Electrochemical Activation of CO₂ through Atomic Ordering Transformations of AuCu Nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT: Precise control of elemental configurations within multimetallic nanoparticles (NPs) could enable access to functional nanomaterials with significant performance benefits. This can be achieved down to the atomic level by the disorder-to-order transformation of individual NPs. Here, by systematically controlling the ordering degree, we show that the atomic ordering transformation, applied to AuCu NPs, activates them to perform as selective electrocatalysts for CO₂ reduction. In contrast to the disordered alloy NP, which is catalytically active for hydrogen evolution, ordered AuCu NPs selectively converted CO₂ to CO at faradaic efficiency reaching 80%. CO formation could be achieved with a reduction in overpotential of ∼200 mV, and catalytic turnover was enhanced by 3.2-fold. In comparison to those obtained with a pure gold catalyst, mass activities could be improved as well. Atomic-level structural investigations revealed three atomic gold layers over the intermetallic core to be sufficient for enhanced catalytic behavior, which is further supported by DFT analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Multimetallic nanoparticles (NPs) have great tunability in their structure and properties because of their widely tunable compositions. In this regard, they have been extensively studied for various applications, where their properties overcome the drawbacks of single-component systems.¹–³ Beyond simply controlling the ratio between the elements where each is randomly distributed, precise positioning of atoms in a crystal lattice becomes possible when there exists a thermodynamically accessible phase. This results in a distinction between a disordered alloy and an ordered intermetallic structure, and the transition between the two different phases is the so-called order–disorder transformation.⁴

Recent works on ordered intermetallic NPs have focused on developing synthetic strategies to promote ordering transformations from the initial alloy and investigating their structure and properties for applications in magnetism and catalysis.⁵–¹² Structurally ordered Pt-based (with Fe, Co, Cu, etc.) NPs have been under investigation in the past few years, as the ordered structure has been known to offer enhanced activity and durability for the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR).⁶–⁹,¹⁵ On the other hand, for the other well-known bimetallic system of Au–Cu, discovery and use of its enhanced properties, attributable to its having an ordered lattice, have not been well studied, with only a few reports present regarding the synthetic approach to create ordered NPs.¹⁵,¹¹,¹³,¹⁴ Recently, it has been shown that Au–Cu bimetallic systems exhibit interesting electrocatalytic properties for CO₂ reduction controlled by their composition.¹⁵ In this work, we investigate the effects of order–disorder transformation in AuCu NPs on electrochemical CO₂ reduction. We show that the ordering transformation of a disordered AuCu (1:1 atomic ratio) NP turns an inactive catalyst, which mainly generates hydrogen gas, to an active catalyst for reducing CO₂. This was found through systematic control of the ordering degree of AuCu NPs and observation of its effect on the catalytic behavior. We perform detailed structural investigations of ordered AuCu NPs down to the atomic level to find ordered lattice configurations, together with a few-atoms-thick Au layer on the outer surface. Furthermore, thermochemical DFT calculations suggest that the enhanced CO₂ reduction activities observed for ordered intermetallic AuCu NPs arise from the formation of compressively strained Au overlayers.

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Materials. Copper(II) acetate monohydrate (96%), oleic acid (90%), tri-n-octylamine (TOA, 98%), oleylamine (70%), borane tetrabutylammonium complex (TBAB, 97%), gold(III) chloride trihydrate (HAuCl₄·3H₂O, 49% Au basis), and o-xylene were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Potassium carbonate (99.997%) was purchased from Alfa Aesar. All chemicals were used as received without further purification. Carbon dioxide (5.0 UHP) and argon (5.0 UHP) gas were purchased from Praxair.

Synthesis of Au Seed Nanoparticles. Au NPs that act as seeds during elemental copper incorporation were prepared using modified procedures from earlier work.²³ HAuCl₄·3H₂O (0.1 g) was dissolved in 10 mL of o-xylene and 10 mL of oleylamine at 10 °C under Ar flow and vigorous magnetic stirring. TBAB (0.5 mmol) dissolved in o-xylene (1 mL) and oleylamine (1 mL) via sonication was injected into the HAuCl₄ solution. The mixed solution was then stirred for 1 h at 10 °C before ethanol was added to precipitate Au NPs via centrifugation. The precipitate was redispersed in hexane, followed by addition of ethanol and centrifugation. The final product was dispersed in hexane for AuCu bimetallic NP synthesis.

Synthesis of AuCu Bimetallic Nanoparticles. The as-synthesized Au NPs (0.25 mmol) were dispersed in 20 mL of hexane and used as seeds for AuCu NP synthesis. A typical synthesis procedure was carried out in a Schlenk line. For the synthesis of d-AuCu (disordered), i1-AuCu, and i2-AuCu NPs (i1 and i2 at intermediate ordering), Cu(CH₂COO)₂·H₂O (0.25 mmol) was mixed with oleic acid (0.25 mL) and TOA (1.125 mL) in a 25 mL three-neck flask and heated at 80 °C for 30 min to form a clear solution. Au NPs in hexane was added to this solution. Once hexane completely evaporated, the mixture was heated at 120 °C for 20 min under Ar and then quickly heated to 200 or 280 °C, and kept for 50–100 min (i.e., 200 °C 50 min, 200 °C 100 min, 280 °C 100 min for the synthesis of d-AuCu, i1-AuCu and i2-AuCu NPs, respectively) before it was cooled to room temperature. The product was collected by ethanol addition, centrifuged, and redispersed in 20 mL of hexane. Particularly, for the synthesis of ordered AuCu NPs (o-AuCu NPs), Cu(CH₂COO)₂·H₂O (0.25 mmol) was dissolved in oleic acid (0.5 mL), TOA (2.25 mL), and oleylamine (0.3 mL) at 80 °C. After the addition of Au NPs/hexane solution and the evaporation of hexane, the solution was heated at 120 °C for 20 min and then quickly heated to 300 °C for 50 min. NP separation and purification steps similar to those used for the other NPs were followed.

Characterization of AuCu NPs. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the AuCu NPs were obtained using a Bruker AXS D8 Advance diffractometer with a Co Kα source (λCo.Kα = 1.79 Å). The morphology of AuCu NPs was probed using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) on a Hitachi H-7650 and a FEI Tecnai F20 instrument. The energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) elemental mapping images were recorded using an FEI Titan microscope. This instrument was equipped with an FEI Super-X Quad windowless detector that is based on silicon drift technology. Gold and copper quantitative analysis by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) was carried out on a PerkinElmer optical emission spectrometer (Optima 7000 DV). Before the ICP-AES measurement, the catalyst was digested in aqua regia for 24 h, and then deionized water was added to dilute the solution to a suitable concentration. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI 5400) measurements were carried out using an Al Kα source, with the pressure inside the chamber maintained below ~4 × 10⁻⁸ Torr. The spectra were collected at a pass energy of 17.9 eV. All the spectra collected were corrected using a Shirley background. Compositions were determined by considering the atomic sensitivity factors. Ultraviolet–visible (UV–vis) absorption spectra (Vernier) were measured with NPs dispersed in solution. Aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) was performed on a double aberration-corrected TEAM0.5 microscope at 300 kV using a high-angle annular detector, resulting in “Z-contrast” images. Experimental STEM images shown in this work were deconvoluted using the maximum entropy method.²⁷

Electrochemical Reduction of Carbon Dioxide. Working electrodes were prepared by drop-casting 4 μg of each AuCu NP (dispersed in hexanes) onto a carbon paper electrode (1 cm²) and drying under vacuum at room temperature overnight. All electrochemical measurements were carried out in our customized setup, which has two compartments separated by an anion-exchange membrane (Sileon AMY). The working electrode and the counter electrode compartment hold 15 mL of electrolyte each, and the working compartment is sealed in order to allow measurements of gas products. Platinum wire was used as a counter electrode and Ag/AgCl (3 M KCl) as a reference electrode. All potentials in this work are converted to the RHE scale by E(vs RHE) = E(vs Ag/AgCl) + 0.210 V + 0.0591 × pH. The 0.1 M KHCO₃ electrolyte was prepared from K₂CO₃, saturated with CO₂ (pH 6.8).

During electrochemistry, CO₂ flowed through the working compartment at a rate of 50 sccm. Linear sweep voltammetry was conducted initially at a scan rate of 50 mV/s, and multiple working electrodes prepared for each sample were similar in performance. During chronoamperometry, effluent gas from the cell went through the sampling loop of a gas chromatograph (SRI) to analyze the concentration of gas products. The gas chromatograph was equipped with a molecular sieves 13X (1.8 in. × 6 ft) and hayesep D (1.8 in. × 6 ft) column with Ar flowing as a carrier gas. The separated gas products were analyzed by a thermal conductivity detector (for H₂) and a flame ionization detector (for CO). Quantification of the products was performed with the conversion factor derived from the standard calibration gases. Liquid products were analyzed afterward by qNMR (Bruker AV-500) using dimethyl sulfoxide as an internal standard. Solvent preperation technique was implemented to suppress the water peak. Faradaic efficiencies were calculated from the amount of charge passed to produce each product, divided by the total charge passed at a specific time or during the overall run.

Computational Methods. Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations were performed using the Quantum Espresso (QE)¹⁸ code integrated with the Atomic Simulation Environment (ASE).¹⁹ The revised Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (RPBE) functional was used for exchange and correlation,²⁰ which has been shown to provide better adsorption energies than the PBE functional. The ion–electron interaction was described by ultrasoft pseudo potentials.²¹ The Kohon–Sham (KS) wave functions were expanded in a series of plane waves with a converged energy cutoff of 530 eV and a density cutoff of 5000 eV. The electron density was determined by the iterative diagonalization of the KS Hamiltonian using Pulay mixing of electronic densities at an electronic temperature of 0.1 eV. All total energies were extrapolated to 0 K.

The lattice parameters for the ordered Li₃AuCu intermetallic within this crystal structure were calculated as a = 4.09 Å and c = 3.73 Å, in a reasonable agreement with the experimental lattice parameters of a = 3.98 Å and c = 3.72 Å in the current study and previous studies.¹³ To determine adsorption energies, the surfaces were modeled using four-layer, 3x2 slabs repeated in a supercell geometry, with at least 17 Å of vacuum between successive slabs and the bottom two layers fixed. To determine surface energies, nine-layer symmetric slabs were used with five layers fixed.¹² Slabs were relaxed until all force components were less than 0.05 eV/Å. We used a Monkhorst–Pack grid with dimensions of 4x6x1 to sample the first Brillouin zones of the surfaces. In determining the adsorption energies, all sites were considered, and only the most stable ones are reported here. To determine the thermochemical reaction energetics, we applied the computational hydrogel electrode (CHE) model,²⁴ which does not require explicit consideration of the solvent or solvated protons. To determine the reaction free energy ΔG of a given proton electron transfer, e.g.,

\[ \text{+ CO}_2 + (\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^-) \rightarrow \text{COOH}^* \]

we can determine the free energy ΔGₚ of the corresponding chemical hydrogenation reaction,
At standard pressure, the reaction $H^+ + e^- \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{2}H_2(g)$ is at equilibrium at 0 V_{RHE}. Therefore, $\Delta G = \Delta G_0$ at 0 V_{RHE}, and in general, $\Delta G(U) = \Delta G_0 + eU$. We also define a limiting potential $U_L$, the potential at which the reaction step becomes exergonic: $U_L = -\Delta G_0/e$. Since barriers scale with reaction energies,\textsuperscript{25} trends in $U_L$ should follow trends in activity. In the case of CO$_2$ reduction toward methane and methanol, this potential has been shown previously to correlate well with experimental activities on transition metals.\textsuperscript{26,27} We have applied a simple $-0.25$ eV correction to *COOH adsorption energies to account for solvation, as was determined in previous works.\textsuperscript{27}

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

AuCu bimetallic nanoparticles with varying degrees of atomic ordering were realized by synthetic procedures modified from earlier work.\textsuperscript{3} Mainly, temperature and time were controlled during the incorporation of elemental copper into the gold NP seed (Figure S1), where higher temperatures and longer times promote the formation of ordered lattices. Since we start from identical seed particles, AuCu bimetallic NPs with similar sizes (~7 nm) could be produced that look identical in their morphologies (Figure 1 and Figure S2). Au-to-Cu ratios, identified from ICP-AES (Figure S3), are all around 1, confirming their compositional invariance.

The structural difference between AuCu NPs could be identified from XRD. As shown in Figure 1b, the peak positions of 111 and 200 diffractions further confirmed the formation of a bimetallic system, as they lie between those of pure Au and Cu. However, there was a trend where the superlattice peaks, which should be absent in a disordered face-centered cubic (FCC) structure of an alloy, became more evident in the NPs synthesized at higher temperatures for extended periods. Moreover, peak splitting became clearer as well at the 200 and 220 positions, indicating that the crystal structure was transitioning from FCC to face-centered tetragonal. All of these indicated an increase in the degree of atomic ordering following greater input of energy (controlled with temperature and time) during Cu diffusion into Au NP.\textsuperscript{5,10,11}

The degree of ordering was further quantified by the long-range order parameter ($S$), estimated from the relative intensity ratio between the superlattice peak and the fundamental peak (see Supporting Information for details).\textsuperscript{28} The AuCu NP synthesized at 300 °C had the highest $S$ value of 0.611, which corresponded to ~80% of atoms in the ordered lattice positions. After the second most ordered AuCu NP (synthesized at 280 °C 100 min), the degree of ordering could not be quantified by $S$ for the other two NPs, which had only short-range order. Combining the qualitative and quantitative comparisons of degree of ordering among the four AuCu NPs, we could conclude that the AuCu NP synthesized at 200 °C for 50 min (hereafter d-AuCu) was disordered (or the least ordered) and the one synthesized at 300 °C for 50 min (hereafter s-AuCu) was ordered (or the most ordered). The AuCu NPs at intermediate stages of ordering were named as i1-AuCu and i2-AuCu.

To study their activity toward electrochemical reduction of CO$_2$, identical numbers of each type of AuCu NP (mass of 4 μg total) were loaded on carbon paper electrodes (Figure S4). Each NP sample was washed multiple times to the point just before the NP solution became unstable, and the mass fraction of ligands in each sample was kept similar (Figure S5). Any thermal or chemical treatments were avoided so as not to alter their inherent structure produced. Each electrode was then tested in a customized electrochemical setup under conditions of 0.1 M KHCO$_3$ (pH 6.8) at 1 atm CO$_2$ and room temperature. Linear sweep voltammetry of AuCu NPs resulted in similar current densities from utilizing same number of NPs with identical morphology for each and providing equal surface area (Figure S6). During chronoamperometry, gas products were measured in situ using gas chromatography, and liquid products were analyzed from quantitative nuclear magnetic resonance (qNMR) spectroscopy.

![Figure 1](https://example.com/figure1.png)
The major products formed were CO and H₂, and their faradaic efficiencies (FE) were measured at −0.77 V vs RHE (Figure 1c). The only liquid product found was formate at relatively low FE < 5% (Figure S7). For the d-AuCu NP, H₂ was the dominant product (H₂ FE ≈ 61% and CO FE ≈ 34%), which meant it was considered rather inactive for electrochemical CO₂ reduction. However, a continuous rise was observed in CO FE with increase in the ordering degree of AuCu NPs, where o-AuCu NP exhibited the highest CO selectivity. CO became the major product for o-AuCu NP, with FE ≈ 80%. Previous study on the effects of composition in Au−Cu alloys for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction has shown that H₂ is the major product for AuCu (1:1 ratio), consistent with what we observe from d-AuCu or i1-AuCu. Surprisingly, without altering composition, we found that the ordering transformation could enhance CO formation, transitioning a CO₂ inactive catalyst to an active catalyst with high CO selectivity. The CO FEs measured at a range of potentials for d-AuCu and o-AuCu NP further confirmed the activity enhancement following disorder-to-order transformation, where CO formation could be obtained at ~200 mV lower overpotentials (Figure S8).

In order to understand this drastic change in activity that arises from the ordering transformation of a AuCu bimetallic NP, we probed the structure of d-AuCu and o-AuCu NP using various methods. Elemental analysis mapping of the distribution of Au and Cu showed that both elements were uniformly distributed in a single NP for both d-AuCu and o-AuCu NP (Figure S9). In order to investigate down to the atomic level, aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM was implemented. Figure 2a,b show aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM images of o-AuCu (a,b) and magnified STEM images of the center of the particle together with the overlapping schematics of structure projections (c,d). Atoms in orange and blue color represent gold and copper, respectively. (e) Intensity profile across the particle measured from the yellow box shown in (a). The distance between the strong intensities matches with the separation between gold atoms. Arrows indicate alternating high and low intensities, which represent gold and copper atoms, respectively. (f) Average intensity profile from the interior to the outer surface of the particle along rows A and B shown in (b). The distance between the peaks shown in A matches with the known separation between gold atoms.

Figure 2. Structural investigation of o-AuCu at atomic resolution. Aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM images of o-AuCu (a,b) and magnified STEM images of the center of the particle together with the overlapping schematics of structure projections (c,d). Atoms in orange and blue color represent gold and copper, respectively. (e) Intensity profile across the particle measured from the yellow box shown in (a). The distance between the strong intensities matches with the separation between gold atoms. Arrows indicate alternating high and low intensities, which represent gold and copper atoms, respectively. (f) Average intensity profile from the interior to the outer surface of the particle along rows A and B shown in (b). The distance between the peaks shown in A matches with the known separation between gold atoms.
contrast, certain unit cell orientations of the AuCu L1₃ structure were found (Figure 2c,d).

In addition to the atomically ordered structures that were verified, certain elemental characteristics at the surface were also observed. As can be directly seen from the images, atoms near the NP surface contained only brighter intensities of gold, in contrast to the alternating intensities at the core. This suggested a few-atoms-thick gold layer over the structurally ordered core. With the intensity profile measured across the particle (Figure 2e), a three-atoms-thick gold layer could be identified. Intensities were also measured along the rows of atoms which should contain only one element (Figure 2f). While the intensity along the row of gold atoms decayed to the surface (from the thickness decreasing), the intensity profile along what is supposed to be only copper atoms had spiking intensities starting from three atoms beneath the surface. All of these pointed to the fact that o-AuCu NP contained around three-atoms-thick gold layers grown directly over the ordered lattice. This could be observed in multiple images as well (Figure S10). In contrast, aberration-corrected HAADF-STEM images of d-AuCu NPs exhibited uniform intensities (Figure S11) from the random distribution of both elements, as expected. From atomically resolved imaging of o-AuCu NPs, we could conclude that the ordering transformation of a AuCu NP induced three-atoms-thick gold layers at its surface, in addition to the crystal structure transition to intermetallic ordered phase throughout its interior.

XAS was used to further probe the structure of AuCu NPs. Absorption spectra at the gold L₃-edge and copper K-edge were collected from o-AuCu NPs and d-AuCu NPs (Figure S12). Figure 3 presents extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data for both NPs, where the coordination environment surrounding Au and Cu for each NP can be observed. At the Au L₃-edge (Figure 3a), o-AuCu NP exhibits a larger first-shell scattering amplitude, which can be attributed to the stronger constructive interference of photoelectron scattering in the ordered structure. The atomic order is more evident at the Cu K-edge (Figure 3b), where third and fourth shell scattering (at radial distances from 4 to 6 Å) can be clearly observed due to the unique multiple scattering paths present in the ordered structure. On the other hand, d-AuCu NP at the Cu K-edge shows many variations of scattering paths at various lengths, together with destructive interference from the disordered structure, which lowers the amplitude.

By fitting the Au L₃-edge and Cu K-edge of the o-AuCu NPs simultaneously to an ordered face-centered tetragonal (L1₃) model, information regarding the coordination environment surrounding gold and copper atoms in o-AuCu NPs could be extracted (Tables S1 and S2). When comparing the number of nearest neighbor atoms to gold and copper, copper had a coordination number (CN) of 9.0 ± 1.2, while gold had a CN of only 6.9 ± 1.1. The lower first shell CN for gold indicated that gold atoms are relatively undercoordinated compared to copper, which resulted from gold being enriched at the surface as observed from HAADF-STEM. Therefore, from STEM imaging and XAS analysis, we could conclude that the o-AuCu NP surface contains a three-atoms-thick gold layer over the ordered AuCu intermetallic core. Furthermore, we speculate NPs at intermediate stages of ordering to have gold overlayers partially covering their surface. Rise in the degree of ordering may lead to increased coverage of gold overlayers associated with the ordered phase (Figure S13). XPS (Figure S14) and UV–vis spectroscopy (Figure S15) were used to further prove that the gold overlayer is only a few atoms thick and not significant enough to be detected by these techniques.

Figure 4a shows CO FEs at −0.77 V vs RHE, where atomic ordering drastically converts AuCu NPs to be selective for CO production as mentioned above. Indeed, this trend is accompanied by rise in the specific CO current density from 0.43 mA/cm² for d-AuCu NP to 1.39 mA/cm² for o-AuCu NP (Figure 4b). Therefore, we find that atomic ordering in a AuCu

Figure 3. X-ray absorption spectroscopy of AuCu NPs. EXAFS spectra at the Au L₃-edge (a) and Cu K-edge (b) of o-AuCu NPs (orange circles) and d-AuCu NPs (blue circles). Orange solid lines are the results of fitting to o-AuCu NPs.
bimetallic NP enhanced the intrinsic activity for CO$_2$-to-CO conversion by 3.2-fold (Figure S18), suggesting the importance of precise control of atomic arrangements in bimetallic NPs for catalytic purposes.

Interestingly, when o-AuCu NPs were compared to Au NPs, Au NPs exhibited higher CO selectivity, while o-AuCu NPs showed higher activity. Au NPs had a CO FE of 87% and a specific current density of 1.01 mA/cm$^2$. A similar trend in CO FE and specific current density was observed at other potentials as well (Figure S19). This indicated that a three-atoms-thick gold layer over the intermetallic core possesses different catalytic properties, such as the intermediate binding strength, to a pure gold lattice.

Here, we also probed mass activities ($A_{/g_{Au}}$) for CO formation and, as shown in Figure 4c, AuCu NPs are clearly advantageous for CO production with even NPs at intermediate ordering, such as i2-AuCu NP, reaching comparable activities to Au NP at $\sim$320 $A_{/g_{Au}}$. For the o-AuCu NP, CO mass activity reaches up to $\sim$830 $A_{/g_{Au}}$ which is 2.6-fold over that of Au NP. The o-AuCu NP catalyst was also relatively stable for extended periods of 12 h (Figure S20).

However, there was still a steady loss of activity ($\sim$15%) and this might be linked to the structural stability of gold overlayers induced in the ordered structure, as some loss of gold was observed. For electrochemically producing carbon monoxide, which is considered as the most economically viable so far among various CO$_2$ reduction products for downstream processing to useful chemicals, we found various types of gold-based nanostructures have been demonstrated.

We find that creating a Au–Cu bimetallic system with induced atomic ordering could be an effective strategy for promoting efficient processing of CO$_2$, where the structural motifs found here can also be translated to other Au-based morphologies that provide higher current output. Certainly, further efforts are needed to ensure catalytic stability of the motifs found here to the levels required for industrially relevant applications.

The origin of enhanced CO$_2$ reduction activity by atomic ordering transformations and the resulting three-atoms-thick gold overlayer of AuCu NPs was investigated using DFT calculations. Here, we modeled a (211) facet, since it has been shown that step sites are considerably more energetically favorable for the reactions involved than terrace sites and catalytic activity should be dominated by the step sites.

Figure 5a shows the model systems considered for AuCu NPs. o-AuCu NP was modeled as a strained Au(211) surface, since it has been proposed that specific surface stability of various site motifs was investigated. (b) Calculated limiting potentials for CO$_2$ reduction and H$_2$ evolution on model systems. (c) The difference in limiting potentials for CO$_2$ reduction and H$_2$ evolution on model systems.
surface energy. A model Au(211) surface in its original lattice configuration was also investigated as a comparison. The reduction of CO$_2$ to CO occurs through a COOH intermediate bound to the active site.\textsuperscript{44,46} For the metals that bind CO weakly, desorption of CO readily occurs, and the formation of COOH* is the potential-limiting step, where * represents a surface site. On the other hand, hydrogen evolution involves H* as the only adsorbed intermediate, and the binding energy of H* has been shown to be a reasonable descriptor of hydrogen evolution activity.\textsuperscript{47,48}

Figure 5b compares the thermodynamic limiting potentials $U_i$(CO$_2$) and $U_i$(H$_2$) for the three model systems. Since activation barriers scale linearly with binding energies, trends in limiting potentials reflect trends in catalytic turnover.\textsuperscript{25} Based on this analysis, $U_i$(CO$_2$) of o-AuCu NP is most positive followed by Au NP and d-AuCu NP and therefore CO$_2$-to-CO conversion activity would decrease in the order of o-AuCu NP > Au NP > d-AuCu NP, which is in agreement to the trend observed experimentally. Recent DFT calculations on transition metals have suggested that the difference between the limiting potentials for CO$_2$ reduction and H$_2$ evolution (i.e., $U_i$(CO$_2$)−$U_i$(H$_2$)) can be linked to the trends in experimentally observed CO$_2$ reduction selectivity.\textsuperscript{39} With $U_i$(CO$_2$) being more negative than $U_i$(H$_2$) for all transition metals, more positive $U_i$(CO$_2$)−$U_i$(H$_2$)$_2$ corresponds to higher selectivity toward CO$_2$ reduction. The trend observed for $U_i$(CO$_2$)−$U_i$(H$_2$)$_2$, as shown in Figure 5c, suggests that selectivity toward CO$_2$ reduction decreases in the order of Au NP > o-AuCu NP > d-AuCu NP, consistent with the experimental trends.

From the thermochemical DFT analysis, we find that the activity of o-AuCu NP originates from the compressively strained three-atoms-thick gold layers formed over the AuCu intermetallic core. We note that, while the differences in energetics appear to be only ~0.1 eV, such shifts can provide order of magnitude changes in activity, since the turnover frequencies vary exponentially with activation barriers, which scale linearly with binding energies. Furthermore, projected density of states of the model systems predict a similar trend as well (Figure S22), which shows that the ordering transformation in AuCu should favor CO$_2$ reduction.

**CONCLUSION**

The exquisite control of atomic arrangements in unit cells of bimetallic systems to an individual nanoparticle level could be a promising approach to induce interesting properties and understand their structural origin. The effect of ordering transformations in AuCu bimetallic NPs on their electrocatalytic activity for CO$_2$ reduction was studied, where ordered AuCu NPs selectively reduced CO$_2$ in contrast to disordered AuCu NPs that favored hydrogen evolution. With structure-probing techniques down to the atomic level, the enhanced activity was attributed to compressively strained three-atoms-thick gold overlays that formed over the intermetallic core, resulting from the disorder-to-order transformation. With a large number of multimetallic systems accessible, we expect the method of regulating phase transformation between disordered alloys and ordered intermetallics in nanomaterials to have great potential in areas where control over the level of atomic precision is desired.

**ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

Supporting Information

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Experimental details and additional characterization data, including Figures S1−S22 and Tables S1 and S2 (PDF)

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**Notes**

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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