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Atomically precise metal nanoclusters as catalysts for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction

Electrochemical carbon dioxide (CO_2) reduction can be used to convert CO_2 into various compounds at room temperature and ambient pressure using electricity generated from renewable energy sources. In recent years, metal nanoclusters, which are metal particles with a size of approximately 1 nm, have been reported to be capable of electrochemical CO_2 reduction with high activity and selectivity. This review summarizes the synthesis methods of atomically precise metal nanoclusters and their application in electrochemical CO_2 reduction.





Green Chemistry



TUTORIAL REVIEW

View Article Online
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Cite this: *Green Chem.*, 2024, **26**, 122



Atomically precise metal nanoclusters as catalysts

Electrochemical carbon dioxide (CO_2) reduction can be used to convert CO_2 into various compounds at room temperature and ambient pressure using electricity generated from renewable energy sources. This technology is indispensable in establishing an environmentally responsible and sustainable society. However, further improvements in the activity and selectivity require the development of electrocatalysts that can directly serve as the actual reaction sites. In recent years, metal nanoclusters, which are metal particles with a size of approximately 1 nm, have been reported to be capable of electrochemical CO_2 reduction with high activity and selectivity, owing to their unique geometric/electronic structure. This review summarizes the synthesis methods of atomically precise metal nanoclusters and their application in electrochemical CO_2 reduction. We expect that this review will help clarify the current status of these studies and further accelerate the research on highly active and selective CO_2 reduction catalysts using

Received 25th June 2023, Accepted 9th October 2023 DOI: 10.1039/d3qc02281a

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Introduction

1.1 Atomically precise metal nanoclusters as catalysts

Among nano-sized materials, an aggregate of metal atoms with a size of approximately 1 nm is called a metal nanocluster (NC). 1-28 Metal NCs have different physical/chemical properties than bulk metals and relatively larger (>5 nm) metal nanoparticles (NPs), which are attributed to quantum size effects (Fig. 1A). 29-31 Furthermore, the properties and functions of NCs show a remarkable dependence on the number of constituent atoms, unlike metal NPs. 32-36 Therefore, if the number of constituent atoms can be precisely controlled in the metal NCs, it is possible to create a wide variety of properties and functions with the difference of a single atom. It has become possible not only to control the size of metal NCs but also to control heterometal doping^{37,38} and geometric structures39-42 at the atomic level. Thus, metal NCs are expected to be applied as key components in next-generation materials. In particular, for metal NCs protected by ligands, unlike gas-phase generated clusters, their geometric structures have been revealed by single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SC-XRD), and the combination of density functional theory (DFT) calculations and SC-XRD can reveal the electronic structure of metal

NCs and their origin. Because of these characteristics, metal

The studies on metal NCs began after the 1950s, with efforts to synthesize metal NCs consisting of group 8-10 elements and ligands such as phosphine, halogen (X), and carbon monoxide (CO).65 In 1994, Brust and Schiffrin et al. reported the synthesis of thiolate (SR)-protected gold (Au) NCs $(Au_n(SR)_m)$. 66 Because these NCs have extremely high thermal and chemical stability owing to the strong bonding between Au and sulfur (S), and can be synthesized by simply mixing reagents under atmospheric conditions, research on $Au_n(SR)_m$ increased dramatically after 2000. At that time, $Au_n(SR)_m$ could only be treated as a mixture with a distribution in the number of constituent atoms; however, with the establishment of highly resolved separation techniques by Whetten et al. and Murray et al., the chemical composition of $Au_n(SR)_m$ could be highly controlled. 67-69 In 2005, Tsukuda and Negishi were the first to systematically separate $Au_n(SR)_m$ with a well-defined chemical composition. 70-72 In 2007, Kornberg et al. determined the geometric structure of $Au_{102}(p\text{-MBA})_{44}$ (p-MBA:

NCs have attracted significant attention in the development of materials based on luminescence control^{43–47} and chiral control, ^{48,49} environmental fields, ^{50–54} energy harvesting, ^{51,55–59} and biological sensor^{45,60,61} and catalytic reactions. ^{62–64} Metal NCs are highly active catalysts because of their unique geometric/electronic structure and small size. Moreover, theoretical calculations of the adsorption/desorption energies of reacting molecules based on the geometric structure obtained by SC-XRD can help elucidate the mechanisms of various reactions.

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4-mercaptobenzoic acid) by SC-XRD, 73 and since then, the chemical compositions and geometric structures have been determined for several $Au_n(SR)_m$. In addition, SR-protected silver (Ag) and copper (Cu) NCs have been synthesized in numerous studies, and the research has been extended to metal NCs capped by other ligands (Fig. 1B).

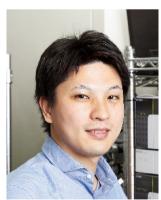
1.2 Electrochemical carbon dioxide reduction

Recently, interest in carbon dioxide (CO2) reduction using electrocatalysts has been growing. In 1967, Manabe presented a "coupled atmosphere-ocean model" showing that CO2 has a significant impact on long-term climate change, which bolstered global efforts to reduce CO₂ emissions.⁷⁴ In 2015, the Paris Agreement was adopted to solve the global warming problem, and "achieving carbon neutrality" is now a long-term goal shared among numerous countries.⁷⁵ Herein, carbon neutral means the reduction of the total greenhouse gases, including CO2, to net zero. To achieve this, various efforts are being actively pursued worldwide. In particular, the transformation of CO2 into useful organic compounds by reduction has been demonstrated as a promising method for directly decreasing CO₂ emissions.^{75–77}

The most notable CO2 reduction reaction (CRR) is the Sabatier reaction (methanation), in which hydrogen (H2) and CO₂ are converted to methane (CH₄) and water under high temperature and high pressure using a metal catalyst. This method has been used for industrially synthesizing methane since its discovery by Sabatier and Senderens in 1902. 78,79 Additionally, the reverse water gas shift reaction that produces CO and water (H2O) from CO2 and H2 is often used in industry. However, the current system produces H2 from fossil fuels, such as natural gas reforming or coal gasification, which emit a large amount of CO2 during the production process. Alternatively, if CO2 can be directly reduced by electrochemical reduction using water as an electron and

proton source and electricity derived from renewable energy sources, then CO2 can be directly converted into other organic compounds without using H2 derived from fossil fuels (Fig. 1C). Electrochemical CRR is becoming easier to industrialize because it is possible to divert the water-electrolysis hydrogen-production technology currently under development.75,80

Research on electrochemical CRRs began in the 1950s.⁸¹ In 1985, Hori et al. quantitatively analyzed the amount of liquidand gas-phase products produced by electrolytic reduction, which corresponded to the amount of applied electricity (i.e., performed with a Faraday efficiency (FE) of 100%).82 Furthermore, their study revealed that the products differed depending on the metal electrodes: 83-86 (1) nickel (Ni), iron (Fe), platinum (Pt), and titanium (Ti) produce H₂; (2) lead (Pb), mercury (Hg), thallium (Tl), indium (In), tin (Sn), cadmium (Cd), and bismuth (Bi) primarily produce formic acid (HCOOH); (3) Au, Ag, zinc (Zn), palladium (Pd), and gallium (Ga) mainly produce CO; and (4) Cu produces various hydrocarbons, aldehydes, and alcohols. For these metal catalysts, increases in specific surface area, crystal facet control, alloying, and support interactions for CRR catalysts have been investigated, along with advances in nanotechnology, since the 2000s.87-89 Thereby, overvoltage suppression and improvements in product selectivity and durability have been achieved. However, further improvements in the activity, selectivity, and durability are required, and research in this area remains active. In this review, we discuss the use of atomically precise metal NCs for electrochemical CRRs. Therefore, readers interested in studying electrochemical CRRs using nanomaterials other than metal NCs (metal NPs, 89-92 single atoms, 93-97 and molecular catalysts 98-100) are invited to read the review articles that describe them in detail. Gas-phase generated clusters are excluded from this review because there are few reports on CO2 reduction.



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1.3 Purpose and contents of this review

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Metal NCs have significant potential not only for use as various thermal catalysts^{51,52,54,101} and photocatalysts¹⁰²⁻¹¹⁴ but also as electrocatalysts, 101,115-117 particularly in hydrogen evolution reactions (HER), 118-123 oxygen evolution reactions (OER), 120,124-126 oxygen reduction reactions (ORR), 58,120,127-134 and alcohol and HCOOH oxidation reactions. 135-137 In addition, the application of metal NCs as electrochemical CRR catalysts^{1,55,57,113-115,138-150} has been widely studied. However, CRR activity is often evaluated on accidentally synthesized metal NCs, and there are not many examples of metal NCs synthesized based on standard design principles. The reason for this is the lack of deep understanding regarding the synthetic methods and geometric/electronic structures of metal NCs and their resulting correlation with CRR activity. In this review, we summarize the synthesis methods and geometric/electronic structures of metal NCs, and the representative studies on electrochemical CRRs using these materials. Furthermore, on the basis of this knowledge, we discuss (1) the synthesis and geometric/electronic structure of metal NCs as high-performance CRR catalysts, (2) the appropriate experimental conditions (e.g., support and metal NCs) for the application of high-performance CRR catalysts, and (3) the CRR mechanism of the metal NC catalysts. Through these discussions, we hope to promote the establishment of clear guidelines for the design of metal NCs that are suitable for electrochemical CRRs, thereby enhancing the development of metal NCs and electrochemical CRR catalysis.

In section 2, we first describe the synthesis methods and geometric/electronic structures of the predominant metal NCs that have been applied to CO2 reduction in previous studies, categorized by the metal species. Then, in section 3, we discuss the catalytic activities of metal NCs in electrochemical CRRs and their mechanisms. In section 4, we summarize the conclusions of this review, and in section 5, we briefly describe the outlook for the future.

Synthesis of atomically precise metal nanoclusters

Metal NCs have high surface energy owing to their small size and can easily aggregate or degrade in air if not specially handled. Thus, metal NCs are often protected using organic ligands, which facilitates handling and modification. Furthermore, by controlling the ligands, metal species, and reaction rates, metal NCs with various numbers of constituent atoms, chemical compositions, and structures can be synthesized. In this section, we describe the synthesis of mainly Au, Ag, and Cu NCs, among those applied to electrochemical CRRs, which have relatively high stability and can be synthesized with atomic precision, as well as the effects of ligands and alloving. Multiple reviews have focused on the synthesis of metal NCs, and thus readers who would like to know more details should refer to those articles. 32-36

2.1 Synthesis of gold nanocluster

 $Au_n(SR)_m$ have relatively high stability and more examples have been reported at an early stage, compared with SR-protected Ag and Cu NCs. 68,71,151,152 Au_n(SR)_m also possess useful physicochemical properties such as photoexcited luminescence, thermocatalysis, electrocatalysis, and magnetism, and many studies have reported on their application in electrochemical CRRs. In this section, we describe the synthesis of Au NCs, particularly those protected by SR, phosphine, alkynyl (C≡CR), and N-heterocyclic carbene (NHC).

2.1.1 Thiolate-protected gold 25 nanoclusters. Among $Au_n(SR)_m$, one of the most widely studied is $Au_{25}(PET)_{18}$ (PET = 2-phenylethanethiolate). There are two common synthetic methods: (i) two-phase synthesis and (ii) in situ single-phase synthesis. 153 In the two-phase synthesis, tetrachloroauric(III) acid (HAuCl₄·3H₂O) dissolved in water is mixed with tetraoctylammonium bromide (TOAB) dissolved in toluene to induce a phase transition, and then cooled to 0 °C and 2-phenylethanethiol is added while slowly stirring to reduce Au(III) to Au(I).



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clusters, metal nanocluster-connected structures, and covalent organic frameworks.

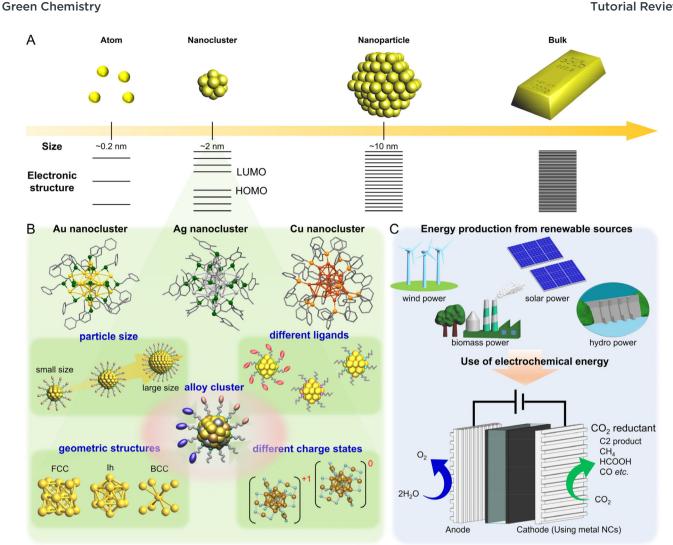


Fig. 1 Schematic of this review. A next-generation energy system based on electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction using metal-cluster catalysts. (A) Size dependences of metals for electronic structure; (B) kinds of metal clusters and each parameter for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction; and (C) a flow reaction system for electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction using electricity from renewable energy source.

Next, sodium borohydride (NaBH₄) is added, and Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ is obtained by washing/separation. 154 For the in situ singlephase synthesis, HAuCl₄·3H₂O and TOAB are dissolved in tetrahydrofuran (THF) and 2-phenylethanethiol, NaBH4 is added, and Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ is obtained by washing/separation. 155 These methods can produce Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ in relatively high yields. The highly stable Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ is essentially Au_n(SR)_m with an entire -1 valence of ionic charge ([Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻). However, it is also possible to synthesize neutral or +1 valent Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ with the same chemical composition $([Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ and $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^+$, respectively). ^{156,157} Notably, there are some differences in their geometric structures. The basic Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ structure consists of an icosahedral Au 13 core surrounded by six SR-Au-SR-Au-SR staples with quasioctahedral symmetry (Au-S staples) protecting the structure (Fig. 2A). 158,159 The Au-S staple structure is distorted with regard to the σ_h symmetry plane in $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$, whereas the staples are aligned with the σ_h symmetry plane in

 $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ (Fig. 2B). This might be caused by the presence or absence of counter ions and might be one of the reasons why metal NCs exhibit different properties depending on their valence, even if they have the same chemical composition. In addition, there are differences in the electronic structures of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^z$ (z = -1, 0, +1) (Fig. 2C). $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ is an 8-electron system corresponding to a noble gas-like 1S²1P⁶ superatomic electron configuration, whereas $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ and $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^+$ have $1S^21P^5$ and $1S^21P^4$ electron configurations, respectively. This significantly affects their optical absorption spectra. 157,160,161

Owing to its relatively stable electronic/geometric structure, Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ can be synthesized with a variety of SR ligands (including hydrophilic SR ligands). For example, in 2016, Li and Jin et al. synthesized 1-naphthalenethiolate (SNap)-protected Au₂₅(SNap)₁₈ using a two-step method. First, they synthesized hexanethiolate (SC₆H₁₃)-protected Au₂₅(SC₆H₁₃)₁₈, then dissolved it in toluene and reacted with naphthalene **Tutorial Review**

thiol to synthesize Au₂₅(SNap)₁₈. For the structure of Au₂₅(SNap)₁₈, the SC-XRD results revealed that Au₂(SNap)₃ is coordinated as a staple around an icosahedral Au₁₃ core.

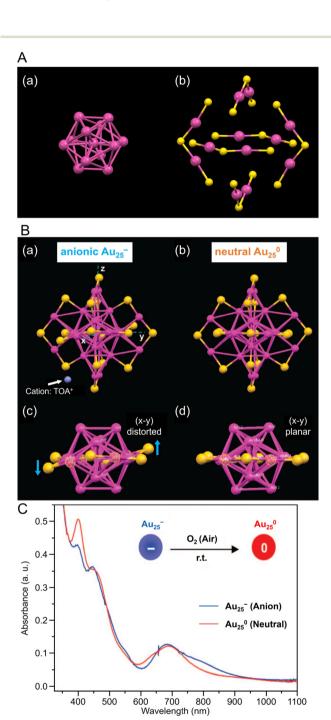


Fig. 2 (A) (a) Au₁₃ core and (b) Au-S staple structure of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻. (B) Comparison of the crystal structures of (a, c) [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻ and (b, d) $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$. Both $Au_{25}(PET)_{18}$ in (A) and (B) are capped by 18 PET ligands (for clarity C and H atoms are omitted); for [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻, the counterion is tetraoctylammonium (TOA+; only N (in blue) is shown for clarity). (C) The optical absorption spectra of $[\mathrm{Au}_{25}(\mathrm{PET})_{18}]^-$ (blue profile) and [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁰ (red profile) in solution. (B) and (C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 156. Copyright 2008 American Chemical Society.

Many studies have attempted to alloy Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ because of its high stability. 163 As a result, many metals, such as Ag, $^{164-167}$ Cu, $^{168-173}$ Pt, $^{174-177}$ Pd, $^{175,178-181}$ Hg, 182,183 Cd, $^{183-185}$ and Ir,186 can be doped into Au25(SR)18. In 2015, Jiang and Lee et al. reported the synthesis of $MAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$ (M = Pd or Pt) using HAuCl₄·3H₂O and hydrogen hexachloroplatinate(IV) (H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O) or Na₂PdCl₄·6H₂O as precursors, and their electronic structures were elucidated (Fig. $[MAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0$ has a 6-electron superatomic configuration $(1S^21P^4)$, whereas $[MAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^{2-}$ has an 8-electron

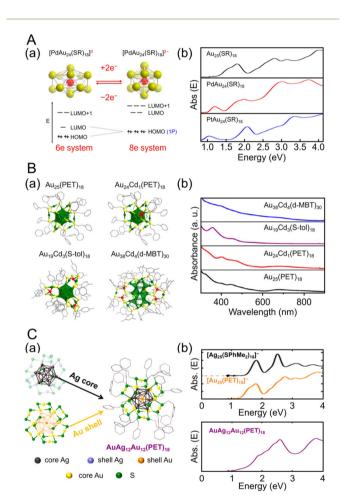


Fig. 3 (A) (a) Cartoon depicting Jahn-Teller-like distortion in the core (e.g., PdAu₁₂) predicted for the 6-electron [PdAu₂₄(SR)₁₈]⁰ (left), which undergoes a structural change to nearly spherical 8-electron $[PdAu_{24}(SR)_{18}]^{2-}$ upon reduction (right). The vertical compression for [PdAu₂₄(SR)₁₈]⁰ (left) is exaggerated. (b) UV/Vis/NIR absorption spectra of $Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$ (black), $PdAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$ (red), and $PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$ (blue) in trichloroethylene. (B) (a) Total crystal structures and (b) UV/Vis absorption spectra of Au₂₅(PET)₁₈, Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈, Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈, and Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀. Au, green; Cd, red; S, yellow; C, gray. H atoms are omitted for clarity. (C) (a) Schematic of active-site engineering and crystal structure of the $[Ag_xAu_{25-x}(PET)_{18}]^{-}$. (b) UV/vis absorption spectra of the $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$, $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ and $[Ag_xAu_{25-x}(PET)_{18}]^-$ (x = 10−15) in dichloromethane. (A) is reproduced with permission from ref. 187. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society. (B) is reproduced with permission from ref. 188. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society. (C) is reproduced with permission from ref. 190. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

superatomic configuration $(1S^21P^6)$, which is similar to the trend observed in $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^z$ (z = -1, 0, +1). Furthermore, the Jahn–Teller-like distortion of $[MAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0$ results in 1P orbital splitting, which causes strong absorption in the near-infrared region (Fig. 3Ab). These results agree well with the predicted optical absorption spectra from simulations.

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Especially among $Au_n(SR)_m$ applied in CRRs, Cd doping supports high activation. In this case, [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] is dissolved in CH₃CN, and Cd(NO₃)₂ is added and stirred/extracted to synthesize Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈ in which one Au atom is replaced by a Cd atom (Fig. 3Ba). Significant differences can be observed in the electronic structure after doping (Fig. 3Bb). In addition, by dissolving Au24Cd1(PET)18 in toluene as a precursor, mixing it with different SR ligands, and adding methanol and stirring, a ligand exchange reaction can be used to synthesize $Au_{24}Cd_1(TBBT)_{18}$ (TBBT = 4-tert-butylbenzenethiolate) and $Au_{24}Cd_1(d-MBT)_{18}$ (d-MBT = 3,5-dimethylbenzenthiolate) from Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈. ¹⁸⁸ Similarly, Cd-doped Au_n(SR)_m, such as $Au_{19}Cd_3(S-tol)_{18}$ and $Au_{38}Cd_4(d-MBT)_{30}$ (S-tol = p-toluenethiolate), can be synthesized using Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ and Au₄₄(d-MBT)₂₈ as precursors, respectively. 188 In the case of Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈, Cd atoms are substituted for Au atoms on the surface of the Au₁₃ core, but for Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈ and Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀, Cd atoms are substituted at the outer staples of the Au₁₃ and Au₂₆ cores, respectively (Fig. 3Ba). These differences can significantly alter the electronic structure (Fig. 3Bb).

Ag can be doped into $[Au_{25}(SR)_{18}]^-$ with a relatively large number of substitutions. 165,166,170,189 In 2022, Kim, Yoo, and Lee *et al.*, synthesized $[Au_xAg_{12-x}@Au_{12}(PET)_{18}]^-$ (x=10-15) with an $Au_{12}(PET)_{18}$ shell (Fig. 3Ca). 190 In this synthesis, they referred to the previously reported synthesis of $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$ (SPhMe $_2=2$,4-dimethylbenzenethiolate) 191 and alloyed $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ by introducing silver acetate (CH $_3$ COOAg) during the process. In $[Au_xAg_{12-x}@Au_{12}(PET)_{18}]^-$, absorption peaks were observed at 1.9, 2.6, and 3.8 eV (Fig. 3Cb), and SC-XRD revealed that the $AuAg_{12}$ core was covered by an $Au_{12}(PET)_{18}$ shell (Fig. 3Ca).

2.1.2 Thiolate-protected gold 38 nanoclusters. Au₃₈(PET)₂₄ is another Au_n(SR)_m with many reported cases, 192 and the structural isomers Au₃₈₀ 193,194 and Au_{38T} 195 can be synthesized (Fig. 4Aa). Au_{38T} is relatively unstable and converts to Au_{38O}, a more stable structure, by heating to approximately 50 °C. Au_{38O} is composed of two icosahedral Au₁₃ cores connected by sharing an Au3 face, and its electronic structure differs significantly from that of Au_{38T} (Fig. 4Ab). The protected shell of Au_{38O} consists of the remaining 15 Au atoms and contains six Au₂(SR)₃ and three Au(SR)₂ staples. Furthermore, Au_{38Q} has a pair of enantiomers, also known as $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$ with chirality. 196-198 In 2022, Zhou, Gao, and Zhu et al. synthesized $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ $(SCH_2Ph^tBu = 4-tert$ butylbenzylthiolate) using the ligand exchange method, in which 4-tert-butylbenzylthiol is added to Au_{38O} and stirred. 199 They also synthesized Au₃₈(SCH₂Ph^tBu)₂₄ doped with Pt and Pd. In this synthesis, $HAuCl_4 \cdot 4H_2O$ and $H_2PtCl_6 \cdot 6H_2O$ are mixed in THF, and then TOAB is added and stirred. Next, they added 4-tert-butylbenzylthiol and NaBH4 and reacted for 6 h.

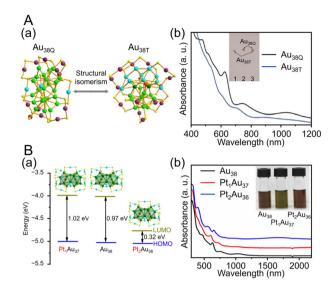
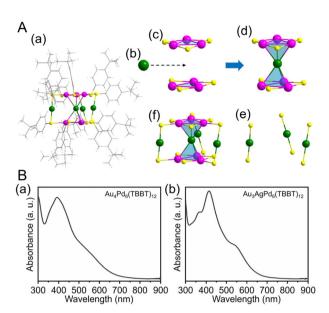


Fig. 4 (A) (a) Crystal structures and (b) UV/Vis/NIR absorption spectra of Au_{38T} (blue) and Au_{38O} (black) in toluene (measurement temperature: 0 °C). (B) (a) Crystal structures and energy band diagrams, and (b) UV/Vis/NIR spectra of $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$, $[Pt_1Au_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$. The inset is the picture of the three clusters in CHCl₃. (A) is reproduced with permission from ref. 195. Copyright 2015 Springer Nature. (B) is reproduced with permission from ref. 199. Copyright 2022 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

After washing and separation, $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_1Au_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ were obtained (Fig. 4Ba). Although $[Au_{38}(SR)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SR)_{24}]^0$ have closed-shell electron configurations with 14- and 12-electron superatomic configurations, respectively, 200,201 $[Pt_1Au_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ has a 13-electron configuration, and electron spin resonance measurements indicate that only $[Pt_1Au_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ is magnetic. The optical peaks are blue-shifted with increasing Pt doping, compared with $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ (Fig. 4Bb).

2.1.3 Other thiolate-protected gold nanoclusters. In 2022, Yang, Yang, and Wu *et al.* successfully synthesized TBBT-protected Au-Pd alloy and Au-Ag-Pd trimetallic alloy NCs.²⁰² First, they dissolved TOAB in THF and then added HAuCl₄·4H₂O palladium acetate (Pd(CH₃COO)₂) and TBBT, and stirred. After that, they added NaBH₄, followed by washing and separation to obtain Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂. Additionally, they dissolved Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂ in dichloromethane, added silver nitrate (AgNO₃) dissolved in acetonitrile, stirred for 1 h, and performed separation to obtain Au₃AgPd₆(TBBT)₁₂. SC-XRD revealed that Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂ has a pair of enantiomers (Fig. 5A). The structure has an outer shell consisting of two Pd₃(TBBT)₃ and three Au(TBBT)₂ and a core framework with one Au atom in the center, indicating that a difference of one atom can result in distinct electronic structures (Fig. 5B).

Many studies have reported on $Au_n(SR)_m$ of different sizes, whose crystal structures are also known. For example, $Au_{18}(SR)_{14}$, 203 $Au_{20}(TBBT)_{16}$, 204 $Au_{21}(S^tBu)_{15}$, 205 $[Au_{23}(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^ (SC_6H_{11} = \text{cyclohexanethiolate})$, 206 $Au_{24}(TBBT)_{20}$, 207 $Au_{28}(TBBT)_{20}$, 208 $Au_{30}S(S^tBu)_{18}$, 209 $Au_{36}(SR)_{24}$, 210 $Au_{44}(TBBT)_{28}$, 211 $Au_{52}(TBBT)_{32}$, 212 $Au_{92}(TBBT)_{44}$, 213 $Au_{130}(p\text{-MBT})_{50}$ $(p\text{-MBT})_{50}$



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Fig. 5 (A) (a) Total structure of the $Au_4Pd_6(TBBT)_{12}$. (b) One Au kernel of Au_4Pd_6 . (c) Two $Pd_3(TBBT)_3$ staple motifs. (d) $AuPd_6(TBBT)_6$. (e) Three Au (TBBT)₂ staple motifs. (f) $Au_4Pd_6(TBBT)_{12}$ (green, Au; purple, Pd; yellow, S; gray, C; white, H). (B) Experimental UV/Vis/NIR spectra of (a) $Au_4Pd_6(TBBT)_{12}$ and (b) $Au_3AgPd_6(TBBT)_{12}$. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 202. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

4-methylbenzenethiolate), ²¹⁴ and $Au_{144}(SR)_{60}$ ^{215,216} have been reported, as well as many other $Au_n(SR)_m$. Notably, their systematic syntheses and size dependence have also been investigated. ^{32–36} In 2017, Ramakrishna and Lee *et al.* used SC_6H_{13} as a ligand to synthesize $Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$, $Au_{38}(SC_6H_{13})_{24}$, $Au_{67}(SC_6H_{13})_{35}$, $Au_{102}(SC_6H_{13})_{44}$, $Au_{144}(SC_6H_{13})_{60}$, and $Au_{333}(SC_6H_{13})_{79}$. ²¹⁷ Their chemical compositions were confirmed by matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization mass spectrometry (MALDI-MS) (Fig. 6Aa). Furthermore, these $Au_n(SR)_m$ exhibit size-dependent optical properties (Fig. 6Ab), and the optical gap of the electronic transitions decreases as the cluster size increases (Fig. 6B).

2.1.4 Phosphine-protected gold nanoclusters. In addition to the SR ligands described above, a number of phosphine-protected Au NCs have been reported. 218-222 From the late 1960s to 1980s, Malatesta et al., 223 the groups at Nijimegen, 224-226 and Mingos et al. 227-229 synthesized phosphine-protected Au NCs and determined their geometric structures. In general, these phosphine-protected Au NCs can be synthesized by adding a reducing agent, such as NaBH4, to a phosphine-gold complex dispersed in a solvent, such as dichloromethane or ethanol. In some cases, washing operations have been conducted through an etching/growth process using hydrochloric acid or other chemicals. 230 For example, in 2022, Jiang, Sun, and Wang et al. synthesized Au₁₁(DPPE)₅ (DPPE = 1,2-bis (diphenylphosphino)ethane) and Au₂₂H₃(DPPE)₃(PPh₃)₈ (PPh₃ = triphenylphosphine) by liquid-phase synthesis, and other phosphine-protected Au NCs.231 In 2023, Pei and Wang et al. synthesized [Au₇(PPh₃)₇H₅]²⁺ using a one-pot synthesis

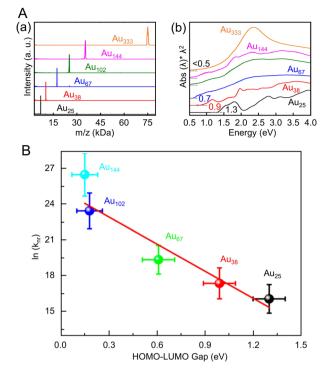


Fig. 6 (A) (a) MALDI mass spectra and (b) UV/Vis/NIR absorption spectra of Au_{25} , Au_{38} , Au_{67} , Au_{102} , Au_{144} , and Au_{333} clusters. The absorption spectra of clusters were obtained in tetrachloroethylene and were offset for clarity. (B) Plot of $ln(k_{nr})$ versus HOMO–LUMO gap for $Au_n(SR)_m$. The solid line is the best fit straight line for data ($Au_{25}-Au_{144}$). (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 217. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

method.232 For this synthesis, they first added PPh3 and cyclohexanethiol to a HAuCl₄·3H₂O solution and stirred. After that, NaBH4 was added, and the mixture was stirred for 14 h and then washed and separated to obtain $[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$. For [Au₇(PPh₃)₇H₅]²⁺, the corresponding peaks decayed after 12 minutes of irradiation with 408 nm light, and peaks at 370 and 460 nm from Ultraviolet-visible-near-infrared (UV/Vis/ NIR) spectroscopy appeared. Electrospray ionization-MS (ESI-MS) results indicated that this final product was [Au₈(PPh₃)₇]²⁺, which changes its structure under light irradiation. In 2021, Wang et al. reported the synthesis of phosphine and SR co-protected $[Au_{55}(p-MBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}.^{233}$ For this synthesis, gold thiolate and gold phosphine compounds, which are halide-free Au precursors, were prepared first, followed by reduction with NaBH4. SC-XRD revealed that these Au NCs have a face-centered cubic (fcc) structure and an Au₅₅ core with four layers stacked on top of each other, and the [111] planes are exposed, especially in the lateral direction (Fig. 7).

2.1.5 Other ligand-protected gold nanoclusters. In addition to these ligands, Au NCs protected by C = CR, $^{23,234-236}$ NHC, $^{237-241}$ and nitrogen donor ligands have been reported in recent years. In 2016, Wang and Zheng *et al.* synthesized Au₃₄Ag₂₈(C = CPh)₃₄ by adding silver acetate (CH₃COOAg) and *tert*-butylamineborane complexes to a solution containing Au

(a) (e)

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Fig. 7 (a) Anisotropic growth of the Au fcc lattice into a triangle prism in $[Au_{55}(p-MBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$. The Au atom packing of four layers (green, orange, light blue and green) stacked along the [111] direction in an A-B-C-A manner. (b) Top view; (c) side view; (d) the ligand binding positions; (e) simplified facets (Au green/orange/light-blue, S yellow, P pink). Note: the red arrow refers to the missing Au atom in the real Au₅₅ cluster. These figures are reproduced with permission from ref. 233. Copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

precursors and phenylacetylene (HC=CPh) while stirring. The NCs function as highly active catalysts for the hydrolytic oxidation of triethylsilanes by removing the ligands more readily at relatively low temperatures than the previously reported Au_n(SR)_m. ²⁴³ In 2021, Pei and Tang et al. synthesized an alloy cluster of Ag and Cu, $[Ag_9Cu_6(C_6H_9)_{12}]^+$, and an alloy cluster of Au and Ag, $[Au_7Ag_8(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ (HC= $C^tBu = tert$ -butylacetylene), using antigalvanic reactions. 244 These two alloy clusters have body-centered cubic (bcc) structures and exhibit different optical properties (Fig. 8Aa). The differences in optical properties were attributed to slightly different structures of the M₁ kernel (M = Ag or Au), M_6 octahedron (M = Cu or Au), and Ag_8 cube. Subsequently, in 2022, Q. Tang and Z. Tang et al. synthesized $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$, an alloy cluster composed of Au, Ag, and Cu, by adding chlorodimethylsulfide gold(1) $((CH_3)_2SAuCl)$ as an Au precursor to $[Ag_9Cu_6(C_6H_9)_{12}]^+$.²⁴⁵ Although many reports have focused on the synthesis of alloy NCs, ³⁸ $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ is the first report of a trimetal NC protected with only a C≡CR ligand. The optical absorption spectrum of $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ reveals a completely

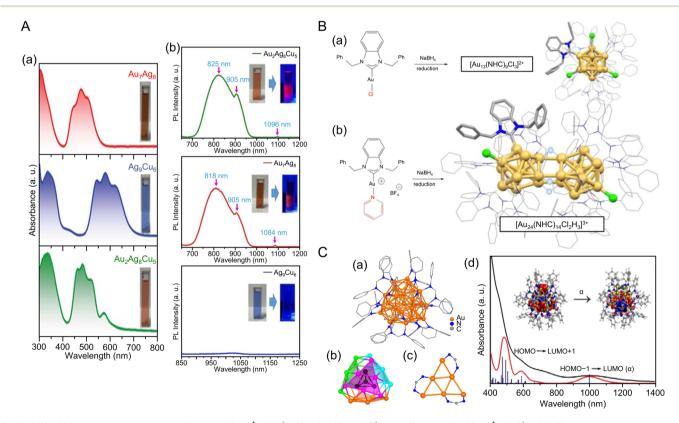


Fig. 8 (A) (a)Absorbance spectra of $[Au_7Ag_8(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$, $[Ag_9Cu_6(C_6H_9)_{12}]^+$ and $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (b) The emission spectra of $[Au_7Ag_8(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+ \ (\lambda_{ex} = 482 \ nm), \ [Ag_9Cu_6(C_6H_9)_{12}]^+ \ (\lambda_{ex} = 580 \ nm) \ and \ [Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+ \ (\lambda_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ dichloromethane. \ Inset: \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ in \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (A_{ex} = 490 \ nm) \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12})^+ \ (Au_2Ag_8Cu_5($ photographs of the three NCs in dichloromethane under room light (left) and 365 nm UV-light (right), respectively. (B) Production of different NHCstabilized Au clusters depending on the ancillary ligand (halide or pyridine). (a) Use of halide ligands gives typical Au₁₃ clusters ([Au₁₃(NHC)₉Cl₃]²⁺), while (b) labile ancillary ligand leads to hydride bridged Au_{24} clusters ($[Au_{24}(NHC)_{14}Cl_2H_3]^{3+}$). (C) (a) The overall structure of $[Au_{28}(Ph-form)_{12}]^{2+}$. (b) The T symmetrical Au₂₈ kernel with concentric tetrahedral Au₄ core (black) and truncated tetrahedron Au₂₄ shell divided into four (111) faces. (c) The bridge mode of formamidinate ligands; all Ph rings are omitted for clarity. (d) The experimental (black) and simulated (red) absorption spectra of Au₂₈. (Inset) The NTO picture of the first absorption peak. (A) is reproduced with permission from ref. 245. Copyright 2022 Royal Society of Chemistry. (B) is reproduced with permission from ref. 249. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society. (C) is reproduced with permission from ref. 250. Copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

different electronic structure compared with those previously described for $[Ag_9Cu_6(C_6H_9)_{12}]^+$ and $[Au_7Ag_8(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ (Fig. 8A). Photoluminescence measurements showed that $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ has stronger emission than the other two NCs in the near-infrared region (Fig. 8Ab). $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ also consists of an $M@M_8@M_6$ metal core, similar to the other two NCs, but each NC exhibits different CRR selectivity (see section 3).

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Au NCs using NHC as a ligand are generally synthesized by the reduction of precursors, such as NHC-Au(I)-X complexes (X = Cl, Br), 246,247 using NaBH₄. In 2022, Dinh, Tsukuda, Häkkinen, and Crudden *et al.* dissolved the [NHC-Au-Pyr]⁺ complex (Pry = pyridine) 248 in toluene, added NaBH₄, stirred the mixture, separated the products, and then purified them by chromatography to obtain $[Au_{24}(NHC)_{14}Cl_2H_3]^{3+}$ (Fig. 8B). 249 $[Au_{24}(NHC)_{14}Cl_2H_3]^{3+}$ consists of two icosahedral Au_{12} cores with distorted structures and three bridging hydride ligands, and the hydride ligands are coordinated to the Au_{13} core, which has been confirmed by SC-XRD, ESI-MS, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy.

Studies have also reported on amidinate-protected Au NCs. In 2021, Wang *et al.* mixed (CH₃)₂SAuCl, N,N'-diphenylformamidinate (Ph-form), and sodium trifluoromethanesulfonate (NaOTf) in chloroform, stirred, and then added sodium methanolate (MeONa). Next, they synthesized [Au₂₈(Ph-form)₁₂]²⁺ by adding NaBH₄ and vigorously stirring the mixture under various temperature conditions. The [Au₂₈(Ph-form)₁₂]²⁺ exhibited high stability owing to its superatomic configuration of $1S^21P^62S^21D^4$, and theoretical calculations reproduced the measured electronic structure (Fig. 8C).

As mentioned above, numerous synthetic examples of Au NCs protected by organic ligands, such as SR, phosphine, C=CR, and NHC, have been reported. Moreover, many of the Au NCs described in this section have been applied in electrochemical CRRs, which are described in detail in section 3.3.

2.2 Synthesis of silver nanocluster

Ag NCs, which are mainly composed of Ag, have been widely studied in recent years because of their relatively high quantum yields in terms of luminescence. Similar to Au NCs, Ag NCs can be synthesized with atomic precision using ligands such as SR, phosphine, and C=CR. In this section, we describe several examples.

2.2.1 Thiolate-protected silver nanoclusters. Regarding SR-protected Ag NCs $(Ag_n(SR)_m)$, the geometry of $Ag_n(SR)_m$ was determined using $[Ag_{44}(SR)_{30}]^{4-}$ in 2013 for the first time. The general synthetic method involves dissolving AgNO₃ in methanol or another solution, adding a thiol ligand, and generating an Ag(i)-SR complex. Then, the Ag(i)-SR complex is dissolved in solution, NaBH₄ is added and stirred, and $Ag_n(SR)_m$ is obtained by washing/separation. For example, in 2018, Zhu and Jin *et al.* synthesized $Ag_{146}Br_2(TIBT)_{80}$ (TIBT = 4-isopropylbenzenethiolate). First, Ag(i)-TIBT was synthesized by mixing $AgNO_3$ and 4-isopropylbenzenethiol in a mortar. Next, NaBH₄ was added to this mixture and reacted for 72 h. Then, the mixed solution was separated, and the precipi-

tate was washed to obtain pure $Ag_{146}Br_2(TIBT)_{80}$. From SC-XRD, $Ag_{146}Br_2(TIBT)_{80}$ was found to have an Ag_{51} core structure protected by a shell of $Ag_{95}Br_2(TIBT)_{80}$ (Fig. 9Aa). The optical absorption spectrum showed four peaks in the visible region, indicating an optical gap of 0.5 eV (Fig. 9Ab).

Alloy NCs based on $Ag_n(SR)_m$ were also reported. In 2023, Wang, Yan, and Wu *et al.* synthesized fcc-structured bimetallic

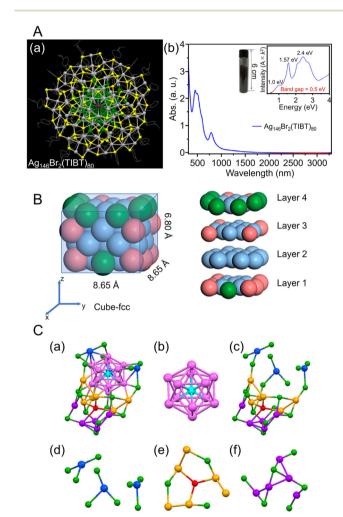


Fig. 9 (A) (a) Top views of the total structure of the Ag₁₄₆Br₂(TIBT)₈₀. Color labels: dark gray/green = Ag, yellow = S, purple = Br; the carbon tails are shown in wire-frame mode. (b) UV/Vis/NIR absorption spectra of the Ag₁₄₆Br₂(TIBT)₈₀ in CCl₄. Inset: Photograph of 5.08 g of Ag₁₄₆Br₂(TIBT)₈₀ in a vial, and the spectrum plotted on the photon energy scale (the y-axis is transformed from the wavelength scale spectrum by Abs $\times \lambda^2$ to preserve the oscillator strength). (B) Size and slicing of the M_{50} kernel in $[Ag_{39}Cu_{11}(SC_7H_7O)_{32}]^{2+}$. Color codes: pure blue, Ag; pink, Cu; green, Ag/Cu, yellow, S; red, O; gray, C. For clarity, all H atoms are omitted. (C) Structural analysis of [AuAg₂₆(S-Adm)₁₈S]⁻. (a) The framework structure of $AuAg_{26}$, (b) the $AuAg_{12}$ icosahedron kernel, (c) the Ag₁₄(SR)₁₈S open shell, (d) three-AgS₃ motif, (e) Ag₆(SR)₃S motif, (f) Ag₅(SR)₆ motif. Color code: azure, Au; magenta/blue/orange/violet, Ag; red, single S atom; green, other S. The C and H atoms are omitted for clarity. (A) is reproduced with permission from ref. 253. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society. (B) is reproduced with permission from ref. 254. Copyright 2023 American Chemical Society. (C) is reproduced with permission from ref. 255. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.

NCs ([Ag₄₁Cu₉(SC₇H₇O)₃₂]²⁺) using a one-pot method and achieved surface substitution of alloy clusters with an

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increased Cu/Ag atomic ratio ([Ag₃₉Cu₁₁(SC₇H₇O)₃₂]²⁺), without changing the reaction conditions.²⁵⁴ In this synthesis, AgNO₃ and copper(II) acetylacetonate (Cu(acac)2) were added as precursors in the appropriate ratios for the respective NCs, 3-methoxythiophenol was added and stirred, and the mixture was co-reduced with NaBH₄. These NCs have an fcc structure consisting of four layers, with different atoms exposed on the surface depending on the Ag/Cu ratio (Fig. 9B). In 2021, Liu and Huang et al. synthesized S-Adm (1-adamantanethiolate)protected bimetallic NCs ([AuAg₂₆(S-Adm)₁₈S]⁻) using a onepot method.²⁵⁵ For this synthesis, AgNO₃ and AuCl₃ solutions were mixed, and 1-adamantanethiol was added to the mixture. Then, PPh3, tetraphenylphosphonium bromide (PPh4Br), and NaBH₄ were added and kept to form [AuAg₂₆(S-Adm)₁₈S]⁻, in which the Ag₁₂ core covers the central Au atom and the Ag₁₄ shell covers the core (Fig. 9C). These differ from common 25-mer NCs in that the outer Ag₁₄ shell has a large open shell structure consisting of three different motifs.

2.2.2 Phosphine-protected silver nanoclusters. Ag NCs coprotected by SR and phosphine have also been reported. In 2022, Wang and Zang et al. reported the synthesis of $[Ag_{39}(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ (PFBT = pentafluorobenzenethiolate) (Fig. 10A). 256 In this synthesis, pentafluorobenzenethiol, PPh₃, and NaBH4 were added to a solution of AgNO3 and vigorously stirred. They also synthesized [Ag₃₇Cu₂(PFBT)₂₄(PPh₃)₈]²⁻ by dissolving AgNO₃ and copper(1) chloride (CuCl) and then adding PFBT, PPh3, and NaBH4 while stirring. However, if trifluoroacetate copper is used as the Cu precursor instead of co-crystal of $[Ag_{37}Cu_2(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ $[Ag_{14}(PFBT)_6(PPh_3)_8]$ can be obtained. In the structure of $[Ag_{39}(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ (Fig. 10Aa), the $Ag_{13}@Ag_{18}$ core is covered by Ag₈(PFBT)₆(PPh₃)₈, but when alloyed with Cu, the two outer Ag atoms are replaced with Cu atoms (Fig. 10Ab). In addition, the optical absorption spectra show that $[Ag_{39}(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ exhibits peaks at 426 and 524 nm, which are caused by charge transfer from the ligand to the metal or from the metal to the ligand. In addition, Cu doping shifts the peaks to the lower energy side of these peaks (Fig. 10B).

2.2.3 Other ligand-protected silver nanoclusters. Reports have also focused on the synthesis of Ag NCs protected by C≡CR ligands, similar to Au NCs. In 2017, Li and Zhang et al. reported the synthesis of [Ag₇₄(C≡CPh)₄₄]²⁺. ²⁵⁷ In this syn-1,3-bis(diphenyphosphino)propane (DPPP) PhC=CH were first added to a solution of dissolved AgNO3 and stirred, and then NaBH4 was added. In addition to C=CPh ligands, many reports have considered the synthesis of Ag NCs protected by $C = C^t Bu$, which is a C = CR ligand with a tert-butyl group. In 2021, Tang, Jin, and Tang et al. reported the synthesis $C = C^t Bu$ -protected Ag_{15} NCs $([Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+)$ and their application in CRRs.²⁵⁸ In this synthesis, $HC = C^{t}Bu$, MeONa, and sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH₃CN) are first added to a silver trifluoroacetate solution and stirred. Subsequently, $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ is synthesized by

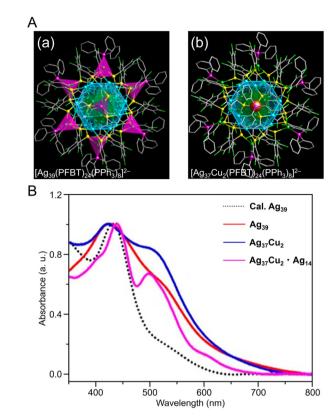
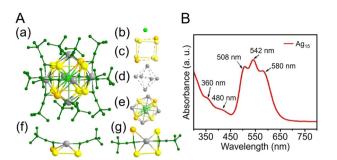


Fig. 10 (A) Overall structure of (a) $[Ag_{39}(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ and (b) $[Ag_{37}Cu_2(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$. (B) UV/Vis absorbance spectra $[Ag_{39}(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ (red), $[Ag_{37}Cu_2(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}$ (blue), and $[Ag_{37}Cu_2(PFBT)_{24}(PPh_3)_8]^{2-}\cdot [Ag_{14}(PFBT)_6(PPh_3)_8]$ (purple) in solution. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 256. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

cooling and extraction with a mixture of dichloromethane and CH₃CN (Fig. 11A). The optical absorption spectrum of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ shows five peaks at 360, 480, 508, 542, and 580 nm (Fig. 11B). Additionally, $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ has a core/ shell structure of Ag@Ag₈@Ag₆, with an irregularly shaped cubic Ag8 in the second layer and an octahedron of Ag6 in the outermost shell (Fig. 11A). In 2022, Tang, Wang and Tang et al. reported the synthesis of $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$ $(HC = CPh(CF_3)_2 = 3,5-bis(trifluoromethyl)phenylacetylene)$ based on Chen's and Tang's synthetic method²⁵⁹ for $Au_{36}(C = CPh)_{24}$ reported in 2020 (Fig. 12A). In this synthesis, MeONa, $HC \equiv CPh(CF_3)_2$, and NaBH₃CN are added to a solution of silver trifluoroacetate (CF3COOAg) and stirred. The purple-black crystals are synthesized by centrifuging the mixed solution to remove the precipitate, followed by washing/extraction. $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_2$ has an Ag_5 core and $Ag_5(a)Ag_{12}$ kernel in the center, according to SC-XRD, and the surface is protected by four different ligands (Fig. 12A). The optical absorption spectra reveal peaks at 518 and 656 nm (Fig. 12B).

Many examples of Ag-based alloy NCs protected by C≡CR have also been reported. In 2021, Pei and Tang et al. reported the synthesis of an Ag–Cu alloy cluster ($[Ag_9Cu_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$) (Fig. 13A). In this synthesis, ${}^{t}BuC \equiv CAg$ was used as the



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Fig. 11 (A) (a) The overall structure of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (b)—(d) Shell-by-shell representations of the metal framework, $Ag@Ag_@Ag_G$ (note that there is no bond between the orange silver atom and the adjacent three silver atoms (yellow) in the frame of the Ag_B cube; similarly, the six capping Ag atoms form an octahedron with no bonds between them). (e) Metal framework of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (f) and (g) Side and top views of the six $Ag(C = C^tBu)_2$ staple units capping a silver square of the Ag_B cube. Ag gray/yellow/orange/light-green, C dark green; all hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity. (B) UV/Vis absorbance spectrum of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 258. Copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

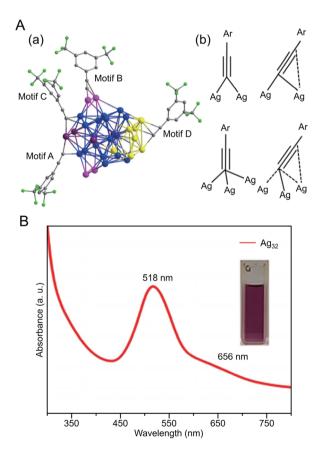


Fig. 12 (A) (a) Four types of ligand—metal bonding motifs in $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$. (b) Four motifs in $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$ coordination modes for alkynyl ligands. Color code: Ag, blue/pink/purple/yellow; C, gray; and F, green. (B) UV/Vis absorbance spectrum of $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$. Inset: photograph of the cluster in CH_2Cl_2 . (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 260. Copyright 2022 Springer Nature.

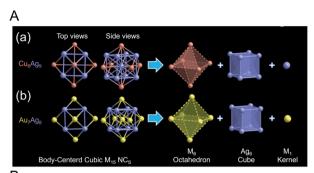
silver precursor, and bis(triphenylphosphine)copper borohydride ((PPh₃)₂CuBH₄) was used as the copper precursor. First, ^tBuC≡CAg was mixed with sodium hexafluoroantimonate (NaSbF₆), to which (PPh₃)₂CuBH₄ was added, and $[Ag_9Cu_6(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ was obtained by stirring and reducing the mixture in the dark. Notably, $[Ag_8Au_7(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$, which has a similar geometric structure to $[Ag_9Cu_6(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$, can also be synthesized.261 Both NCs are composed of an M1 kernel@Ag₈ cube@M₆ octahedral structure with a bcc basis (Fig. 13A), but they have slightly different geometric structures depending on the atomic diameters and argentophilic Ag-Ag interaction (Fig. 13B), which affect their optical properties and stability. In 2017, Mizuta et al. reported the synthesis of Pt₅Ag₂₂(C≡CPh)₃₂, obtained by mixing PhC≡CAg and H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O, and then adding NaBH₄ and stirring in the dark.262 In 2022, Tang, Hwang and Hyeon et al. synthesized an alloy NC of Ag and Cu co-protected by $C \equiv CPh(CF_3)_2$ and DPPE $([Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-).^{263}$ In this synthesis, a silver complex and $C = CPh(CF_3)_2$ ligand were stirred with (PPh₃)₂CuBH₄ as a Cu precursor, then washed and extracted from the organic phase, which produced black crystals. The structure of $[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$ is composed of three layers, Ag@Ag₈@Ag₂Cu₄ (Fig. 13C), with a single Ag atom at the center, followed by an Ag₈ cube in the second layer and an Ag₂Cu₄ octahedron in the third layer, with two Ag₂(DPPE) capping the Ag-Cu or Ag-Ag interactions to form $[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C \equiv CPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$ (Fig. 13C).

In addition to ligand-protected Ag NCs, many reports have focused on the synthesis of Ag NCs using anions, such as halide ions, chalcogenide ions, oxoanions, and polyoxometalates (POMs), as templates. ^{264,265} In 2022, Liu *et al.* used a solvothermal reaction to synthesize POM-templated Ag NCs (Ag₄₉Mo₁₆) protected by six thiacalix[4]arenes (TC4A). ²⁶⁶ In this synthesis, TC4A was mixed with ⁱPrSAg, CH₃COOAg, and ammonium molybdate tetrahydrate ((NH₄)₆Mo₇O₂₄·4H₂O), and then triethylamine was added dropwise. After that, light brown crystals were obtained by subjecting the mixture to heat treatment.

As mentioned above, many synthetic examples of Ag NCs protected by organic ligands, such as SR, phosphine, C≡CR, and template types, have been reported. These Ag NCs are also expected to be applied in electrochemical CRRs. In section 3.4, we describe CRRs using mainly the Ag NCs introduced in this section.

2.3 Synthesis of copper nanocluster

Cu is more abundant than Au and Ag, and thus Cu-based nanomaterials have advantages such as low environmental burden and low cost. Furthermore, Cu-based catalysts have the appropriate adsorption energy for CO_2 and exhibit promising CRR activity, with the ability to produce a variety of organic products from CO_2 . Moreover, Cu NCs can be synthesized with atomic precision using ligands such as SR, phosphine, and $C \equiv CR$. $^{44,56,236,267-271}$ Here, we describe the existing synthesis methods for Cu NCs protected by the above ligands.



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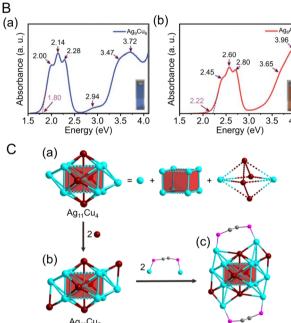


Fig. 13 (A) Anatomy of (a) $[Ag_9Cu_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ and (b) $[Ag_8Au_7(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. Color legend: Au, yellow; Ag, purple; Cu, orange. (B) Experimental absorbance spectra plotted in the energy axis of (a) $[Ag_9Cu_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ and (b) $[Ag_8Au_7(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (C) Structure analysis of the $[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = C^tPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$. (a) Structure anatomy of the $Ag_{11}Cu_4$ metal core. (b) Capping of two opposite Ag_3 faces of the $Ag_{11}Cu_4$ core forms the structure of $Ag_{11}Cu_6$. (c) Stabilization of the $Ag_{11}Cu_6$ metal framework by two Ag_2DPPE motifs forms the structure of $[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = C^tPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$. Color legend: turquoise, Ag_3 dark red, Cu_3 pink, P_3 gray, C_3 . (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 244. Copyright 2021 Royal Society of Chemistry. (C) is reproduced with permission from ref. 263. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

2.3.1 Thiolate-protected copper nanoclusters. Cu NCs partially protected by SR have been synthesized, similar to the reports for $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$ and $\operatorname{Ag}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$. In 2009, Liu *et al.* synthesized $\operatorname{Cu}_8(\operatorname{H})(\operatorname{L1})_6\operatorname{PF}_6$ (L1 = 9*H*-carbazole-9-carbodithioate) by dissolving tetrakis(acetonitrile)copper(1) hexafluorophosphate ($\operatorname{Cu}(\operatorname{CH}_3\operatorname{CN})_4\operatorname{PF}_6$) and $\operatorname{NH}_4[\operatorname{S}_2\operatorname{P}(\operatorname{OiPr})_2]$ in acetone and stirring to remove impurities. Page 1 and 2022, Wang and Zang *et al.* synthesized three Cu NCs with the same size, namely $\operatorname{Cu}_8(\operatorname{S}^t\operatorname{Bu})_4(\operatorname{L1})_4$ and $\operatorname{Cu}_8(\operatorname{S}^t\operatorname{Bu})_4(\operatorname{L2})_4$ (L2 = *O*-ethyl carbonodithiolate), in addition to $\operatorname{Cu}_8(\operatorname{H})(\operatorname{L1})_6\operatorname{PF}_6$, and their CRR activities were compared. The synthesis of $\operatorname{Cu}_8(\operatorname{S}^t\operatorname{Bu})_4(\operatorname{L1})_4$ used

 t BuSCu dissolved in chloroform as the Cu precursor, and L1 dissolved in methanol was added and mixed. $\text{Cu}_8(\text{S}^t\text{Bu})_4(\text{L2})_4$ was synthesized by the same procedure but with L2 instead of L1. Notably, $\text{Cu}_8(\text{H})(\text{L1})_6\text{PF}_6$ contains a slightly twisted cubic Cu_8 core, but the introduction of ^tBuS in $\text{Cu}_8(\text{S}^t\text{Bu})_4(\text{L1})_4$ and $\text{Cu}_8(\text{S}^t\text{Bu})_4(\text{L2})_4$ leads to the breakdown of the Cu_8 core and the formation of a tetrahedral Cu arrangement.

2.3.2 Phosphine-protected copper nanoclusters. As with Au and Ag NCs, phosphine-protected Cu NCs can also be synthesized. In 2015, Scott and Hayton et al. synthesized two Cu NCs by adding diphenyl silane (Ph₂SiH₂) to a slurry containing appropriate amounts of copper(1) acetate (Cu(OAc)), CuCl, and PPh_3 in benzene to obtain $\left[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}\right]^+$ $\left[Cu_{18}H_{17}(PPh_3)_{10}\right]^{+}.^{274}$ When these were extracted with benzene, only $[Cu_{18}H_{17}(PPh_3)_{10}]^+$ could be dissolved and separated by filtration. Most Cu NCs are composed of cationic Cu, but $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ was found to contain partially zerovalent Cu(0). This is the first report of such metallic Cu NCs with a Cu₁₃ icosahedral core and four [Cu(PPh₃)]₃ capping structures (Fig. 14A). In 2019, Wang and Zhu et al. reported the synthesis $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+,$ $[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ $(P(p-FPh)_3 = tris(4-fluorophenyl)phos$ phine), and $[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ with both ligand exchange and Au doping.²⁷⁵ [AuCu₂₄H₂₂(PPh₃)₁₂]⁺ was synthesized by adding Cu(acac)2 and HAuCl4·3H2O to the precursor, followed by stirring and aging with PPh3 and NaBH4 as ligands. $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ was also synthesized by adding P(p-FPh)3 and NaBH4 to a dissolved solution of Cu $(acac)_2$ and stirring. $AuCu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}$ was synthesized by adding HAuCl₄·3H₂O at the beginning of the synthetic scheme for Cu25H22(P(p-FPh)3)12 described above. All three NCs contain distorted icosahedral MCu₁₂ (M = Au or Cu) structures and are protected by four Cu₃P₃ shells (Fig. 14A). UV/Vis measurements of these materials also showed that $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ and $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ have absorption at 459 and 635 nm, whereas [AuCu24H22(PPh3)12]+ and $[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ are more blue shifted than the undoped ones. This indicates that the electronic structures of NCs can be changed by an inactive metal doping of Au heteroatoms (Fig. 14B).

2.3.3 Other ligand-protected copper nanoclusters. In addition to SR and phosphine protection, many reports have focused on the synthesis of Cu NCs protected with C≡CR and fluoroacetic acid. In 2020, Aikens and Sun et al. synthesized $[Cu_{23}(C = C^tBu)_{13}(CF_3COO)_6]^0$ containing Cu(0) using various reducing agents.²⁷⁶ First, copper(II) trifluoroacetate (Cu $(CF_3COO)_2$, Cu powder, and ^tBuC \equiv CH were mixed and stirred in dichloromethane and methanol, and when the solution turned pale yellow, Ph₂SiH₂ was added. After aging, the crystals were filtered and purified at room temperature to give $[Cu_{23}(C \equiv C^t Bu)_{13}(CF_3COO)_6]^0$. The Cu NCs consist of a Cu_{19} outer shell and Cu₄ tetrahedral core (Fig. 15A). Furthermore, UV/Vis measurements of the solid using diffuse reflection spectroscopy revealed that the band gap $[Cu_{23}(C = C^tBu)_{13}(CF_3COO)_6]^0$ is approximately 1.45 eV, which is consistent with the value calculated based on DFT calculations.

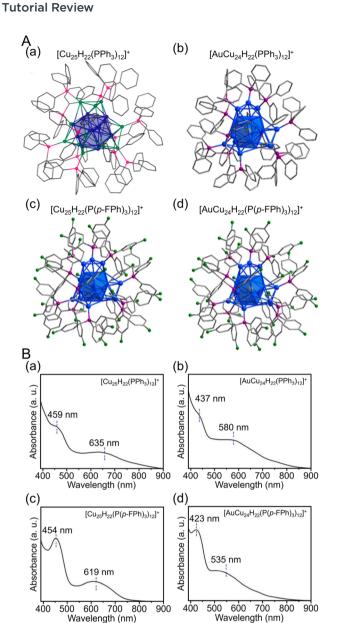


Fig. 14 (A) Total structures and (B) UV/Vis spectra of (a) $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$, (b) $[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$, (c) $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ and (d) $[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$. Color labels: gold = Au; blue = Cu; green = F; purple = P; gray = C. All H atoms are omitted for clarity. (A) (a) is reproduced with permission from ref. 274. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society. (A) (b–d) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 275. Copyright 2019 American Chemical Society.

Cases of Cu-based alloy NCs protected by C \equiv CR ligands have also been reported. In 2017, Jiang and Wang *et al.* reported the synthesis of two types of Au–Cu alloy clusters protected by 3-ethynylthiophene (H₃C₄S-3-C \equiv CH) or PhC \equiv CH. First, a mixture of the H₃C₄S-3-C \equiv CAuPPh₃ precursor, chloro (triphenylphosphine)gold(I) (PPh₃AuCl), and copper(II) nitrate (Cu(NO₃)₂) was reduced by adding NaBH₄. Then, the reaction proceeded in the dark, and the resulting solid was washed to obtain [Au₁₉Cu₃₀(C \equiv C-3-SC₄H₃)₂₂(PPh₃)₆Cl₂]³⁺. They also synthesized [Au₁₉Cu₃₀(C \equiv CPh)₂₂(PPh₃)₆Cl₂]³⁺ protected with

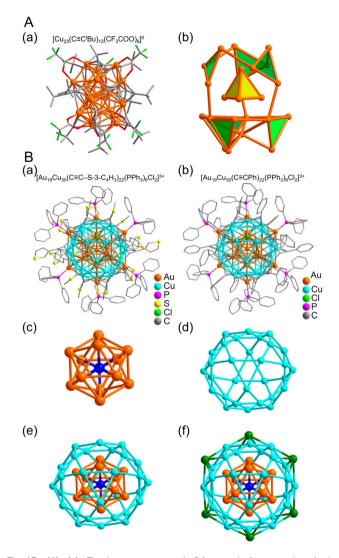


Fig. 15 (A) (a) Total structure and (b) metal framework of the $[Cu_{23}(C \equiv C^tBu)_{13}(CF_3COO)_6]^0$. Color labels: Orange, Cu; green, F; gray, C; red, O. (B) Molecular structure of (a) $[Au_{19}Cu_{30}(C \equiv C-3-SC_4H_3)_{22}(PPh_3)_6Cl_2]^{3+}$ and (b) $[Au_{19}Cu_{30}(C \equiv CPh)_{22}(PPh_3)_6Cl_2]^{3+}$. Anatomy of $Au_{19}Cu_{30}$ kernel structure in $Au_{19}Cu_{30}$ clusters. (c) Centered icosahedron $Au@Au_{12}$. (d) Cu_{30} icosidodecahedron. (e) $Au@Au_{12}@Cu_{30}$ multi shelled structure. (f) Six outmost Au atoms highlighted in green. (A) is reproduced with permission from ref. 276. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society. (B) is reproduced with permission from ref. 277. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

PhC \equiv C by adding PhC \equiv CAuPPh $_3$ as the Au precursor and CuCl and Cu(NO $_3$) $_2$ as the Cu precursors in the above synthetic scheme. The NCs have identical internal structures (Fig. 15B). At the center is an Au $_{13}$ core, followed by a Cu $_{30}$ icosahedral shell, which has a characteristic structure of six Au atoms bonded to this shell portion (Fig. 15B).

As described above, many synthetic examples of Cu NCs protected by various organic ligands, such as SR, phosphine, and C=CR, have been reported. These Cu NCs are expected to be applied in electrochemical CRRs, as described in section 3.5.

Green Chemistry

Electrochemical CO₂ reduction reactions of atomically precise metal nanoclusters

3.1 Atomically precise metal nanoclusters as electrocatalysts

As the depletion of fossil resources and the problem of global warming become more serious, there is a growing desire to diversify the industrial sources of energy and reduce greenhouse gases. Electrocatalysts, which induce chemical reactions using electrical energy, have been attracting attention as a means of addressing these problems. Electricity can be produced cleanly using natural energy sources (i.e., without also producing CO₂), and electrocatalysts can be used to convert the unused surplus of those sources into chemical energy. Doing so would reduce the loss of electricity in the transmission and storage processes, promoting a cleaner and more sustainable society. Among the various electrocatalytic reactions, in water electrolysis, fuel cells, and electrochemical CO₂ reduction are the most widely studied.

In recent years, there has been a focus on the development of electrocatalysts that reduce the activation energy of these electrocatalytic reactions and allow them to proceed with less power consumption. In general, an efficient electrocatalyst has many active sites with high reaction rates. The number of active sites is an important factor related to the specific surface area of the catalyst, and the reaction rate is largely related to the adsorption energy of the reacting molecules on the catalyst surface. Chemical reactions at the catalyst surface exhibit the highest activity based on the Sabatier principle, only occurring when the Gibbs energy of adsorption between the catalyst and the reactant is appropriate.²⁷⁸ The reaction cannot occur if there is no adsorption of the reactant on the electrode surface, but if the adsorption is too strong, the reaction cannot proceed. Therefore, depending on the metal species of the electrocatalyst and the adsorption energy of the reactants, the reaction efficiency follows a mountainous trend, called a volcano plot.279

The metal NCs described in section 2 generally have high catalytic activities in a variety of heterogeneous systems based on their large specific surface areas and unique geometric/ electronic structures. Recently, many groups have studied the application of metal NCs to electrocatalysts, considering that metal NCs have the potential to outperform conventional materials. Furthermore, the geometric structure of many metal NCs can be revealed by SC-XRD, and the adsorption and reaction processes between the metal NCs as an active site, and reactants estimated using calculations. 158,280-287 Therefore, metal NCs have been widely studied as model catalysts to elucidate the reaction mechanisms. If we can clarify the correlation between the electronic/ geometric structure of metal NCs and their electrocatalytic activity, we may find new ways to enhance the catalytic activity.

Here, we summarize the application of ligand-protected metal NCs in electrochemical CRRs, with a focus on electrocatalysts using ligand-protected metal NCs obtained by liquidphase reduction, which can be easily synthesized in large quantities. Particularly, we describe the use of metal NCs that have a well-defined geometric structure.

3.2 Electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions using atomically precise metal nanoclusters

Electrochemical CRRs provide a variety of useful reduction products depending on the number of electrons involved in the reaction.²⁷⁹ For example, 2-electron transfer reduction produces CO or HCOOH, 8-electron transfer reduction produces CH₄, 16-electron transfer reduction produces ethylene (C₂H₄), and reduction by more electrons is also possible (eqn (1)-(7)).89,288 First, CO2 is adsorbed on the surface of the metal catalyst and then interacts with the transferred electrons or protons to form an intermediate. Next, these intermediates undergo various reactions and finally desorb from the catalyst surface. There are various theories, but (i) *COOH and (ii) *OCHO are the primary intermediates in most cases. Among these, (i) *COOH is the first intermediate in the formation of CO and various hydrocarbons, and (ii) *OCHO is most likely an intermediate in the formation of HCOOH. (iii) *COCHO, produced by C-C coupling of *CHO and CO, has been reported as an important intermediate in the formation of C2 compounds. Therefore, different metal species also have different binding energies to these intermediates, and these differences change the main products (Fig. 16). For example, using bulk metals as catalysts, (i) CO is obtained as a product for Au or Ag; (ii) HCOOH is obtained for Pb, Sn, and In; and (iii) a variety of organic products, such as aldehydes, alcohols, and C₂ compounds, are obtained for Cu. However, certain metals, such as Pt, Ni, and Pd, which are highly active in HER, are less useful catalysts in CRR because the adsorption of *H prevents the formation of carbon products. 289,290 Additionally, the specific geometric/electronic structures of metal NCs affect the selectivity. As described in section 2, many metal NCs can be synthesized under atmospheric conditions with atomic accu-

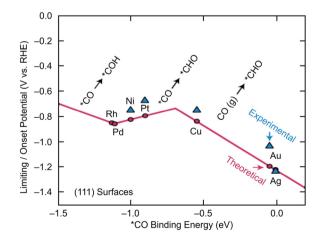


Fig. 16 A volcano plot of CO₂ reduction reactions for (111) bulk metals. This figure is reproduced with permission from ref. 279. Copyright 2017

racy, mainly for group 11 metals (Ag, Au, and Cu). Therefore, most applications of electrochemical CRRs have been based on these metal NCs. In this section, we mainly discuss the relationship between the structure of metal NCs and electrochemical CRR activity in terms of (1) size effects, (2) structure effects, (3) ligand effects, and (4) heterometallic doping effects, with respect to the application of Ag, Au, and Cu NCs in electrochemical CRRs.

3.3 Electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions using gold nanoclusters

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Many studies of electrochemical CRRs with Au NCs have been reported since 2012 (Tables 1–5). Kauffman *et al.* reported the first study on electrochemical CRRs using $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$. They prepared the catalyst ink by sonicating a solution containing $[\operatorname{Au}_{25}(\operatorname{PET})_{18}]^-$ (Fig. 2AB) dissolved in acetone, carbon black (CB), Nafion, and methanol. Then, the prepared catalyst ink was loaded on a glassy carbon electrode (GCE) and dried naturally to form the working electrode. Evaluation of the CRR activity showed that the current curves were different after saturation with nitrogen (N₂) and CO₂ when the potentials were traced to negative. The onset potential for CO formation was found to be -0.193 V ν s. RHE, according to the potential-dependent product analysis (Fig. 17A). Compared with the

ideal CO₂ to CO redox potential (-0.103 V vs. RHE), the overvoltage of bulk Au was 200-300 mV, whereas that of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] was only 90 mV (Fig. 17B). The FE of CO formation (FE_{CO}) was approximately 100% at -1.0 V vs. RHE. This was 7-700 times higher than Au NPs with 2-5 nm particle sizes and bulk Au. Furthermore, the FE_{CO} for [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] was stable at a relatively high selectivity of 80.8-99.6%, compared with 26.9-92.9% for bulk Au and 71.0-96.9% for Au NPs. The turnover frequency of CO (TOF_{CO}) was calculated to be 87 molecules per site per s. In addition, the absorption spectrum of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] was maintained after electrochemical measurements, further indicating its stability.²⁹¹ The adsorption of CO2 was also predicted using a simplified model of $[Au_{25}(SCH_3)_{18}]^-$ for the DFT calculation (Fig. 17C). As a result, the binding energy is 0.13 eV in the stable structure, where the oxygen atom of CO2 interacts with the three S atoms located in the shell of Au₂₅ (Fig. 17C). These small perturbations in the internal structure of the molecule were consistent with the physisorption of CO2. CRRs were also investigated using $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^z$ (z = -1, 0, and +1). 292 $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^$ exhibited higher activity for CO2 reduction to CO than $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^z$ (z = 0 and +1). From DFT calculations, they speculated that this is due to the stronger binding energy for CO₂ and H⁺ co-adsorption.

Table 1 Representative references on CRR activity using Au NCs (section 3.3.1 Size effects)

Nanocluster/ nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
$[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^{-}$	0.1 M KHCO₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~100%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	291^{d}
Au 2 nm NPs				97%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
Au 5 nm NPs				74%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
Bulk Au NPs				27%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^{-}$	$0.1 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	99%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	292^{d}
$[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$				82%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^{+}$				81%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
$Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$	1.0 M KOH aq. or 3.0 M KOH aq.	Flow cell	CO	\sim 90%@ -0.56	59@-0.56	100 h@-1.16	295^{e}
$Au_{38}(SC_6H_{13})_{24}$				\sim 90%@ -0.56	100@-0.56	25 h@-1.16	
$Au_{144}(SC_6H_{13})_{60}$				\sim 92%@ -0.56	230@-0.56	25 h@-1.16	
$Au_{137}(PET)_{56}$	0.1 M NBu ₄ PF ₆ in DMF	3 neck flask	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	294
$Au_{25}(PET)_{18}$	$0.1 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	N/A	CO	\sim 90%@ -1.0	N/A	36 h@-1.0	293^{f}
$Au_{38}(PET)_{24}^{\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $	$0.5 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	~100%@-0.77	32@-0.87	N/A	296^{f}
$Au_{38}(PET)_{24}^{c}$				~100%@-0.77	23@-0.87	N/A	
$Au_{144}(PET)_{60}$				~100%@-0.77	26@-0.87	N/A	
Au ₃₃₃ (PET) ₇₉				\sim 95%@-0.77	23@-0.87	N/A	
$Au_{28}(TBBT)_{20}$				~100%@-0.77	28@-0.87	N/A	
$Au_{36}(TBBT)_{24}$				~100%@-0.77	26@-0.87	N/A	
$Au_{279}(TBBT)_{84}$				$\sim 90\%@-0.77$	18@-0.87	N/A	~
$Au_4(PPh_3)_4I_2$	$0.5 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	$\sim 55\%@-0.9$	$\sim 3@-0.9$	N/A	298^{g}
			H_2	$\sim 45\%@-0.9$	$\sim 3@-0.9$	N/A	
$Au_{11}(PPh_3)_7I_3$			CO	\sim 77%@ -0.9	$\sim 5@-0.9$	N/A	
21			H_2	~23%@-0.9	$\sim 2@-0.9$	N/A	7.
$[Au_6(DPPP)_4]^{2+}$	$0.2 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	Flow cell	CO	$\sim 80\% (a) - 1.5^a$	$-3.3@-1.5^a$	4 h@-1.5 ^a	297^{h}
2.1			H_2	$\sim 15\% (a) - 1.5^a$	N/A	N/A	
$\left[\mathrm{Au}_{9}(\mathrm{PPh}_{3})_{8}\right]^{3+}$			CO	$\sim 83\%@-1.5^a$	$-3.1@-1.5^a$	N/A	
			H_2	$\sim 17\% (a) - 1.5^a$	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{13}(DPPE)_5Cl_2]^{3+}$			CO	$\sim 90\% (a) - 1.5^a$	$-3.3@-1.5^a$	N/A	
			H_2	$\sim 15\% (3) - 1.5^a$	N/A	N/A	
$Au_{101}(PPh_3)_{21}Cl_5$			CO	$\sim 76\% (a) - 1.5^a$	$-6.6@-1.5^a$	N/A	
			H_2	$\sim 20\%$ (a) -1.5^a	N/A	N/A	

PET = phenylethanethiolate, PPh $_3$ = triphenylphosphine, TBBT = 4-tert-butylbenzenethiolate, SC $_6$ H $_{13}$ = 1-hexanethiolate, DPPE = 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, DPPE = 1,3-bis(diphenylphosphino)propane. $^a \nu s$. Ag/AgCl. b Au $_{38}$ Q. c Au $_{38}$ T. d Vulcan XC-72R. e Vulcan XC-72. f Carbon black. g Multi-walled carbon nanotube. h Carbon paper.

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Table 2 Representative references on CRR activity using Au NCs (section 3.3.2 Structure effects)

Nanocluster/nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
[Au ₂₅ (PET) ₁₈] ⁻	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	73.5%@-1.07	N/A	N/A	299 ^c
			H_2	24.9%@-1.07	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{25}(PPh_3)_{10}(PET)_5Cl_2]^{2+}$			CO	~55%@-1.07	N/A	N/A	
			H_2	41.2%@-1.07	N/A	N/A	
$Au_{38}(PET)_{24}^{a}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~100%@-0.77	32@-0.87	N/A	296^{d}
$Au_{38}(PET)_{24}^{b}$				~100%@-0.77	23@-0.87	N/A	
$Au_{44}(TBBT)_{24}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	83%@-0.57	1.9@-0.57	N/A	300^{e}
			H_2	~17%@-0.57	N/A		
$Au_{44}(PPh_3)(TBBT)_{26}$			CO	97%@-0.57	3.8@-0.57	60 h@-0.57	
			H_2	2.7%@-0.57	N/A		
$Au_{44}(PPh_3)_2(TBBT)_{24}$			CO	90%@-0.57	3.1@-0.57	N/A	
11(0)2()21			H_2	~10%@-0.57	N/A		

PET = phenylethanethiolate, PPh₃ = triphenylphosphine, TBBT = 4-*tert*-butylbenzenethiolate. ^a Au₃₈Q. ^b Au₃₈T. ^c Vulcan XC-72R. ^d Carbon black. ^e Vulcan XC-72.

Table 3 Representative references on CRR activity using Au NCs (section 3.3.3 Ligand effects)

Nanocluster/nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
$[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	H_2	10%@-0.67	~6@-0.97	5 h@-0.77	232^{d}
2	• •		CO	~90%@-0.67	~ 0 -0.97		
$[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$			H_2	$\sim 26\%@-0.67$	~1@-0.97	5 h@-0.77	
			CO	73.5%@-0.77	6.47@-0.97		
$[Au_{11}(PPh_3)_7(NHC^{Me})Cl_2]^+$	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	80%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	238^{e}
$[Au_{11}(PPh_3)_8Cl_2]^+$				80%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
[Au ₁₁ (PPh ₃) ₇ (NHC ^{iPr})Cl ₂] ⁺				~30%@-1.0	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{11}(DPPE)_5]^{3+}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	70.6%@-0.6	1.5@-0.6	N/A	231^{f}
$[Au_{22}H_3(DPPE)_3(PPh_3)_8]^{3+}$				92.7%@-0.6	3.5@-0.6	10 h@-0.6	
[Au ₂₄ (NHC ^{Bn}) ₁₄ Cl ₂ H ₃] ³⁺	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq.	MEA-cell	CO	N/A	$10@2.4^a$	100 h@3.2 ^{a,b}	249^{g}
[Au ₁₃ (NHC ^{Bn}) ₉ Cl ₃] ²⁺				N/A	$10@2.5^a$	N/A	
Ag NPs				N/A	$10@2.8^a$	N/A	
[Au ₂₅ (PET) ₁₈] ⁻	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	$\sim 100\%@-0.8$	22@-0.8	N/A	301^{h}
[Au ₂₅ (SNap) ₁₈] ⁻				$\sim 95\%@-0.8$	20@-0.8		
[Au ₂₅ (SePh) ₁₈] ⁻				$\sim 80\%@-0.8$	15@-0.8		
$Au_{25}(PET)_{18}$ (Electrochemical) ^b	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	82%@-0.59	N/A	3 h@-0.5	305^{i}
$Au_{25}(PET)_{18}(Thermal)^c$				64%@-0.59		3 h@-0.5	
$[Au_{28}(C_2B_{10}H_{11}S)_{12}(THT)_4]^{4+}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	98.5%@-0.9	~8@-0.9	5.5 h @-0.9	303^{h}
$[Au_{28}(C_4B_{10}H_{11})_{12}(THT)_8]^{3+}$				$\sim 70\%@-0.9$	\sim 4@ -0.9	5.5 h @-0.9	_
$[Au_{28}(Ph-form)_{12}]^{2+}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	96.5%@-0.57	N/A	40 h@-0.69	250^{d}
PVP-coated Au NPs				$\sim 25\%@-0.57$	N/A	N/A	
$[Au_{55}(p\text{-MBT})_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$	$0.1 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	94.1%@-0.6	$\sim 410 - 0.9$	4 h@-0.6	233^{j}
$[Au_{25}(p\text{-MBT})_5(PPh_3)_{10}Cl_2]^{2+}$				75.1%@-0.6	N/A	N/A	

PET = phenylethanethiolate, PPh₃ = triphenylphosphine, SNap = 1-naphthalenethiolate, SePh = phenylselenolate, NHC^{Me} = 1,3-dihydro-1,3-dimethyl-2*H*-benzimidazol-2-ylidene, Ph-form = N,N'-diphenylformamidinate, PVP = polyvinylpyrrolidone, p-MBT = 4-methylbenzenethiolate, NHC^{Bh} = 1,3-dibenzyl-1*H*-benzo[d]imidazol-2-ylidene, DPPE = 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, MEA = membrane electrode assembly. a v s. MEA-cell potential. b The ligand-removed Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ by electrochemical pretreatment. t The ligand-removed Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ by thermal pretreatment. d Multi-walled carbon nanotube. e Carbon paper. f Ketjen black (EC300J). g Carbon gas diffusion layer (TGP-H-060). b Vulcan XC-72R. f Sulfur-doped graphene. f Carbon.

$$CO_2 + e^- \rightarrow CO_2^{*-}$$
 $E = -1.50 \text{ V} \text{ vs. RHE}$ (1) $CO_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^- \rightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$ $E = 0.17 \text{ V} \text{ vs. RHE}$ (6)

$$CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow CO + H_2O$$
 $E = -0.11 \text{ V } \nu \text{s. RHE}$ (2)

$$CO_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow HCOOH$$
 $E = -0.25 \text{ V } \nu s. \text{ RHE}$ (3)

$$\mathrm{CO_2} + 4\mathrm{H^+} + 4\mathrm{e^-} \rightarrow \mathrm{HCHO} + \mathrm{H_2O}$$
 $E = -0.07 \ \mathrm{V} \ \nu s. \ \mathrm{RHE}$

$$CO_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow CH_3OH + H_2O$$
 $E = 0.02 \text{ V } \nu s. \text{ RHE } (5)$

$$2\text{CO}_2 + 12\text{H}^+ + 12\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_2\text{H}_4 + 4\text{H}_2\text{O} \quad E = 0.06 \text{ V } \text{vs. RHE}$$
 (7)

Next, the researchers investigated practical applications. ²⁹³ Specifically, they evaluated the relationship between the amount of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ loaded per electrode area (using CB as the support) and their resulting particle size, which was determined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. 18A). As a result, the size of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ was 1.4 \pm

Table 4 Representative references on CRR activity using Au NCs (section 3.3.4 Doping effects)

Nanocluster/nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Partial current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
$[Au_{19}Cd_2(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~95%@~-0.67	42@-0.9	N/A	308 ^b
$[Au_{23}(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$		** 11		~65%@~-0.67	18@-0.9	N/A	4000
$\mathrm{Au}_{25}(\mathrm{PET})_{18}$	1.0 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO HCOOH	~80%@-0.4	8@-0.8	25 h@-0.7	188 ^c
Au ₂₄ Cd(PET) ₁₈			CO	~10%@-0.4 ~90%@-0.4	35@-0.8	25 h@-0.7	
Au ₂₄ Cu(FE1) ₁₈			НСООН	_	33@-0.8	23 Haj-0.7	
$Au_{19}Cd_3(S-tol)_{18}$			CO	~60%@-0.4	5@-0.8	25 h@-0.7	
11419043(8 101)18				0%@-0.4	000 0.0	2011@ 017	
$Au_{38}Cd_4(d-MBT)_{30}$			CO	~60%@-0.4	12@-0.8	25 h@-0.7	
30 4()30			HCOOH	~10%@-0.4	C	C	
$Au_{47}Cd_2(TBBT)_{31}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	96%@-0.57	3.2@-0.57	20 h@-0.57	306^{b}
$Au_{44}(TBBT)_{28}$				83%@-0.57	1.6@-0.57	20 h@-0.57	
1.5 nm Au NPs				76%@-0.67	1.0@-0.57	20 h@-0.67	
$Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq. + 0.4	H-cell	H_2	\sim 6%@ -0.5	12@-1.0	N/A	309^{b}
	M KCl		CO	~90%@-0.5			
$PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}$			H_2	~80%@-0.5	20@-1.0	N/A	
(GGIL PLED.)	0.534.89160	TT 11	CO	~20%@-0.5		37/4	100 d
$Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}$	$0.5 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	~70%@-0.6	7.5@-0.9	N/A	199 ^d
$PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}$ $Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}$				~80%@-0.6 ~60%@-0.6	7.5@-0.9 14@-0.9	N/A N/A	
$Ag_{4+x}Au_{40-x}(C \equiv CPh$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~98%@-0.5	14@-0.9 18@-0.8	10 h@-0.6	310^{d}
$(CH_3)_2)_{28}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	11-0011	CO	~9670@-0.3	10@-0.0	10 H@-0.0	310
$Au_{44}(C \equiv CPh(CH_3)_2)_{28}$				~75%@-0.5	6@-0.8	10 h@-0.6	
$Au_{44}(d-MBT)_{28}$				~80%@-0.5	8@-0.8	10 h@ -0.6	
[Au ₂₅ (PET) ₁₈]	1.0 M KOH aq.	Flow cell or zero-gap	CO	~100%@-0.2	~40@-0.2	N/A	190
[Ag ₂₅ (SPhMe ₂) ₁₈] ⁻		cell		~95%@-0.6	~50@-0.6	N/A	
[AuAg ₁₂ @Au ₁₂ (PET) ₁₈]				~90%@-0.2	~30@-0.2	24 h@-0.5 ^a	
[Au ₄ Pd ₆ (TBBT) ₁₂]	0.5 M KHCO₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	88.1%@-0.57	~11@-0.9	65 h@-0.57	202^{b}
[Au ₃ AgPd ₆ (TBBT) ₁₂] ⁻				94.1%@-0.57	~15@-0.9	65 h@-0.57	,
[Au24Pd(PET)18]0	$0.1 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	~100%@-1.1	35@-1.25	6 h@-0.8	311^{b}
$[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$				~70%@-1.1	20.3@-1.1	N/A	

PET = phenylethanethiolate, TBBT = 4-tert-butylbenzenethiolate, SC_6H_{11} = cyclohexanethiolate, SC_6H_{13} = 1-hexanethiolate, S-tol = p-toluenethiolate, d-MBT = 3,5-dimethylbenzenethiolate, SC_6H_{13} = 1-hexanethiolate, SC_6H_{13} = 1-hexanethiolate

Table 5 Representative references on CRR activity using Au NCs (section 3.3.5 Other effects)

Nanocluster/ nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
[Au ₂₅ (PET) ₁₈] ⁻ /Nafion [Au ₂₅ (PET) ₁₈] ⁻ /PVDF Au foil	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq.	Two compartment cells	CO	~90%@-0.8 ~55%@-0.8 ~4.6%@-0.8	N/A	N/A	312 ^a
$[Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^-$	KOH aq. (1–5 M) or 0.5 M PBS + 0.5 M KCl aq. (pH 8–13)	Flow cell	CO	~95%@-0.4	~100@-0.4	12 h@-1.16	313 ^a

PET = phenylethanethiolate, PVDF = poly vinylidene fluoride. ^a Vulcan XC-72R.

0.4 nm when the loading amount was 0.96 μg_{Au} cm_{geo}⁻², indicating that the initial particle size was approximately maintained. However, aggregates were observed when loading was increased to 15 μg_{Au} cm_{geo}⁻². With an [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻ loading of 0.96 μg_{Au} cm_{geo}⁻², CO₂ flow rate of 50 mL min⁻¹, and applied potential of –1.0 V νs . RHE, electrolytic CO₂ reduction for 1 h produced 810 \pm 11 L g_{Au}^{-1} h⁻¹ of CO (FE_{CO} > 90%). Even after 36 h of continuous CO₂ reduction by electrolysis, CO production of 7450 \pm 59 L g_{Au}^{-1} h⁻¹ and an FE_{CO} of approximately 86% was maintained (Fig. 18B). In addition, 1–4 \times 10⁶ mol_{CO₂} mol_{catalyst}⁻¹ of turnover (TON) was obtained after

12 h of CO₂ reduction by electrolysis in combination with a 1.5 W, 6 V solar cell or a 6 V solar rechargeable battery.

3.3.1 Size effects in gold nanoclusters. Studies on the size dependence of Au NCs used in electrochemical CRRs are summarized in Table 1. Dass *et al.* evaluated CRR activity by dissolving $\text{Au}_{137}(\text{PET})_{56}$ in *N,N*-dimethylmethanamide (DMF) containing 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate $(\text{Bu}_4\text{NPF}_6)$. They observed a rise in current from ~0.55 V νs . NHE, and the overvoltage of CO_2 reduction to CO for $\text{Au}_{137}(\text{PET})_{56}$ was approximately 200 mV lower than that observed for $[\text{Au}_{25}(\text{PET})_{18}]^-$.

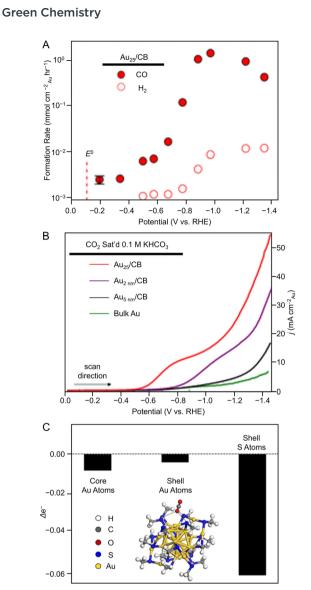
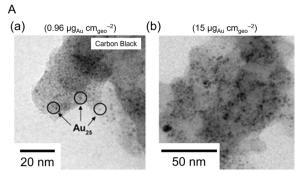


Fig. 17 (A) Potential-dependent H₂ and CO formation rates for Au₂₅/ CB. (B) LSVs of various Au catalysts in quiescent CO2 saturated 0.1 M $KHCO_3$ (pH = 7). (C) DFT model of stable CO_2 adsorption where an O atom of CO₂ interacts with three S atoms in the shell and Bader charge analysis showing the change in Au₂₅ valence electrons upon CO₂ adsorption. Panels (A)-(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 291. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society.

In 2021, Lee and Yoo et al. evaluated CRR activity using three different core sizes of $Au_n(SR)_m$ (i.e., $[Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^-$, $[Au_{38}(SC_6H_{13})_{24}]^0$ and $[Au_{144}(SC_6H_{13})_{60}]^0)$. As a result, CRR activity increased with decreasing $Au_n(SR)_m$ size, showing much higher CO production current density (j_{CO}) and selectivity (FE_{CO} > 90%) than Au NPs (25 \pm 4 nm particle size). Electrochemical measurements, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and DFT calculations indicated that the application of applied potential in $Au_n(SR)_m$ (n = 25, 38, 144) leads to a progressive dethiolation and the appearance of an active Au site, which is converted to a more active and stable geometry. Furthermore, it was suggested that Au sites de-thiolated at the staple motif promote CRRs by stabilizing the *COOH intermediate.



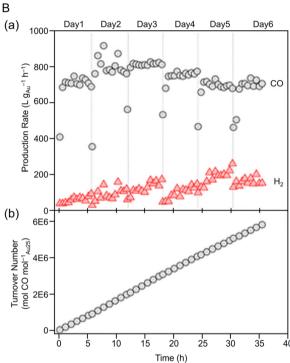


Fig. 18 (A) TEM images of carbon-supported Au₂₅ at low and high loadings. Isolated 1.4 + 0.4 nm Au NC were observed on the carbon black support at low loadings. (B) Day-to-day (a) product formation rates, (b) cumulative TON (mol of CO/(mol of Au₂₅)). Panels (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 293. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society.

In 2022, Kauffman, Mpourmpakis, and Jin et al. used two different $Au_n(SR)_m$ with a series of sizes $([Au_{38}(PET)_{24}]^0$, $[Au_{144}(PET)_{60}]^0$, $Au_{333}(PET)_{79}$, $[Au_{28}(TBBT)_{20}]^0$, $[Au_{36}(TBBT)_{24}]^0$, and $Au_{279}(TBBT)_{84}$) to evaluate CRR activity. ²⁹⁶ A catalyst ink of each $Au_n(SR)_m$ loaded at 10 wt% in isopropyl alcohol and 0.2 wt% Nafion on CB was placed on GCE, and CRR measurements were performed in 0.5 M potassium hydrogen carbonate (KHCO₃) aq. As a result, only CO and H₂ were produced, and PET-protected $Au_n(SR)_m$ $([Au_{38}(PET)_{24}]^0$ $[Au_{144}(PET)_{60}]^0$) and TBBT-protected $Au_n(SR)_m$ ($[Au_{28}(TBBT)_{20}]^0$ and $[Au_{36}(TBBT)_{24}]^0$) showed almost 100% FE_{CO} at potentials more positive than -0.8 V vs. RHE and -0.77 V vs. RHE, respectively (Fig. 19A). Furthermore, Au₃₃₃(PET)₇₉ and $Au_{279}(TBBT)_{84}$ with larger core sizes showed lower FE_{CO} and j_{co}

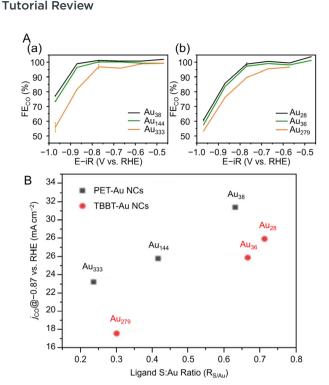


Fig. 19 (A) FE $_{CO}$ of (a) PET-protected Au $_{38}$, Au $_{144}$ and Au $_{333}$ and (b) TBBT-protected Au $_{28}$, Au $_{36}$ and Au $_{279}$ NCs. (B) Electrochemical performance: j_{CO} (at -0.87 V vs. RHE) vs. S: Au ratio of Au $_{38}$, Au $_{144}$, Au $_{333}$ and Au $_{28}$, Au $_{36}$, Au $_{279}$ series of NCs (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 296. Copyright 2022 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

values than $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$ with smaller core sizes (Fig. 19A). This size dependence may have been observed because the S atom of the ligand is the CRR active site and the ratio of S atoms to Au atoms ($\operatorname{R}_{S/Au}$) is larger for $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$ with a smaller core size (Fig. 19B). The authors also attribute the higher activity of PET-protected $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$ to the difference in ligand conductivity and ligand removal energies compared with TBBT-protected $\operatorname{Au}_n(\operatorname{SR})_m$.

In 2023, Sharma, Golovko, and Marshall *et al.* also reported on the size dependence in CRRs using phosphine-protected Au NCs. ²⁹⁷ The CRR activities of $[Au_6(DPPP)_4](NO_3)_2$, $[Au_9(PPh_3)_8](NO_3)_3$, $[Au_{13}(DPPE)_5Cl_2]Cl_3$, and $[Au_{101}(PPh_3)_{21}]Cl_5$ were measured and showed high selectivity for CO formation $(FE_{CO} = 75-90\%)$, and $[Au_{13}(DPPE)_5Cl_2]Cl_3$ showed slightly higher CO selectivity compared with other NCs. Additionally, the calcination process for ligand removal was found to cause aggregation of the Au NCs, thus decreasing the CO selectivity. It was also reported that Au4 clusters $(Au_4(PPh_3)_4I_2)$ stabilized by phosphine and iodide (I) show higher CO selectivity $(FE_{CO} = <60\%)$ than $Au_{11}(PPh_3)_7I_3$ $(FE_{CO} = <60\%)$.

From these reports, the size reduction of Au NCs contributes to the improvement of CRR activity and selectivity. This is probably due to the increase in active sites to increase in specific surface area and the change in the electronic state of metal NCs, which is advantageous for $\rm CO_2$ adsorption.

3.3.2 Structure effects in gold nanoclusters. Studies on the structure dependence of electrochemical CRRs using Au NCs

are summarized in Table 2. The geometric structure of metal NCs can have a significant effect on CRR activity. Mpourmpakis and Jin et al. evaluated the CRR activity of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈], a spherical form, and [Au₂₅(PPh₃)₁₀(PET)₅Cl₂]²⁺, a rod form (Fig. 20A). 299 Au_n(SR)_m loaded at 10 wt% on CB was dropped on GCE (Fig. 20B) and electrochemical measurements were performed in 0.5 M KHCO3 aq. saturated with CO2. The FECO of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^{-}$ was 73.7% at -0.57 V vs. RHE, 1.63 times higher than that of $[Au_{25}(PPh_3)_{10}(PET)_5Cl_2]^{2+}$ (FE_{CO} = ~28.0%) (Fig. 20C). The FE_{CO} of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$ was also high, 73.5% at −1.07 V vs. RHE, indicating that H₂ formation is suppressed. From the DFT calculations, they speculated that this high selectivity is due to the energetically advantageous ligand desorption that exposes the active site, and the negatively charged [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] is presumed to be favorable for stabilization of the adsorbed intermediate COOH (Fig. 20D). Although these NCs cannot be directly compared because they have different

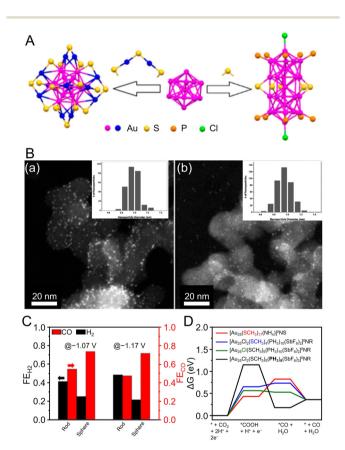


Fig. 20 (A) Atom packing structures of Au_{25} nanosphere ($[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$) and nanorod ($[Au_{25}(PPh_3)_{10}(PET)_5Cl_2]^{2^+}$). (B) STEM images and particle size histograms of (a) Au_{25} nanosphere and (b) nanorod supported on carbon black. (C) FE_{CO} and FE_{H_2} at the potential of -1.07 and -1.17 V over Au_{25} nanosphere and nanorod, respectively. (D) Free energy diagrams (ΔG) for CO_2 reduction to CO on the ligand-removed NCs at 0 V vs. RHE. The black, blue, green, and red lines represent CO_2 reduction to CO on the nanorod with PH_3 removed, the nanorod with $-SCH_3$ removed, respectively. Panels (A)–(D) are reproduced with permission from ref. 299. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

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ligands, the results demonstrated that the structure of the active site where the substrate is adsorbed is important.

In 2022, Kauffman, Mpourmpakis, and Jin et al. evaluated CRR activity using two structural isomers of Au₃₈(PET)₂₄ (Fig. 4A; Au₃₈Q and Au₃₈T).²⁹⁶ Au₃₈Q exhibited an FE_{CO} of 87% at -0.97 V vs. RHE, and Au₃₈T exhibited a lower FE_{CO} than $Au_{38}Q$, especially at more negative potentials (67% at -0.97 V vs. RHE). Thus, they investigated the differences in these activities based on DFT calculations. As a result, the average thermodynamic barrier to ligand removal (exposed active site) was similar for the two Au₃₈(PET)₂₄. However, there are significant differences in the average *COOH formation energies, indicating a linear trend between the *COOH formation energy and the ligand removal energy. Specifically, the average *COOH production energy at the two S sites for Au₃₈Q is 0.17 eV, compared with 0.31 eV for Au₃₈T. This indicates that the differences in CRR activity between the two isomers may be due to differences in the ease of *COOH formation. Overall, two Au₃₈(PET)₂₄ with the same size, composition, and number of ligands can have substantially different catalytic selectivity and activities if their underlying structures are different, which can affect the formation energies.

Asymmetric structural defects of metal NCs can induce Au₄₄(PPh₃)(TBBT)₂₆ enhanced activity. Using Au₄₄(PPh₃)₂(TBBT)₂₄ with fcc metal cores co-protected by PPh₃ and TBBT, and Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈, changes in CRR activity due to ligand defects have also been reported. Au₄₄(PPh₃)(TBBT)₂₆ with a single Au atom at the bottom of the fcc lattice exhibited high CO selectivity. DFT calculations showed that this active site promotes the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to CO by lowering the free energy of *COOH formation.³⁰⁰

From this report, even in Au NCs composed of the same chemical composition, the adsorption energy with the CRR intermediate changes due to the difference in the geometric structure, and Au NCs with different geometries showed different CRR activities.

3.3.3 Ligand effects in gold nanoclusters. Studies on the ligand dependence of electrochemical CRRs with Au NCs are summarized in Table 3. Kauffman, Mpourmpakis, and Jin et al. compared the activity of CRRs using [Au₂₅(SR)₁₈] protected by three different ligands (PET, SNap, and benzeneselenolate (SePh)).301 They found that changes in the carbon tail do not significantly affect catalytic selectivity, but the anchoring atom of the ligand binding to Au (X = S/Se) has a strong effect on both selectivity and activity. As a result, [Au₂₅(SR)₁₈] exhibited higher CO selectivity than [Au₂₅(SeR)₁₈]⁻. According to DFT calculations, they ascribed the higher selectivity of [Au₂₅(SR)₁₈]⁻ to the enhanced electronic interaction between the reaction intermediates and the exposed S active site compared with the Se site. This was interpreted as an increase in the electron density of the S site in $[Au_{25}(SR)_{18}]^-$, changing the bonding properties of the reaction intermediates and decreasing the energy penalty between COOH and CO.

In 2022, Wang, Zang, and Mak et al. studied the effect of the protective ligand on the CRR activity using $[Au_{28}(C_2B_{10}H_{11}S)_{12}(THT)_4Cl_4]^0$ (THT = tetrahydrothiophe)

 $(Au_{28}-S)$ and $[Au_{28}(C_4B_{10}H_{11})_{12}(THT)_8]^{3+}$ $(Au_{28}-C)_1^{302}$ which have the same metal core but different ligand shells.303 As shown in Fig. 21A, Au₂₈-S and Au₂₈-C have almost the same Au core structure, but the ligand group of the carborane ligand changes from a C=CR group (σ - π donor) to an SR group (σ donor), and the four THT ligands in Au28-C are replaced by four Cl ions in Au28-S. As a result, the total numbers of valence electrons in Au₂₈-C and Au₂₈-S are 12e and 13e, respectively. As shown in Fig. 21B, Au28-S exhibited higher CRR catalytic activity than Au₂₈-C. Au₂₈-S exhibited a maximum FE_{CO} of 98.5% at -0.9 V vs. RHE, approximately 1.4 times that of Au₂₈-C. Furthermore, time-resolved in situ Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy showed that the vibrational peak V(C-O) at 1362 cm⁻¹ and the C=O stretch at 1636 cm⁻¹ of the *COOH intermediate in Au₂₈-S is stronger than that of Au₂₈-C, confirming that Au₂₈-S exhibits higher electrocatalytic activity. In addition, they used DFT calculations to determine the active sites. The Au atom in the linear $C_2B_{10}H_{11}C \equiv C-Au-C \equiv CC_2B_{10}H_{11}$ staple of $Au_{28}-C$ has enough space between the two C≡CR groups to access the CO₂ molecule, but in Au28-S, the Cl atom of the surface ligand is

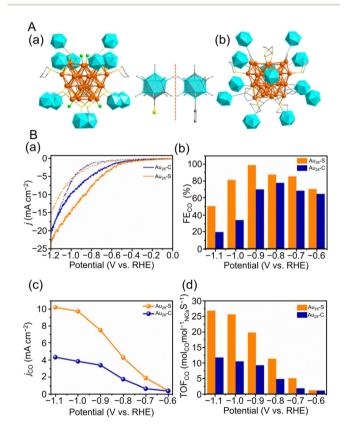


Fig. 21 (A) The total crystal structures of (a) Au₂₈-S and (b) Au₂₈-C. (B) (a) Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves of Au₂₈-S and Au₂₈-C in a N_2 -saturated (dotted line) and a CO_2 -saturated (full line) 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution. (b) FE_{CO} at various applied potentials over two NCs. (c) The j_{CO} and (d) TOF_{CO} at the potential of -0.6 to -1.1 V vs. RHE of two NCs. Color codes: orange, green and blue = gold turquoise icosahedrons = carborane; yellow = sulfur; gray = carbon; bright green = chloride. Hydrogen atoms are omitted for clarity. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 303. Copyright 2022 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

removed, and the CO_2 molecule is not accessible until the Au atom is exposed. The Gibbs free energy calculations of the CRRs for Au_{28} –S and Au_{28} –C and the time-resolved *in situ* FT-IR results indicate that the pathway of CO_2 reduction to CO is $CO_2(g) \rightarrow {^*CO_2}^- \rightarrow {^*COOH} \rightarrow {^*CO} \rightarrow CO(g)$, with the rate-limiting step being *COOH formation. Notably, Au_{28} –S is energetically more favorable for CO formation than Au_{28} –C.

Tutorial Review

Häkkinen, Tsukuda, and Crudden *et al.* reported on the electrocatalytic activity for CO_2 reduction using NHC-coordinated Au_{11} clusters. Specifically, $[Au_{11}(PPh_3)_7(NHC^{Me}) Cl_2]Cl$ (NHC^{Me} = 1,3-dihydro-1,3-dimethyl-2*H*-benzimidazol-2-ylidene) showed higher stability and CRR mass activity than $[Au_{11}(PPh_3)_8Cl_2]Cl$. The activity was greatly enhanced when the PPh₃ ligand was removed by heating the catalyst at 180 °C for 2 h during catalyst preparation. In 2022, Häkkinen, Tsukuda, and Crudden *et al.* also reported on the electrocatalytic activity of CRRs with NHC-protected Au_{24} clusters. Fig. 22A shows the ESI-MS spectrum of $[Au_{24}(NHC^{Bn})_{14}Cl_2H_3]$ [TFA = trifluoroacetate; NHC^{Bn} = 1,3-dibenzyl-1*H*-benzo[*d*]imidazol-2-ylidene) and its geometric structure. $[Au_{24}(NHC^{Bn})_{14}Cl_2H_3]^{3+}$

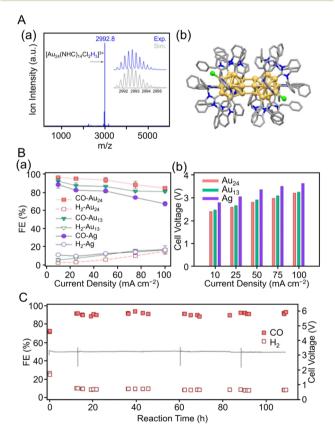


Fig. 22 (A) (a) ESI-MS spectra and (b) molecular structure of $[Au_{24}(NHC^{Bn})_{14}Cl_2H_3][TFA]_3$ as determined by SC-XRD with hydrogen atoms and TFA anions omitted for clarity. (B) (a) FE_{CO} and FE_{H_2} at different current densities. (b) Cell voltage vs. current density. (C) Stability of FE_{CO} and FE_{H_2} , and cell voltage vs. time at an operating current density of 100 mA cm⁻² with the Au_{24} catalyst. Color codes: yellow = gold; green = chloride; grey = carbon; and blue = nitrogen. (A)–(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 249. Copyright 2022 American Chemical Society.

exhibited a high FE $_{\rm CO}$ of >90% in the current density range of 10 to 50 mA cm $^{-2}$ and higher CO selectivity than commercial Ag NP catalysts and $[{\rm Au}_{13}({\rm NHC}^{\rm Bn})_9{\rm Cl}_3]^{2+}$ NCs 304 (Fig. 22B). The CRR evaluation at a steady current density of 100 mA cm $^{-2}$ showed that the FE $_{\rm CO}$ and full cell voltage remained stable at approximately 90% and 3.2 V, respectively, even after 100 h, demonstrating the high stability of $[{\rm Au}_{24}({\rm NHC}^{\rm Bn})_{14}{\rm Cl}_2{\rm H}_3]^{3+}$ (Fig. 22C).

In 2021, Wang et al. synthesized the first all-amidinate-protected Au NC, $[Au_{28}(Ph-form)_{12}]^{2+}$, and evaluated its CRR activity. 250 The crystal structure of [Au₂₈(Ph-form)₁₂]²⁺ has a core-shell Au₂₈ kernel consisting of a tetrahedral Au₄ core and a twisted truncated tetrahedral Au24 shell (Fig. 8C). Unlike Au NCs protected by SR and C \equiv CR, $[Au_{28}(Ph-form)_{12}]^{2+}$ does not have a staple. After loading [Au₂₈(Ph-form)₁₂]²⁺ at 10 wt% on multiwalled carbon nanotubes (CNTs), the CRR activity was evaluated, and the highest FE_{CO} was 96.5% at -0.57 V vs. RHE. These values were higher than those observed for Ph-form Au/ CNT and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP)-coated Au NPs. In addition, stable potentials at approximately -0.69 V vs. RHE and an FE_{CO} of >90% were maintained for 40 h in the longterm activity evaluation at -3.5 mA cm⁻². The high stability is attributed to the strong bonding between Au and amidinate ligands, indicating that Au NCs protected by N-containing ligands, such as NHCs and amidinates, can be used as highly stable and active CRR catalysts.

In 2021, Wang *et al.* synthesized $[Au_{55}(p\text{-MBT})_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$, which is co-protected with SR and phosphine and has the fcc structure, and evaluated its CRR activity.²³³ As a result, $[Au_{55}(p\text{-MBT})_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$ showed the highest FE_{CO} of 94.1% at $-0.6 \text{ V} \nu s$. RHE. The Au_{55} core in $[Au_{55}(p\text{-MBT})_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$ is fcc aligned and consists of four layers stacked in ABCA order along the [111] direction. Moreover, $[Au_{55}(p\text{-MBT})_{24}(PPh_3)_6]^{3+}$ may have shown higher CRR activity than the Au NPs with an fcc structure because of the protection of the HER-active corner by the *p*-MBT, which is a hydrophobic ligand. Thus, CRR activity may be controlled by the appropriate selection of surface ligands.

In 2022, Wang et al. investigated the effect of uncoordinated metal sites in CRRs using [Au₁₁(DPPE)₅]³⁺ and a hydride-coordinated Au NC ([Au₂₂H₃(DPPE)₃(PPh₃)₈]³⁺).²³¹ They presume that $[Au_{11}(DPPE)_5]^{3+}$ is completely capped with a diphosphine ligand, whereas [Au₂₂H₃(DPPE)₃(PPh₃)₈]³⁺ has three H atoms bridging six uncoordinated Au sites, and the remaining 14 surface Au atoms are protected with PPh3 ligands. They evaluated the CRR activities and found that compared with $[Au_{11}(DPPE)_5]^{3+}$, $[Au_{22}H_3(DPPE)_3(PPh_3)_8]^{3+}$ exhibited higher FE_{CO} (92.7% at -0.6 V νs . RHE), TOF_{CO} (488 h^{-1}), activity (134 A g_{Au}^{-1}). Furthermore, [Au₂₂H₃(DPPE)₃(PPh₃)₈]³⁺ was found to have high stability, with little change in j_{CO} and FE_{CO} after more than 10 h of reaction at -0.6 V νs . RHE. The results of DFT calculations suggest hydride-coordinated Au $[Au_{22}H_3(DPPE)_3(PPh_3)_8]^{3+}$ are the active sites, and the bridge H atoms directly hydrogenate CO2 to adsorbed *COOH. Moreover, it was estimated that the H voids are easily recovered

by proton reduction, thus completing the catalytic cycle. These findings suggest that Au–H bonds can improve the stability and CRR catalytic activity of Au NCs.

Green Chemistry

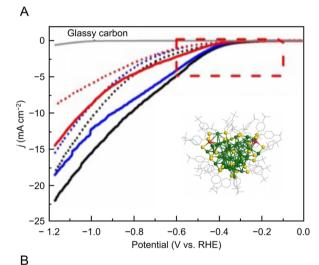
Pei and Wang et al. evaluated the CRR activity for $[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$ with hydride ligands and $[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$ synthesized by degrading $[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$ using light (300-450 nm) irradiation.²³² As a result, $[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$ showed high selectivity for HER (max FE_{H_2} = 98.2% at -0.67 V vs. RHE; $FE_{H_2} = FE$ of H_2 generation), whereas $[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$ was highly selective for CRR (FE $_{CO}$ = 73.5% at -0.77 V vs. RHE). UV/Vis and ESI-MS measurements of [Au₇(PPh₃)₇H₅]²⁺ and $[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$ before and after CRRs did not change significantly, indicating their stability. In addition, isotope labeling experiments with deuterium indicated that all the constituent hydrogen atoms of H2 released during the CO2 reduction process came from the aqueous solution (H₃O⁺) and not from hydrides in the NC. Notably, $[Au_{22}H_3(DPPE)_3(PPh_3)]^{3+}$, 231 protected by hydride ligands, showed high CO selectivity, unlike [Au₇(PPh₃)₇H₅]²⁺, indicating that the reactions between these NCs proceeded via different mechanisms. Therefore, assuming that all the hydrogen atoms come from the aqueous solution and not from the hydride ligands, DFT calculations showed that the values of ΔG of the *COOH formation for $[Au_7(PPh_3)_7H_5]^{2+}$ and $[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$ are 1.68 and 0.58 eV, respectively. The small potential barrier to COOH* formation might be responsible for the high CO selectivity of $[Au_8(PPh_3)_7]^{2+}$.

In 2021, Yang et al. investigated the process of ligand removal by thermal and electrochemical treatment of Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ and its effect on the electrolytic reduction of CO₂ to CO.305 Under-potential deposition (UPD) measurements of Cu, Au L₃ edge X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy, and XPS measurements were used to determine the extent of ligand removal. Increasing the annealing temperature during the thermal treatment and the bias voltage in the electrochemical treatment increased the surface area on the catalyst, indicating that the Au-S bonds were broken, and the surface Au atoms became metallic. In particular, when the reducing potential was applied by electrochemical treatment, there was no change in the Au-S bond strength measured by Cu UPD and FT-EXAFS measurements up to -0.30 V vs. RHE, but from -0.35 V vs. RHE ligand, removal was observed, and the aggregation of Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ was observed in the TEM images after applying a higher reducing potential. For the electrochemical evaluation of CRR activity, S-doped graphene (S-G)-loaded Au₂₅(PET)₁₈ (Au₂₅(PET)₁₈/S-G) annealed at 150 °C $(Au_{25}/S-G(Thermal)),$ and electrochemically $Au_{25}(PET)_{18}/S-G$ at -0.8 V vs. RHE $(Au_{25}/S-G(Electrochemical))$ were used. Au₂₅/S-G(Electrochemical) exhibited a higher FE_{CO} (82% at -0.59 V νs . RHE) than Au_{25}/S -G(Thermal). This suggests that ligand removal by thermal and electrochemical pretreatment exposed Au atoms as active sites and improved the CRR catalytic activity.

From these papers, regarding the influence of ligands, it was revealed that (1) the CRR activity changes greatly depending on the element that directly coordinates with the metal

(electron-withdrawing or donating ligands), (2) high CRR stability by using ligands with strong binding energy with metals, (3) the hydride contained in the ligand also affects the CRR activity, and (4) elimination of some ligands promotes the CRR activity.

3.3.4 Doping effects in gold nanoclusters. In Table 4, we summarized the studies on electrochemical CRR using heterometal-doped Au NCs. In 2019, Yang and Wu *et al.* reported on CRRs using Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ and Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈. ^{211,306} Fig. 23A (inset) shows the structure of Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁, which consists of an Au₂₉ kernel, two Cd(S-Au-S)₃, three Au₂(TBBT)₃, one Au₃(TBBT)₄, and three Au(TBBT)₂ staple motifs in the shell structure. Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁, Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈, or Au NPs were loaded on GCE and examined by linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) in 0.5 M KHCO₃ aq. saturated with Ar or CO₂. All catalysts exhibited higher current densities in a CO₂ atmosphere



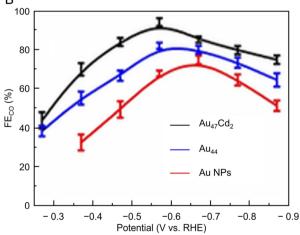


Fig. 23 (A) LSV curves of $Au_{47}Cd_2(TBBT)_{31}$. $Au_{44}(TBBT)_{28}$ and the *ca*. 1.5 nm Au NPs in an Ar-saturated (dotted line) and a CO_2 -saturated (full line) 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution; inset: total structure of the $Au_{47}Cd_2(TBBT)_{31}$. Color labels: yellow = S; gray = C; red = Cd, others = Au. (B). FE_{CO} for the catalysts examined with different applied potentials. Panels (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 306. Copyright 2019 Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim.

than in an Ar atmosphere, indicating that electrocatalytic CRRs occurred (Fig. 23A). Notably, Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ exhibited the highest current density. The maximum values of FECO at $-0.57 \text{ V } \nu s. \text{ RHE were } 96\% \text{ and } 83\% \text{ for } Au_{47}Cd_2(\text{TBBT})_{31} \text{ and }$ Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈, respectively. In comparison, 1.5 nm Au NPs exhibited a maximum FECO of 76% at -0.67 V vs. RHE (Fig. 23B). At a constant applied voltage (-0.57 V vs. RHE), the $j_{\rm CO}$ reached -3.2 mA cm⁻² for Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁, which was higher than that of $Au_{44}(TBBT)_{28}$ (-1.6 mA cm⁻²). In $Au_{47}Cd_2(TBBT)_{31}$, the FE_{H2} in HER was 3.8% at -0.57 V vs. RHE, indicating that the HER was effectively suppressed. Furthermore, the Tafel slope was lower for Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ at 151 mV per decade, compared with Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈ (166 mV per decade) and Au NPs (203 mV per decade). These results indicated that Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ favored the formation of the *COOH species by the first electron transfer. Subsequently, they used DFT calculations to examine the reaction mechanism. Cd prefers to bond with oxygen (O) atoms, forming Cd-O-C(OH)-Au to stabilize the intermediate *COOH. As a result, the formation of *COOH in Au₄₄(TBBT)₂₈ and Au NPs causes an increase in free energy, whereas the formation of COOH* in Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ causes the release of free energy (0.39 eV), which favors the formation of intermediates. The DFT calculations also revealed that the release of H₂ in Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁ was the most difficult of the three systems. Overall, the doped NC, Au₄₇Cd₂(TBBT)₃₁, exhibited enhanced CRR activity.

Kauffman, Mpourmpakis, and Jin et $[Au_{19}Cd_2(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$ and $[Au_{23}(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$ (ref. 206 and 307) to compare CRR activity. ³⁰⁸ For $[Au_{19}Cd_2(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$, the CO selectivity of the CRR was ~90-95% at applied potentials of -0.5 to -0.9 V vs. RHE, approximately twice that of $[Au_{23}(SC_6H_{11})_{16}]^-$. From the DFT calculations, similar to the previous study, 16 it is thermodynamically preferable to remove the -R group from the NCs, compared with the -SR group. Therefore, they simplified the ligand to SCH₃ and calculated the reaction free energy pathways using the two NCs, but with one ligand's R site removed ([Au₁₉Cd₂S(SCH₃)₁₅]⁻ and [Au₂₃S (SCH₃)₁₅]⁻). The thermodynamic energy barrier for CO formation was 0.74 eV lower for [Au₁₉Cd₂S(SCH₃)₁₅] compared with $[Au_{23}S(SCH_3)_{15}]^-$. In addition, comparing the thermodynamic limiting steps of CRR and HER, the calculated results were consistent with the experimental data showing that $[Au_{19}Cd_2S(SCH_3)_{15}]^-$ has a higher CRR selectivity. The effect of solvation was also examined, and it was found that the solvent (water) only had a minimal effect on the reaction energy. These results showed that modifying both the NC surface morphology and electronic structure by Cd doping can significantly enhance CRR activity.

In 2021, Zhu and Chen et al. synthesized Au₂₅(PET)₁₈, $Au_{24}Cd(PET)_{18}$, $Au_{19}Cd_3(S-tol)_{18}$, and $Au_{38}Cd_4(d-MBT)_{30}$ and investigated the effect of different substitution positions of Cd doping on the catalytic CRR activity. 188 As shown in Fig. 3Ba,

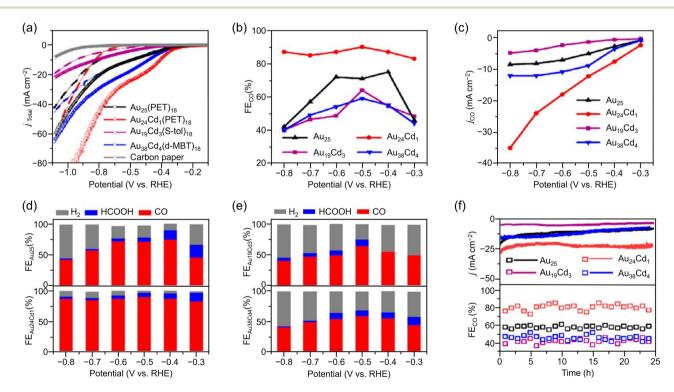


Fig. 24 (a) LSV curves of Au₂₅(PET)₁₈, Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈, Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈ and Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀ under an Ar-saturated (dotted line) and a CO₂-saturated (full line) in 1.0 M KHCO₃ solution. (b) FE_{CO} for the catalysts examined with different applied potentials. (c) The corresponding j_{CO} . (d) FEs for $various \ CRR \ products \ obtained \ on \ Au_{25}(PET)_{18} \ and \ Au_{24}Cd_1(PET)_{18} \ catalysts. \ (e) \ FEs \ for various \ CRR \ products \ obtained \ on \ Au_{19}Cd_3(S-tol)_{18} \ and \ Au_{24}Cd_1(PET)_{18} \ catalysts.$ Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀ catalysts. (f) The stability test conducted at -0.7 V vs. RHE for Au₂₅(PET)₁₈, Au₂₄Cd₁(PET)₁₈, Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈ and Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀ catalysts. These figures are reproduced with permission from ref. 188. Copyright 2021 American Chemical Society.

the Cd atoms in Au₂₄Cd(PET)₁₈ replaced the Au atoms located in the core-shell layer, and the Cd atoms in Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈ and Au₃₈Cd₄(d-MBT)₃₀ substituted the Au atoms on the shell staples. Among these four NCs, Au₂₄Cd(PET)₁₈ showed the highest current density, FE_{CO}, and j_{CO}, whereas Au₁₉Cd₃(Stol)₁₈ showed the lowest CRR activity (Fig. 24a-c). Fig. 24d and e shows that a small amount of HCOOH was detected in addition to the main product of CO, for all NCs. Furthermore, the stability measurements in Fig. 24f show that Au₂₄Cd (PET)₁₈ and Au₁₉Cd₃(S-tol)₁₈ were highly stable, with no significant change in current density after 24 h. DFT calculations showed that removing the carbon chain on the NC surface (S-C cleavage) was advantageous for CRR, as observed in previous studies, 16 and exposing the Au site by Au-S cleavage was advantageous for HER. From these results, it was speculated that only S-C cleavage occurs in Au₂₄Cd(PET)₁₈ and that the HER was suppressed by avoiding Cd-S cleavage, resulting in a high FE_{CO}. These results showed that the CRR activity can be enhanced by controlling the surface state through doping to different sites.

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In 2021, Lim, Yoo, and Lee et al. investigated the effect of Pt doping on CRR activity using [Au₂₅(SC₆H₁₃)₁₈] $[PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0.^{309} \ [PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0 \ has \ a \ central \ atom$ of $[Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^-$ replaced by Pt, but otherwise, the overall structures are very similar (Fig. 3A). Comparing the electrocatalytic performance, [PtAu24(SC6H13)18]0 was found to promote HER more than CRR, compared $[Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^-$ (Fig. 25a and b). As shown in Fig. 25c and d, in the 0.3-0.6 V vs. RHE range where CO formation is not controlled by the solubility of CO₂, the FE_{CO} of [Au₂₅(SC₆H₁₃)₁₈] was >95%, but $[PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0$ showed $FE_{H_2} = \sim 80\%$ at 0.4 V vs. the RHE. They also obtained a synthesis gas with a controlled H₂/CO molar ratio of 1 to 4 by mixing [Au₂₅(SC₆H₁₃)₁₈] and $[PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0$ on the gas diffusion electrode (GDE) with an appropriate mass ratio (Fig. 25e). Additionally, DFT calculations for the CRR and HER processes were performed with SC₆H₁₃ replaced by SCH₃ for simplicity. As a result, the HER with [PtAu₂₄(SCH₃)₁₈]⁰ was found to have an almost ideal *H bonding energy, which is favorable for HER. For [Au₂₅(SCH₃)₁₈]⁻, the reaction is more active for the CRR because the limiting potential of the CRR (0.09 eV) is higher than that of the HER (0.32 eV). Therefore, it was revealed that the CRR is more likely to proceed for $[Au_{25}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^-$ and the HER is more likely for $[PtAu_{24}(SC_6H_{13})_{18}]^0$.

In 2022, Zhou, Gao, and Zhu *et al.* synthesized $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$, $[PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$, and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ with Pt doping of one or two atoms and investigated the effect of the Pt atomic position and number on the CRR catalytic activity. Sc-XRD analysis revealed that $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ consists of a 23-atom kernel composed of two 13-atom icosahedra sharing one triangular plane, three $Au(SR)_2$ staples around the icosahedra, and six $Au_2(SR)_3$ staples (Fig. 4B and 26A). In addition, theoretical calculations and X-ray absorption fine structure analysis suggested that the position of Pt in $[PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ is at the center of the icosahe-

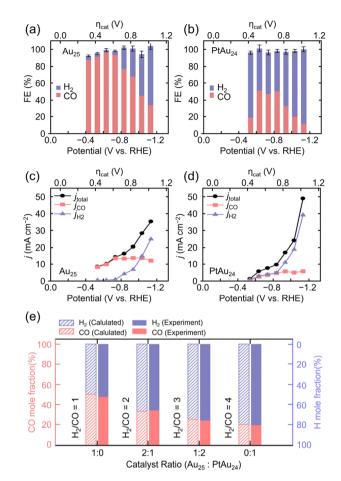


Fig. 25 Results of FE_{CO} and FE_{H_2} measured on the (a) $Au_{25}/C/GDE$ and (b) $PtAu_{24}/C/GDE$ in the CO_2 -saturated solution of 0.1 M KHCO₃ and 0.4 M KCl at various applied potentials. The corresponding j_{total} , j_{CO} , and j_{H_2} obtained on the (c) $Au_{25}/C/GDE$ and (d) $PtAu_{24}/C/GDE$ at various potentials. (e) Calculated (shaded) and experimentally determined (filled) H_2/CO ratio on formulated Au_{25} and $PtAu_{24}$ catalysts. These figures are reproduced with permission from ref. 309. Copyright 2021 AIP Publishing.

dron. From time-dependent DFT (TDDFT) calculations, $[PtAu_{37}(SH)_{24}]^0$ has one less total electron than $[Au_{38}(SH)_{24}]^0$, and the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) energy increases. In contrast, in $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SH)_{24}]^0$, the total number of electrons is decreased by two compared with $[Au_{38}(SH)_{24}]^0$, and the HOMO of $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SH)_{24}]^0$ changes to an orbital corresponding to the HOMO–1 of $[Au_{38}(SH)_{24}]^0$, which results in a narrower HOMO-lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) gap. This result suggests that $[PtAu_{37}(SH)_{24}]^0$ is less likely to give electrons to reactants and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SH)_{24}]^0$ is less likely to give electrons to reactants compared with $[Au_{38}(SH)_{24}]^0$ in the reduction process. Evaluation of CRR activity with these NCs showed that $[PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ had the highest j_{CO} and FE_{CO} (80% at $-0.6 \text{ V } \nu s$. RHE) (Fig. 26B).

In 2022, Zhu *et al.* synthesized $Ag_{4+x}Au_{40-x}(C = CPh(CH_3)_2)_{28}$ (HC=CPh(CH₃)₂ = 1-ethynyl-2,4-dimethylbenzene), and they investigated the effect of Ag doping in CRRs using $Au_{44}(C = CPh(CH_3)_2)_{28}$, $Au_{44}(d-MBT)_{28}$, and $Ag_{4+x}Au_{40-x}(C = CPh(CH_3)_2)_{28}$

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Tutorial Review

Asymmetric doping (a) j_{rotal} (mA cm⁻²) $(mA cm^{-2})$ FE_{co} (%) PtAu₃₇ PtAu₂₇ PtAu₃₇ Pt₂Au₃₆ Pt₂Au₃ -0.2

Fig. 26 (A) Structural anatomy of $[Au_{3R}(SR)_{2d}]^0$, asymmetrical $[Pt_1Au_{37}(SR)_{2d}]^0$ and symmetrical $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SR)_{2d}]^0$. Color labels: green/blue = Au, red = Pt, yellow = S. The C and H are omitted for clarify. (B) (a) LSV profiles of $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$, $[PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ catalysts in a 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution. (b) FE_{CO} and (c) j_{CO} for $[Au_{38}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$, $[PtAu_{37}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ and $[Pt_2Au_{36}(SCH_2Ph^tBu)_{24}]^0$ catalysts at different applied potentials. Error bars correspond to the deviations from several independent experiments. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 199. Copyright 2022 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

Potential (V vs. RHE)

-0.6

 $(CH_3)_2)_{28}$. 310 When electrolytic reduction was performed in a 0.5 M KHCO₃ solution saturated with CO₂, the main products of the three NCs were CO and a small amount of H2. In particular, $Ag_{4+x}Au_{40-x}(C \equiv CPh(CH_3)_2)_{28}$ exhibited the highest current density, and the FE_{CO} reached approximately 98% (-0.5 V νs . RHE). They also measured electrochemical impedance and electrochemical surface area to determine the reason for the differences in their catalytic performance. It was suggested that Ag doping decreased the charge transfer resistance and increased the number of active sites, thereby enhancing CRR activity.

Potential (V vs. RHE)

In 2022, Kim, Yoo, and Lee et al. used $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$, $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$, and bimetallic $[AuAg_{12}@Au_{12}(PET)_{18}]^-$ with a core-shell structure for CRR activity. 190 Comparing the CRR and HER activities of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] and [Ag₂₅(SPhMe₂)₁₈] activated by de-thiolation, the j_{CO} was found to be higher than $j_{\rm H_2}$ for both NCs. To investigate the origin of the CRR activity, DFT calculations were conducted (ligands were replaced with SCH₃ for simplicity). As a result, the partially de-thiolated sites, the bridging core metal, and the SR ligand in both NCs were determined to be the CRR active sites. The CRR limiting potential of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] (0.14 V) is lower than that of $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$ (0.24 V). The reason for the superior CRR activity of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈] might be that the stabilization of *COOH promoted more activation of CO2. Therefore, they replaced the Ag₁₂(SR)₁₈ shell, the active site in $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$, with the more active $Au_{12}(SR)_{18}$ shell to

improve the CRR activity. After optimizing the synthesis conditions, they obtained [AuAg₁₂@Au₁₂(PET)₁₈] consisting of an $AuAg_{12}$ core and an $Au_{12}(PET)_{18}$ protective shell (Fig. 3C). Then, the CRR activity was evaluated using the alloy NCs activated by de-thiolation. The j_{CO} of $[AuAg_{12}@Au_{12}(PET)_{18}]^-$ was found to be similar to that of $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^-$, and the FE_{CO} was slightly lower than that of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻. Furthermore, the long-term stability of [AuAg₁₂@Au₁₂(PET)₁₈] was confirmed using a zero-gap CO2 electrolyzer. When galvanostatic electrolysis was performed at a current density of 200 mA cm⁻², the full cell potential of the electrolyzer maintained 2.13 \pm 0.03 V and 57% FE_{CO} for 24 h for [AuAg₁₂@Au₁₂(PET)₁₈]⁻.

In 2022, Yang, Yang, and Wu et al. reported Au-Pd-Ag trimetallic alloy NCs. They showed the effect of Ag doping in CRRs using similar structures protected with TBBT (Fig. 5), namely Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂ and Au₃AgPd₆(TBBT)₁₂.²⁰² The LSV curves indicated that Au₃AgPd₆(TBBT)₁₂ exhibits a higher current density than Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂, suggesting that Ag doping enhances the catalytic CRR activity. The maximum FE_{CO} of $Au_3AgPd_6(TBBT)_{12}$ was 94.1% (at -0.57 V vs. RHE), which was higher than that of $Au_4Pd_6(TBBT)_{12}$ (88.1% at -0.67 V vs. RHE). Furthermore, Au₃AgPd₆(TBBT)₁₂ showed high longterm stability, and no decrease in current density or selectivity was observed after 65 h of electrolysis (-0.57 V vs. RHE). They used DFT calculations to investigate the effect of Ag doping on the reaction mechanism. Notably, the increase in the free

energy of CO desorption was smaller for Au₃AgPd₆(SCH₃)₁₁ than for Au₄Pd₆(SCH₃)₁₁, which suggests that Ag doping into Au₄Pd₆(SCH₃)₁₁ weakens the binding energy of *CO on the

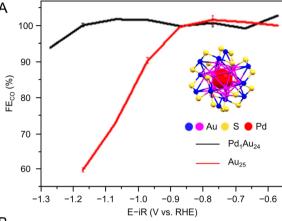
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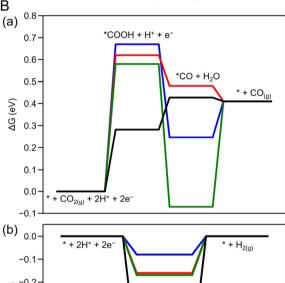
active site and promotes CO desorption, thereby improving the reduction to CO. This may be attributed to the electronic effects caused by the substitution of Ag atoms. From the XPS spectra, the binding energies of Au 4f and Pd 3d of Au₃AgPd₆(TBBT)₁₂ were significantly higher than those of Au₄Pd₆(TBBT)₁₂, which explained why the *CO adsorption on the active site of Au₃AgPd₆(SCH₃)₁₁ was weaker. Furthermore, this electronic effect might suppress the competitive HER. Therefore, Au₃AgPd₆(SCH₃)₁₁ showed high selectivity as an electrocatalyst for the reduction of CO2 to CO owing to the more difficult desorption of H*. These results demonstrated that Ag doping can affect the electronic structure of NCs and enhance CRR activity.

In 2020, Kauffman, Mpourmpakis, and Jin et al. evaluated the electrocatalytic activity of CRRs using [Au₂₄Pd(PET)₁₈]⁰ and $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ (Fig. 27A). ³¹¹ $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ showed an FE_{CO} of ~100% below -0.9 V vs. RHE. However, at more negative potentials, the FE_{CO} began to decrease (approximately 60% at -1.2 V vs. RHE; Fig. 27A). In contrast, $[\text{Au}_{24}\text{Pd}(\text{PET})_{18}]^0$ maintained ~100% FE_{CO} over a much wider potential range and showed almost complete HER suppression up to -1.2 V vs. RHE. The j_{CO} and mass activity of CO showed that $[Au_{24}Pd]$ $(PET)_{18}$ ⁰ was more active than $[Au_{25}(PET)_{18}]^0$ at all potentials. The mass activity of $[Au_{24}Pd(PET)_{18}]^0$ (~1770 mA mg⁻¹) was approximately twice as high as [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁰ (~980 mA mg⁻¹) at -1.2 V vs. RHE. Considering that only one Au atom is replaced by a Pd atom, the above results indicate that the doping effect of different elements plays an important role in CO production. No change in absorption spectrum was observed in $[Au_{24}Pd(PET)_{18}]^0$, even after 6 h of electrolysis at −0.8 V vs. RHE, demonstrating its stability. From the DFT calculations, the thermodynamic limiting potentials (U_L) in CRRs and HERs for [Au₂₄Pd(SCH₃)₁₈]⁰ and [Au₂₅(SCH₃)₁₈]⁰ were calculated (Fig. 27B). Fully ligand-protected NCs were electrochemically inactive and had relatively large $U_{\rm L}$ (CRR) values. However, the NCs were activated when some Au and S atom sites were exposed, such that the Au₁₃ core can act as an electron reservoir. From the calculated $\Delta U_{\rm L}$, ${\rm Au}_{24}{\rm PdS}({\rm SCH}_3)_{17}$ with the active site at the S atom was predicted to show the most selective activity for the CRR.

From these reports, it became clear that (1) Ag, Cd, and Pd doping to Au NCs tends to improve CRR activity and selectivity, and (2) Pt doping may improve HER selectivity. Such a doping effect is considered to depend also on the geometric/electronic structure of the Au NCs.

3.3.5 Other effects of gold nanoclusters. Other studies on electrochemical CRRs using Au NCs are summarized in Table 5. Flake et al. evaluated CRR activity by changing the binder used in electrode fabrication from non-sulfonate-containing poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) to sulfonate-containing Nafion using [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁻. The onset potential for CO₂ reduction to CO was shifted ~170 mV toward the anode side when Nafion was used compared with that when PVDF was





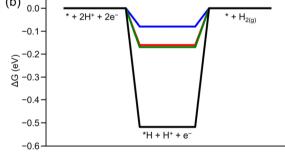


Fig. 27 (A) Electrocatalytic CO_2 reduction performance (FE $_{CO}$) of [Au₂₅(PET)₁₈]⁰ and [Au₂₄Pd(PET)₁₈]⁰; inset: atom packing structures of [Au₂₄Pd(PET)₁₈]⁰ (-R groups omitted for clarity). (B) Free-energy diagrams for electrochemical (a) CRR and (b) HER at U = 0 V vs. RHE of $[Au_{24}Pd(SCH_3)_{18}]^0$ and $[Au_{25}(SCH_3)_{18}]^0$. Panels (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 311. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.

used. Thus, the environment surrounding $Au_n(SR)_m$ plays an important role in CRR activity. Lee and Oh et al. reported on a practical photoelectrochemical cell using GDE-based electrodes for flow electrolysis, which was expected to achieve high current densities by removing the mass diffusion limit of gaseous CO2 in water. 313 They constructed a combined system using a NiFe reverse opal anode for the OER catalyst, an Au25loaded GDE cathode for the CRR catalyst, and 3 M potassium hydroxide (KOH) as an electrolyte in combination with Ga_{0.5}In_{0.5}P/GaAs tandem solar cells. Solar-to-CO (STC) conver-

sion efficiencies of 18.0% were achieved over 12 h under CO₂ gas flow (concentration: 100%), and STC efficiencies of 15.9% were achieved using typical CO₂ concentrations (10% of CO₂) in the flue gas. The STC efficiency was greatly improved considering that previous reports using solar-powered Au₂₅ clusterbased CO₂ reactors had STC efficiencies of less than 1%. ²⁹³

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3.4 Electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions using silver nanoclusters

Among the precious metals, Ag is relatively inexpensive and abundant. Furthermore, it has attracted attention in CRRs because of its high selectivity for CO formation. 202,314 The reported cases of Ag-based NCs used in CRRs are summarized in Table 6.

In 2021, Tang, Jin, and Tang et al. evaluated CRR activity using $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ as an electrocatalyst.²⁵⁸ Fig. 28A shows the ESI-MS spectrum and geometric structure of $[Ag_{15}(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$, which comprises a bcc structure with a metal core configuration of Ag@Ag₈@Ag₆. $[Ag_{15}(C \equiv C^t Bu)_{12}]^+$

was first mixed with the conductive support, CB, in a 2:1 ratio before the CRR evaluation. As shown in Fig. 28B(a), the main product of CRRs was CO in the applied voltage range from -0.5 to -1.1 V vs. RHE. FE_{CO} remained above 90% over the potential range of -0.6 to -0.9 V vs. RHE and reached approximately 95% at -0.6 V vs. RHE. The partial current densities of CO and H2 increased with overvoltage, and the maximum TOF value was 6.37 s⁻¹ at -1.1 V vs. RHE. Furthermore, constant potential measurements showed that the current density of the $[Ag_{15}(C \equiv C^t Bu)_{12}]^+$ catalyst decreased only slightly after 10 h of continuous operation at -0.75 V vs. RHE, indicating high longterm stability (Fig. 28Bb). Next, to elucidate the electrocatalytic mechanism, the optimal catalytic site on $[Ag_{15}(C = CCH_3)_{12}]^{+}$ was determined by DFT calculations, and the selectivities of the reduction products were compared. As a result, the forof *COOH was the rate-limiting step in $[Ag_{15}(C \equiv CCH_3)_{12}]^+$, and the formation of H_2 was energetically favorable (Fig. 28Ca). However, with one ligand removed $([Ag_{15}(C = CCH_3)_{11}]^+)$, the appearance of an Ag active site is

Table 6 Representative references on CRR activity using Aq NCs (section 3.4)

	71	71 · 1	Main	Selectivity	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs.	Stability	T. C
Nanocluster/nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	product	(@V vs. RHE)	RHE)	(@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
$[\mathrm{Ag}_{15}(\mathrm{C} = \mathrm{C}^t \mathrm{Bu})_{12}]^+$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~95%@-0.6	13.0@-0.9	10 h@-0.75	258^{b}
$Ag_{32}(C \equiv CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$	$0.5 \text{ M NaHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	96.44%@-0.8	9.05@-1.0	15 h	260 ^c
$[Ag_{32}(DPPE)_5(SC_6H_4CF_3)_{24}]^{2-}$ $(Mo_6O_{22})@H_3Ag_{49}(MO_3)_9(MoO_4)-$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	H_2	56.67%@-1.0 ~54%@-0.8	N/A N/A	15 h 5 h@–0.8	266^{d}
(TC4A) ₆ (¹ PrS) ₁₈ (CH ₃ CN) ₂ (H ₂ O)	0.5 M K1CO3 aq.	Treen	CO	~34 %@-0.8 44.75%@-0.8	4@-0.8	3 na-0.8	200
$[Au_7Ag_8(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$	1.0 M KOH aq.	Flow cell	CO	~90%@-0.19	~160@-0.19	10 h @-0.49	245^{c}
	•		HCOOH	0%@-1.19	0@-0.19	- C	
$[\mathrm{Ag}_{9}\mathrm{Cu}_{6}(\mathrm{C} = \mathrm{C}^{t}\mathrm{Bu})_{12}]^{+}$			CO	~25%@-1.19	~30@-0.19	10 h @-1.19	
$[\mathrm{Au_2Ag_8Cu_5}(\mathrm{C} = \mathrm{C}^t\mathrm{Bu})_{12}]^+$			HCOOH CO	~47%@-1.19	~50@-0.19	10 h @-0.99	
$[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C=CBu)_{12}]$			НСООН	~25%@-1.19 ~20%@-1.19	$\sim 30@-0.19$ $\sim 25@-0.19$	10 II (a)=0.99	
$[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$	0.1 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	91.3%@-0.81	$-60@-3.25^a$	145 h@-3.25 ^a	263 ^e
$[Ag_9Cu_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$	J 1	MEA-cell		48.5%@-0.89	C	N/A	
$[AuAg26(S-Adm)18S]^{-}$	EMIM-BF ₄ / H_2O (v/v =	H-cell	CO	98.4%@-0.97	~	11 h @-0.97	255^{c}
$[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$	$7:1) + 0.5 \text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$			~60%@-0.97	3@-0.97	N/A	
Au ₂₁ (S-Adm) ₁₆				~5.0% @-0.97	1@-0.97	N/A	
$Ag_{40.63}Cu_{9.37}(SC_7H_7O)_{32}$	2 M KOH aq.	Flow cell	C_1	~58%@-0.57	~3.0@-0.57	N/A	254^f
840.03 3.37 (* - 7	1		product				
			C_2	29.5%@-0.57	-2.24@-0.57		
A (SG H 0)			product	400/ 0 0 ==	240 055	4410 0 ==	
$Ag_{36.14}Cu_{13.86}(SC_7H_7O)_{32}$			C ₁ product	~40%@-0.57	~2.1(a)=0.57	14 h@-0.57	
			C_2	47.5%@-0.57	-3.04@-0.57		
			product				
~5 nm Ag NP			N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
$\operatorname{Au}_{24}\operatorname{Ag}_{20}(C = C^{t}\operatorname{Bu})_{24}\operatorname{Cl}_{2}$	$0.5 \text{ M KHCO}_3 \text{ aq.}$	H-cell	CO	~90%@-0.5	25@-0.8	N/A	315^g
$Au_{24}Ag_{20}(C = CPhC)_{24}Cl_2$ $[Au_{43}Ag_{38}(C = C^tBu)_{36}Cl_{12}]^+$				~90%@-0.5 ~80%@-0.5	17.5@-0.8 7.5@-0.8	N/A N/A	
$[Au_{43}Ag_{38}(C = C Bu)_{36}Cl_{12}]$ $[Au_{43}Ag_{38}(C = CPhC)_{36}Cl_{9}]^{+}$				~70%@-0.5	5@-0.8	N/A	
$[Au_8Ag_{55}(DPPP)_4(SC_6H_{11})_{34}]^{2+}$	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	CO	~67%@-0.8	~14@-0.8	9 h@-0.8	316^{h}
	•		H_2	~25%@-0.8	N/A		
$[Au_8Ag_{57}(DPPP)_4(SC_6H_{11})_{32}Cl_2]^+$			CO	~62%@-0.8	~8@-0.8	N/A	
$[Au_{12}Ag_{60}(DPPP)_{6}(SC_{6}H_{11})_{31}Br_{9}]^{2+}$			H_2 CO	~25%@-0.8	N/A ∼5@−0.8	N/A	
[Au ₁₂ Ag ₆₀ (DFFF) ₆ (3C ₆ Π ₁₁) ₃₁ DI ₉]			H_2	~46%@-0.8 ~45%@-0.8	~5(a)-0.8 N/A	IN/A	
			2	10 /0(0) 0.0	- 1/- 1		

ⁱPr = isopropyl, EMIM-BF₄ = 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate, S-Adm = 1-adamantanethiolate, SPhMe₂ = 2,4-dimethylbenzenethiolate, DPPE = 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, TC4A = thiacalix[4]arene, DPPP = 1,3-bis(diphenylphosphino)propane, MEA = membrane electrode assembly. ^a vs. MEA-cell potential. ^b Vulcan XC-72R. ^c Multi-walled carbon nanotube. ^d Acetylene black. ^e Ketjen black (EC-600JD). ^f Hydrophobic carbon paper. ^g Carbon paper (Toray TGP-H-090). ^h Carbon paper.

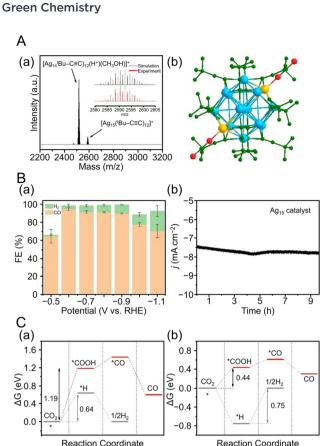


Fig. 28 (A) (a) the ESI-MS spectra and (b) the overall structure of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$. (B) (a) Faradaic efficiency at various applied potentials over $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ in aqueous solution of 0.5 M KHCO₃. (b) Stability of $[Ag_{15}(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ for CO₂ reduction at -0.75 V vs. RHE. (C) Comparison of ΔG of electroreduction of CO₂ to CO vs. HER on (a) $[Ag_{15}(C = CCH_3)_{12}]^+$, (b) $[Ag_{15}(C = CCH_3)_{11}]^+$. (A)–(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 258. Copyright 2021 Wiley-VCH GmbH.

favorable for the formation of *COOH and significantly lowers the energy barrier for the formation of *COOH and promotes CRR activity (Fig. 28Cb).

3.4.1 Structure effects in silver nanoclusters. In 2022, Pei and Zhu et al. evaluated CRR activity using monomeric compounds, such as $Au_{24}Ag_{20}(C \equiv C^tBu)_{24}Cl_2$ ($Au_{24}Ag_{20}$ -1) and $Au_{24}Ag_{20}(C = CPhC)_{24}Cl_2$ ($Au_{24}Ag_{20}-2$; HC = CPhC = 2-methylphenylacetylene), and two dimeric compounds, such as $Au_{43}Ag_{38}(C = C^tBu)_{36}Cl_{12}$ ($Au_{43}Ag_{38}$ -1) and $Au_{43}Ag_{38}(C = CPhC)_{36}Cl_{9}$ (Au₄₃Ag₃₈-2).³¹⁵ The monomer NCs (Au₂₄Ag₂₀-1 and 2) have a similar core structure containing icosahedral Ag₁₂ surrounded by Ag₂₀. These two Au₂₄Ag₂₀ monomers self-assemble in different growth modes to form two different dimers: Au₄₃Ag₃₈-1 and Au₄₃Ag₃₈-2. The catalytic ability of these monomers and dimers for CRRs was examined, with the Au₂₄Ag₂₀ monomer exhibiting higher j_{CO} and FE_{CO} than the Au₄₃Ag₃₈ dimer. Among all four species, Au24Ag20-1 showed the highest CRR activity, and Au₄₃Ag₃₈-2 showed the lowest CRR activity. Electrochemical impedance measurements suggest that the Au₂₄Ag₂₀ monomer has faster charge transfer than the Au₄₃Ag₃₈ dimer. Structural effects have also been investigated

using metal NCs with different chemical compositions. Although [Au₈Ag₅₅(DPPP)₄(SC₆H₁₁)₃₄](BPh₄)₂, [Au₈Ag₅₇(DPPP)₄ (SC₆H₁₁)₃₂Cl₂]Cl, [Au₁₂Ag₆₀(DPPP)₆(SC₆H₁₁)₃₁Br₉]Br₂ are similar in size and structure, their different assembly structures lead to significantly different CRR catalytic performances. Among the three NCs, [Au₈Ag₅₅(DPPP)₄(SC₆H₁₁)₃₄] were found to have strong CO₂ adsorption capacity and exhibit the best CRR performance due to charge segregation placing Ag atoms on the outer side of Au₈. 316

3.4.2 Ligand effects in silver nanoclusters. C≡CR ligands have been used by Wang et al. for the semihydrogenation of alkyne³¹⁷ and by Tsukuda et al. for the HER³¹⁸ to enhance the activity of these reactions, and similar enhancements have also been expected for CRRs. In 2022, Tang, Wang, and Tang et al. compared the effect of ligands in CRRs using Ag₃₂(C≡CPh $(CF_3)_2)_{24}$ and $[Ag_{32}(DPPE)_5(SC_6H_4CF_3)_{24}]^{2-260}$ In this case, $Ag_{32}(C \equiv CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$ is composed of an Ag_{17} kernel. $[Ag_{32}(DPPE)_5(SC_6H_4CF_3)_{24}]^{2-}$ also has an Ag_{17} kernel, although the overall geometric structure and the number of ligands are different. When catalysts were prepared by mixing both NCs with CNTs in the ratio of 2:1, respectively, and evaluated for CRR activity, CO and H₂ were the main products. The FE_{CO} was 96.44% at -0.8 V vs. RHE for $Ag_{32}(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{24}$, but it 56.67% at -1.0V νs. $[Ag_{32}(DPPE)_5(SC_6H_4CF_3)_{24}]^{2-}$ (Fig. 29A(a and b)). Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 29A(c and d), the overall CO and H2 partial current densities in both NCs showed gradually increasing trends when the potential was more negative. DFT calculations were performed to clarify how the CRR activity was affected by different ligands (C≡CCH₃, P₂C₂H₆, and SCH₃ were used as ligands to simplify the calculations). As a result, $Ag_{32}(C \equiv CCH_3)_{24}$ and $[Ag_{32}(P_2C_2H_6)_5(SCH_3)_{24}]^{2-}$ have large free energy barriers (1.28 and 1.23 eV, respectively), but when one C≡CCH₃ or SCH₃ is removed, the thermodynamic barrier to *COOH formation is decreased (0.40 and 0.50 eV, respectively) and CRR activity is enhanced (Fig. 29B and C). Ag₃₂(C≡CCH₃)₂₃ also has a higher thermodynamic barrier to H* for H₂ formation than $[Ag_{32}(P_2C_2H_6)_5(SCH_3)_{23}]^{2-}$. This HER suppression suggests that Ag₃₂(C≡CPh(CF₃)₂)₂₄ has a high selectivity for CO2 to CO.

In 2023, Liu *et al.* synthesized a polymolybdate-templated Ag NC, $[(Mo_6O_{22})@H_3Ag_{49}(MO_3)_9(MoO_4)-(TC4A)_6(^iPrS)_{18}(CH_3CN)_2(H_2O)]$ (Ag₄₉Mo₁₆ NC), by a solvothermal method and evaluated its CRR activity. ²⁶⁶ As a result, the polymolybdate-templated Ag₄₉Mo₁₆ NC exhibited higher TOF values and j_{CO} than $(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24}$, indicating that the Ag site is the active center of the CRR. The highest FE_{CO} was 44.75% at -0.8 V vs. RHE.

3.4.3 Doping effects in silver nanoclusters. Ag-based alloy NCs have also been used in electrochemical CRRs. In 2021, Liu and Huang *et al.* used $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$, $Au_{21}(S-Adm)_{16}$, and $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ as electrocatalysts to evaluate CRR activity. ²⁵⁵ $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ is composed of an $AuAg_{12}$ icosahedral kernel and an $Ag_{14}(SR)_{18}S$ shell, where the four triangular facets of the icosahedral kernel are exposed without protection by SR. Electrochemical measurements in an ionic liquid (1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate/ H_2O , v/v

= 7:1) containing water saturated with CO_2 showed that the main CO_2 reduction products were CO and H_2 . Particularly, $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ showed the highest CO selectivity in the potential range from -0.82 to -1.12 V νs . RHE. The maximum FE_{CO} of $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ at -0.97 V νs . RHE was 98.4%, approximately 1.8 and 24 times higher than that of $[Ag_{25}(SPhMe_2)_{18}]^-$ and $Au_{21}(S-Adm)_{16}$, respectively. The electrochemical stability of $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ was evaluated by chronopotentiometry at -0.97 V νs . RHE, which showed the highest CO selectivity, and the current density remained high with almost no decrease after 11 h of operation. In addition, they investigated the mechanism of catalytic selectivity by performing DFT calculations using SCH_3 as a ligand. The *COOH

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(a) 120 120 100 100 80 80 % 60 60 40 40 20 n -0.6 -0.7 -0.8 -0.9 -1.0 Potential (V vs. RHE) -0.6 -0.7 -0.8 -0.9 -1.0 -1.1 Potential (V vs. RHE) (c) (d) ← [Ag₃₂(DPPE)₅(SR)₂₄]⁻²-CO
← [Ag₂₂(DPPE)₅(SR)₂₄]⁻²-H₂ j (mA cm⁻²) $j (mA cm^{-2})$ 6 6 4 -0.6 -0.7 -0.8 -0.9 -1.0 Potential (V vs. RHE) -0.6 -0.7 -0.8 -0.9 -1.0 Potential (V vs. RHE) В Gibbs Free Energy (eV) 1.2 0.8 0.4 *COOH *CO CO 0.0 。(C≡CCH₂). Ag₃₂(C≡CCH₃)₂₃ [Ag₃₂(P₂C₂H₆)₅(SCH₃)₂₄]² -0.4 -0.8 C(a)

Fig. 29 (A) Faradaic efficiency of CO and H₂ for (a) Ag₃₂(C \equiv CPh (CF₃)₂)₂₄ and (b) [Ag₃₂(DPPE)₅(SC₆H₄CF₃)₂₄]²⁻ at different applied voltages. Partial current densities of CO and H₂ for (c) Ag₃₂(C \equiv CPh(CF₃)₂)₂₄ and (d) [Ag₃₂(DPPE)₅(SC₆H₄CF₃)₂₄]²⁻ at different applied voltages (electrolyte: 0.5 M NaHCO₃ aq.). (B) Change of reaction free energy (Δ G) at each fundamental step of CRR and HER for two NCs and stripping of one intact ligand. (C) Adsorption structure of COOH*, CO*, and H* intermediates on (a-c) [Ag₃₂(C \equiv CCH₃)₂₃]⁺ and (d-f) [Ag₃₂(P₂C₂H₆)₅(SCH₃)₂₃]⁻. Colour code: Ag, blue; C, gray; O, red; S, yellow; P, pin; H*, green and other H, white. (A)–(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 260. Copyright 2022 Springer Nature.

formation energy barrier of $[AuAg_{26}(SCH_3)_{18}S]^-$ (1.06 eV) was lower than that of $[Ag_{25}(SCH_3)_{18}]^-$ (1.26 eV), $Au_{21}(SCH_3)_{16}$ (1.83 eV), and $[Ag_{27}(SCH_3)_{18}S]^-$ (1.11 eV). This suggested that Au doping of Ag NCs and the exposed core structure of $[AuAg_{26}(S-Adm)_{18}S]^-$ promoted CRR activity.

In 2023, Bootharaju, Tang, Hwang, and Hyeon *et al.* evaluated CRR activity using $[Ag_{15}Cu_6(C = CPh(CF_3)_2)_{18}(DPPE)_2]^-$ as an electrocatalyst. ²⁶³ $Ag_{15}Cu_6$ has a bcc-based structure with a core of $Ag@Ag_8@Ag_2Cu_4$, as shown in Fig. 13C. For comparison, $[Ag_9Cu_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ (Ag_9Cu_6) and $Ag_{15}Cu_6$, which also have bcc structures and are similarly protected by C = CR, were loaded on Ketjen black $(Ag_{15}Cu_6/C$ and Ag_9Cu_6/C , respectively) and evaluated for CRR catalytic activity. As a result, $Ag_{15}Cu_6/C$ showed high FE_{CO} (>85%) in the potential range of -0.72 to -0.87 V νs . RHE, with the highest FE_{CO} of 91.3% at -0.81 V νs . RHE. In contrast, Ag_9Cu_6/C showed the highest FE_{CO} of 48.5% at -0.89 V νs . RHE. Moreover, a membrane electrode assembly (MEA) cell was used to evaluate CRR activity. FE_{CO} remained at

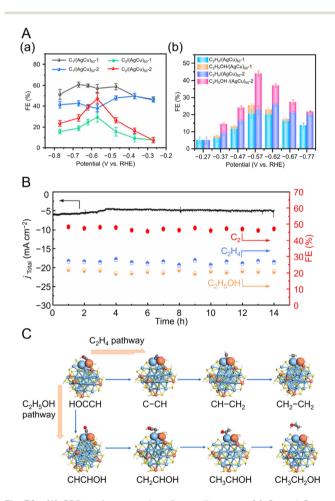


Fig. 30 (A) CRR performance in a flow cell reactor. (a) C_1 and C_2 products FE on $(AgCu)_{50}$ -1 and $(AgCu)_{50}$ -2 at different potentials. (b) C_2H_4 and C_2H_5OH FE on $(AgCu)_{50}$ -1 or $(AgCu)_{50}$ -2 at different potentials. (B) Stability test of $(AgCu)_{50}$ -2 over 14 h of CO_2 electrolysis in 2 M KOH at -0.57 V vs. RHE (the arrows indicate the corresponding axes). (C) Reaction pathway diagrams of $Ag_{42}Cu_{8}$ for the production of ethylene and ethanol at site 2 for DFT calculations. (A)–(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 254. Copyright 2023 American Chemical Society.

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 \sim 90% and j_{CO} was -60 mA cm⁻² during the 145 h electrolytic reaction, indicating that Ag₉Cu₆/C has high stability. From DFT calculations, it was revealed that the removal of one C≡CCH₃ exposes the ligand-deficient AgCu dual site and the thermodynamic barrier to *COOH formation was reduced. As a result, Ag₁₅Cu₆ with one desorbed C≡CCH₃ can proceed with a low energy barrier of 0.34 eV, associated with the desorption of *CO to CO. For the competing HER, the higher energy barrier of the H* desorption step (0.61 eV) to H₂ evolution activity was also considered to enhance CO activity and selectivity.

In 2023, Wang, Yan, and Wu et al. evaluated CRR activity using Ag_{40.63}Cu_{9.37}(SC₇H₇O)₃₂ [(AgCu)₅₀-1] and Ag_{36.14}Cu_{13.86} (SC₇H₇O)₃₂ [(AgCu)₅₀-2].²⁵⁴ This is the first report of C₂ production from CO₂ reduction in the application of metal NCs as CRR catalysts. Both (AgCu)₅₀ NCs also have a bimetallic M₅₀ (M = Ag/Cu) core with fcc topology protected by 32 ligands of 3-methoxythiophenol. The catalytic CRR activity of (AgCu)₅₀, as

well as Ag NPs of ~5 nm for comparison, was measured by flow cell in 2 M KOH electrolyte saturated with Ar and CO2. In the same potential range, the maximum FE_{C2} for (AgCu)₅₀-1 and (AgCu)₅₀-2 reached 29.5% and 47.5%, respectively, indicating a conversion in catalytic selectivity due to Cu substitution (Fig. 30Aa). Comparing the C₂ and C₁ partial current densities of both NCs, (AgCu)₅₀-2 showed higher values (Fig. 30Aa). This improvement in FE was mainly due to ethanol production, with FE_{CO} in (AgCu)₅₀-2 being 19% lower than that in (AgCu)₅₀-1, and more C₂ than CO was produced in (AgCu)₅₀-2 (Fig. 30Ab). Comparing the FE ratios of C₂/C₁ for both NCs, $(AgCu)_{50}$ -2 reached a C_2/C_1 ratio of 1.2 at -0.57 V vs. RHE, indicating higher selectivity for the C2 compound. Furthermore, (AgCu)₅₀-2 exhibited high stability, with FE remaining almost the same after long-term CRR activity at -0.57 V vs. RHE (Fig. 30B). DFT calculations showed that the Cu-Cu sites are thermodynamically more favorable than the Ag-Cu sites, such

Table 7 Representative references on CRR activity using Cu NCs (section 3.5)

Nanocluster/nanoparticle	Electrolytes	Electrolyzer	Main product	Selectivity (@V vs. RHE)	Current density (mA cm ⁻² @V vs. RHE)	Stability (@V vs. RHE)	Ref.
$\overline{\text{Cu}_{4}\text{Ti}_{9}\text{O}_{9}(\text{BC})_{18}(\text{O}^{\text{i}}\text{Pr})_{3}(^{t}\text{BuC}\text{=-C})(\text{CH}_{3}\text{CN})}$	1.0 M KOH aq.	Flow cell	C ₂ H ₄ H ₂ CO CH ₄ CH ₃ CH ₂ OH CH ₃ COO ⁻ HCOO ⁻	~50%@-1.0 ~30%@-1.0 ~10%@-1.0 ~7%@-1.0 ~2%@-1.0 ~0.5%@-1.0 ~0.5%@-1.0	~200@-1.0 ~120@-1.0 ~40@-1.0 ~28@-1.0 ~8@-1.0 ~2@-1.0	8 h@∼−1.0	330
$ \begin{array}{l} [Cu_8(H)(L1)_6PF_6]^+ \\ [Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L1)_4]^+ \\ [Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L2)_4]^+ \end{array} $	0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	НСООН	50%@-1.0 92%@-1.0 ~80%@-1.0	7.5@-1.0 15@-1.0 21@-1.0	8 h@-0.9 8 h@-0.9 8 h@-1.0	273 ^a
$Cu_{13}(MBO)_{12}$	0.1 M KOH aq.	N/A	H_2	72.6% (a)-1.05	N/A	N/A	326
	•		CO	13.2% (a)-1.05			
			CH_4	0.25% @-1.05			
$Cu_{25}H_{22}((p\text{-FPh})_3P)_{12}$	$0.1~\mathrm{M}~\mathrm{KHCO_3}$	H-cell	CO	N/A	N/A	N/A	329 ^a
$[Cu_{26}(CF_3CO_2)_8(CH_3O)_2(C = C^tBu)_4(DPPE)_3H_{11}]^+$	aq.		H ₂ CO H ₂	~47%@-0.8 81%@-0.8 ~19%@-0.8	N/A N/A N/A	50 h@-0.8	
${\left[{{C{u}_{53}}({C{F_3}COO})_{10}}{\left({C} {\mathop {= }} {{C}^t}Bu)_{20}C{l_2}{H_{18}} \right]^ + }$			CO H ₂	~8%@-0.8 ~92%@-0.8	N/A N/A	N/A	
$\left[Cu_{61}(S^tBu)_{26}S_6Cl_6H_{14} \right]^+$			CO H ₂	N/A ~98%@-0.8	N/A N/A	N/A	
$Cu_{32}H_{20}(S_2P(O^iPr)_2)_{12}$	0.1 M KHCO ₃ and 0.4 M KCl	H-cell	НСООН	~90% (a)-0.55	~25@-0.55	N/A	325 ^a
$[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$	aq. 0.5 M KHCO ₃ aq.	H-cell	H ₂ CO	~90%@-0.8 ~1%@-0.8	~27@-1.2 ~1@-1.2	12 h@-0.8	327 ^b
${\rm [AuCu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]}^+$			H_2 CO	~8.5%@-0.8 ~48%@-0.8 ~40%@-0.8	~1@-1.2 ~22@-1.2 ~8@-1.2	12 h@-0.8	
$[Cu_{25}H_{22}(p ext{-}FPPh_3)_{12}]^+$			H_2 CO	~12%@-0.8 ~80%@-0.8 ~18%@-0.8	~2@-1.2 ~45@-1.2 ~2@-1.2	12 h@-0.8	
$[AuCu_{24}H_{22}(p ext{-}FPPh_3)_{12}]^+$			HCOOH H ₂ CO HCOOH	\sim 2%@ -0.8 \sim 60%@ -0.8 \sim 12%@ -0.8 \sim 28%@ -0.8	~2@-1.2 ~25@-1.2 ~7@-1.2 ~2@-1.2	12 h@-0.8	

BC = benzoic acid, ⁱPr = isopropyl, PPh₃ = triphenylphosphine, S^tBu = tert-butylthiolate, L1 = 9H-carbazole-9-carbodithioate, L2 = O-ethyl carbonodithiolate, MBO = 2-mercaptobenzoxazole, DPPE = 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, p-FPPh₃ = tris(4-fluorophenyl)phosphine. a Vulcan XC-72. ^b Multi-walled carbon nanotube.

that (AgCu)₅₀-2 with more Cu-Cu sites has relatively high selectivity for C₂ products (Fig. 30C).

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In 2022, Tang et al. investigated the effect of metal core alloying on CRR selectivity using C=CR-protected bimetallic $[Au_7Ag_8(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ $(Au_7Ag_8)^{244}$ $[Au_9Ag_6(C = C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ $(Au_9Ag_6)^{244}$ trimetallic and $[Au_2Ag_8Cu_5(C \equiv C^tBu)_{12}]^+$ (Au₂Ag₈Cu₅).²⁴⁵ Au₇Ag₈, Ag₉Cu₆, and Au₂Ag₈Cu₅ have a coreshell-shell structures (Mcore@Mcube@Moctahedron), with core structures of Au_1 (a) Ag_8 (a) Au_6 , $Ag_1(a)Ag_8(a)Cu_6$ Au₁@Au₁Ag₄Cu₃@Ag₄Cu₂, respectively. Au₇Ag₈ only converted CO2 to CO, but Ag9Cu6 and Au2Ag8Cu5 converted CO and HCOOH, with maximum FE_{HCOOH} values of 47.0% and 28.3%, respectively. From DFT calculations, the desorption of surface ligands exposed active metal sites, improving the selectivity and activity of the CRRs. Furthermore, the formation of surface hydrides played an important role in the formation and stabilization of HCOO* at the Au-Cu active center. Thus, the inclusion of Cu in the core structure led to a high selectivity of HCOOH. This report indicated that the selectivity of CRR products can be adjusted by controlling the metal core of C≡CR-protected metal NCs at the atomic level.

As mentioned above, it was clarified that Au or Cu doping to Ag NCs can greatly change the activity and selectivity of CRR.

3.5 Electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction reactions using copper nanoclusters

Cu is attracting attention in electrocatalytic CRRs as a unique metal catalyst that can yield a variety of products by multi-electron reduction. 319,320 Several cases of CRRs for Cu NCs, 321-323 which are summarized in Table 7, have been reported.

In 2017, Liu, Lee, and Jiang et al. evaluated CRR activity using $Cu_{32}H_{20}(S_2P(O^iPr)_2)_{12}$ $(S_2P(O^iPr)_2)_{12}$ = dithiophosphate ligand)324 as an electrocatalyst.325 From DFT calculations, they inferred a mechanism for HCOOH formation and subsequent hydride regeneration in $Cu_{32}H_{20}(S_2PH_2)_{12}$ (S_2PH_2 = dithiophosphine) (Fig. 31A and B). The two O atoms of the HCOO* intermediate bond strongly with Cu atoms on the surface to form a five-membered ring (Fig. 31B(a)). Then, HCOO* reacts to release HCOOH products (Fig. 31B(b)). The obtained Cu₃₂H₁₈(S₂PH₂)₁₂ with two hydride vacancies is expected to revert to Cu₃₂H₂₀(S₂PH₂)₁₂ via a proton reduction process (Fig. 31B(c and d)). To verify these theoretical predictions, electrocatalytic activity was examined by constant potential electrolysis (CPE) with Cu₃₂H₂₀(S₂P(OⁱPr)₂)₁₂ in 0.1 M KHCO₃ and 0.4 M potassium chloride (KCl) solution (pH = 6.8) (Fig. 31C). From the cumulative FE of product formation after 90 min of CPE at various overvoltages, H2, HCOOH, and CO, were detected as the main products, accounting for 90% of the FE. $Cu_{32}H_{20}(S_2P(O^{i}Pr)_2)_{12}$ mainly produced HCOOH at low overvoltages (FE $_{\rm HCOOH}$ = 89% at 0.3 V vs. RHE). In contrast, when the overvoltage exceeded 0.5 V vs. RHE, H2 was predominantly produced (FE $_{H_2}$ = 94% at 0.6 V vs. RHE). These experimental results agree well with the predictions from the DFT calculations, implying that HCOOH formation occurred at low overvoltages and that HER was dominant at high overvoltages. The TOF of HCOOH formation was examined and found to

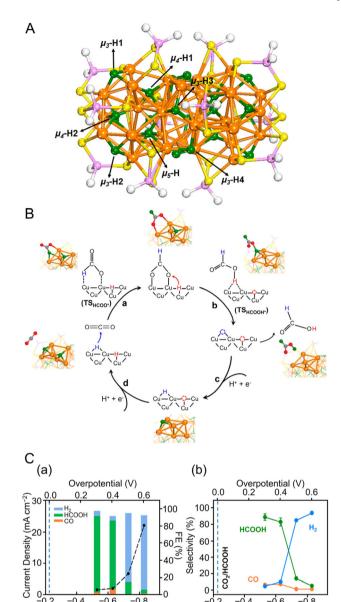


Fig. 31 (A) Geometric structure of the $Cu_{32}H_{18}(S_2PH_2)_{12}$. Color code: orange, Cu; green, hydride; yellow, S; purple, P; white, H on the dithiophosphate ligands. Different types of hydrides are indicated by the arrows. (B) (a-d) Overall mechanism of HCOOH formation from CO₂ reduction on $Cu_{32}H_{18}(S_2PH_2)_{12}$ via the lattice-hydride channel. (C) (a) Average current densities (black circles) and cumulative Faraday efficiencies and (b) product selectivity for H2, HCOOH, and CO obtained at different overpotentials. Panels (A)-(C) are reproduced with permission from ref. 325. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

-0.4

-0.6

Potential (V vs. RHE)

-0.8

40

-0.4 -0.6 -0.8 Potential (V vs. RHE)

yield 1740 mol of HCOOH per 1 mol of Cu₃₂H₂₀(S₂P(OⁱPr)₂)₁₂ during 90 min of CPE. As a comparison, Cu NPs mainly produced CO at low overvoltages, and Cu foil mainly produced H₂ at low overvoltages. These results indicate that Cu NCs have the potential to be used as unique electrocatalysts with higher selectivity than conventional Cu NP catalysts.

In 2020, Robinson et al. reported the CRR activity of $Cu_{13}(MBO)_{12}$ (MBO = 2-mercaptobenzoxazole), which is com**Green Chemistry Tutorial Review**

posed of 13 Cu atoms and 12 MBO ligands. 326 They reported that the valence of Cu atoms in Cu₁₃(MBO)₁₂ has an oxidation state between 0 and +1 and is highly resistant to oxidation. Cu₁₃(MBO)₁₂ produced 72.6% H₂, 13.2% CO, and 0.25% CH₄ as the main product at -1.04 V vs. RHE in CRR.

In 2022, Wang and Zang et al. evaluated the electrocatalytic activity of CRRs using three types of Cu₈ NCs with different cubic and tetrahedral core structures.²⁷³ For Cu₈(H)(L1)₆PF₆ with a cubic core structure and $Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L1)_4$ and $Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L2)_4$ with tetrahedral core structures, $Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L1)_4$ showed the highest catalytic activity, selectivity, and stability for the conversion of CO₂ to HCOOH, showing an FE_{HCOOH} of 92% at −1.0 V vs. RHE. From DFT calculations, the difference in CRR catalytic activity was attributed to the cubic form of Cu₈(H)(L1)₆PF₆ having an active site favorable for the competitive reaction HER, whereas the tetrahedral form of $Cu_8(S^tBu)_4(L1)_4$ had an active site favorable for the formation of *COOH in CO formation and *OOCH in formic acid for-

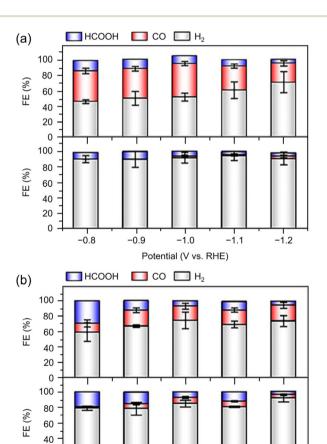


Fig. 32 Electrocatalytic performance of the four M@Cu₂₄ (M = Au/Cu) NCs in CRR. (a) $[M@Cu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ (M = Au or Cu) and (b) $[M@Cu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ (M = Au or Cu). The error bars represent the standard deviation of three tests at the same test potential. (A) and (B) are reproduced with permission from ref. 327. Copyright 2022 Springer

Potential (V vs. RHE)

mation. This suggested that highly active and highly selective CRR catalysts can be created by controlling the core structure and surface morphology of Cu NCs.

Doping and ligand effects in Cu NCs have also been reported. In 2022, Ma, Song, and Wang et al. evaluated the CRR activity using $[M@Cu_{24}H_{22}(PR_3)_{12}]^+$ (M = Au or Cu; PR₃ = PPh₃ or $P(p\text{-FPh})_3$, which are protected by two phosphine ligands, as electrocatalysts. [M@Cu₂₄H₂₂(PR₃)₁₂]⁺ has a M@Cu₁₂ (M = Au or Cu) icosahedral kernel core, surrounded by a shell of four Cu₃P₃ units. The M@Cu₁₂ kernel is bonded to the Cu(I) shell via a Cu-Cu metal bond. These [M@Cu₂₄H₂₂(PR₃)₁₂]⁺ were loaded on multi-layered CNTs at 50 wt% to make CRR catalysts. From gas chromatography and ¹H-NMR spectroscopy, only CO, H₂, and HCOOH were observed as products. As shown in Fig. 32(a), $[Au@Cu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ exhibited the highest FE_{CO} of 45.6% at -1.0 V vs. RHE, whereas $\left[\text{Cu}_{25}\text{H}_{22}(\text{PPh}_3)_{12}\right]^+$ mainly produced H₂ (FE_{H₂} > 80%). Differences in the results are due to Au doping, indicating that a single atom of Au doping can significantly change the selectivity of the CRRs. Moreover, the use of a different ligand, p-FPPh3, decreased CO selectivity and increased HCOOH selectivity. As a result, $[Au@Cu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ and $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+,$ FE_{HCOOH} was 30.6% and 20.3%, respectively, more than three times higher than that of $[M@Cu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+$ (Fig. 32(a)). When $P(p-FPh)_3$ was used as the ligand, similarly to PPh_3 , the Au doping of one atom tended to increase the selectivity of C₁ products and decrease the selectivity of H₂ (Fig. 32(b)). The $FE_{CO+HCOOH}$ values at -0.8 V vs. RHE were 55.9%, 14.8%, 40.5%, 20.3% $[Au@Cu_{24}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+,$ $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PPh_3)_{12}]^+,$ $[Au@Cu_{24}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$ and

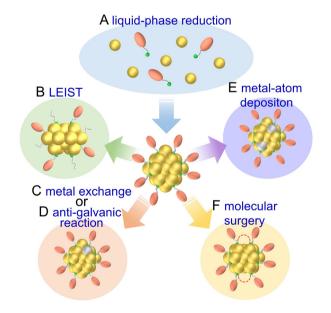


Fig. 33 Schematic of the synthesis methods of metal NCs using (A) liquid-phase reduction, (B) ligand-exchange-induced size/structure transformation (LEIST), (C) metal exchange, (D) anti-galvanic reaction, (E) metal-atom deposition, (F) molecular surgery.

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Au nanocluster Ag nanocluster Size Small Large Cu nanocluste O, HCOOH, CH CRR activity Low C D **Changing CRR selectivity and activity** Au nanocluster Products

Fig. 34 Schematic of the relationship between (A) metal species, (B) size, (C) ligands, (D) alloying effect for electrocatalytic CRR performance using metal NCs.

 $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(P(p-FPh)_3)_{12}]^+$, respectively (Fig. 32(b)). These results indicate that the metal core has a significant effect on the selectivity of the two competing reactions (CRR and HER) and that the type of ligand changes the selectivity of the C₁ product of CRR (HCOOH and CO). The change in selectivity may be due to the lower density of electron clouds for Cu atoms on the NC surface, caused by the electrophilic Au doping and the electrophilic ligand, P(p-FPh)₃. This report revealed that Au doping can reduce the selectivity of the HER in electrochemical CRRs of Cu NCs containing hydride, and the use of electrophilic ligands not only enhances the stability of Cu NCs but also promotes the selectivity of HCOOH in the CRR. Such high selectivity for HCOOH was also predicted from DFT calcu- $[Cu_{25}H_{22}(PH_3)_{12}]Cl.^{328}$ using lations Furthermore, $[Cu_{26}(CF_3CO_2)_8(CH_3O)_2(C \equiv C^tBu)_4(DPPE)_3H_{11}]^+$ is also reported to be a catalyst exhibiting high CO selectivity. 329 Regarding the templated Cu NCs, $[Cu_4Ti_9O_9(BC)_{18}(O^iPr)_3(C = C^tBu)(CH_3CN)]$ (BC = benzoic acid) exhibited high selectivity and good catalytic activity for the electrocatalytic reduction of CO2 to C2H4 at 400 mA cm⁻² (FE_{C₂H₄}: 47.6 ± 3.4%).³³⁰

From these reports, the CRR products of Cu NCs are often not only CO but also HCOOH, CH4, and C2 compounds.

4 Conclusion

The conversion of CO2 into useful compounds by electrochemical CRR is a promising strategy for achieving carbon neutrality by directly reducing CO₂ emissions. Unlike suppressing CO₂ emissions, electrochemical catalysis directly supports the sustainable development of an energy-independent society

that is considerate of the global environment. Against this background, research on electrochemical CRR has been actively studied by various groups in recent years. However, to date, most studies have focused on metal NPs with particle sizes larger than 2-3 nm. Conversely, the number of reported cases of electrocatalysts using ~1 nm metal NCs has been increasing since the 2010s and expanded rapidly around 2020 (Fig. 33). The previous studies summarized in this review have revealed the following insights into electrochemical CRRs using metal NCs (Fig. 34).

Changing CRR selectivity and activity

- (1) Au, Ag, and Cu NCs can be synthesized as controlling the chemical composition and geometric electronic structure with atomic precision. In particular, there are many synthesis reports for Au and Ag NCs, and examples of synthesis for Cu NCs have also been reported. These can be synthesized with changing the size, geometric structure, type of ligand, and charge state (Fig. 1B).
- (2) Au, Ag, and Cu NCs can be easily synthesized by a liquid-phase reduction method (Fig. 33A) in which a reducing agent is added to a solution containing metal salts and ligands. 32,35,37,38,40,41 Furthermore, metal NCs with different compositions and structures can be synthesized by the ligand exchange method (Fig. 33B) using metal NCs as precursors.^{39,42,331} Moreover, these alloy NCs can also be obtained by metal exchange method⁶ (Fig. 33C) or antigalvanic reaction⁸ (Fig. 33D) using specific metal NCs as precursors. It is also possible to add metal atoms (Fig. 33E) by reacting with metal salts under conditions different from metal exchange.332 There are also reports of molecular surgery (Fig. 33F), which removes some surface Au atoms while maintaining the core structure of the precursor metal NCs. 333 In these examples, it

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has become possible to synthesize metal NCs using various methods. However, most of the reported examples using various synthesis methods are limited to Au NCs.

- (3) In Au and Ag NCs, the primary CRR product is CO in many cases, and some have high selectivity for the HER, which is a competitive reaction (Fig. 34A).
- (4) In Cu NCs and Cu-doped Au and Ag NCs, the CRR products are often not only CO but also HCOOH, CH_4 , and C_2 compounds (Fig. 34A).
- (5) Decreases in the size of $Au_n(SR)_m$ may promote increased CRR activity and selectivity (Fig. 34B). This is also the case with other electrocatalytic reaction systems such as HER, OER, and ORR. 120
- (6) Even in metal NCs with the same chemical composition, differences in geometric structure can cause changes in CRR activity.
- (7) The CRR selectivity changes significantly depending on the type of protective ligand bound to the surface of the metal NCs (Fig. 34C).
- (8) Exposure of metal atoms on metal NCs due to desorption of protective ligands may promote increased CRR activity and selectivity. DFT calculations suggest that CRR activity is associated with the desorption of organic ligands in many cases, and such desorption is presumably caused by electrochemical pretreatment or adsorption process on carbon supports.
- (9) Doping of $Au_n(SR)_m$ using metal species, such as Ag and Pd, improves CRR selectivity in many cases (Fig. 34D). Such changes in activity and selectivity also depend on the doping position.
- (10) Pd and Cd doping in Au₂₅(SR)₁₈ promote enhanced CRR activity, and Pt doping promotes enhanced HER activity in many cases (Fig. 34D).
- (11) When the main CRR product is CO, the *COOH formation is the rate-determining step in many cases, and the lowering of the energy barrier is the factor of high activation.

Outlook

As summarized in section 4, further development of synthetic methods and evaluation of the activity of noble metal NCs may lead to highly active electrocatalysts that have not been discovered for NPs. In addition, the following initiatives are expected to be implemented in the future.

(1) Highly active and selective synthesis of useful compounds

In many reports, the main CRR products in Au, Ag, and Cu NCs is CO. CO can be used as a raw material for synthesis gas (mixture of CO and H₂), *etc.*, but it may not economically be worth considering the cost of CO₂ capture because of the price competition with CO made from fossil fuels.⁷⁵ Therefore, the development of NCs catalysts that can synthesize other useful compounds (C1 compounds such as HCOOH and CH₃OH or C2–C3 compounds) is required.⁷⁵ Although some metal NCs have been reported that can be synthesized useful compounds from CO₂, ²⁴⁵, ²⁵⁴, ²⁷³, ³²⁵ their efficiency and selectivity is still

low, and the creation of NCs catalysts with higher activity and selectivity is required. In particular, the bond distance of atoms in Metal NCs is considered to have a great effect on the making C-C coupling to obtain C2-C3 compounds. The effect of the geometric/electronic structure of Metal NCs on the selectivity of CRR products will be further clarified, and it is expected that Metal NCs with highly selective CRR catalyst will be designed and created to obtain useful compounds.

(2) Increased durability

Without proper treatment, ligand-protected metal NCs elimination. 106 agglomerate due to ligand Electrochemical reduction has also been reported to desorb ligands from metal NCs, but the detailed mechanism remains unclear.305 In addition, at present, in many cases, metal NCs are supported on a carbon black as a support having a high specific surface area, which prevents the aggregation of metal NCs even if some of the ligands are eliminated. Therefore, it has been reported that some metal NCs with stable structures have relatively high stability. 188,202,245,255,263,295,314 However, in order to improve the durability of less stable metal NCs, it is necessary to protect them by ligands with strong bonds, load metal NCs on supports with high specific surface area and high conductivity.

(3) Use of various non-precious metal nanoclusters

Precious metals are expensive and rare, and the discovery of base metals that can be substituted in metal NCs is important because it directly leads to lower costs. The use of metal NCs composed of inexpensive metal elements, such as manganese (Mn), Ni, Fe, cobalt (Co), and Cu, is expected to develop further. It has been suggested that these metal NCs may also exhibit high CRR activity due to their different electronic states from the bulk. ^{334–336} Especially in CRRs, Cu is expected to be a unique catalyst for obtaining various organic compounds. However, reports of Cu NCs applied in CRRs are limited. In the future, the development of highly stable Cu NCs may lead to the practical application of CO₂ recycling using electrocatalytic CRRs.

(4) Control of geometric structure of loaded nanoclusters

The true geometric/electronic structure of metal NCs after adsorption on carbon supports and after ligand desorption remains unclear. Therefore, further advancing the structural analysis/analytical techniques for loaded NCs and elucidating the desorption mechanism of ligands are necessary. If the structure of the loaded NCs is clarified, theoretical calculations using this information may provide an understanding of the reaction mechanism and reveal the key factors for high activity.

(5) Development of support and binder for metal nanoclusters

Electrocatalytic activity is also greatly affected by the support and the ionomer (such as Nafion), which functions as the binder. In the previous reports, there are few examples examining these dependencies for metal NCs. The geometric/electronic structure of metal NCs is significantly different from that of metal NPs, and support interactions and stability are also expected to be different from those of metal NPs.

Particularly, supports and binders with higher specific surface area and stronger binding to metal NCs should be developed for electrocatalytic applications. For example, metals NCs such as Au, Ag, and Cu have strong bonds with nonmetallic elements such as S, P (phosphorus), and N (nitrogen).³⁰⁵ Therefore, it is expected that the stability can be improved by using a support and a binder to which these elements are included.

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(6) Accurate analysis of liquid-phase CO₂ reduction reaction products

The improper evaluation of the liquid-phase components may lead to inaccurate assessments of the selectivity of the actual CRR products. For example, HCOOH produced by CRR is not identified by only analysis of gas-phase components. Furthermore, it might be present in the electrolytic solution as formate (HCOO⁻), and appropriate quantitative analysis methods are needed. Therefore, standardized analytical methods must be developed.

(7) Verification of the products derived from CO₂

Many studies have not demonstrated that the CRR products are derived explicitly from the CO_2 that is being introduced. Therefore, it is necessary to show that the products are not derived from ligands desorbed from metal NCs or carbon supports (*e.g.*, evaluation using the CO_2 isotope).

(8) Activity evaluation according to standards

The selectivity of CRR products varies greatly depending on the catalytic system, such as the structure of the CRR reaction cells (*e.g.*, two-chamber cell or flow cell). Thus, standardized evaluation methods (using a standard electrolyte, Nafion membrane, counter electrode, carbon support type, *etc.*) are necessary for sharing and comparing data among researchers.

We hope that these issues will be overcome in the future and that efficient electrocatalysts can be developed for practical applications, which can potentially solve multiple energy and environmental problems.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI (grant number 20H02698, 20H02552, 23H00289), Scientific Research on Innovative Areas "Innovations for Light-Energy Conversion" (grant number 18H05178 and 20H05115), Scientific Research on Innovative Areas "Hydrogenomics" (grant number 21H00027), and JST Adaptable and Seamless Technology transfer Program through Target-driven R&D (A-STEP; grant number JPMJTM20MS). Funding from Nissanken, the Yashima Environment Technology Foundation, the Yazaki Memorial Foundation for Science and Technology, the MIKIYA Science and Technology Foundation for

Arts and Sciences, the Sasakawa Scientific Research Grant from the Japan Science Society, Advanced Technology Institute Research Grants 2022, TEPCO Memorial Foundation Research Grant (Basic Research), Takahashi Industrial and Economic Research Foundation and the Kumagai Foundation for Science and Technology are gratefully acknowledged.

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