

Preparation and reactivity of Rh nanoparticles on $\text{TiO}_2(110)-(1 \times 2)$ surface

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Abstract

Arrays of Rh nanoparticles with independently controlled sizes and average distances were prepared by exploiting the surface temperature-dependent kinetics of the Rh adatoms and nanocluster migration processes on $\text{TiO}_2(110)-(1 \times 2)$ surface. The supported Rh nanoparticles fabricated in this way exhibit a very narrow size distribution. The characteristic particle diameter can be varied in the range of 2–20 nm with a desired interparticle distance tunable between 5 and 100 nm. The distribution and the morphology of the nanoparticles were characterized by scanning tunneling microscopy. The advantage of this method in comparison with lithography techniques is its relative simplicity and the possibility of the preparation of metal particles in the typical “catalytic regime”. The model catalysts so produced are applicable in the study of size-dependent reactivity of the nanoparticles (gas-induced disruption, agglomeration, encapsulation, catalytic activity). It is also suggested that the tailored particle arrays can serve as templates for further nanostructural fabrication. © 2001 Published by Elsevier Science B.V.

Keywords: Tailored growing of nanoparticle arrays; Rhodium grown on $\text{TiO}_2(110)-(1 \times 2)$ surface; Scanning tunneling microscopy (STM); Disruption and agglomeration of nanoparticles; Dissociation of CO; Spillover of carbon

1. Introduction

Several methods have been recently developed which are capable of producing two-dimensional model catalysts (2DMC) with a very narrow particle-size distribution [1–11]. By the application of the atom probe techniques, as for example the scanning tunneling microscopy, it became recently possible to check rigorously the particle size of the 2DMC materials. Most of these preparation methods, however, usually suffer from irregular spatial distribution, low surface density of the clusters or some

carbon contaminations, therefore they are inadequate for application in catalysis (or cannot fulfil all the requirements, i.e. uniform size, regular spatial distribution and sufficient numbers of metal clusters). In a recent paper, a new method was presented for the preparation of Ir nanoparticle arrays on $\text{TiO}_2(110)-(1 \times 2)$ surface [12]. The method consists of two steps: (i) vapor deposition of the metal in predetermined concentration (a few percents of monolayer) onto the support at 300 K followed by post-annealing at 1100 K; (ii) further evaporation of the metal at 1100 K onto this surface for growing the crystallites formed in the first step. The advantage of this method in comparison with lithography techniques is its relative simplicity and the potential for preparation of metal particles in the range of 1.5–20 nm.

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80 In this work, we describe how the above-men-
81 tioned method can be applied to produce well-sep-
82 arated Rh particles in the range of 2–3 nm up to
83 20–50 nm with roughly uniform sizes and controlled
84 spatial distribution. This method is based on our
85 recent finding that there is a great difference in the
86 diffusion coefficient of Rh adatoms and 1–2 nm Rh
87 nanocrystallites on oxidic supports [13–15]. Several
88 examples are described where particle arrays that
89 were fabricated so can be applied for further studies
90 of gas + surface interaction. Some STM results are
91 also presented for the thermal-induced diffusion of
92 carbon clusters formed in the dissociation of CO.

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94 2. Experimental

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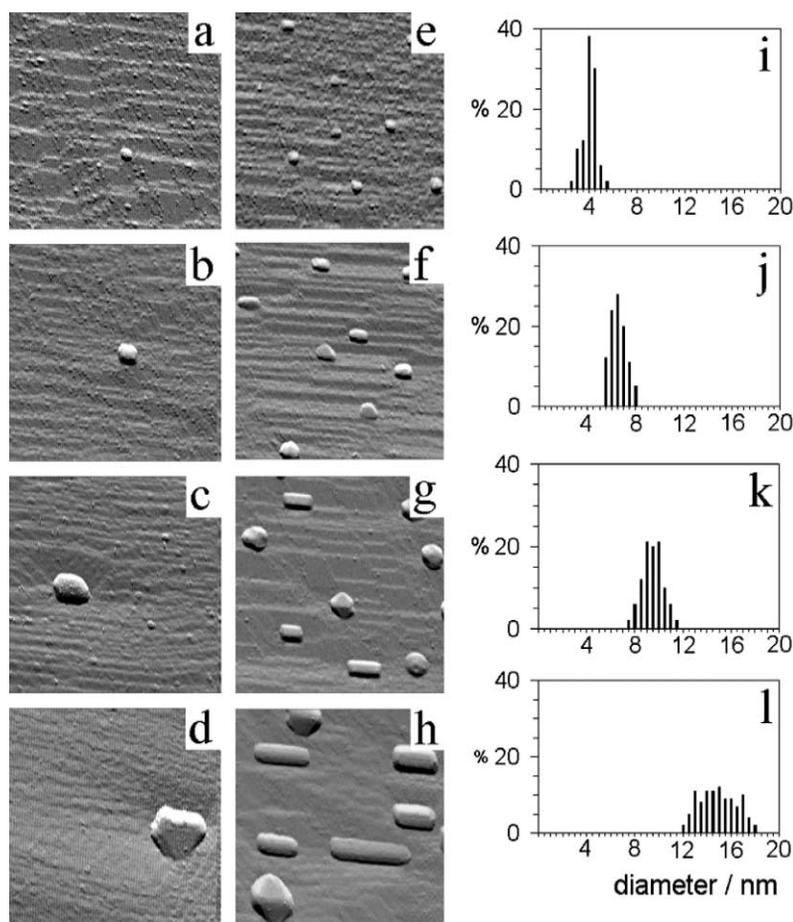
96 The experiments were carried out in a UHV
97 chamber equipped with a three-grid AES-LEED ana-
98 lyzer and a commercial STM head purchased from
99 WA Technology. The noble metal ultrathin layer was
100 deposited by ohmically heated Rh filament. During
101 the dosing, the distance between the metal source
102 and the sample was approximately 20 mm. The rate
103 of the deposition was controlled by adjusting the
104 current flowing through the Rh filament. The amount
105 and the purity of the epitaxial Rh layer on the titania
106 were checked by AES spectroscopy. The surface
107 concentration of the deposited metal is given in
108 monolayer equivalent (ML), which corresponds to
109 1.6×10^{15} Rh atoms/cm². The calculation of this
110 value based on AES and STM measurements has
111 been described in detail earlier [13,16].

112 The polished TiO₂(110) single crystal sample was
113 purchased from Crystal Tec. Without any further
114 treatment in air, it was clipped with a Ta plate on a
115 transferable sample holder and moved into the cham-
116 ber. The sample was heated by a W filament posi-
117 tioned just below the Ta plate carrying the probe.
118 By this arrangement it was possible to achieve a sur-
119 face temperature of 1100 K measured by a thin
120 chromel–alumel thermocouple forced to the edge of
121 the sample. The cleaning procedure of the TiO₂ was
122 outlined in our previous papers [13,17]. Highly or-
123 dered 1×2 reconstructed terraces could be obtained
124 only after annealing at 1100 K in UHV. The charac-
125 teristic morphology of TiO₂(110)-(1 × 2) was re-
cently discussed in detail by several papers [17–22].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Preparation of Rh nanoparticles of controlled size and neighbor distance

The tailored growing of Rh particles was started by exposing the clean TiO₂(110)-(1 × 2) surface to Rh of a few percent of a monolayer (lower than 10%) at room temperature and annealing at 1100 K in vacuum (UHV) for several minutes. This first part of the preparation is called “seeding”. It is worth mentioning that, in an earlier paper, it was proved that this treatment results in Rh nanoparticles with a surface concentration linearly proportional to the amount of Rh deposited on the TiO₂(110)-(1 × 2) surface. Fig. 1(a,e) shows the surface morphology after exposing the clean oxide surface to 0.005 and 0.20 ML Rh at 300 K with a subsequent annealing in UHV for 10 min at 1100 K. The STM images indicate that in these cases, an average of one and seven nanoparticles are present in a region of 100 × 100 nm. The Rh nanocrystallites so produced possess a hexagonal shape of 3-nm diameter with 3–5 atomic layer thick plates with (111) plane parallel to the surface of the support [13]. In the second part of the preparation (“growing”), the seeded samples were exposed sequentially to further amounts of Rh at 1100 K (Fig. 1(b–d) and (f–h)). In this way, the size of the existing Rh nanoparticles gradually increased but they remained uniform for the different coverages. At about 1 ML of post-deposited Rh, the size of the metal nanoparticles attained a value of 12–18 nm. As Fig. 1(i–l) shows, the size distribution increases with the average size of the particles to a small degree. However, an important feature is that the average distance between the Rh particles remained unaltered. Although the average size and the number of Rh nanoparticles can be conveniently controlled in this way, at least two forms of Rh crystallites can be distinguished. Quasi-isotropic hexagonal crystals oriented by one side in the crystallographic direction of [001] and particles of strongly elongated shape also oriented in this direction (Fig. 1h). The quality of the size distribution of the grown particles can be seen from the histogram calculated for the samples of higher particle density



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175 Fig. 1. Seeding and growing of the Rh nanoparticles on the $\text{TiO}_2(110)-(1 \times 2)$ surface followed by STM measurements. (a and e) The
176 morphology after evaporation of 0.05 and 0.20 ML of Rh at 300 K and annealing at 1100 K in UHV for 10 min, respectively. (b–d and f–h)
177 Growing of the seeds by further evaporation of Rh at 1100 K. (i–l) The size distribution of the fabricated Rh crystallites in the procedure
(e–h). The size of the STM images: 100×100 nm.

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179 (Fig. 1(i–l)). As these figures show, the average
180 diameter gradually shifts from 3 to 15 nm; the
181 standard deviation does not exceed 20–30%. By
182 comparing the particle arrays to those produced with
183 other methods, we can conclude that the monodisper-
sity of the particles is rather good in the present case.

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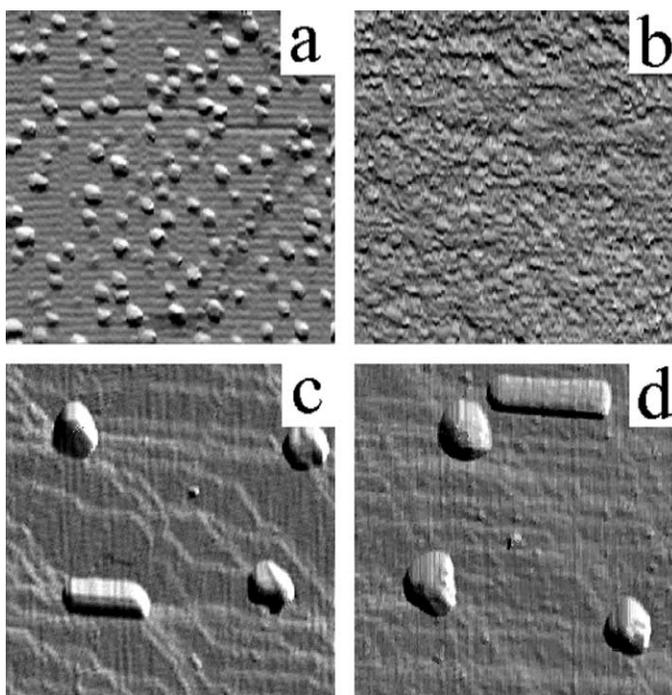
186 3.2. Adsorption-induced disruption of Rh nanoparti- 187 cles

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189 Previous studies showed that the adsorption of
190 CO on Rh crystallites caused its disruption to smaller
units and finally to isolated Rh atoms [23–28]. STM

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192 pictures presented in Fig. 2 demonstrate that this
193 process sensitively depends on the size of Rh clusters.
194 Rh nanoparticles of 1–2 nm readily disrupt
195 (Fig. 2a,b), whereas particles of 10–12 nm are practi-
196 cally resistant towards CO (Fig. 2c,d). A somewhat
197 more complicated size dependence was observed in
198 the dissociation of CO on Rh nanoparticles sup-
199 ported on alumina by Frank et al. [29]. In this case,
200 the probability of CO dissociation goes through a
201 maximum for aggregates containing 1000 atoms,
202 which belong approximately to the average particle
203 size of 2–3 nm. It is worth mentioning that these
204 latter results were obtained in low-pressure adsorp-
tion experiments.



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Fig. 2. Effects of CO adsorption on Rh/TiO₂(110)-(1 × 2) at two different particle sizes: (a,b) 2 nm, (c,d) 10–12 nm. (a,c) Before CO adsorption. (b,d) After exposures to CO, (b) 10⁻¹ mbar, 300 K; (d) 10 mbar, 400 K.

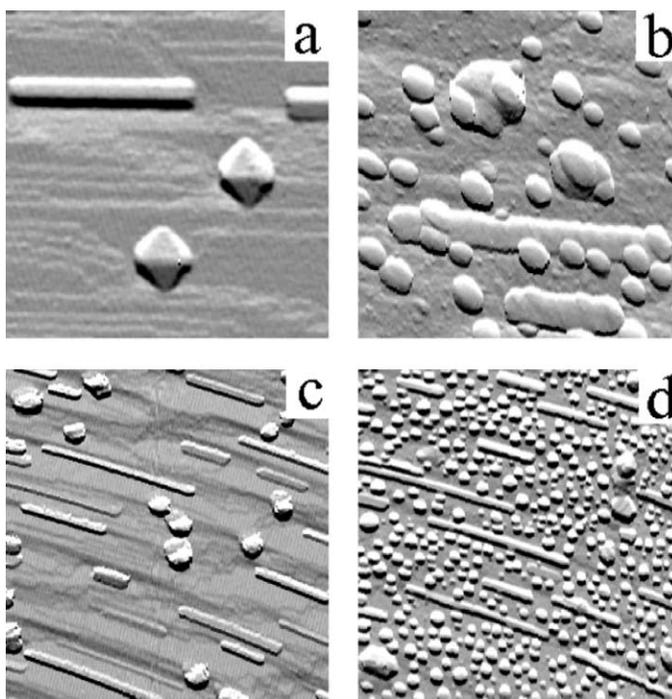
3.3. Migration of surface carbon formed in the dissociation of CO

In this section, we follow the formation of carbonaceous species produced by the dissociation of CO on Rh nanoparticles and its diffusion. The coke formation is one of the crucial issues connecting to several catalytic processes (hydrocarbon refinery, CO conversion, etc.). This process usually causes a significant deactivation of the catalysts, however, in certain cases this reaction represents the main route for the catalytic production of different carbonaceous species, as for example fullerenes. In this case we utilized the advantage of STM namely that a chemical identification of the materials can be achieved by their characteristic structural properties. This has been generally used in the differentiation between the support and the deposited metals. The 2D model catalysts supporting metal clusters in large spatial separation provide excellent systems for studying the active sites in the formation of surface carbon and examining the diffusion properties of the different carbon forms.

Fig. 3(a) and (c) shows the surface textures of Rh/TiO₂(110)-(1 × 2) model catalysts grown by the “seeding + growing” method in two different image sizes of 200 × 200 and 400 × 400 nm, respectively. The Rh nanoparticles exhibit two characteristic forms: (i) hexagonal outline crystallites with (111) terraces; (ii) strongly elongated crystallites oriented in the [001] direction of the support. These surfaces were exposed to CO in the following experiments.

Fig. 3b depicts an STM image for Rh/TiO₂ following the CO exposure (10 mbar, 2 min) at 500 K. As appears, the original metal particles are practically unaltered, at the same time, however, new nanoparticles are formed with more or less characteristic size (15–20 nm) and coin-like shape. On the lower part of the image, two elongated Rh particles can be seen, on the upper part of the image two hexagonal Rh particles are detectable. These latter ones support adparticles on their top faces, the elongated particles (especially the longer one) are circumvented by the carbon adparticles. Naturally, from this image alone, it is not possible to declare that the deposited carbon is formed on the perimeter of the

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257 Fig. 3. Effects of thermal treatment of Rh-covered $\text{TiO}_2(110)(1 \times 2)$ surfaces in 10 mbar CO. (a,c) Before the treatment and after annealing
in CO (b) at 500 K for 2 min; (d) at 500 K for 5 min followed by a short annealing at 900 K in UHV.

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259 Rh nanoparticles; nevertheless, the morphology
260 strongly suggests this conclusion. It also shows that
261 the top sites of the round-shaped Rh particles bond
262 the carbon clusters more strongly on their top face
263 than the elongated ones. From the detailed study of
264 the spatial distribution of these particles, it is possi-
265 ble to deduce some characteristics of the diffusion
266 properties of the surface carbon [15]. A selected
267 region of the same sample exposed to 10 mbar CO at
268 500 K for 5 min and annealed up to 900 K in UHV
269 is depicted in Fig. 2d. It is clearly seen that the
270 original Rh nanocrystallites remained practically un-
271 altered, at the same time the intercrystallite regions
272 are more or less uniformly covered by carbon parti-
273 cles of approximately 15 nm. It is remarkable that
274 these new nanoparticles are definitely separated from
275 the Rh crystallites on which they were formed. Partic-
276 ularly the elongated crystallites are free from the
277 covering adparticles in this case. This fact suggests
278 that the bonding of the carbon particles on the TiO_2
279 support is stronger than on the metal particles or on
the perimeter sites of the oxide–metal interface.

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281 Although we could not perform dynamic STM mea-
282 surements for an in situ investigation of carbon
283 diffusion, from the behavior depicted above we can
284 conclude that carbon is produced on metal particles
285 and diffuses to the support.

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4. Conclusions

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289 Rh nanoparticles with desired size and average
290 distance are prepared by the method consisting of
291 two subsequent steps called as “seeding + growing”.
292 The range of the particle size obtained is between 2
293 and 20 nm and the particle-neighbor distance can be
294 easily tuned in the range of 5–100 nm. The simplic-
295 ity of the method promises a wide-ranging applica-
296 tion possibility for model studies in the field of
297 heterogeneous catalysis. It is demonstrated that the
298 reactivity of nanoparticles is primarily determined by
299 their size in processes involving CO adsorption and
300 reaction. The carbon formed on Rh nanoparticles
301 diffuses onto $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ at and above 500 K, which
can be readily followed by STM.

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