\mathrm{mg}$
$CoCl_2*6H_2O$	$26\mathrm{mg}$
2-PET	$500\mu l$
AIBN	$100\mathrm{mg}$
$\mathrm{NaBH_{4}}$	$530\mathrm{mg}$
THTDPB	700 µl

3 $\operatorname{Co}_{x}\operatorname{Au}_{25-x}(\operatorname{SR})_{y}$ Synthesis 2 (S2)

96 mg of Co- and 631 mg of Au salts were mixed and dissolved in 60 mL THF leading to a green solution. Since the solubility was very good for both, 1311 mg of

the phase transfer catalyst tetraoctylammonium bromide (TOAB) were added right after and stirred for 1 h at room temperature. The reaction flask was placed in an ice water bath and 1340 µl thiol ligand were added. After 2 h 756 mg NaBH₄ were added in 10 mL of cooled Milli–Q water resulting in a strong reduction reaction and a black solution. After a night of aging, THF was evaporated and methanol was added to precipitate the clusters and to remove unreacted thiols and side products. The suspension was filtered and redissolved in DCM, which then was evaporated again for a second cleaning step. The clean product was separated by solubility in acetonitril, aceton and DCM. Each fraction was divided individually by SEC in THF, since toluene did not provide a satisfying separation, until there was no change in the UV/Vis spectra.

Table III.3: Reagents of Synthesis S2

Reagent	quantity
THF	$60\mathrm{mL}$
$\mathrm{HAuCl_4}^*3\mathrm{H_2O}$	$631\mathrm{mg}$
$CoCl_2*6H_2O$	$96\mathrm{mg}$
2-PET	$1340\mu l$
$\mathrm{NaBH_4}$	$756\mathrm{mg}$
TOAB	$1311\mathrm{mg}$

4 $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$

 $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ was synthesized as reference material via the Brust method^[33]. The reaction batch is shown in table III.4. Additionally, $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ fractions from the gold cobalt cluster synthesis that formed as side products, described in Chapter III-1-2 and III-1-3, were combined.

Table III.4: Reagents of $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ Synthesis

Reagent	quantity
HAuCl ₄ *3H ₂ O	$63\mathrm{mg}$
TOAB	$1312\mathrm{mg}$
$\mathrm{NaBH_{4}}$	$530\mathrm{mg}$
THF	$60\mathrm{mL}$
2-PET	500 µl

III-2 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

Size exclusion chromatography was performed in a $1000\,\mathrm{mm} \times 20\,\mathrm{mm}$ glass column with frit. The stationary phase was styrene divinylbenzene beads (Bio–Beads S–X1) from Bio–Rad. The clusters were separated with THF. Smaller clusters can enter pores of the stationary phase; therefore their elution path is longer than for large compounds, leading to shorter retention times for larger clusters. Cluster mixtures were dissolved in minimum amounts of THF and applied uniformly on top of the stationary phase. The column was run with about $20\,\mathrm{drops/min}$.

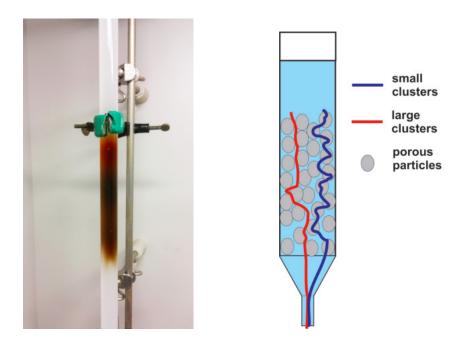


Figure III.1: Size exclusion chromatography (SEC)

III-3 Catalyst preparation

Ceria was synthesized by combustion method^[47,48]. Cerium nitrate and pluronic were dissolved in the minimum quantity of ethanol and heated in a muffle furnace in $10\,^{\circ}\text{C}\,\text{min}^{-1}$ steps up to $300\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ and kept there for 4 h. The product was a flaky voluminous yellow ceria powder.

Table III.5: Reagents of CeO₂ combustion synthesis

Reagent	quantity	
Cerium nitrate	11.48 g	
Pluronic	$0.2\mathrm{g}$	
Ethanol		

The catalysts were prepared by wet impregnation^[49]. The support material CeO₂ was suspended in toluene. The clusters were also dissolved in toluene and added to the metal oxide suspension under vigorous stirring. After 12 h stirring the clusters had diffused into the pores of the metal oxide, leaving a suspension with a clear solvent. Toluene was removed under vacuum in a rotary evaporator.

Since the yields of the doped cluster syntheses were rather small, all fractions that contained Au and Co were combined and the atomic ratio was determined with grazing incidence x-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (see Chapter VI-1). In contrast, the gold catalyst was prepared with pure $\mathrm{Au}_{25}(\mathrm{SR})_{18}$ clusters only, leading to a very well defined reference.

III-4 Characterization techniques

1 UV/Vis spectroscopy

UV/Vis spectra were recorded on a UV/VIS spectrometer (Perkin Elmer 750 Lambda) in transmission mode. Quartz cuvettes of 10 mm path length and the solvents dichloromethane and toluene were used.

2 MALDI

MALDI mass spectrometric measurements were performed using a prototype Axima TOF² MALDI time-of-flight (TOF)/reflectron (RTOF) mass spectrometer (Shimadzu, Kratos Analytical). For analytical experiments for Co 2,4,6-trihydroxyacetophenone (THAP, Sigma-Aldrich) and for Au trans-2-[3-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-2-methyl-2-propenylidene]malononitrile (DCTB, Sigma-Aldrich) were selected as MALDI-MS matrices. MALDI RTOF mass spectra of the cobalt clusters were acquired near threshold laser irradiance to obtain mass spectra of sufficient mass spectrometric resolution (3000 to 5000 at full width at half maximum (FWHM)). All displayed mass spectra were based on averaging 300 to 600 single and unselected laser pulses ($\lambda = 337\,\mathrm{nm}$ at 50 Hz). The MALDI measurements were done at the Institute of Chemical Technologies and Analytics at TU Wien in collaboration with Ernst Pittenauer.

3 Electron microscopy

High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), high-angle annular dark-field (HAADF) imaging, as well as electron-energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) mapping and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS) were performed using a

200 kV FEI TECNAI F20 S–TWIN analytical (scanning) transmission electron microscope (S)TEM equipped with a Gatan GIF Tridiem filter. The energy resolution was $\sim 1\,\mathrm{eV}$, the semi–convergence angle was $\sim 8\,\mathrm{mrad}$, the semi–collection angle was $\sim 15\,\mathrm{mrad}$ and the spatial resolution was in the order of 0.5 nm. The measurements were performed in collaboration with Thomas Schachinger at USTEM TU Wien.

4 Raman spectroscopy

The Raman microscope system (Renishaw, System 2000; Yobin Yvon, LabRAM HR) consisted of a light microscope (Leica DL–LM; Olympus BX) coupled to a Raman spectrometer. The excitation laser was an Ar ion laser ($k_0 = 514 \, \mathrm{nm}$, source power $17 \, \mathrm{mW}$).

5 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X–ray photoelectron spectroscopy measurements were performed on a UHV system equipped with a Phoibos 100 hemispherical analyzer and a XR 50 X–ray source (all parts from SPECS GmbH). Spectra were recorded with Al–K $_{\alpha}$ radiation and data were analyzed with the CasaXPS software. Peaks were fitted after Shirley background subtraction with Gauss–Lorentz sum functions. Peak positions and full width at half–maximum (FWHM) were left unconstrained. For the S2p peak fitting, doublets with a fixed doublet separation of 1.2 eV (NIST XPS database) and a fixed area ratio of 2:1 were used for S2p $_{\frac{3}{2}}$ and S2p $_{\frac{1}{2}}$. For the XPS measurements the clusters were drop–casted on a highly oriented pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) substrate and the solvent was evaporated by inserting the sample into the load lock chamber and applying vacuum for 4h. This also allowed referencing the binding energies to the C1s signal of HOPG. The measurement was performed in collaboration with Christoph Rameshan.

6 Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM)

Scanning Tunneling Microscopy (STM) images of the nanoclusters were acquired with an Aarhus 150 STM from SPECS (for UHV–system see section III–4–5 (XPS)). A solution of the clusters was drop–casted on highly ordered pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) as support material. The HOPG with the nanoclusters was transferred to the STM chamber. The base pressure in the STM chamber was 2.2×10^{-10} mbar and the clusters were imaged with a Pt/Ir tip at 300 K. During the approach of the tip, a current of $0.35\,\mathrm{nA}$ and a tunneling voltage of $1.6\,\mathrm{V}$ was applied. For

image processing and line profile measurement the WSxM software was used. The measurements were performed in collaboration with Abhijit Bera.

7 Grazing incidence X-ray fluorescence analysis (GIXRF)

The atomic ratio of the catalysts was determined by GIXRF. A few grains of the catalyst were placed on a quartz reflector under the detector. A survey scan in x and y direction was performed already under vacuum. Once the optimum position was found, the sample was measured. To get enough signal from Co, a dead time of about 35 s was set because of the huge amount of CeO₂ as compared to gold and especially to cobalt. The mass percent and atomic ratios of the fitted XRF spectra were calculated by fundamental parameters. GIXRF measurements were performed on a home–made device at the Atominstitut (ATI) of TU Wien in collaboration with Dieter Ingerle^[50].

III-5 X-ray absorption fine structure spectroscopy (XAFS)

XAFS is an X-ray absorption technique that analyses the fine structure around an specific adsorption edge. The sample is irradiated with increasing X-ray energy. When the energy of the incoming beam is equal to the binding energy of an electron, it gets ionized and knocked out of its shell. In the XANES energy region, which is directly around the adsorption edge, the electron scatters multiple times with surrounding neighbors, resulting in a specific shape and position of the so called white line, which contains information about oxidation state, symmetry, ligand configuration and chemical environment. At higher energies the effective cross section decreases, leading to a single scattering event. The electron wave scatters by its neighbor and interferes with the scattered wave. This phenomenon of superposition principle can be observed in the extended part of the absorption edge. From these oscillations distances between atoms and coordination number can be calculated with Fourier transformation.

X-ray absorption spectroscopy measurements were carried out at the XAS beamline at Elettra-Sincrotrone Trieste (Italy) and at the SuperXAS beamline at the Swiss Light Source (Switzerland). S K-edge (2472 eV) was measured at Elettra-Sincrotrone using a Si (111) double-crystal monochromator. The photon flux was about 10⁹ photons/s. Experiments were performed in fluorescence mode using a silicon drift detector (Oxford Instruments). A concentrated solution of the sample was drop-casted onto a sulfur-free polyimide (Kapton) tape and mounted

on an in-house made cell (Section III-7) of working under high vacuum and at liquid nitrogen temperature. XANES at Co K-edge (7709 eV) was measured at Swiss Light Source. The incident photon beam provided by a 2.9 T Super Bend magnet was selected by a Si(111) channel-cut monochromator. The rejection of higher harmonics and focusing were achieved by a Si-coated collimating mirror at 2.8 mrad and a rhodium-coated toroidal mirror at 2.8 mrad. The size of the X-ray beam on the sample was $0.3\,\mathrm{mm}\times0.3\,\mathrm{mm}$ with a total intensity of about $5\times10^{11}\,\mathrm{ph/s}$ to $7\times10^{11}\,\mathrm{ph/s}$. Fluorescence signal was detected with five-element SDD detector (SGX). A concentrated solution of the sample in toluene was placed in a quartz capillary and cooled down with a cryo-gun to liquid nitrogen temperature. The data analysis was performed according to standard procedures using Ifeffit software^[51].



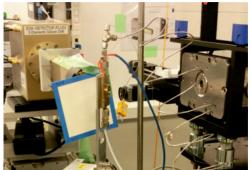


Figure III.2: XAFS in-situ reaction setup (SLS)

III-6 In-situ DRIFTS measurements

Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) was performed on a VERTEX 70v. The open drift cell together with the reactor cell, which is described in section III–7 for the in–situ measurements, is shown on the right side of Figure III.3. On the left side is a front view with three different gas lines. One oxidation line for O_2/Ar , a reduction line for CO/Ar and the mainline with pure Ar. The valves are switched electronically. The Setup for in–situ DRIFTS measurements is described more detailed in Chiarello et al.^[52].

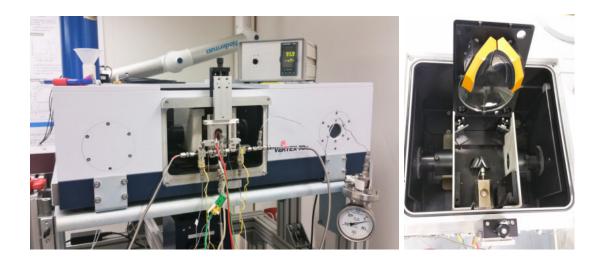


Figure III.3: DRIFTS in-situ reaction setup (PSI)

III-7 Catalytic activity tests

For the catalytic studies with CO oxidation as model reaction, a reactor setup was used, which was developed in the group of Davide Ferri^[52]. The reaction cell and its components are shown in Figure III.4. There are gas inlets and outlets for gas reaction, heat cartidges for TPR and two windows for different spectroscopic techniques like DRIFTS, XAFS or XRD.

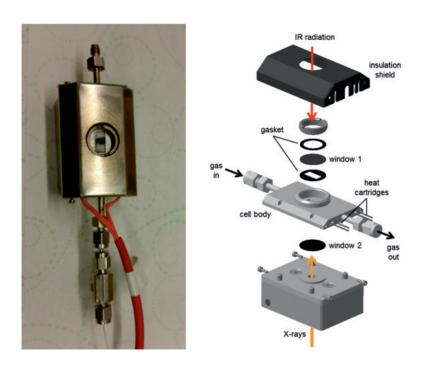


Figure III.4: Left: Reactor cell filled with catalyst. Right: Exploded view of reactor cell. Adapted from Chiarello et al.^[52].

1 Cell preparation

To guarantee stable experimental conditions, without loss of catalyst through gas in— and outlets of the cell, the material was pressed into pellets with a pressure of $1\,\mathrm{t\,cm^{-2}}$ first and was then carefully tapped and sieved. For the cell, particles collected between 100 and 150 µm of mesh width were taken. Furthermore, the gas in— and outlets of the cell were blocked for particles with quartz wool by placing the fibers perpendicularly in front. The catalyst was placed in the center of the cell, with the smallest amount of quartz wool possible between the catalyst and the CaF₂ window. Graphite foil was used to seal the backside of the cell to the heating block.

For XAFS analysis a similar but thinner cell was used, holding two graphite windows.

Pretreatment of the catalyst was done in oxidative conditions for each reaction separately: by using 5 % of Oxygen in Argon with a total flow of 50 mL/min directly in the reactor cell. The cell was heated in 5 °C/min steps to a maximum temperature of 150 °C and kept there for 30 min. After this process the cell was cooled with pure Argon to less than 40 °C. Immediately after the pretreatment the gas flow was changed to a ratio of 1:1 of CO and O₂, which supplies twice as much oxygen as CO for the reaction. Again, a total gas flow of 50 mL/min was used with 1% of reagents and 99 % Argon. For the kinetic studies a temperature program for heating to the maximum temperature and cooling down afterwards at 5 °C/min steps was run to check for hysteresis in the conversion. The reaction was followed by in–situ DRIFTS and mass spectroscopy. The most promising catalysts were investigated with XAFS later on.

Chapter IV

$Co_x(SR)_m$ cluster

For the first time stable monolayer protected thiolated cobalt nanoclusters were synthesized by a wet chemical method, leading to a pink solution with well-defined optical activity (UV/Vis) and photoluminescence (PL). The cobalt cluster core of around 1.3 nm size was metallic (as indicated by STEM, STM, XPS, HAADF-EELS) and was surrounded by a specific configuration of thiolate staples (according to Raman, FTIR, XAFS, MALDI) that is similar to that of corresponding gold clusters.

The clusters exhibit characteristic UV/Vis spectra and optical properties. The staple configuration of –S–metal–S–, typical of thiolate protected gold clusters, was also observed in the case of the cobalt clusters, maintaining the cobalt atoms in the metallic state.

Results of the $Co_x(SR)_m$ studies of this thesis were published in Pollitt et al.^[53].

IV-1 Synthesis of $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters

The synthesis strategy of the thiolated cobalt clusters was based on previous synthesis routes of monometallic and bimetallic thiolated gold clusters. However, in light of the comparably easier oxidation of cobalt and, thus, the difficulty to synthesize stable metallic cobalt clusters with a narrow range of particle size, several optimization steps had to be applied. TOAB (tetraoctylammonium bromide), which acts as a phase–transfer catalyst, is commonly used in the synthesis of thiolate protected gold clusters $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$. It improves the solubility of metal salts in organic solvents, which facilitates the reaction. Nevertheless, this kind of quaternary ammonia compounds have a high tendency to oxidize cobalt, which makes the synthesis of metallic cobalt clusters difficult. TOAB was not used for this synthesis, instead the hydrated metal salt precursor was dried, which also improved the solubility in THF, since cobalt then forms a complex with THF, which is replaced by the thiolate

ligands via a ligand exchange reaction^[54]. Since the formation of this starting complex is only possible with Co²⁺, the (further) oxidation of cobalt should be avoided. Thus, for cobalt cluster synthesis short reaction times are beneficial to obtain a higher yield of metallic Co. This is due to the tendency of THF to form peroxides that on one hand are radical starters but on the other hand oxidize cobalt. In contrast, for the synthesis of thiolated gold clusters, longer aging times lead to narrower size distribution, because only the most stable structures remain.

Following these directions, a pink product was obtained. In order to separate different cluster sizes, the sample was passed through a size exclusion chromatography (SEC) column^[55,36] until a unique single fraction with characteristic and well–defined UV/Vis spectrum was obtained as discussed in Chapter IV–2–4. The synthesis was repeated several times, each time reproducibly leading to the same highly stable product when dissolved in DCM or toluene. Once the sample was dried (powder form) and after some air exposure it got oxidized to an insoluble black precipitate. Finally, a precise and reproducible synthesis route was developed, yielding to stable thiolate protected cobalt clusters for the first time.

IV-2 Characterisation of $Co_x(SR)_m$

1 MALDI-TOF-MS

For studies of the composition of thiolated metal clusters, MALDI–TOF–MS is the most frequently applied technique. In the case of Au clusters, trans-2-[3-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-2-methyl-2-propenylidene]malononitrile (DCTB) was found as an optimal matrix, with a low degree of metal cluster fragmentation. In the case of cobalt clusters using a DCTB matrix led to a higher degree of fragmentation in the low m/z range, even under lower laser irradiance, similar as observed before for thiolated iridium clusters^[19]. After screening different matrices, 2,4,6-trihydroxyacetophenone (THAP) led to a lower degree of fragmentation and to reproducible results for the synthesized thiolated cobalt clusters. Figure IV.1 shows the MALDI TOF mass spectrum obtained from $Co_x(SC_2H_4Ph)_m$ in positive ion mode.

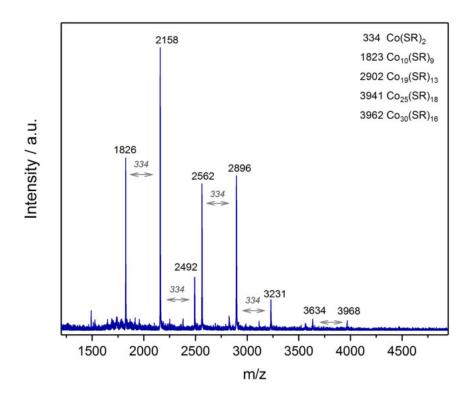


Figure IV.1: MALDI-TOF-MS spectrum of the prepared $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters.

The analysis of the mass spectrum revealed a difference of m/z=334 between the major peaks, which corresponds to the $Co(SR)_2$ unit which is a monometallic staple. The same type of characteristic fragment was also observed in MALDI mass spectra of thiolated gold clusters. The range of observed masses were between m/z=1826 and m/z=3968. The higher one seems related to clusters containing $Co_{30}(SR)_{16}$, but due to the high degree of fragmentation it was not possible to assign a specific formula or structure. The MALDI-MS results suggest formation of cobalt clusters in a range of 25 to 30 Co atoms, with a clear fragmentation pattern of staple motifs (-S-Co-S-) in Figure IV.2, which are characteristic of thiolate protected metal clusters.

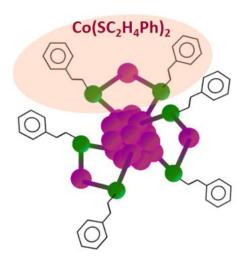


Figure IV.2: Staple motif of Co-clusters. Co (magenta), S (green)

Several groups, such as Tsukuda, Dass, Murray or McLean, have analyzed thiolate protected clusters by MALDI– and ESI–MS, reporting this kind of staple fragmentation, with the capping structures directly desorbing from the Au–nanoparticle surface. The crystallographically characterized Au₂(SR)₃ staples of the Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ cluster have also been observed by ESI–MS/MS, which represents the long staple configuration only^[56,57,58,59,60,61,62].

2 TGA

In order to obtain complementary insight on cluster composition, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed. The TGA profile in Figure IV.3 shows a weight loss of 59% between 75°C and 375°C that is related to the complete removal of the thiolate ligands (-SC₂H₄Ph). The higher range of m/z observed by MALDI-MS, i.e. $Co_{25}(SR)_{18}$ and $Co_{30}(SR)_{16}$ clusters, would exhibit a weight loss related to ligands of 62% and 55%, respectively. Thus, the 59% weight loss observed for the synthesized cobalt clusters is in good agreement with that expected from the cobalt cluster compositions determined by MALDI. However, three steps were observed during the ligand removal process; weight losses of 8% at lower temperature (75°C to 150°C), a main weight loss of 41 % at 150 °C to 290 °C, and 10 % loss at higher temperature (290 °C to 375 °C). Previous studies on thiolated gold clusters have also reported different weight loss steps that were ascribed to different staple configurations (long and short staples), but also to the interaction of the oxidative atmosphere with thiol ligands that may lead to different removal processes. These may explain the two higher temperature steps for cobalt clusters. Carotenuto et al. studied the thermal stability of cobalt thiolates (Co-C₁₈H₃₇SH) and also reported weight losses at 260 °C

and 360 °C^[21]. Thus, the low temperature step may be due to oxide species attached to the cluster, which are discussed in Chapter IV-2, section 7 and 8.

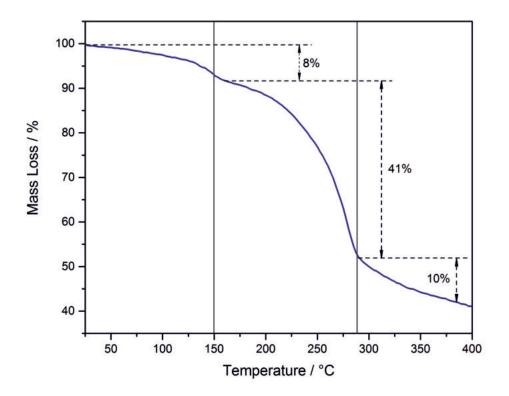


Figure IV.3: Thermogravimetric analysis of $Co_x(SC_2H_4Ph)_m$ clusters.

3 XRD

X-ray diffraction measurements were performed to confirm the formation of Co cluster and to discard CoS_x complexes or larger Co nanoparticles, which exhibit highly crystalline structures, as reported in literature^[21,63,64]. As shown in Figure IV.4, XRD revealed that the samples were not crystalline. Few small diffraction reflexes appear under the retardation spectrum coming from amorphous material. Reflexes at 18 and $28.5\,2\theta$ are from DCM, which was incorporated during dropcasting of the clusters on the sample holder for the measurement. Bond distances were calculated from the 2θ -positions of the reflexes. The calculated values did not match the values of fcc and hcp Co. (fcc: a=2.5 Å, hcp: a,b=2.5 Å, c=4 Å). The diffraction pattern also did not match any other compound from the pdf-4(2016) database.

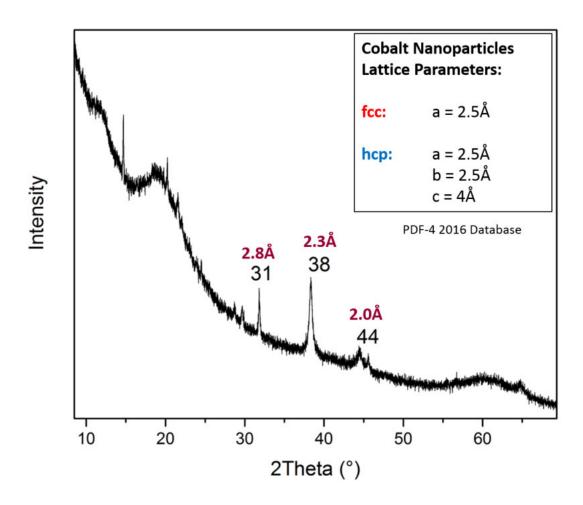


Figure IV.4: Comparison between Co-clusters and bulk Co with X-ray powder diffraction.

4 UV/Vis and Photoluminescence Spectroscopy

Due to their molecule–like electronic structure, atomic scale metal nanoclusters exhibit one or more absorption peaks in UV/Vis, in contrast to the surface plasmon resonance (SPR) band observed for larger particles. UV/Vis absorption spectra of the synthesized cobalt clusters dissolved in dichloromethane (DCM), shown in Figure IV.5, exhibit four main absorption peaks at 311, 413, 505 and 639 nm.

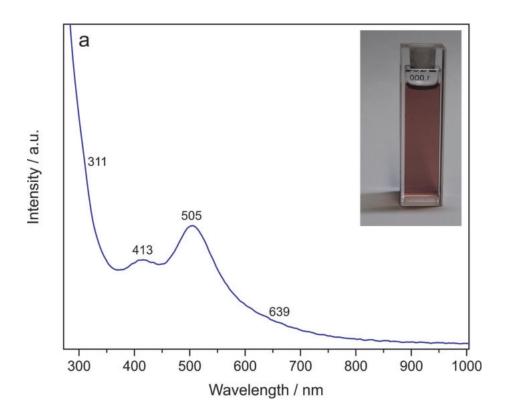


Figure IV.5: UV/Vis spectrum of Co clusters in dichloromethane.

A comparison with the characteristic SPR band of larger Co nanoparticles is not straightforward due to conflicting reports in literature. Based on Mie's theory, calculations and experimental studies expect very weak absorption in the range of $250 \,\mathrm{nm}$ to $450 \,\mathrm{nm}$ ($285 \,\mathrm{nm}^{[65]}$, $360 \,\mathrm{nm}$ and $495 \,\mathrm{nm}^{[66]}$) and in the range of $497 \,\mathrm{nm}$ to $520 \,\mathrm{nm}^{[22]}$ ($520 \,\mathrm{nm}^{[67]}$), but all reports agree that SPR is represented by a very broad band. Thus, the formation of clusters is evidenced by the defined (and not broad) absorption bands at different wavelengths. In order to compare the cobalt clusters with common cobalt nanoparticles, the latter were prepared according to reported methods^[21,22], with an additional passivation step with the same thiolate ligand (-SC₂H₄Ph). The particles are stable only for short time and form an insoluble black precipitate. Nevertheless, a comparison of UV/Vis spectra of short–living cobalt nanoparticles in DCM and of $\mathrm{Co}_x(\mathrm{SR})_m$ clusters is shown in Figure IV.6. For nanoparticles bands are broader and shifted.

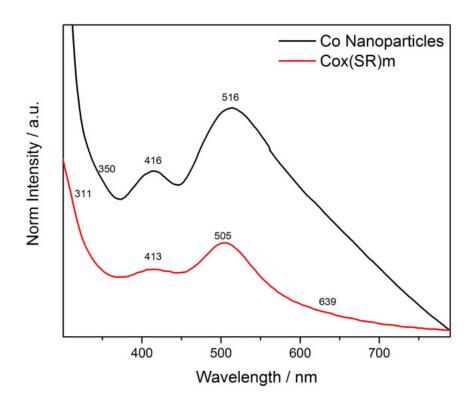


Figure IV.6: Comparison of UV/Vis spectra of Co nanoparticles (with SC_2H_4Ph ligands) and $Co_x(SC_2H_4Ph)_m$ clusters dissolved in dichloromethane.

Figure IV.7 shows the photoluminescence spectrum of the cobalt clusters. The emission spectrum upon excitation at 412 nm shows intense luminescence peaks at the blue and yellow region, with two emission peaks in 475 nm and 575 nm. The observed dual fluorescence is a typical indicator of charge transfer occurring in the clusters upon excitation. Previous studies on glutathione–protected gold clusters also displayed such dual luminescence^[68,69,70], which was explained by Whetten et al.: the high energy luminescence being an inter–band transition from excited states in the sp–band to the d–band^[71] and the low energy as the intra–band HOMO–LUMO transition within the sp band. However, complementary calculations and studies would be required to explain the origin of the dual luminescence of cobalt clusters.

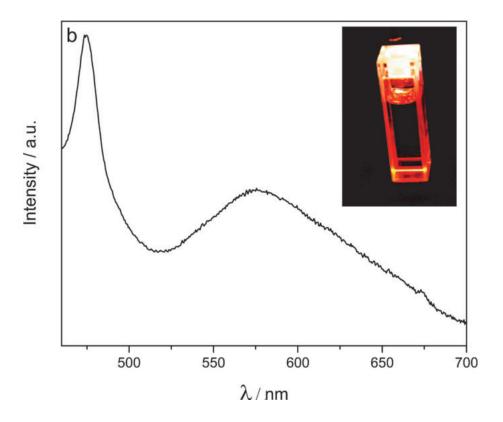


Figure IV.7: Photoluminescence spectrum of Co clusters. Co clusters in dichloromethane solution are shown as inset, with UV/Vis illumination (λ from 220 nm to 400 nm).

5 Electron Microscopy

The STEM picture (Figure IV.8) shows uniform cobalt clusters with an average particle diameter of around 2 nm. EELS analysis at the Co L₃ edge indicated a tendency of the Co L₃ edge to shift to lower energies at the center of the cluster, and to higher energies at the cluster edge, which would point to metallic Co at the center and a partially oxidized perimeter^[72,73]. The oxidation may occur during deposition onto the TEM grid. The EDX spectrum in Figure IV.9 shows mainly carbon, sulfur and cobalt, but a minimal content of oxygen. Figure IV.10 shows the EELS mapping of the region that is indicated by a green rectangle, displaying the signal maps of carbon, sulfur and cobalt. Figure IV.11 shows the energy loss spectrum of the clusters versus a metallic reference.

The onset of the Co L_3 edge of the sum spectrum of the EELS mapping indicated metallic Co atoms^[72,74], in agreement with the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern in Figure IV.12.

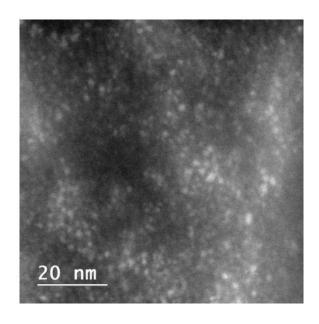


Figure IV.8: STEM image of $Co_x(SR)_{18}$

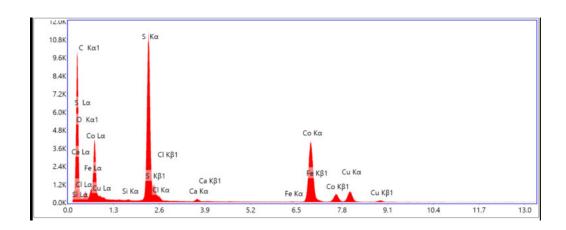


Figure IV.9: EDX spectrum of Co nanoparticles

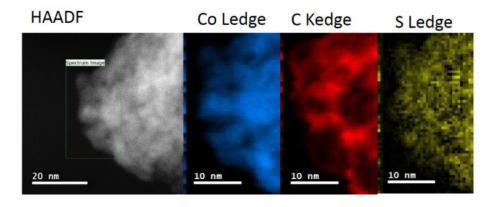


Figure IV.10: HAADF with EELS mapping region. Co L-edge signal map (blue), C K-edge (red), S L-edge (yellow)

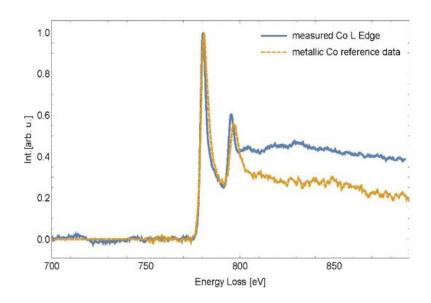


Figure IV.11: EELS Co L₃ spectrum showing metallic Co

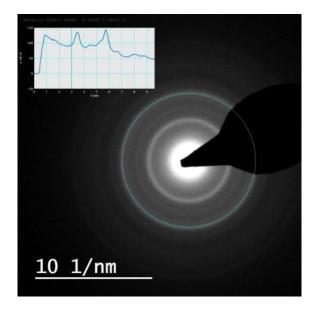


Figure IV.12: SAED

6 STM

In order to corroborate the structure and size information, room temperature STM measurements were performed. Figure IV.13 shows clusters with roughly spherical shape, deposited on highly ordered pyrolytic graphite (HOPG). HOPG was chosen as substrate surface as it is atomically flat and clean, which facilitates the detection of nanoclusters and reliable measurements of cluster size and height. Cluster size analysis via line profiles indicated an average size of 1.3 nm and 1 nm height (Figure IV.14). Atomic resolution of the clusters was not obtained, likely due to the insulating character of the ligands and the sample temperature of 300 K.

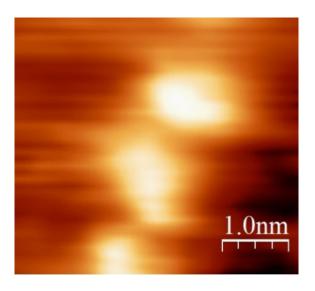


Figure IV.13: STM image of Co clusters supported on HOPG, taken at room temperature (V_{sample} =1.6 V, I_{tunnel} =0.35 nA). The cluster size is around 1.3 nm.

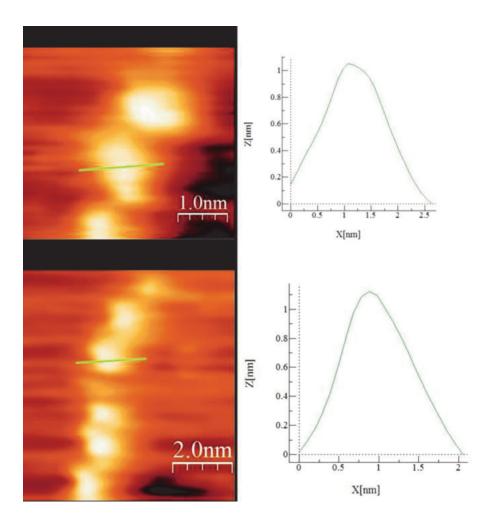


Figure IV.14: STM topography and corresponding line profiles of cobalt clusters on HOPG.

7 Vibrational Spectroscopy

Vibrational Spectroscopy is a useful technique for studying molecular conformation and properties of nanomaterials. The Raman spectra of the synthesized $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters in the range of 200 cm⁻¹ to 2000 cm⁻¹ on the left side in Figure IV.15 shows characteristic peaks at higher energies, an intense peak at $1100\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ related to the bonded thiolate ligands (- SC_2H_4Ph) and another around $1420\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ related to the aromatic ring. Based on previous Raman studies of metal sulfides, the peaks between $200 \,\mathrm{cm^{-1}}$ to $450 \,\mathrm{cm^{-1}}$ can be attributed to Co-S vibrations, with a prominent band around $350\,\mathrm{cm}^{-1[23]}$. The right side of Figure IV.15 displays a spectrum of the $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters in the low wavenumber region, with a broad peak at $322 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ and a smaller one at 419 cm⁻¹, assigned to Co-S vibrations in agreement with previous studies [23,75,76,77]. The comparison of Raman spectra of the prepared $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters with those reported for different CoS_x compounds (nanostructures, complexes, etc.) revealed pronounced differences of the vibrational bands (Raman shifts) and relative intensities. However, when the Raman spectra of cobalt clusters are compared to those of monolayer protected thiolated gold clusters, several similarities are apparent^[78,79,80,81]. Thiol ligands in similar environments or configurations like in the staple bonds should exhibit similar vibrational properties for Co and Au, but the frequencies may be slightly shifted due to different masses and force constants.

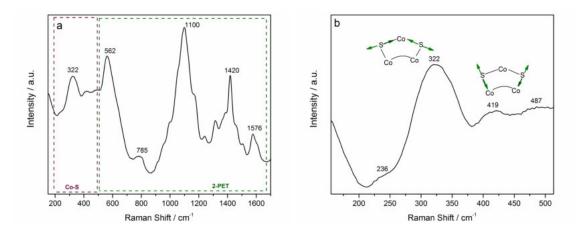


Figure IV.15: Raman spectra of $Co_x(SR)_m$

Raman spectroscopy of gold clusters have focused on the Au–S interface and both experimental and theoretical studies were reported^[82,83,84,85]. Two types of Au–S stretching vibrations can be distinguished in the lower wavenumber range of 200 cm⁻¹ to 350 cm⁻¹, related to Au(core)–S in radial mode and to Au(staple)–S in tangential mode bonds. Different radial vibrations were observed depending on the type of staples. Short staples lead to vibrations at lower energies and for the bending of longer staples higher energy is required.

The Co–S vibrational band is again expected to be shifted with respect to Au–S, based on the smaller mass of Co in relation to Au, which should lead to a shift to high frequency. However, the binding strength in Co–S is weaker than in Au–S, leading to a shift to lower frequency. In total, the two effects compensate each other and the Co–S band and Au–S band are similar. According to Raman studies of the Au–S vibration related to the staple configuration^[83], the presence of a single strong peak at 322 cm⁻¹ can be attributed to the Co–S bond in the short staples, in agreement with the fragmentation pattern observed by MALDI–MS. The radial mode vibrations were reported for higher energies with low intensity (due to the movement of the thiolate against the cluster surface), and the small peaks between $400 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ and $500 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ may thus be assigned to the Co(core)–S bonds.

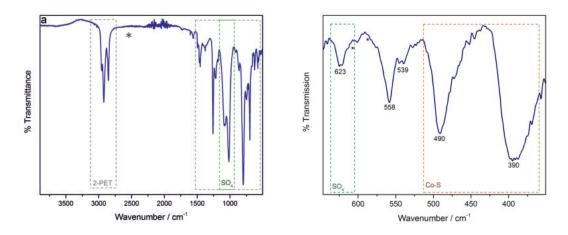


Figure IV.16: Left: MIR; Right: FIR FTIR spectra of $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters.

For further structural characterization mid– and far–infrared FTIR measurements were performed. The spectrum in the left side of Figure IV.16 confirms the bonding between Co and S by the absence of the S–H stretching vibration, expected around the marked position (*) of 2525 cm⁻¹ in the MIR spectra, whereas the characteristic C–H, C–S and aromatic stretching bands of the (-SC₂H₄Ph) ligand were indeed observed. In addition, the spectrum shows an unexpected strong band at 1000 cm⁻¹ to 1200 cm⁻¹. Based on literature, S=O stretching bands of sulfur oxide compounds produce strong infrared bands in the 1400 cm⁻¹ to 1000 cm⁻¹ range. The right side of Figure IV.16 shows the FIR region, also displaying a band at 623 cm⁻¹ that may be assigned to the asymmetric bending of the SO₄ groups, typically found between 600 cm⁻¹ to 640 cm⁻¹. Thus, the bands observed in the MIR spectra confirm the presence of sulfur oxide species. The band around 550 cm⁻¹ is related to mercaptan compounds, in this case the thiol ligand. The bands observed between 350 cm⁻¹ and 500 cm⁻¹ further confirm the Co–S bond.

8 XPS

XPS analysis was performed to determine the oxidation state of the cobalt clusters. The left side of Figure IV.17 shows the Co $2p_{\frac{3}{2}}$ region, including peak fitting. The 779.6 eV signal is attributed to metallic cobalt from the clusters. Similarly to monolayer protected Au-clusters the binding energy Co-clusters is 1.5 eV higher than bulk metallic Co^[86]. Zhang showed for decreasing size of Au(SR) nanoparticles that the Au 4f peaks shift to higher binding energy^[87]. This shift results from a nanosize effect and from surface metal-ligand interactions in the nanoparticles^[87]. The signal at 781.6 eV can be attributed either to the cobalt-sulfur bond or to cobalt oxide (CoO). The observed plasmon feature at \sim 785 eV fits both Co–S and CoO. In comparison, Co₃O₄ is missing the plasmon feature^[86,88]. Tao et al. and Ganesan et al. reported binding energies (BE) of 781.4 and 781.3 eV for cobalt sulfide nanoparticles, respectively^[64,89]. Due to the nanosize effect also the binding energy of CoO may be shifted by 1.5 eV to higher BE. However, an unambiguous assignment of the 781.6 eV feature to either Co-S or CoO would require additional high-resolution measurements. Nevertheless, the additional results from SAED, Raman and XAFS indicate Co-S bonds rather than Co-O.

In the S 2p spectrum on the right side of Figure IV.17 the signal comprises three components, at 162.4, 164.7 and 168.2 eV. As this is the first report of synthesis of protected cobalt clusters, there are no reference data but only studies of self–assembled monolayers (SAM) of metallic cobalt provide useful results for S 2p. The peak at 162.4 eV can be attributed to the sulfur–cobalt bond, in agreement with values for S–Co of SAMs (\sim 162.5 eV, dodecanethiol), reported by Devillers et al. [90] and (168.2 eV, octadecanethiol) by Pookpanratana et al. [91]. The peak at 168.2 eV can be attributed to fully oxidized sulfur. Once more, this agrees with the results of Devillers et al. which reported oxidation of sulfur (\sim 168.5 eV) in the SAMs, when the surface was not fully covered and oxygen reacted with the SAM. Similarly, Pookpanratana et al. reported fully oxidized sulfur at \sim 168.6 eV. Further, partially oxidized sulfur is present, corresponding to the S2p signal at 164.7 eV^[92].

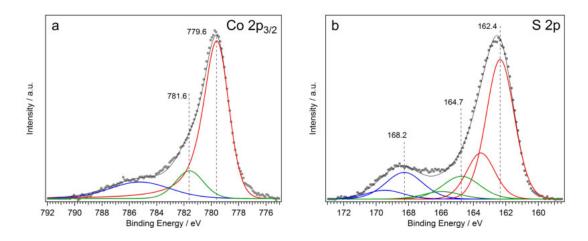


Figure IV.17: (a) XPS spectra of the Co $2p_{\frac{3}{2}}$; (b) the S $2p_{\frac{3}{2}}$ and S $2p_{\frac{1}{2}}$ core level shifts of the $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters on HOPG.

9 XAFS

The electronic structure and the local chemical environment of the $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters were studied by X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy (XANES) at the Co K-edge and S K-edge and compared to the following reference samples: Co foil, CoO, thiol ligand(2-PET), SO₂, SO₃ and SO₄. The spectra are shown in Figure IV.18. In case of Co K-edge XANES spectra, the high intensity of the white line, the edge position and the broad white line feature for $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters – when compared to the reference materials - suggest the presence of Co-S bonds^[23] in the cluster structure (Figure IV.18 left). In the case of S K-edge XANES, the reference samples indicate that the white line intensity decrease and the edge position energy increase with increasing sulfur oxidation, changing from $2471 \,\mathrm{eV}$ for S^{-2} to $2483 \,\mathrm{eV}$ for S⁶⁺. From the peak positions in S K-edge XANES of $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters three kinds of sulfur states can be distinguished: a first one at 2471 eV, corresponding to an approximated oxidation state of -1, a second one at 2479 eV to 2481 eV related to oxidized (SO_x) sulfur species, and a third one at $2474\,\mathrm{eV}$ corresponding to the S-C bond of the thiolate ligand. The Co-S bond was already observed by Raman and FTIR (Figure IV.15 and Figure IV.16) and is confirmed by Co and S K-edge XANES.

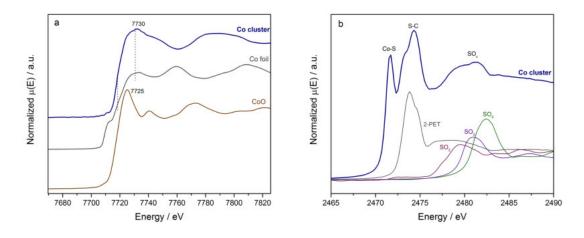


Figure IV.18: (a) XANES spectra at the Co K-edge and (b) S K-edge of the $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters and reference materials.

IV-3 Conclusions $Co_x(SR)_m$

Thiolate protected cobalt nanoclusters were synthesized for the first time. Due to cluster fragmentation, their exact molecular mass and/or distribution could not be determined by MALD-MS. However, taking into account the complementary TG analysis, a cluster size in the range of 25–30 cobalt atoms is expected. This is confirmed by STEM and STM images showing uniform clusters of approximately 2 nm size. The MALDI-MS results also revealed a uniform fragment, corresponding to a monomeric staple unit (-S-Co-S-), which was corroborated by Raman. Furthermore, XPS, XAFS and EELS analysis indicated a metallic state of cobalt. The different characterization results point to characteristic structural features and properties of thiolate protected Co clusters. The cobalt clusters were stable in solution, but upon air contact of the dry powder they oxidized and decomposed to a black powder that was insoluble in almost any solvent. XPS analysis together with XANES and FTIR revealed the presence of oxidized sulfur (with two different kinds of sulfur species), which protects the metallic oxidation state of cobalt. Based on the current synthesis and the characterization results, more detailed studies of the exact Co cluster size, composition and physical/chemical properties are to be performed in the near future.

Chapter V

$Co_x Au_{25-x}(SR)_y$ cluster

$$ext{V-1} \quad ext{Co}_x ext{Au}_{25-x} (ext{SR})_y \ ext{S1}$$

Based on experience (see Chapter IV and from previous work with pure Au clusters) a synthesis approach was tested that focused on the prevention of Co oxidation. Since short reaction times are beneficial for Co clusters (prevents oxidation) and longer reaction times for the formation of Au clusters the experiments were carried out under nitrogen atmosphere in toluene instead of THF. Dreier and Ackerson successfully proved radicals as a requirement for the reaction mechanism of cluster formation by introducing AIBN as radical starter in a Au cluster synthesis in toluene^[93]. In contrast to most radical starters which are based on peroxides AIBN decomposes into N_2 and two radicals^[94] and is therefore suitable for this synthesis approach. At 80 °C it has a half life time of 100 min^[95]. A relatively high amount of Co precursor was used to enhance the chances of incorporation of unoxidized Co into a stable Au nanocluster structure.

1 Characterisation of $Co_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_y$ S1

The synthesized $Co_x Au_{25-x}(SR)_y$ solution was cleaned and separated by SEC based on previous experience^[55]. From the SEC separation a total of 12 fractions was isolated. Figure V.1 shows the absorption spectra of the collected samples/fractions measured in THF solvent, except samples 9 and 12 for which the concentration was below the detection limit. Two different tendencies are clearly observed; whereas samples 10 and 11 show pronounced peaks at 402 and 483 nm, the rest of the samples have a unique pronounced band shifting from 517 to 500 nm. The spectra observed for the samples 10 and 11 are similar to the monometallic $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters, with peaks shifted from 416 to 402 nm and from 505 to 483 nm. The UV/Vis spectrum of monometallic $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ cluster have characteristic peaks at 446, 500, 552 and 680 nm as shown in Figure V.2. Then, the peak at 483 nm could be related with

the doping of the Cobalt into a structure similar to Au₂₅, due to the small band that is also observed at 686 nm in sample 11. The samples from 1 to 8 with the peak around 500 nm can be related with larger structures or different numbers of dopant atoms inside the structure, although further separation by HPLC would be required.

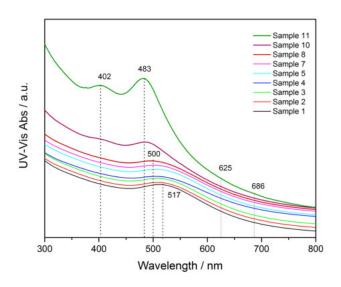


Figure V.1: UV/Vis spectra of fractions from SEC of synthesis S1

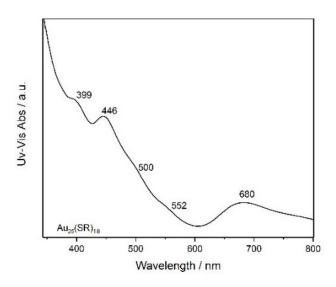


Figure V.2: UV/Vis spectrum of Au₂₅(SR)₁₈

In order to complement the optical activity studies and elucidate the sizes after the SEC separation, MALDI mass spectroscopy was performed (Figure V.3). The UV/Vis spectra were measured in THF and then dried for storage. After this step, some of the samples were not dissolving anymore. Not all samples could be further investigated. This may be due to instability of the clusters in atmospheric conditions coming from oxidations.

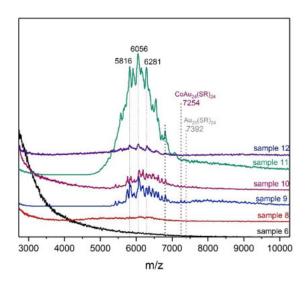


Figure V.3: MALDI spectra of the fractions 6, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12.

MALDI spectra are shown in detail for the region where the Co doped $\mathrm{Au}_{25}(\mathrm{SR})_{18}$ clusters (Figure V.3) are expected. A weak peak at $7254\,\mathrm{m/z}$ is obtained corresponding to $\mathrm{CoAu}_{24}(\mathrm{SR})_{18}$ that would be expected in the case of a Au_{25} base structure. In the case of Pd or Pt previous work has shown the possibility of introducing only one atom in this structure^[37], whereas several number of dopants can be introduced with Cu or $\mathrm{Ag}^{[35,96]}$. For single Pt or Pd doping the dopant will take the center core location of the structure, but in the case of Cu the surface of the core is preferred and in the case of Ag positions in the staples are also occupied. Figure V.3 shows a broad distribution of signal around $6056\,\mathrm{m/z}$ that could be related to doped Au clusters with different number of Co atoms. Further characterization by ESI or optimization of the matrix should be performed to clarify this point. In comparison to the other fractions, the MALDI and the UV/Vis spectra of sample 11 are in both cases more pronounced. This could be related to higher purity of this sample from the separation.

$$ext{V-2} \quad ext{Co}_x ext{Au}_{25-x} (ext{SR})_y \; ext{S2}$$

In a second approach to obtain cobalt doped gold clusters, a synthesis procedure similar as for Pd or Pt doping of Au_{25} clusters was followed^[37]. In this case a lower

Co/Au ratio than that in the previous synthesis (section V-1) was employed. In this protocol, quaternary amines (TOAB) were used as phase transfer catalysts in THF. Quaternary amines have the tendency to oxidize cobalt. The same applies to peroxides which are formed by THF. A higher gold abundance could enclose cobalt and its oxidation may be partially avoided, but with the downside of decreasing yield.

1 Characterization of $Co_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_y$ S2

In this case, once the cluster solution was obtained, it was cleaned by methanol to remove excess of thiolate ligand precursor and side products. Following the cleaning, different solvent extractions were performed before further separation steps by SEC were taken. Based on previous work on doped clusters, changes in atomic composition lead to different solubilities^[97]. In the case of Pd in Au clusters, extraction of the doped structures can be achieved by acetonitrile from the cluster synthesis mixture^[97]. Acetone can dissolve $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ but not $Au_{38}(SR)_{24}$ or $Au_{40}(SR)_{24}^{[98,55]}$, whereas all the clusters are soluble in DCM.

First acetonitrile extraction was performed, followed by acetone and finally the rest was dissolved in DCM. Each batch was separated by SEC independently. Figure V.4 shows the UV/Vis spectra of the purest fraction from each separation batch. The sample from the acetone extraction showed the most defined peaks at 362, 435, 508 and 628 nm, similar to the spectra from the previous synthesis. For the DCM and acetonitrile fractions no defined peaks were observed in the spectra.

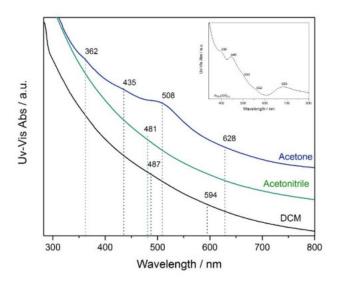


Figure V.4: UV/Vis spectra after SEC of the purest fraction from solvent extraction.

The selected samples were analyzed by MALDI to obtain information about size and composition of the clusters. Figure V.5 shows that all samples contain the desired $\text{CoAu}_{24}(\text{SR})_{18}$ cluster with the highest presence in the DCM sample. The acetonitrile and acetone samples have a pronounced peak at $6064\,\text{m/z}$ that could be related to a $\text{Co}_2\text{Au}_{19}(\text{SR})_{18}$ cluster.

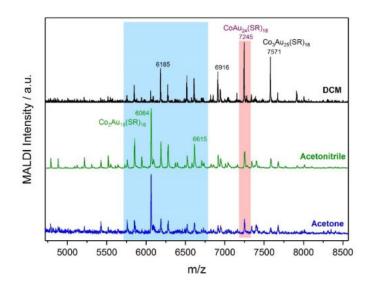


Figure V.5: MALDI spectra of acetonitril, aceton and DCM fraction.

XPS measurements were not able to prove the existence of Co in any of the fractions. This might be due to a relatively low concentration of Co in relation to Au and the C from the ligands. It was also not possible to detect sulfur. To improve the measurement it might help to remove the ligands by thermal treatment to eliminate interfering signal from carbon. Shivhare et al. showed that the cluster size and structure is hardly affected by mild thermal treatment for ligand removal^[99].

Preliminary XAFS measurements were performed on solid samples in order to get complementary information about the doped clusters. On the left side of Figure V.6 the S K-edge XANES spectra of the Co doped Au clusters and for reference the $PdAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$, un-doped $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ and the thiol ligand are shown. A similar tendency to $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ is observed in all the samples with clear S-C bonds at around 2475 eV related with the ligands and S-Au around 2473 eV. However, the S-Co bond around 2472 eV is clearly detected in the three Co doped Au cluster samples. This could be related to staple or surface core positions of Co atoms inside the cluster structure. On the right side in Figure V.6 the preliminar EXAFS analysis at Au L_3 -edge is shown. The Au-Au bond distances correlate with the Au_{25} structure, and a peak close to 2.5 Å is observed like in the case of Pd doped Au cluster which could be related with the incorporation of the heteroatom doping

inside the structure. However, additional measurements at lower temperature and further fitting analysis is required in order to confirm the possible positions of the Co dopant atoms.

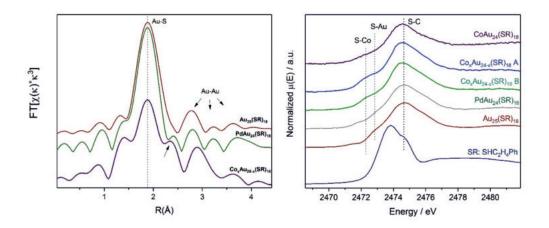


Figure V.6: XAFS of doped gold clusters and references: Left: S K-edge, XANES Right: Au L₃-edge, R-space

2 Theoretical calculations on $Co_xAu_{25-x}(SR)_y$ clusters S2

The dopant atom location is crucial information for bimetallic clusters to fully understand their reaction behavior. For this a correlation of experimental data with theoretical calculations (DFT) is required. In a collaboration with Prof. H. Häkkinnen's group of the Nanoscience Center of the University of Jyväskylä (Finland), calculations of the optical activity depending on the Co atom position were performed. The results of core center position (A), core surface position (B) and staple position (C) are shown in Figure V.7 (for the calculations only one Co atom was considered). There is a strong influence on the UV/Vis spectra depending on the location of the Co doping atom. In the comparison with the experimental data, position B fits best with the UV/Vis spectra obtained with the acetone extraction sample which is shown in Figure V.8. Accordingly, the expected position of the Co dopant atom would be on the surface of the Au core. This assumption fits with the XAFS measurements where a clear Co–S bond was detected. However, further calculations for more Co dopant atoms and possible combinations of occupations are required.

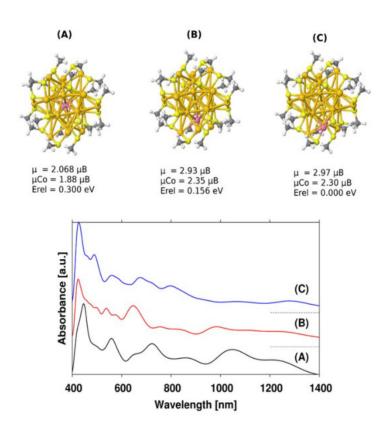


Figure V.7: Calculated UV/Vis spectra of $CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$ nanoclusters with different dopant positions

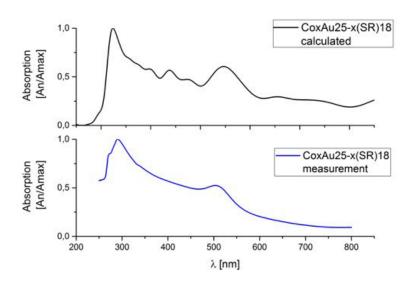


Figure V.8: Comparison of experimental and calculated data

V-3 Conclusions of $Co_x Au_{25-x}(SR)_y$

Preliminary results indicate the successful synthesis of $CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$ nanoclusters in two different ways. Synthesis approach S1 led to rather large structures that may contain multiple dopant atoms that were partially not stable in air. UV/Vis spectroscopy in combination with MALDI indicated one fraction to contain the desired $CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$ clusters. For this structure, with Synthesis S2 a similar UV/Vis spectrum and a more pronounced MALDI peak were obtained. The clusters were found in all three solvent extraction fractions from S2 with highest presence in DCM. In the acetonitrile phase MALDI indicated the existence of a Co2Au19(SR)18 cluster. XPS could not confirm the presence of Co in any of the samples, whereas XAFS S K-edge pointed to a similar behavior of the alleged $CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$ and $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$. S-C bonds from the ligands as well as S-Co bonds were found. The S-Co bond suggests Co to be either on the cluster core surface or to be in the staple motifs. Based on theoretical calculations the core surface position is more likely. Au L₃-edge measurements gave the same Au-Au distances as for the $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ reference, indicating a similar structure.

Chapter VI

Catalytic Properties

The catalytic behavior and stability of metal oxide supported cobalt, gold and cobalt doped gold nanoclusters, which are described in previous chapters, were investigated using carbon monoxide oxidation as model reaction. Preliminary in–situ spectroscopic measurements by DRIFTS and XAFS have been done to correlate the catalytic activity to the cluster properties. The monometallic cobalt clusters did not show catalytic activity in the reaction. A strong influence of the Co dopant on the catalytic behavior compared to the pure gold cluster could be observed, however, this chapter presents preliminary results. Further investigations are required and will be performed in the near future.

VI-1 Catalyst characterization

Elemental analysis was performed by GIXRF. The spectra of $Co/Au-CeO_2$ and $Au-CeO_2$ catalysts are shown in Figure VI.1 and Figure VI.2, respectively. The results of the elemental analysis calculated by fundamental parameters are shown in Table VI.1. In theory, for 22 atoms of gold a single cobalt atom is present, which is in agreement with expectations, since the fractions from SEC contained $CoAu_{24}(SR)_{18}$ and $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$, which could not be fully separated from the doped clusters. The Au_{25} catalyst has a lower loading compared to the cobalt doped Au catalysts.

Table VI.1: Weight and atomic ratio of Ce, Au and Co from Au/Co–CeO2 and Au25–CeO2 catalysts.

Element	Line	Weight [%]	Atom [%]
$-$ Au/Co-CeO $_2$			
Co	$_{\mathrm{Ka}}$	0.007	0.0174
Ce	La	99.465	99.607
Au	La	0.527	0.375
${ m Au_{25} ext{-}CeO_2}$			
Ce	La	99.670	99.765
Au	La	0.330	0.235

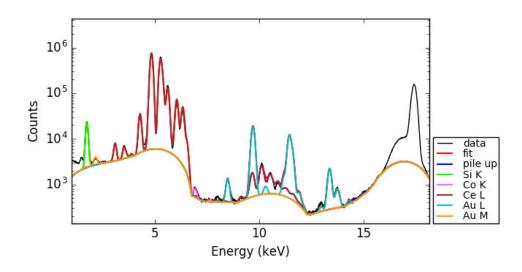


Figure VI.1: GIXRF spectrum and fitting of the Au/Co-CeO₂ catalyst

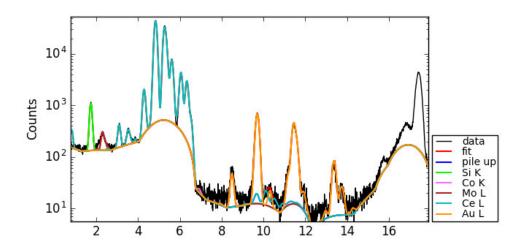


Figure VI.2: GIXRF spectrum and fitting of the Au_{25} – CeO_2 catalyst

VI-2 Catalytic activity in CO oxidation

The CO oxidation reaction was carried out inside the in–situ cell described in the experimental Chapter III–7, which was also used for DRIFTS and XAFS measurements during the reaction. The outlet of the cell was directly connected to a MS that allowed to follow the catalytic behaviour. Temperature programmed reaction (TPR) measurements were done in the temperature range from 40 °C to 200 °C or 300 °C, depending on the sample, with a heating rate of 5 °C/min. All samples were pretreated in–situ at 150 °C in 5 % O₂ in Ar for 30 min. Figure VI.3 and Figure VI.5 show the MS signal of H₂O, CO, CO₂ and O₂ normalized to Ar, plotted in logarithmic form versus the reaction temperature. On the left side the evolution of the reactants and products during the heating process is shown, while on the right side the affected cooling can be discerned. Figures VI.4 and VI.6 highlight the hysteresis in CO conversion from the two catalysts.

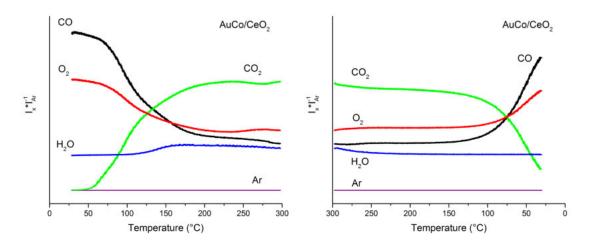


Figure VI.3: MS spectra of CO, CO₂, H₂O and O₂ during CO-oxidation on Au/Co-CeO₂ catalyst.

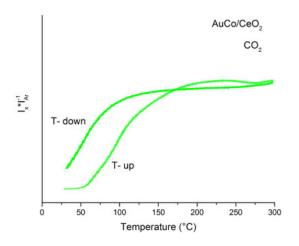


Figure VI.4: Hysteresis of CO conversion on Au/Co-CeO₂ catalyst.

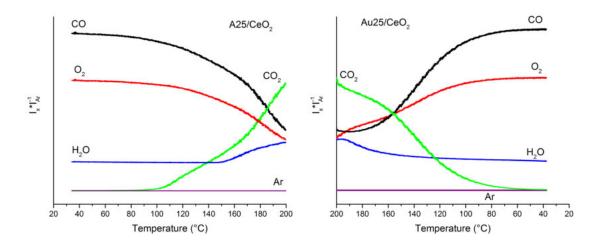


Figure VI.5: MS spectra of CO, CO₂, H_2O and O_2 during CO-oxidation experiment on Au_{25} -CeO₂ catalyst.

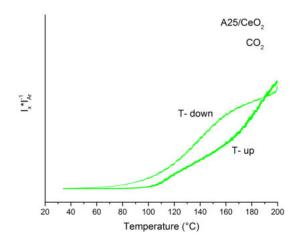


Figure VI.6: Hysteresis of CO conversion on Au₂₅–CeO₂ catalyst.

 ${\rm CO_2}$ formation starts around 50 °C in the case of the Co doped Au clusters, rising with temperature till a stable state around 200 °C is revealed. CO and ${\rm O_2}$ consumption follows the increase of ${\rm CO_2}$ formation till around 150 °C when it slows down to a stable state. This stable state is maintained during the cooling process till around 75 °C where decrease in conversion is observed. In the case of un–doped ${\rm Au_{25}}$ catalyst higher temperature around 100 °C is required for ${\rm CO_2}$ formation, which increases with temperature but with smaller slope in comparison to the doped system. After reaching the maximum temperature of 200 °C and start of the cooling process the activity drops immediately. In both cases water formation is detected, although the catalysts were pre–treated in ${\rm O_2/Ar}$ at 150 °C.

In order to compare the activity of the $\mathrm{Au/Co-CeO_2}$ and the $\mathrm{Au_{25}-CeO_2}$ catalyst, the real amount of active sites in each sample must be carefully taken into account. Figure VI.7 shows the intensity of the MS signal of $\mathrm{CO_2}$ normalized by the intensity

of Ar and divided by the total mass of the catalyst and the atomic ratio of support to active sites (Au, Co). The normalization with Argon cancels possible artifacts coming from variations of the gas. CO_2 was used for the analysis since CO has the same mass as N_2 and minimal air leaks cannot be ruled out.

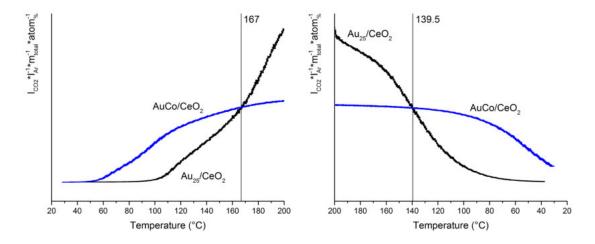


Figure VI.7: Comparison of the CO oxidation activity: normalized CO₂ MS signal of Au/Co-CeO₂ and Au₂₅-CeO₂ catalyst.

Once normalized, the same tendencies are obtained: CO conversion starts about 50 °C lower for the Co doped catalyst than for the pure Au; a pronounced activity rise till 120 °C reaching a stable state with the doped cluster catalysts. The decrease in the reaction onset temperature can be associated with the cobalt dopants, since the pure Co clusters from Chapter IV on ceria did not show any activity for CO oxidation. Then, the changes observed in the catalytic activity should be related to changes in the electronic configuration and properties of the gold clusters induced by the cobalt dopant.

VI-3 In situ DRIFT studies

In situ DRIFT measurements taken during the reaction on the CoAu/CeO₂ catalysts are shown in Figure VI.8. The spectra are plotted in intervals of 50 °C, during heating and as well as cooling. Previous studies from Wu et al. reported DRIFT bands of CO adsorption on different Au and Ce sites of pretreated thiolate protected Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ clusters supported on CeO₂^[44]. The same bands could be observed during the experiment, but with slight shifts due to temperature effects and different number of adsorbed CO. Less adsorbed CO can be related to less interacting dipoles, that results in a shift to lower wavenumbers, while shifts to higher frequency can be related to an increase in the temperature. The characteristic bands at 2177 cm⁻¹ related with CO-Ce and the region of CO-Au signals are marked in Figure VI.8

by a brown background. On the right side a purple box highlights a band around 2145 cm⁻¹ which is not observed for pure Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ clusters and assigned to CO–Co vibrations. This band is only appearing after the reaction, once there is no more activity. This may be related with structural changes or mobility of the Co atoms inside the cluster structure, that make cobalt atoms accessible to interact with CO.

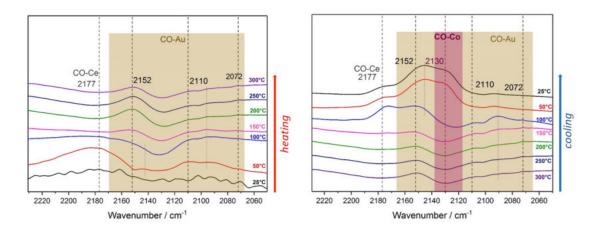


Figure VI.8: DRIFT spectra of CoAu catalyst under reaction conditions at different temperatures.

VI-4 XAFS

Figure VI.9 shows the XANES region of the Au/Co-ceria catalyst measured of the $Au L_3$ -edge. The $Au L_3$ -edge XANES probe 2p electrons to unoccupied 5d states of all the Au atoms in the clusters, therefore the Au-S bonding in these structures is observed. The white line intensity increases from bulk to cluster structure, indicating the d-electron depletion as the size decreases. From calculations, it is also observed that staple Au sites which are non-metallic show a more pronounced d-electron depletion than the metallic core Au sites.

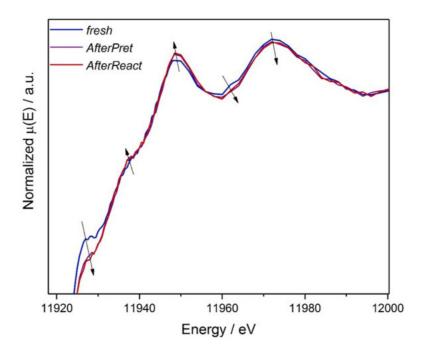


Figure VI.9: XAFS L₃: XANES region of Au/Co catalyst on CeO₂: fresh, after pretreatment and after reaction

There is a decrease of the whiteline and a small shift to higher binding energies between the fresh sample and the pretreated one. The change in the whiteline is due to the broken staple bonds (Au–S) due to pretreatment. Once the catalyst is pretreated, its enhanced stability under reactive conditions is indicated by the almost unchanged spectrum. For Fourier transformation in EXAFS, oscillation up to 10 K were taken into account and plotted in R–space, which is shown in Figure VI.10. Because of the relative low amount of clusters compared to the support material, the quality of data did not allow EXAFS fitting. Figure VI.10 shows only qualitative data since a shift up to 0.5 Å has to be expected because of the phase problem of the detector. Upon pretreatment and reaction the relative contribution to the signal of Au–Au increases, this is again resulting from the broken staple bonds.

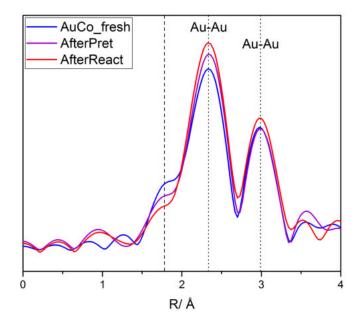


Figure VI.10: XAFS Au L₃: R-space of Au/Co on CeO₂ catalyst: fresh, after pretreatment and after reaction.

VI-5 Conclusions of Catalytic Properties

Supported $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters did not show any catalytic activity in CO oxidation. In contrast, cobalt doped gold clusters were active and clearly showed a different behavior than the $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ reference. The presence of incorporated Co atoms reduced the reaction on–set temperature by 50 °C, compared to $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$. During the reaction water formation was observed for pure and doped Au catalysts, despite the O_2/Ar pretreatment at 150 °C. DRIFTS measurements revealed an additional band that can be associated with Co–CO interactions during cooling at the end of the reaction. XAFS measurements clearly showed the breaking of staple bonds due to the pretreatment. The spectra before and after reaction hardly differed indicating a stable structure.

Chapter VII

Discussion

Thiolate protected cobalt nanoclusters in the size range of 2 nm with 25 to 30 atoms were synthesized for the first time. Monomeric staple fragments were revealed by MALDI and substantiated by Raman, in addition to XPS, XAFS and EELS analysis which pointed to cobalt in metallic state, indicating a successful synthesis of monometallic cobalt clusters. The clusters show longtime stability in solution but when exposed to air they decompose. Two different kinds of oxidized sulfur species were revealed by XPS analysis together with XANES and FTIR.

XAFS, MALDI and UV/Vis spectroscopy point to a successful synthesis of doped CoAu₂₄(SR)₁₈ clusters by two different approaches. Synthesis S1 additionally led to large structures with low stability in air. Longer reaction times could break those down to smaller stable structures. Synthesis S2 had a higher yield of the desired product. MALDI also indicated the presence of a Co₂Au₁₉(SR)₁₈ cluster only to be found in the acetonitrile phase. XAFS showed similar characteristics for the CoAu₂₄(SR)₁₈ sample and the Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ reference, which emphasizes the synthesis success.

 $Co_x(SR)_m$ clusters supported on CeO_2 were not catalytic active in CO oxidation, whereas CO oxidation with the $Au_{25}(SR)_{18}$ – CeO_2 catalyst started around 100 °C. However, the onset temperature for the CO conversion could be drastically decreased by 50 °C by incorporating Co dopant atoms into the gold clusters. After a reaction cycle with a maximum temperature of 300 °C a new band in the DRIFTS spectrum of the cobalt doped Au catalyst appeared that could be related to Co–CO vibrations; further investigations are needed to verify this hypothesis. The ligand removal of the clusters by O_2/Ar pretreatment was observed by XAFS. XANES spectra proved the stability of the clusters during reaction.

To complete this research topic, further experiments have to be performed. Structural information about the new clusters is key to get get deeper insight. This could by achieved by investigations with EXAFS at lower temperature ($\text{He}_{(l)}$) or crystallization could give definite proof of the cluster structure. To continue, syn-

thesis methods have to be improved in order to obtain higher yields. Separation could be increased by HPLC, in addition to SEC, to obtain truly monodisperse doped clusters for further investigations and rational catalyst design.

Chapter VIII

Appendix

1 Supporting information

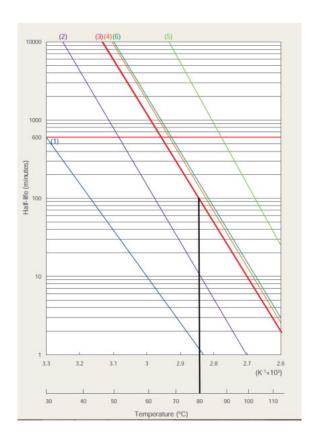


Figure VIII.1: Temperature dependency of the half life time of AIBN (red). The graphic was reproduced from $Wako^{[95]}$.

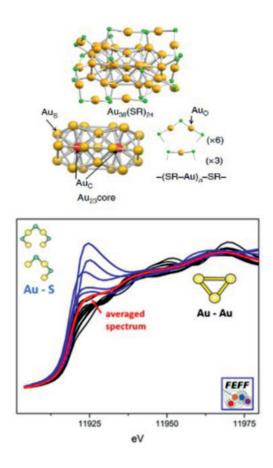


Figure VIII.2: Calculations of XANES spectra of $Au_{38}(SR)_{24}$ L_3 -edge with FEFF9^[100].

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