

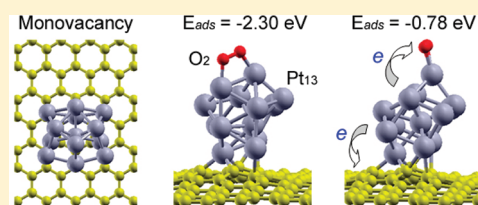
# DFT-Based Study on Oxygen Adsorption on Defective Graphene-Supported Pt Nanoparticles

Dong-Hee Lim and Jennifer Wilcox\*

Department of Energy Resources Engineering, Stanford University, 367 Panama Street, Green Earth Sciences, Stanford, California 94305-2220

Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The structural and electronic properties of Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles adsorbed on monovacancy defective graphene have been determined to understand oxygen adsorption on Pt nanoparticles based upon density functional theory predictions using the generalized gradient approximation. We demonstrate that a monovacancy site of graphene serves a key role as an anchoring point for Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles, ensuring their stability on defective graphene surfaces and suggesting their enhanced catalytic activity toward the interaction with O<sub>2</sub>. Strong hybridization of the Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle with the sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bonds of neighboring carbon atoms near the monovacancy site leads to the strong binding of the Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle on defective graphene (−7.45 eV in adsorption energy). Upon both adsorption of the Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle on defective graphene and O<sub>2</sub> on Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene, strong charge depletion of the Pt atom at the interfaces of Pt–C and Pt–O<sub>2</sub> is observed. Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles are able to donate charge to both defective graphene and O<sub>2</sub>. The Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene complex shows an O<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy of −2.30 eV, which is weaker than the O<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy of −3.92 eV on a free Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle. Considering the strong stability of the Pt nanoparticles and relatively weaker O<sub>2</sub> adsorption energy due to the defective graphene support, we expect that the defective graphene support may increase the catalytic activity of Pt nanoparticles compared to flat Pt metal surfaces, not only by preventing sintering of Pt nanoparticles due to the strong anchoring nature of the graphene defect sites but also by providing a balance in the O<sub>2</sub> binding strength that may allow for enhanced catalyst turnover.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

Graphene, one planar sheet of sp<sup>2</sup>-bonded carbon atoms arranged in a hexagonal lattice, has recently attracted wide attention in materials science and condensed-matter physics due to its unique electronic properties.<sup>1–3</sup> The presence of carbon vacancies on graphene significantly influences the physical and chemical characteristics and magnetic properties of graphene.<sup>4–6</sup> Carbon vacancies induce magnetism by breaking the symmetry of nonmagnetic perfect graphene.<sup>6–9</sup> The vacancy sites in graphene can be used as anchoring points for the growth of nanoparticles. The binding of Fe and Al nanoparticles, for example, is significantly enhanced due to sp<sup>2</sup> dangling carbon bonds at a monovacancy site of defective graphene.<sup>5</sup> These defective graphene-supported nanoparticles may enhance surface reactivity.<sup>5,10</sup> Previous experimental studies have shown that atomic defects in graphene sheets can be formed after several tens of seconds of irradiation with an electron beam<sup>11</sup> or by treatment with hydrochloric acid.<sup>12</sup>

Platinum (Pt) nanoparticles are considered in the current study with specific focus on the changes of mechanical and electronic properties from the bulk phase to the nanoparticle-scale, with interest to the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR). Platinum has been represented as one of the best electrocatalysts for ORR with most of the previous Pt ORR studies focusing on different types of Pt surface models (i.e., Pt(111), Pt(110), or Pt(100))<sup>13–15</sup> or cluster models.<sup>16,17</sup> The ORR has been of

central focus amidst the ongoing studies of electrode reactions in low-temperature fuel cells. The slow kinetics of this reaction is limiting its application, although efforts are being pursued to try and advance its performance to achieve improved efficiency.<sup>14,18–20</sup>

Recently, composites of graphene with deposited metal nanoparticles (e.g., Pt, Au, and Pd) have been proposed as effective nanocomposites for fuel cell applications,<sup>21–23</sup> with the graphene–metal nanocomposites casted as films on electrode surfaces.<sup>21,22</sup> Pt nanoparticles supported on functionalized graphene sheets have showed enhanced activity and stability of Pt catalysts for electrocatalytic oxygen reduction in proton-exchange membrane (PEM) fuel cells.<sup>22</sup> The enhanced activity of Pt nanoparticles on functionalized graphene may be attributed to enhancement of the electrochemically active surface area.<sup>21</sup>

Experimental work carried out by Sakurai et al.<sup>24</sup> indicate that transition-metal clusters (Fe, Ti, Zr, Nb, and Ta) with “magic numbers”  $n$ ,<sup>24,25</sup> such that,  $n = 7, 13,$  and  $15$  atoms in a given cluster, have a higher geometric and/or electronic stability than other cluster sizes. For the current study,  $n = 13$  has been chosen to investigate the interaction of a Pt nanoparticle on defective graphene and the adsorption of oxygen on the defective-graphene-supported Pt nanoparticle.

Received: June 3, 2011

Revised: October 11, 2011

Published: October 11, 2011

For ORR investigations, the essential first step is to elucidate the behavior of oxygen adsorption on Pt nanoparticles. The purpose of the current study is to utilize defective graphene-supported Pt nanoparticles for the enhancement of the catalytic activity of Pt nanoparticles toward oxygen reduction. For this, the current study investigates the following two adsorption studies: (1) Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle adsorption on a monovacancy defect site of graphene and (2) oxygen adsorption on the Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene. The current study also provides details of the structural and electronic properties of these investigated systems.

## 2. COMPUTATIONAL METHODOLOGY

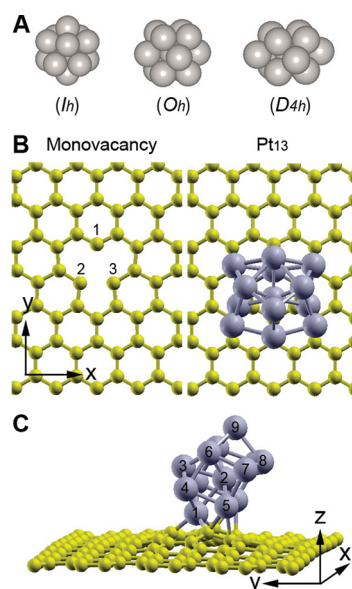
Spin-polarized density functional theory calculations were performed using the Vienna *ab initio* Simulation Package (VASP)<sup>26–29</sup> with the projector-augmented wave (PAW)<sup>30,31</sup> method to calculate the electronic and atomic structures and energies of Pt nanoparticle-graphene systems. Electron exchange-correlation functionals were represented with the generalized gradient approximation (GGA), and the model of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE)<sup>32</sup> was used for the nonlocal corrections. An orthorhombic supercell of 19.74 × 17.10 × 32.01 Å with periodic boundary conditions was used for the nanoparticle–graphene systems. The nanoparticle–graphene system was separated from its periodic images in the *z* direction by a vacuum space of 25.5 Å. A dipole moment correction was not incorporated due to its negligible effect on adsorption energy of Fe<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles on a monovacancy defective graphene.<sup>5</sup> A kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV was used with a plane-wave basis set. The integration of the Brillouin zone was conducted using a 2 × 2 × 1 Monkhorst–Pack grid<sup>33</sup> with the  $\Gamma$ -point included and first-order Methfessel–Paxton smearing<sup>34</sup> with a width of 0.1 eV. All atoms were fully relaxed and optimized until the forces were reduced below 0.02 eV/Å.

The supercell used for a monovacancy defective graphene consists of 127 carbon atoms with a single carbon atom vacancy at the center. The isolated Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle was optimized in a 30.0 Å cubic supercell in which the Brillouin zone integration was carried out for the  $\Gamma$ -point only. For O<sub>2</sub> in the gas phase, the calculations predict an oxygen bond length of 1.23 Å and bond dissociation energy of 6.07 eV. Both are larger than experimental data (i.e., bond length of 1.21 Å and bond dissociation energy of 5.17 eV).<sup>35</sup> Other DFT studies predict O<sub>2</sub> bond lengths of 1.24<sup>36</sup> and 1.22<sup>37</sup> Å and bond dissociation energies of 5.73<sup>37</sup> and 6.24<sup>32</sup> eV, which are comparable with the predictions of the current work. The adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ) of a Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle (or O<sub>2</sub>) per adsorbate is calculated as

$$E_{\text{ads}} = \frac{1}{N_{\text{adsorbate}}} (E_{\text{substrate+adsorbate}} - E_{\text{substrate}} - N_{\text{adsorbate}} E_{\text{adsorbate}}) \quad (1)$$

where  $N_{\text{adsorbate}}$  is the number of an adsorbate in the model system.  $E_{\text{substrate+adsorbate}}$ ,  $E_{\text{substrate}}$ , and  $E_{\text{adsorbate}}$  are the total energies of Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene (or O<sub>2</sub>–Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene), defective graphene (or Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene), and gas phase Pt nanoparticle (or O<sub>2</sub>). A negative adsorption energy indicates that adsorption is exothermic (stable) with respect to the free nanoparticle cluster.

For the charge difference density ( $\Delta n(\mathbf{r})$ ) plot of the O<sub>2</sub>–Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene system upon O<sub>2</sub> adsorption, the charge densities of the system ( $n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{system}}$ ) and its separated constituents of the O<sub>2</sub> adsorbate ( $n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{adsorbate}}$ ) and Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene



**Figure 1.** (A) Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles. (B) Top view and (C) side view of the adsorbed Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle on the monovacancy site of graphene. Yellow and gray colors represent C and Pt, respectively.

substrate ( $n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{substrate}}$ ) were integrated in *x* and *y* directions (parallel to the surface), and  $\Delta n(\mathbf{r})$  was calculated as  $n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{system}} - [n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{adsorbate}} + n(\mathbf{r})_{\text{substrate}}]$ . The source of the isolated O<sub>2</sub> and Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene structures has been directly obtained from the optimized structure of the O<sub>2</sub> adsorbed Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene system and then reoptimized by relaxing *x* and *y* directions while freezing the *z* directions. The Bader charge analysis<sup>38–40</sup> has been carried out by using the optimized geometries of free O<sub>2</sub>, Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene, and O<sub>2</sub> adsorbed Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene with a second finer fast Fourier transform (FFT)-mesh 4 times that used in the adsorption calculations.

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Interaction of Pt<sub>13</sub> Nanoparticle on Defective Graphene.

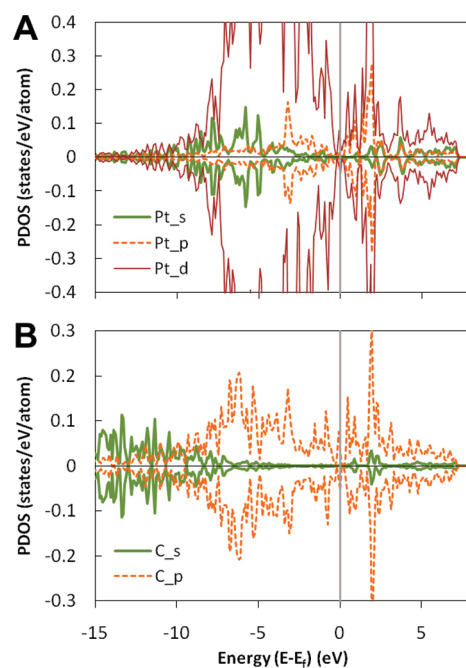
Prior to the investigation of Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle adsorption on defective graphene, a stable configuration of isolated Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle was sought by optimizing three different geometries of Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles in the gas phase: icosahedron (*I<sub>h</sub>*), regular cuboctahedron (*O<sub>h</sub>*), and distorted cuboctahedron (*D<sub>4h</sub>*) as shown in Figure 1A. The distorted cuboctahedron (*D<sub>4h</sub>*) configuration is more stable than the other symmetry configurations showing ~1 eV lower total energy. This result is consistent with a previous DFT study of Pt nanoclusters showing that the lowest energy configuration of Pt<sub>13</sub> is a symmetry-broken *D<sub>4h</sub>* rather than icosahedral configuration.<sup>41</sup> The cluster radii of the Pt<sub>13</sub> *D<sub>4h</sub>* configuration are 2.49 and 3.13 Å for the nearest and next nearest Pt atoms from the center Pt atom, respectively. Bare defective graphene with a monovacancy site has a magnetic moment of 1.20  $\mu_{\text{B}}$ , whereas perfect graphene is nonmagnetic. The magnetic moment is attributed to the C1 unsaturated bond rather than the C2 and C3 atoms that form a weak bonding interaction (i.e., 2.03 Å, shorter than 2.47 Å of perfect graphene) in Figure 1B.<sup>5</sup> Details of spin density analysis supporting the localized magnetic moment of C1 at the carbon vacancy site of bare defective graphene are available in the Supporting Information, Figure S1.

For Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle adsorption on defective graphene, the current study tested three different adsorption configurations of Pt<sub>13</sub> D<sub>4h</sub> based on the adsorption studies of Fe<sub>13</sub> and Al<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles on monovacancy defective graphene,<sup>5</sup> in which one nanoparticle edge atom interacts with three sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bonds of carbon at the monovacancy site showing exceptional stability compared to the other modes where two or three nanoparticle atoms are placed near the monovacancy site. Figure 1 panels B and C, represent the most stable adsorption configurations of the Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle on the monovacancy site of graphene. The adsorption energy for the most stable Pt<sub>13</sub> D<sub>4h</sub> nanoparticle is found to be  $-7.45$  eV. The strong interaction between the nanoparticle and the carbon-vacancy defect in graphene is attributed to the sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bond formed at the three neighboring carbon atoms near the vacancy<sup>5,42</sup> due to the carbon–carbon bond cleavage.<sup>6–8</sup> The full geometries of the other adsorption configurations are available in Supporting Information, Figure S2.

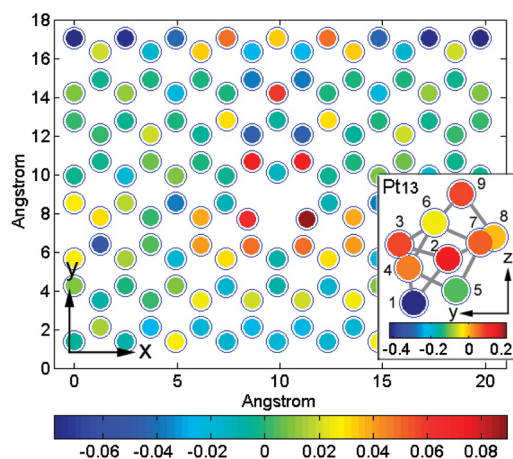
Upon adsorption, both geometries of the adsorbed Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticles and the initially planar surface of defective graphene are distorted and strongly reconstructed. The initially planar surface of defective graphene strongly reconstructs with relaxation normal to the surface (i.e., in the *z* direction), especially near the defect site while lateral relaxation of the graphene lattice is not significant as shown in Figure 1C. The height of the carbon atoms near the defect site increases up to 1.33 Å, which is similar with the elevated heights of carbon atoms shown in the Fe<sub>13</sub> (1.09 Å) and Al<sub>13</sub> (1.48 Å) nanoparticle adsorption on the monovacancy site of defective graphene.<sup>5</sup> The elevated heights of carbon atoms at the monovacancy site are ordered as Fe < Pt < Al nanoparticle systems. This may be attributed to the atomic radii of Fe (1.26 Å) < Pt (1.39 Å) < Al (1.43 Å).<sup>5</sup>

The projected density of states (PDOS) has been analyzed for the valence electrons of the isolated Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle and defective graphene in addition to the adsorbed complexes. The PDOS analyses are useful for understanding the details of the interaction between the Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle and defective graphene. Figure 2 shows plots of the PDOS of the s, p, and d states of bound Pt (Pt1 in Figure 1C) and the s and p states of carbon nearest from monovacancy site of graphene. Pt atoms in the isolated Pt<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle show narrow and sharp bands characterized by a set of discrete levels in a finite system<sup>43</sup> (data not shown here). However, Pt atoms in the adsorbed nanoparticle represent delocalized, broadened, and strongly modified bands ranging from  $-15$  to  $+7$  eV in Figure 2A, which is similar to the PDOS of the Pt(111)<sup>44</sup> metal surface. Comparing the PDOS of Pt and C atoms in Figure 2, strong hybridization between Pt 5d states and C 2p states of defective graphene occurs through almost the entire energy region, supporting a covalent bonding interaction between Pt and C atoms as described in a Pt<sup>+</sup>–C example.<sup>45</sup> These broadened and strongly modified states of Pt indicate a strong hybridization of the Pt nanoparticle with the sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bonds of carbon at the monovacancy site of graphene.

Figure 3 displays excess Bader charges of the Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene system indicating relatively strong charge accumulation at the neighboring carbon atoms near the monovacancy due to the interaction between the sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bonds of the carbon atoms and the Pt nanoparticle. Also, relatively strong charge depletion is found near the bound Pt atom (Pt1 in both Figures 1C and 3). Bader charge analysis reveals negative excess charges on the bound Pt atom of  $-0.41e$  and positive excess



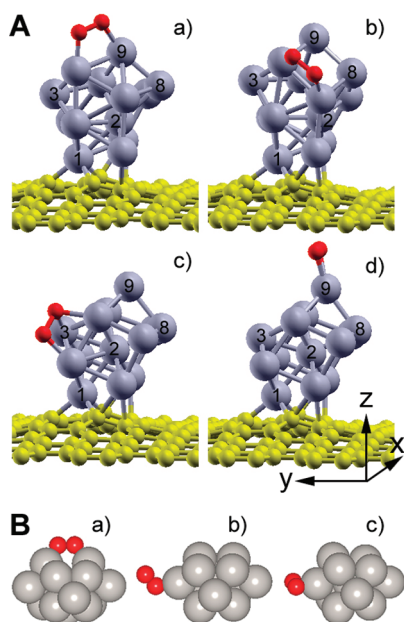
**Figure 2.** (A) PDOS of s, p, and d states of bound Pt (Pt1 in Figure 1C) at the monovacancy site of graphene. (B) PDOS of s and p states of carbon nearest from the monovacancy site after adsorption. Spin-up (↑) and spin-down (↓) states are marked as positive and negative values, respectively. The Fermi energy is referenced at 0 eV.



**Figure 3.** Excess Bader charges (in units of  $e$ ) of the monovacancy defective graphene and adsorbed Pt<sub>13</sub> (in the inset) in the Pt<sub>13</sub>–defective graphene system. Numbers 1–9 in the inset represent Pt atoms as depicted in Figure 1C.

charges (up to  $0.05$ – $0.09e$ ) on carbon atoms neighboring the monovacancy site. Total net excess charge on the defective graphene is  $0.24e$ . This indicates that charges are transferred from bound Pt to defective graphene, in particular to the sp<sup>2</sup> dangling bonds of carbon atoms near the vacancy site. Lim et al.<sup>5</sup> conducted Fe<sub>13</sub> and Al<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle adsorption on the monovacancy defective graphene and reported that excess charges on bound Fe and Al atoms at the monovacancy site were  $-0.47$  and  $-1.72e$ , respectively, and total net excess charges on the defective graphene were  $1.57$  and  $3.08e$  for the Fe<sub>13</sub> and Al<sub>13</sub> nanoparticle





**Figure 4.** (A)  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles:  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energies of (a)  $-2.30$ , (b)  $-1.96$ , (c)  $-1.80$ , and (d)  $-0.78$  eV. (B)  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles optimized in the gas phase:  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energies of (a)  $-3.92$  eV in a bridge, (b)  $-1.20$  eV in a vertical (Pauling model), and (c)  $-1.19$  eV in an atop (Griffith model) mode. Red, yellow, and gray colors represent O, C, and Pt, respectively.

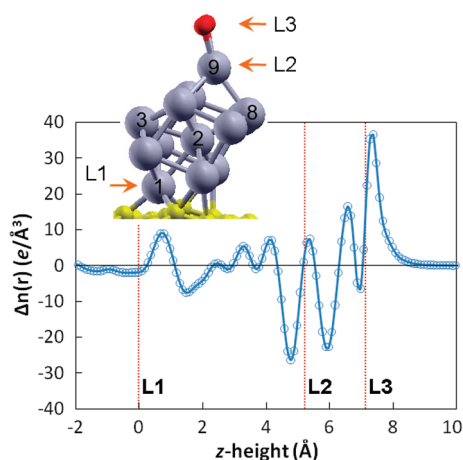
systems, respectively. The amount of charge transferred from the Pt, Fe, and Al nanoparticles to defective graphene is ordered as, Pt ( $0.24e$ ) < Fe ( $1.57e$ ) < Al ( $3.08e$ ). This can be explained by the difference in both the work functions of Pt ( $5.64$  eV),<sup>35</sup> Fe ( $4.67$  eV),<sup>35</sup> and Al ( $4.06$  eV)<sup>35</sup> and the ionization potentials of Pt ( $8.96$  eV),<sup>46</sup> Fe ( $7.90$  eV),<sup>46</sup> and Al ( $5.99$  eV).<sup>46</sup> The work function ( $\Phi$ ) and ionization potential (IP) are important electronic properties for evaluating the charge transfer between adsorbate and substrate since both terms refer to the energy required to remove electrons from an adsorbate–substrate system. Although the work function is not always governed by the quantity of adsorbate-induced charge transfer,<sup>47</sup> charges are generally more likely transferred to substrates from adsorbates with lower  $\Phi$  and IP.

**Interaction of  $\text{O}_2$  on  $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –Defective Graphene.** To determine the possible  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption configurations on the defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle, a simple  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  model was used for preliminary tests to offer insight into  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on the supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle. The simple  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  model was directly obtained from the adsorbed  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle configuration shown in Figure 1C by removing defective graphene and freezing only Pt1 (bound Pt) to mimic the anchored Pt atom at the monovacancy site of graphene. After examining the relative total energies of 16 different  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption configurations on the simple  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  model including bridge, vertical (Pauling model), and atop (Griffith model) modes,<sup>48,49</sup> it has been found that  $\text{O}_2$  prefers to bind on the simple  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  model in a bridge configuration as shown in the Supporting Information, Table S1. Among the 16 possible initial  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption configurations on the simple  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  model, three bridge configurations and one atop configuration were fully reoptimized on the monovacancy site of defective graphene. As shown in Figure 4A, stable  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption configurations

on the defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles have adsorption energies of  $-2.30$  eV in the bridge configuration (a) and  $-0.78$  eV in the atop configuration (d). The predicted  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energy in the bridge configuration is significantly enhanced compared to other studies of  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption, which range among  $-0.58$  to  $-0.72$  eV on Pt(111),<sup>50</sup>  $-1.30$  eV on Pt(001),<sup>51</sup>  $-1.48$  eV on Pt(110),<sup>52</sup>  $-1.42$  eV on a  $\text{Pt}_2$  cluster,<sup>53</sup>  $-1.08$  eV on a  $\text{Pt}_3$  cluster,<sup>53</sup> and  $-0.53$  to  $-0.83$  eV on  $\text{Pt}_n$  clusters ( $n = 2-5$ ).<sup>54</sup> The  $\text{O}_2$  bond length of  $1.23$  Å as a free gas-phase molecule is more elongated upon adsorption on defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  systems, i.e., as  $1.44$  and  $1.38$  Å for the bridge and atop configurations, respectively, compared to  $1.35$  Å<sup>36</sup> on Pt(111). A strong linear relationship is observed between elongated  $\text{O}_2$  bond lengths and transferred charge amounts to  $\text{O}_2$  ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ); the more charge transferred to  $\text{O}_2$  from the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –defective graphene system, the more elongated the O–O bonds become. Table S2 in the Supporting Information summarizes the elongated  $\text{O}_2$  bond lengths and the excess Bader charge of the components of the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –defective graphene systems (this Bader charge analyses were conducted with the same FFT-mesh as used in the adsorption calculations to save computational effort).

Although defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles may enhance  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption, the adsorption energies are higher (less stable) than those of the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles optimized in the gas phase. Figure 4B shows  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles, exhibiting a greater exothermic  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energy of up to  $-3.92$  eV in the bridge configuration compared to that of defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles. This exceptionally stable  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption brings significant distortion to the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle compared to other  $\text{O}_2$ –free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  systems as shown in Figure 4B (more configurations of  $\text{O}_2$ –free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  systems in Supporting Information, Figure S3). Traditionally, stronger adsorption leads to a greater distortion in adsorbate–substrate systems as discussed in the previous work,<sup>5</sup> concerning  $\text{Fe}_{13}$  and  $\text{Al}_{13}$  nanoparticle adsorption on defective graphene. In other words, an adsorbate–substrate system that provides more degrees of freedom for geometry distortion may be better suited for allowing enhanced adsorption between an adsorbate and substrate. To test this hypothesis,  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energies on the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle were recalculated by freezing the positions of the atoms in the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle. Two adsorption sites were examined, i.e., the most and least stable sites as illustrated in Figure 4B (a) and (c), with adsorption energies of  $-1.14$  and  $-1.07$  eV, respectively. Compared to the fully relaxed  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles ( $-3.92$  and  $-1.19$  eV for the most and least stable sites, respectively), this result indicates that the significant enhancement of the oxygen interaction with free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles is attributed to the geometry distortion of the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle upon  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption. Additional views of Figure 4B (a) are shown in the Supporting Information, Figure S4, that further illustrate the extent of distortion upon  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption.

The monovacancy defective graphene support stably anchors a  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle at the vacancy site and consequently prevents the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle from being significantly altered upon  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption. This may explain the weaker  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energies on the defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  system compared to those of the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle, which may furthermore be beneficial to this system's potential catalytic applications, e.g., oxygen reduction reaction. For instance, if a reactant binds too strongly to a catalyst surface, it can substantially decrease the turnover frequency. Rather, a balance in the binding strength should be sought. It should be duly noted that larger Pt nanoparticles



**Figure 5.** Charge difference density of integrated charge densities in the  $x$  and  $y$  directions normal to the surface for adsorbed  $\text{O}_2$  on the monovacancy defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle. L1, L2, and L3 represent the bottom and top Pt layers and  $\text{O}_2$  layer, respectively. The L1 layer is referenced at 0 Å in  $z$  height. Red, gray, and yellow colors represent O, Pt, and C, respectively.

(> $\text{Pt}_{13}$ ) that provide less degrees of freedom for geometry distortion upon  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption might behave differently in terms of  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption strength between defective graphene-supported and free Pt systems.

Figure 5 displays the charge difference density,  $\Delta n(\mathbf{r})$ , of integrated charge densities in  $x$  and  $y$  directions (parallel to the surface), which are plotted with respect to the  $z$  direction. As discussed in previous work,<sup>5</sup> the charge difference density may be underestimated or overestimated when an adsorbate is significantly distorted upon adsorption. The magnitude of charge depletion of an Al nanoparticle upon adsorption on defective graphene was, for example, underestimated due to significant geometry expansion of the Al nanoparticle.<sup>5</sup> Thus, the least-modified adsorption geometry of the  $\text{O}_2$ – $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –graphene system [Figure 4A(d)] was chosen for the charge difference density analysis. As seen in Figure 5 ( $z$  height between L2 and L3), appreciable charge depletion from the vicinity of the top Pt atom (Pt9) and charge accumulation in the vicinity of  $\text{O}_2$  is observed, indicating qualitatively that charges are transferred from Pt to  $\text{O}_2$  at the Pt– $\text{O}_2$  interface. This electron transfer from Pt to  $\text{O}_2$  is also reported by another DFT study regarding  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on Pt(111).<sup>55</sup> The overall electron transfer scheme may include electron donation from the  $\text{O}_2$   $2\pi$  orbital to the Pt  $5d_{z^2}$  orbital and simultaneous back-donation from the partially filled Pt  $5d_{xz}$  or  $5d_{yz}$  orbital to the  $\text{O}_2$   $2\pi^*$  orbital as proposed by Toda et al.<sup>56,57</sup> The  $\Delta n(\mathbf{r})$  of the inner  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle ( $z$  height from L1 to L2 in Figure 5) is more likely to be of the Friedel oscillation type (i.e., persistent oscillations of the electronic state density due to boundary effects<sup>58</sup>) rather than a net transfer, which is very similar behavior to that of the  $\text{O}_2$  adsorbed–Pt(111) bulk layers.<sup>55</sup>

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The current study demonstrates two potential benefits of the use of defective graphene as a support for the catalytic activity of Pt nanoparticles, i.e., enhanced stability of surface-bound Pt nanoparticles and possible tunability of the  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption strength. The monovacancy site of graphene plays a key role in anchoring the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles, yielding a relatively strong adsorption

energy of  $-7.45$  eV due to the strong hybridization of the Pt nanoparticle with the  $sp^2$  dangling bonds of neighboring carbon atoms near the monovacancy site of graphene. This enhanced stability may provide minimal Pt nanoparticle aggregation on the graphene surface.

Upon adsorption of a  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle on the monovacancy defect site of graphene, charge is transferred mostly from the bound Pt atom at the monovacancy site to defective graphene, accumulating a total net charge of  $0.24e$  on defective graphene. The  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on the defective graphene-supported  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle leads to a charge depletion of Pt, while  $\text{O}_2$  accumulates charge at the Pt– $\text{O}_2$  interface.  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energies on the  $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –defective graphene complex and the free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticle are  $-2.30$  and  $-3.92$  eV, respectively. This weakened  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption energy due to the defective graphene support may contribute to the potential optimization of the catalytic activity of Pt nanoparticles toward oxygen reduction by providing a balance in the  $\text{O}_2$  binding strength thereby allowing for an optimal turnover.

#### ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

**S Supporting Information.** Spin density and geometry at the carbon vacancy site of bare defective graphene, two other less stable adsorption configurations of  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles on the monovacancy defective graphene, relative total energies of  $\text{O}_2$ – $\text{Pt}_{13}$  simple models, elongated  $\text{O}_2$  bond lengths and excess Bader charge of the  $\text{O}_2$ – $\text{Pt}_{13}$ –defective graphene systems, and  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption on free  $\text{Pt}_{13}$  nanoparticles. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

#### ■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

##### Corresponding Author

\*E-mail: [wilcoxj@stanford.edu](mailto:wilcoxj@stanford.edu). Phone: (650) 724-9449. Fax: (650) 725-2099.

#### ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This material is based upon work supported as part of the Center on Nanostructuring for Efficient Energy Conversion (CNEEC) at Stanford University, an Energy Frontier Research Center funded by the U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences under Award Number DE-SC0001060. The computational resources were supported by the National Science Foundation through TeraGrid resources provided by TACC.

#### ■ REFERENCES

- (1) Katsnelson, M. I. *Mater. Today* **2007**, *10*, 20.
- (2) Geim, A. K.; Novoselov, K. S. *Nat. Mater.* **2007**, *6*, 183.
- (3) Neto, A. H. C.; Guinea, F.; Peres, N. M. R.; Novoselov, K. S.; Geim, A. K. *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **2009**, *81*, 109.
- (4) Carlsson, J. M.; Scheffler, M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2006**, *96*, 046806.
- (5) Lim, D.-H.; Negreira, A. S.; Wilcox, J. J. *Phys. Chem. C* **2011**, *115*, 8961.
- (6) Ma, Y.; Lehtinen, P. O.; Foster, A. S.; Nieminen, R. M. *New J. Phys.* **2004**, *6*, 68.
- (7) Yazyev, O. V.; Helm, L. *Phys. Rev. B* **2007**, *75*, 125408.
- (8) Singh, R.; Kroll, P. J. *Phys.: Condens. Matter* **2009**, *21*, 196002.
- (9) Nelayev, V. V.; Mironchik, A. I. *Mater. Phys. Mech.* **2010**, *9*, 26.
- (10) Simon, P.; Gegotsi, Y. *Nat. Mater.* **2008**, *7*, 845.

- (11) Hashimoto, A.; Suenaga, K.; Gloter, A.; Urita, K.; Iijima, S. *Nature* **2004**, *430*, 870.
- (12) Coleman, V. A.; Knut, R.; Karis, O.; Grennberg, H.; Jansson, U.; Quinlan, R.; Holloway, B. C.; Sanyal, B.; Eriksson, O. *J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys.* **2008**, *41*, 062001.
- (13) Marković, N. M.; Schmidt, T. J.; Stamenković, V.; Ross, P. N. *Fuel Cells* **2001**, *1*, 105.
- (14) Wang, Y. X.; Balbuena, P. B. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2005**, *109*, 14896.
- (15) Lamas, E. J.; Balbuena, P. B. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.* **2006**, *2*, 1388.
- (16) Sidik, R. A.; Anderson, A. B. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **2002**, *528*, 69.
- (17) Tsuda, M.; Kasai, H. *J. Phys. Soc. Jpn.* **2007**, *76*, 024801.
- (18) Yeager, E. *Electrochim. Acta* **1984**, *29*, 1527.
- (19) Nørskov, J. K.; Rossmeisl, J.; Logadottir, A.; Lindqvist, L.; Kitchin, J. R.; Bligaard, T.; Jónsson, H. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2004**, *108*, 17886.
- (20) Calvo, S. R.; Balbuena, P. B. *Surf. Sci.* **2007**, *601*, 165.
- (21) Seger, B.; Kamat, P. V. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2009**, *113*, 7990.
- (22) Kou, R.; Shao, Y.; Wang, D.; Engelhard, M. H.; Kwak, J. H.; Wang, J.; Viswanathan, V. V.; Wang, C.; Lin, Y.; Wang, Y.; Aksay, I. A.; Liu, J. *Electrochem. Commun.* **2009**, *11*, 954.
- (23) Xu, C.; Wang, X.; Zhu, J. *J. Phys. Chem. C* **2008**, *112*, 19841.
- (24) Sakurai, M.; Watanabe, K.; Sumiyama, K.; Suzuki, K. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1999**, *111*, 235.
- (25) Lian, L.; Su, C. X.; Armentrout, P. B. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1992**, *97*, 4072.
- (26) Kresse, G.; Hafner, J. *Phys. Rev. B* **1993**, *47*, 558.
- (27) Kresse, G.; Hafner, J. *Phys. Rev. B* **1994**, *49*, 14251.
- (28) Kresse, G.; Furthmüller, J. *Phys. Rev. B* **1996**, *54*, 11169.
- (29) Kresse, G.; Furthmüller, J. *Comput. Mater. Sci.* **1996**, *6*, 15.
- (30) Blöchl, P. E. *Phys. Rev. B* **1994**, *50*, 17953.
- (31) Kresse, G.; Joubert, D. *Phys. Rev. B* **1999**, *59*, 1758.
- (32) Perdew, J. P.; Burke, K.; Ernzerhof, M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, *77*, 3865.
- (33) Monkhorst, H. J.; Pack, J. D. *Phys. Rev. B* **1976**, *13*, 5188.
- (34) Methfessel, M.; Paxton, A. T. *Phys. Rev. B* **1989**, *40*, 3616.
- (35) *SCRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics*, Haynes, W. M., 91st ed. (Internet Version); CRC Press/Taylor and Francis: Boca Raton, FL, 2011.
- (36) Tripković, V.; Skúlason, E.; Siahrostami, S.; Nørskov, J. K.; Rossmeisl, J. *Electrochim. Acta* **2010**, *55*, 7975.
- (37) Ge, Q.; Hu, P.; King, D. A.; Lee, M. H.; White, J. A.; Payne, M. C. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1997**, *106*, 1210.
- (38) Bader, R. F. W. *Chem. Rev.* **1991**, *91*, 893.
- (39) Henkelman Group; The University of Texas at Austin, <http://theory.cm.utexas.edu/henkelman/research/bader/>.
- (40) Tang, W.; Sanville, E.; Henkelman, G. *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter* **2009**, *21*, 084204.
- (41) Apra, E.; Fortunelli, A. *J. Phys. Chem. A* **2003**, *107*, 2934.
- (42) Zhou, M.; Zhang, A. H.; Dai, Z. X.; Zhang, C.; Feng, Y. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2010**, *132*, 194704.
- (43) Cuong, N. T.; Fujiwara, A.; Mitani, T.; Chi, D. H. *Comput. Mater. Sci.* **2008**, *44*, 163.
- (44) Hammer, B.; Morikawa, Y.; Nørskov, J. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, *76*, 2141.
- (45) Armentrout, P. B. *Int. J. Mass Spectrom.* **2003**, *227*, 289.
- (46) Drake, G. W. F. *Springer Handbooks of Atomic, Molecular, and Optical Physics*; Springer: Würzburg, Germany, 2006.
- (47) Leung, T. C.; Kao, C. L.; Su, W. S.; Feng, Y. J.; Chan, C. T. *Phys. Rev. B* **2003**, *68*, 195408.
- (48) Yeager, E. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **1981**, *128*, 160C.
- (49) Adžić, R. R.; Wang, J. X. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **1998**, *102*, 8988.
- (50) Zhang, J. *PEM Fuel Cell Electrocatalysts and Catalyst Layers-Fundamentals and Applications*, Zhang, J., Ed.; Springer-Verlag London Ltd.: London, 2008.
- (51) Escañó, M. C. S.; Nakanishi, H.; Kasai, H. *J. Phys. Soc. Jpn.* **2009**, *78*, 064603.
- (52) Petersen, M. A.; Jenkins, S. J.; King, D. A. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2006**, *110*, 11962.
- (53) Balbuena, P. B.; Altomare, D.; Agapito, L.; Seminario, J. M. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2003**, *107*, 13671.
- (54) Li, T.; Balbuena, P. B. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, *105*, 9943.
- (55) Qi, L.; Qian, X. F.; Li, J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2008**, *101*, 146101.
- (56) Toda, T.; Igarashi, H.; Uchida, H.; Watanabe, M. *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **1999**, *146*, 3750.
- (57) Lai, F. J.; Chou, H. L.; Sarma, L. S.; Wang, D. Y.; Lin, Y. C.; Lee, J. F.; Hwang, B. J.; Chen, C. C. *Nanoscale* **2010**, *2*, 573.
- (58) Friedel, J. *Nuovo Cimento* **1958**, *7*, 287.