

**Role of Carboxylate ligands in the Synthesis of AuNPs: Size Control, Molecular
Interaction and Catalytic Activity**

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ABSTRACT

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Nanoparticles (NPs) are the basis of nanotechnology and finding numerous applications in various fields such as health, electronics, environment, personal care products, transportation, and catalysis. To fulfill these functions, the nanoparticles must be synthesized, passivated to control their chemical reactivity, stabilized against aggregation and functionalized to achieve specific performances. The chemistry of metal nanoparticles especially that of noble metals (Gold, Platinum...) is a growing field. The nanoparticles have indeed different properties from those of the corresponding bulk material. These properties are largely influenced by several parameters; the most important are the size, shape, and the local environment of the nanoparticles.

One of the most common synthetic methods for the preparation of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) is based on stabilization by citrate. Since it was reported first by Turkevich et al. in 1951, this synthetic scheme has been widely used, studied and a substantial amount of important information regarding this system has been reported in the literature. The most popular method developed by Frens for controlling the size of the noble gold nanoparticles based on citrate was achieved by varying the concentration of sodium citrate. Despite a large number of investigations focused on utilizing Cit-AuNPs, the structural details of citrate anions adsorbed on the AuNP surface are still unknown. It is known only that citrate anions “coordinate” to the metal surface by inner sphere

complexation of the carboxylate groups and there are trace amounts of AuCl_4^- , Cl^- , and OH^- on the metal surface.

Moreover, it is generally accepted that the ligand shell morphology of Au nanoparticles can be partly responsible for important properties such as oxidation of carbon monoxide. The use of Au-NPs in heterogeneous catalysis started mostly with Haruta who discovered the effect of particle size on the activity for carbon monoxide oxidation at low temperature.

The structure of the citrate layer on the AuNP surface may be a key factor in gaining a more detailed understanding of nanoparticle formation and stabilization. This can be affecting the catalytic activity.

These thoughts invited us to systematically examine the role of sodium citrate as a stabilizer of gold nanoparticles, which is the main theme of this thesis. This research is focused on three main objectives, controlling the size of the gold nanoparticles based on citrate (and other carboxylate ligands Trisodium citrate dihydrate, Isocitric Acid, Citric acid, Trimesic acid, Succinic Acid, Phthalic acid, Disodium glutarate, Tartaric Acid, Sodium acetate, Acetic Acid and Formic Acid) by varying the concentration of Gold/sodium citrate, investigating the interaction of the citrate layer on the AuNP surface, and testing the activity of the Au/TiO₂ catalysts for the oxidation of carbon monoxide.

This thesis will be divided into five chapters.

In Chapter 1, a general literature study on the various applications and methods of synthesis of Au nanoparticles is described. Then we present the main synthetic pathways of Au nanoparticles we selected. A part of the bibliographic study was given to the use of Au nanoparticles in catalysis.

In Chapter 2, we give a brief description of the different experimental procedures and characterization techniques utilized over the course of the present work. The study of the size control and the interaction between gold nanoparticles and the stabilizer (carboxylate groups) was achieved by using various characterization techniques such as UV-visible spectroscopy, Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), Nuclear Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR).

In Chapter 3, we discuss the synthesis and size control of Au nanoparticles by following the growth of these nanoparticles by UV-Visible spectroscopy and TEM. We then describe the effect of the concentrations and of various type of the stabilizer, and the post-synthesis treatment on gold nanoparticles size.

In Chapter 4, we focus on determining the nature of the interactions at molecular level between citrate (and other carboxylate-containing ligands) and AuNP in terms of the mode of coordination at the surface, and the formal oxidation state of Au when interacting with these negatively charged carboxylate ligands (i.e., LX^- in the Green formalism). We achieve this by combining very advanced ^{13}C CP/MAS, ^{23}Na MAS and low-temperature SSNMR, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM)

and density functional theory (DFT) calculations. A particular emphasis will be based on SS-NMR.

In Chapter 5, we study the influence of pretreatment of 1% Au/TiO₂ catalysts on the resulting activity in the oxidation of carbon monoxide, the effect of the concentration and the type of the ligands on the catalytic activity. The catalysts were characterized by TPO, XRD, and TEM spectroscopy.

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

The beginning of the colloid chemistry dates from the mid-19th century when Michael Faraday¹ performed the synthesis of gold nanoparticles by reducing tetrachloro-aurate white phosphorus in the presence of carbon disulfide CS₂. In the early 20th century, Wilhelm Ostwald contributed to the development of the science of gold colloids. He was the first to demonstrate that the metal nanoparticles have different properties from the bulk materials and concluded that these properties are mainly determined by the surface atoms. The physical and chemical properties of the particles have been affected by miniaturization of Au particles to the nanoscale. This is explained by the fact small particles have an increasing the number of surface atoms. The surface atoms have low coordination number. Gold nanoparticles have numerous applications in various areas, For example, optics, electronics, catalysis, and pharmaceutical. The first part of this chapter will be devoted to a literature review of the use of these gold nanoparticles in these various fields. In the second part, we will focus more particularly on the different methods of synthesis of gold nanoparticles.

1.1 Overview on gold nanoparticles

Nanotechnology, Nanoscience, nanostructure, and nanoparticles are highly represented presently in the scientific literature. Nanotechnology includes the characterization, manipulation and fabrication of materials and devices at the “nano” scale (1 nanometer is equivalent to one-billionth (10^{-9}) of a meter). The rough estimate for defining nanotechnology is the measurement of a material or device at one or more dimensions in the range of 1-100 nm. To put this into perspective, “a human hair is approximately 80,000 nm wide, and red blood cells roughly 7000 nm wide².” Nanotechnology and nanoscale materials are not entirely new. There have always been nanoscale materials in the environment, and it could be argued that many biological substances such as DNA (strands which have a 2 nm diameter) are a form of nanotechnology. Humans inadvertently have even made use of nanotechnology’s wonderful properties. The Damascus Sabre from the seventeenth century has been shown to have carbon nanotubes and cementite nanowires which help give the blade “unusual mechanical properties and an unusually sharp cutting edge³.” The difference is, today, we are gaining the ability to create nanomaterials and nanotechnologies for our own specifications; creating new devices that have new and novel properties. **Figure 1.1** shows the examples of man-made and natural fabrication of materials at small scale routinely.

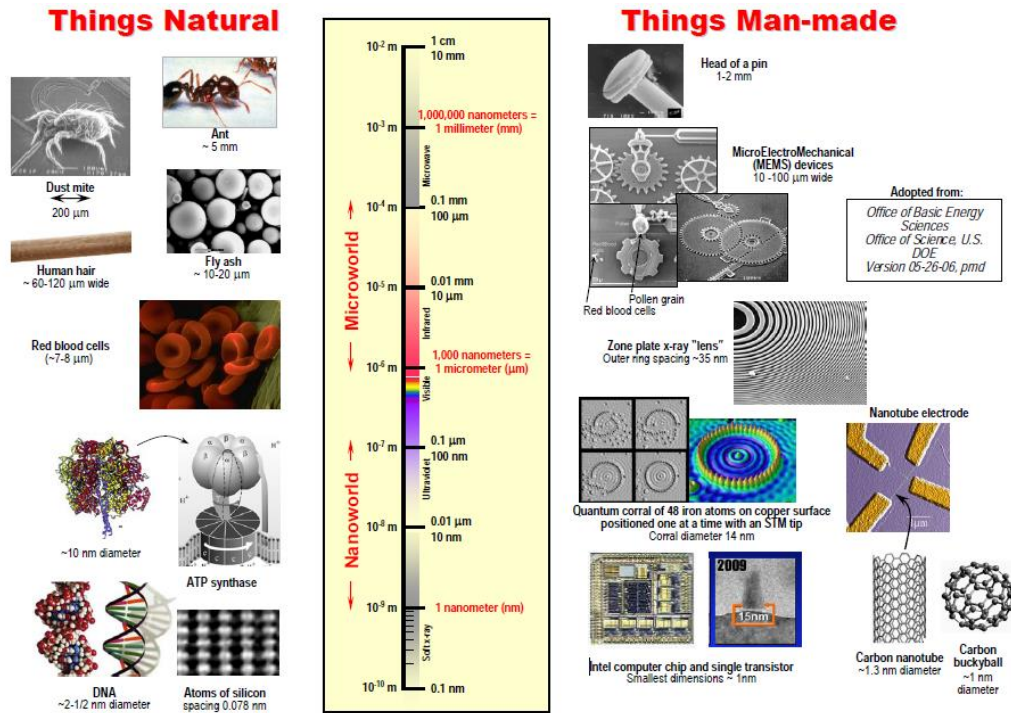


Figure 1.1 Picture demonstrating the comparative sizes of several naturally happening objects/species and man-made materials.

So that let us ask the question: What are the properties of gold, which make it so broadly applicable? The chemistry of gold is considerably different compared to other metals and the main reason for this is its relativistic special effects, As it can be seen from **Figure 1.2** this effect is most pronounced for gold, which explains the unique position of gold among all the elements⁴.

This impact which unequivocally impacts its physical and chemical properties⁵.

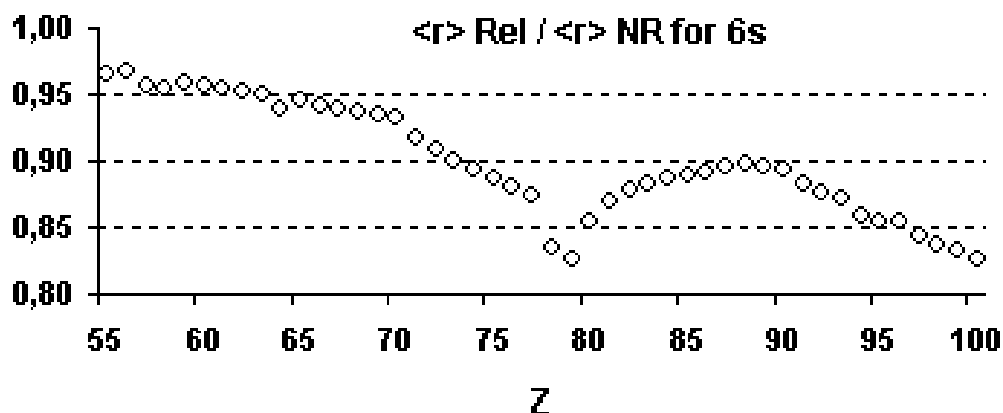


Figure 1.2 Calculated relativistic contraction of the 6s orbital. The relativistic ($\langle r \rangle_{\text{rel.}}$) and non-relativistic ($\langle r \rangle_{\text{non-rel.}}$) 6s orbital radii were determined computationally. The relativistic effects on electrons are most pronounced at 79Au^4 .

Gold has the highest electrochemical potential and the highest electronegativity of all the metals.

The electronic configuration of Au^0 is $5d^{10}6s^1$, of Au^+ is $5d^{10}6s^0$ and of Au^- is $5d^{10}6s^2$.⁶ Au^+ or Au^- could be expected based on the well-known electron configurations.

The electrons on the 6s orbital being closer to the nucleus also explain why gold has a high electron affinity, which leads for example, to the formation Cs^+Au^- and $\text{NMe}_4^+\text{Au}^-$.⁷ The captivating yellow color of gold can be also attributed to relativistic effects. The energy of the 5d electrons is raised and the energy of the 6s electrons is lowered⁸. Therefore, the light absorption (primarily due to the $5d \rightarrow 6s$ transition) takes place in the blue visual range (2.50–2.75 eV). It absorbs blue light and reflects the rest of the

spectrum which results in a yellowish golden colour⁹. In contrast, another element of the group 11, silver absorbs at around 3.7 eV in the ultraviolet region^{6, 10}. Due to this $4d \rightarrow 5s$ transition, silver does not absorb in the visible range and has a metallic shine. The “non-relativistic band structures” of silver and gold are very similar, so if relativistic effects did not exist, gold would look like silver¹⁰.

Indeed, for a long time metal nanoparticles have been used. Emerged in the 5th and 4th century Before Christ, the soluble gold was used in China, Egypt and India to curative and artistic goals. In the middle ages, gold was already used for artistic purposes among which we can mention the color of the windows. e.g. during the past decade, people used metal nanoparticles to create rich colors in stained glass from the Roman times (4th century AD), though likely without realizing it.

This glass reflected and transmitted light showing unusual color changes caused by the precious metal bearing material added by the Roman glassworkers when the glass was molten. It appeared red in transmitted light and green in reflected light because of the presence of gold colloids. The reason behind the color is the presence of nanoparticles in the glass which is formed by the reduction of earlier dissolved gold during heat-treatment of the glass resulting in a fine dispersion of gold nanoparticles.

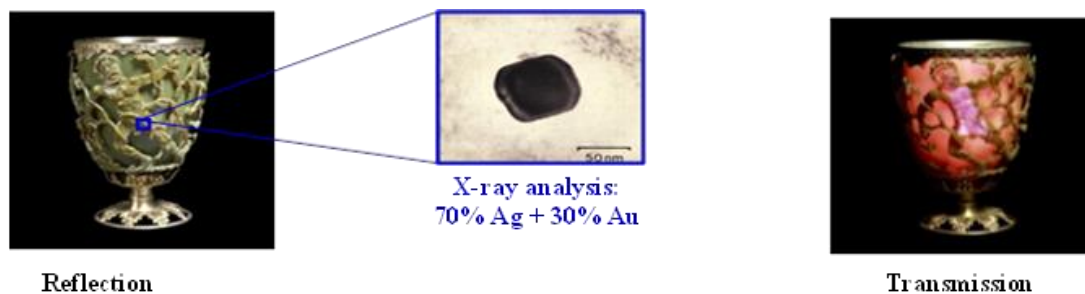


Figure 1.3 Lycurgus Cup.

These nanoparticles(see **Figure 1.3**)¹¹ By X-beam examination demonstrated that the proportion of silver to gold of around 7:3, containing 10% of copper.

The most important property obviously is size effect, and many applications depend on it. The beginning of the colloid chemistry dated from the mid-nineteenth century when Michael Faraday¹² carried out a systematic study. By reduction of an aqueous solution of chloroauric (AuCl_4^-) by white phosphorus (phosphorus diethyl ether solution) in the presence of carbon disulfide CS_2 (a two-phase system). He explored the optical properties of thin films set from dried of deep red colloidal solutions and notification the color of the films upon mechanical compression was changing reversibly (from bluish-purple to green upon pressurizing)¹. In the early 20th century, Wilhelm Ostwald contributed to the development of the science of gold colloids. It was found that the first metal nanoparticles have different properties in bulk materials and deduced that these properties are mainly determined by the surface atoms. The miniaturization of Au particles at the nanoscale has a significant effect on the physical and chemical properties of the particles. This is due to the fact that increasing the number of surface atoms will be obtained by reducing particle size. The surface atoms have a low coordination number of atoms relative to the central and, therefore, are more mobile. In 1861, Graham coined the term

“colloid”. Until the 20th century, gold colloid was used in medicine for the diagnosis of syphilis, a method which remained in use until the 20th century; the test is not totally reliable¹³. The most popular method for the synthesis of AuNPs is by using citrate reduction of gold (III) in water found by J. Turkevich et al in 1951. He described that this method generally produces gold nanoparticles of size around 10-20 nm¹⁴. This method was refined by G. Frens in the 1970s to obtain AuNPs of prechosen size (in the range 16 to 147 nm) by varying the reducing agent to stabilizing agent ratio (the trisodium citrate to- gold ratio). This is a frequently used method by researchers and could control the size by varying the stabilizer to gold ratio¹⁵.

In the following sections of this chapter: the first section will be devoted to a literature review of the use of these gold nanoparticles in various fields and brief introductions to the process of particle formation and we will consider 3 aspects pertaining to gold nanoparticles synthesis, i) will relate to the reduction mechanism of Au (III) ions to the Au(0) state necessary for the formation of the nanoparticles. ii) Will relate to the kinetics of particles formation focusing on the nucleation and growth pathway of gold nanoparticles in the presence of Citrate. iii) Will relate to the surface studies that investigate the mode of interaction between citrate and the metal surface responsible for the stabilization. With reference to the second section of this chapter, we will talk about the catalytic test based on their synthesis and the mechanism we proposed.

The properties developed by the nanoparticles of Au (catalytic, biomedical and optical) are influenced by the shape and size of the nanoparticles. The control of the shape and size of the nanoparticles is mainly based on the method of synthesis used for their preparation. Before talk about the different synthesis methods developed for the preparation of nanoparticles. We will use quite a lot of space on the propriety of gold nanoparticles.

1.2 The propriety of gold nanoparticles

1.2.1 The plasmon resonance

Noble metals such as Au and Ag respective electronic structures [Xe] 4f¹⁴5d¹⁰6s¹ and [Kr] 4d¹⁰5s¹ have filled *d* orbital electron and one electron in the *s* orbital. It is these electrons that once relocated within the crystal lattice fill the conduction band. At the nanoscale, the metal nanoparticles can absorb and scatter electromagnetic radiation of wavelength greater than the size of the particles. In a particular field frequency, the surface Plasmon resonance phenomenon is a collective oscillation of the conduction electrons when the nanoparticles interact with an incident light for diffusive overall because of that. This effect is particularly noticeable in the visible part of the absorption spectrum of the nanoparticles of Au, Ag, and Cu. The Plasmon resonance of a metallic nanoparticle is characterized by two parameters:

Its energy *E*

$$E = \hbar\omega\rho = \hbar \frac{\sqrt{4\pi n e^2}}{m_0} \quad (1)$$

(n is the conduction electron density, m_0 the actual mass electrons, and ω_p is the Plasmon frequency).

And its uniform width Γ which is connected to the damping time (or phase shift) T_2 of the oscillation by the relationship:

$$\Gamma = \frac{2\hbar}{T_2} \quad (2)$$

These two parameters are largely influenced by nature, size, shape of the metal nanoparticle¹⁶ and also the surrounding environment¹⁷, but also by the dielectric medium in which the nanoparticles are. Only metals with free electrons have a plasmon resonance in the visible spectrum and are, therefore, intense colorations.

The size of the nanoparticles is a significant parameter in the interaction between the light and particles. The color of a colloidal gold solution varies from blue to orange through various purples and reds when the nanoparticle size is reduced to ~ 3 nm. Au nanoparticles exhibit an intense absorption band in the visible region around 520nm.

1.3 Methods of preparation of nanoparticles

In 1959, Richard Feynman was the first researcher to propose that devices and materials could one day be created to atomic particulars without consider the laws of physics¹⁸. He anticipated concepts that are nowadays commonly used in nanotechnology such as bottom up and top down approaches to the fabrication of miniaturized objects.

In general two basic approaches are accepted for the synthesis as well as the fabrication of nanomaterials. Since that time the researchers are trying to follow both:

“top-down” and “bottom up” approach **Figure 1.4**. Top-down fabrication mainly processes from breaking down of bulk starting materials to make nanomaterials. In the top-down systems, the preferences are composed straightforwardly onto a substrate, for instance, by electron beams, and then by applying suitable engraving and deposition processes, the nanoscopic features are engraved. The biggest disadvantage with a top-down approach is that it is expensive to perform slow and not suitable for large-scale production. But this method is suitable for the bulk production of nanomaterials. In this case, the nanoparticles are mainly produced by reducing the size of fragments of metal oxides or metals. As an example, include The mechanical alloying¹⁹; this method does not lead to a control of the size and morphology of the particles because the structures are broken down gradually until the nanoscale particles. The particles obtained by this method have a size of between 0.5 and ten microns.²⁰.

Although by the Bottom up approach can obtain more homogeneous chemical composition they contain fewer amounts of defects. There are some explanations for this; First of all, it assumes a critical part in both manufacture and preparing of nanostructures. At the point when the building blocks fall into nanometer scale, the top-down methodology is unlikely. The tools that we possess are too huge to manage such small objects. Second Fabrication is much less expensive, also fast and suitable for up-scaling.

In general, in the "bottom-up" approach, there are two types of reactions: the reduction reaction and decomposition. Both reactions can occur in gaseous, liquid or solid phase.

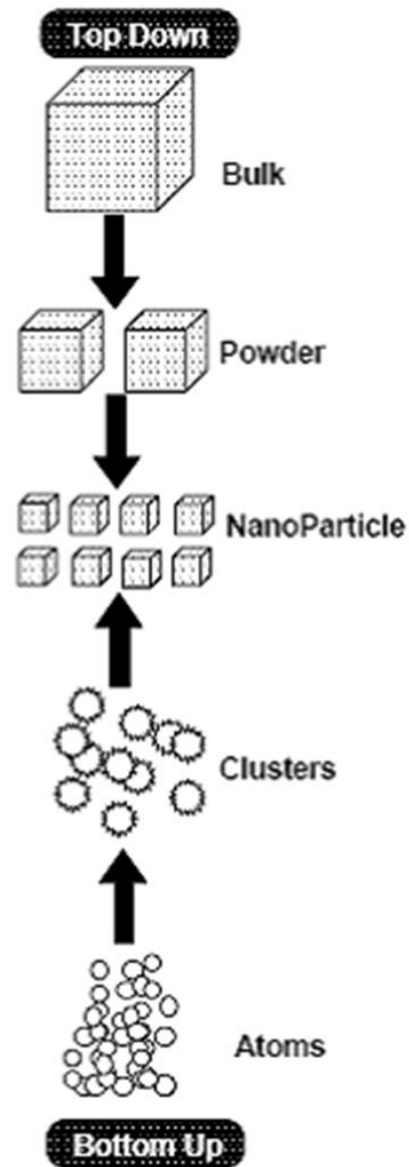


Figure 1.4 Pictorial representation of the two basic approaches used for the production of Nanostructures.

With increasing importance and applications of nanomaterials a number of physical and chemical routes for their synthesis has been reported and can be broadly classified as presented in **Figure 1.5**:

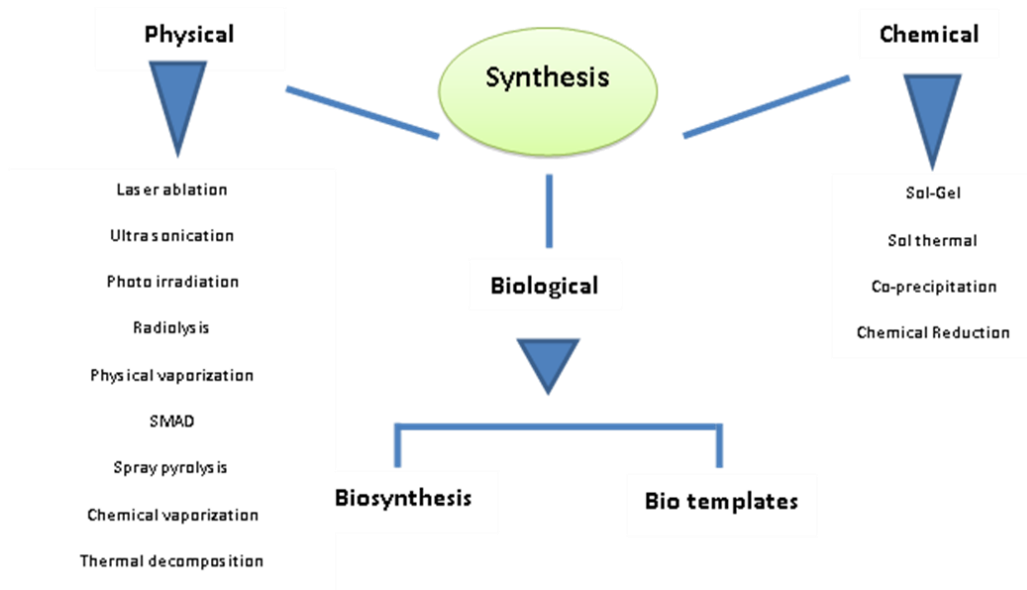


Figure 1.5 Illustration outlining the several methodologies for the synthesis of nanoparticles.

1.3.1 Methods of preparation of nanoparticles chemically: gas phase.

Most common strategies for nanoparticles in the gas stage depend on homogeneous nucleation in the gas stage and consequent buildup and coagulation, the generation of nanoparticles from the vapor stage requires the establishment of supersaturation. This is made by physical or chemical techniques. The physical techniques include some type of mixing of the monomers, by extension, with a cooler gas or by warmth exchange to the environment. Supersaturation can be accomplished additionally by convection responses which deliver the anion unstable condensable item. These responses are normally

decomposition reactions started by an ascent in temperature and utilized widely as a part of laser and fire reactors²¹.

1.3.2 Methods of preparation of nanoparticles chemically: liquid-phase (colloidal).

The first use of the colloidal method dates back to Faraday who in 1857 prepared the colloids¹, Wet synthesis methods (liquid-phase) are a smart system as a minimum for two causes: first they are more energy effectual. Second they produce nanoparticles by using the regular device obtainable in a laboratory. Colloidal methods let prepare large amounts of products and are suitable for the manufacture of nanoparticles²².

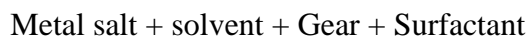
1.3.3 Reduction

The reduction of an ion or a complex can be achieved by following:

- Chemical reducing agent ex. alcohols (polyol synthesis),^{23 24} Citrate,¹⁴ hydrazine²⁵ and borohydrides²⁶.
- Electrochemical reduction^{27 28}.
- Microwave irradiation, radiolysis, photochemistry and sonochemistry^{29 30}.
- Chemical reduction in micellar medium (nanoreactors)^{31 32}.
- Biological production of reducing species such as radicals or electrons by radiolysis.

1.3.3.1 Chemical reduction

It is by far the most broadly used method for the synthesis of nanoparticles. Obtaining metal nanoparticles are done here in a liquid medium. It can be passed out in aqueous or organic phase and the main reactants are as follows:



In this diagram, the salt is the metal-containing precursor, the solvent may be aqueous or organic for example toluene. The solvent should be polar and have a relatively high dipole moment in order to break the bonds of salt and dissolve. The gear is selected to reduce the dissolved metal species so that they precipitate metal particles. The surfactant plays the role of a protective agent of metal particles by adsorbing to the particle surface and making it possible to prevent them from agglomerating. The morphology and the size distribution of nanoparticles controlled by parameters such as the reduction kinetics and the nature of the stabilizer.

1.3.3.1.1 Reduction by citrate and hydrazine

Reducing a salt of Au by sodium citrate in aqueous solution is the most known method. A century after the synthesis of Faraday, it is developed to the first time in 1951 by Turkevich et al¹⁴. It can produce spherical nanoparticles by reduction of tetrachloroauric acid (HAuCl₄) using citrate. The beauty of this method lies in its simplicity and the fact that it provides easily stable and monodisperse colloids by the in situ reduction of gold salts in solution water at a temperature of 100° C. In this synthesis, citrate plays both the role of reducing and surfactant agent as it prevents aggregation by

introducing a charge to the particle surface. Further work on the synthesis of Au nanoparticles resulting from the reduction of Au salt citrate was performed by Frens¹⁵. Thus in 1973, he showed the possibility to control the average particle size by varying the "concentration of gold salt" ratio of "concentration of citrate" ($[\text{HAuCl}_4] / [\text{citrate}]$). Thus, by reducing the amount of citrate used in the synthesis, is reduced citrate ion quantity necessary for the stabilization of particles causing aggregation smaller grit particles until the surface becomes large enough to be covered by the current citrate ions.

Hydrazine (N_2H_4) is a weak base with reducing properties. In the presence metal ions, it is associated with the latter to form complexes. Hydrazine as an example was used to prepare Au^{25} , Ag^{33} , CdSe^{34} and Ni^{35} nanoparticles. The redox process to use hydrazine as reducing is easy and inexpensive. In addition, hydrazine is oxidized to N_2 during the reduction, and therefore considered as "clean"³⁶ gear. However, the literature on mechanisms of reduction of metal ions in the attendance of hydrazine is undeveloped.

1.3.3.1.2 Reduction by borohydrides

Borohydrides are very strong reducing agents and are therefore good candidates to reduce the metal ions. However, it very difficult to control the size of particles due to the rapid reaction kinetics. The best-known method of synthesis is that developed by Brust et al³⁷ for the synthesis of Au nanoparticles stabilized by thiols. Synthesis of nanoparticles using toluene as a solvent has inspired by the two-phase system made by Faraday in 1861^{13a} and was developed in 1993 by Giersig et al³⁸. It provides monodisperse nanoparticles sizes and well-controlled forms. Generally, the particles obtained by this method have a size less than 10 nm. In 1994, Brust et al develop a method of synthesis of

Au nanoparticles in toluene known today as the synthesis of Brust³⁷. It provides protected nanoparticles by a monolayer of thiol, a simple procedure during which the chemical reduction of salt occurs in a biphasic system (H₂O + Toluene) in the presence of a thiol as a surfactant. The aqueous phase contains the gold salt and reducing agent (NaBH₄aq) while the organic phase consists of toluene, a transfer agent (usually tetraoctylammonium bromide (TOAB)) and surfactant **Figure 1. 6**. The resulting particles are very stable and have an average size between 1.5 and 5.3 nm. They are also very soluble in most polar solvents. Thiols attached to the surface of the Au nanoparticles provide not only the stability of the nanoparticles but also allows to adjust the properties of the resulting nanohybrid. Brust method can also be used for the synthesis of Au nanoparticles stabilized with amines. For this, it suffices to replace the alkyl thiol with an amine in the synthesis³⁹. In this synthesis, the size particles depend here on the ratio of the Au salt and the surfactant (amine or thiol). Being As the primary amines are strong enough reducing agents to yield the nucleation of nanoparticles, the particle formation is observed even in the absence of NaBH₄²⁶.

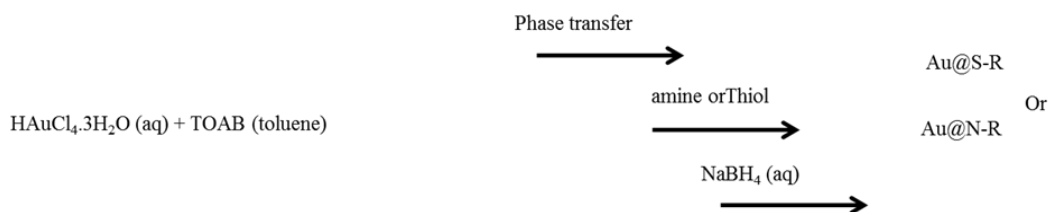


Figure 1. 6 Scheme of Brust method for Synthesis of Au nanoparticles

Other reducing agents may be used in aqueous solution to obtain nanoparticles, for examples; polysorbate^{80 40}, cephalixin⁴¹ and mercaptosuccinic acid^{42, 43}.

1.4 Modes of stabilization

Nanoparticles in suspension do not represent a thermodynamically stable system. They tend to agglomerate to form solid metal, less energy object, which precipitates in solution⁴⁴. Therefore, suspension needs to be stabilized. There are generally two types of stabilization: electrostatic and steric ones. Steric stabilization represents a method commonly used in colloidal suspension. It consists to add to the solution an element which presents a large volume, typically a polymer or organic ligand, which adsorbed on the surface of the NPs prevents from agglomeration. These large molecules form a barrier around the NPs and avoid them to coalesce **Figure 1.7**.



Figure 1.7 Steric stabilization of NPs; a) short and b) long surfactant chains.

Electrostatic stabilization is achieved by introducing ionic species in solution such as carboxylates. Indeed, Van der Waals forces lead to an attraction between NPs in suspension. To relieve this phenomenon and stabilize NPs, the addition of ionic compounds that will adsorb on the surface of NPs leads to the formation of an NPs protective layer. This surface electrostatic repulsion will insure repulsive forces between

NPs and drive to the stabilization of the nanoparticles suspension as displayed in **Figure 1.8**.

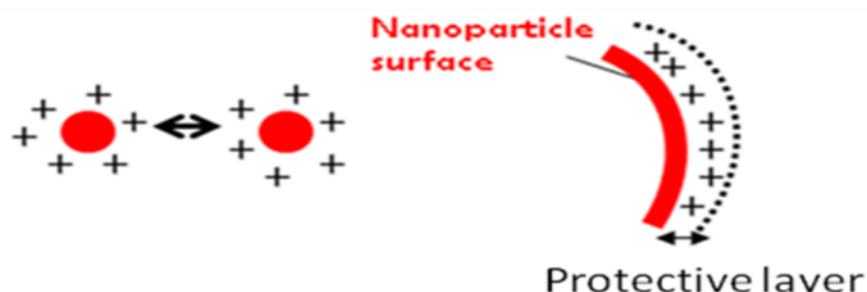


Figure 1.8 Mechanism of stabilization of NPs by electrostatic repulsion.

The stability of a colloidal solution results from the balance between attractive and repulsive interactions acting on the particles. These interactions also depend on various parameters such as temperature and pH of the solution. In addition, stabilizers combine these two phenomena and are entitled *electrostatic* ones. Numerous endeavors were dedicated to synthesizing colloidal gold nanospheres. In reality, three ways were generally utilizing the precipitation procedure for the synthesis

The synthesis of larger Au NPs involves yet a decrease of the shape and size NPs distribution in the suspension. As previously mentioned, the stability of the suspension is insured by the presence of charged surfactant: citrate molecules surrounding the Au NPs

Figure 1.9.

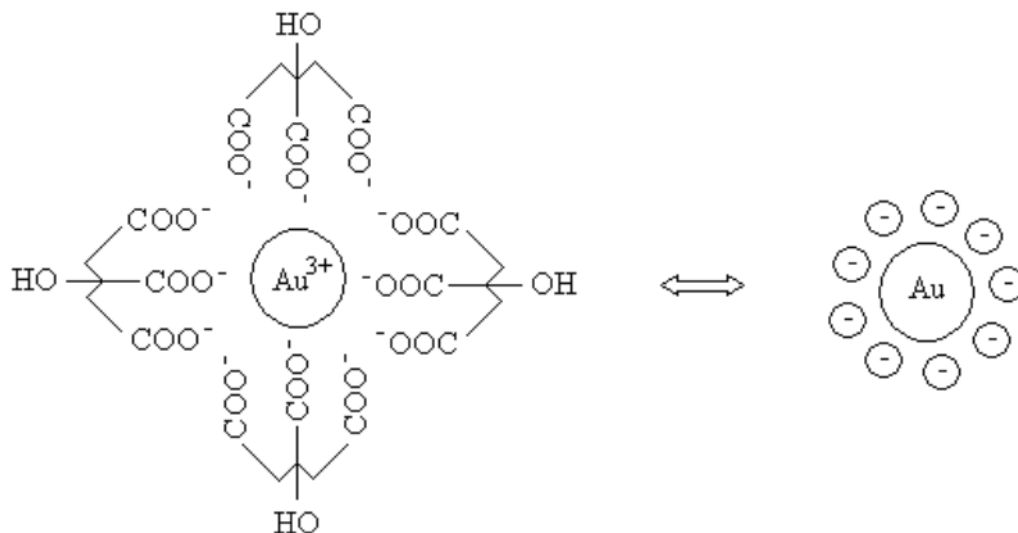


Figure 1.9 Representation of a colloid spherical gold nanoparticle (relative size of molecules and NPs are not at scale).

In our research work, we have prepared gold nanoparticles of spherical forms by Turkevich synthesis methods modified by reduction of HauCl_4 by sodium borohydride as reducing agents. The ratio change of common precursor tetra chloroauric acid to stabilize as citrates allows in principle to control the size.

1.4.1 Features of the citrate process

1.4.1.1 Method of Turkevich;

Developed in 195148, it is a fairly simple method for obtaining spherical colloids by in situ reduction of gold salts in aqueous solution with citrate sodium at a temperature of 100°C **Figure 1.10.**

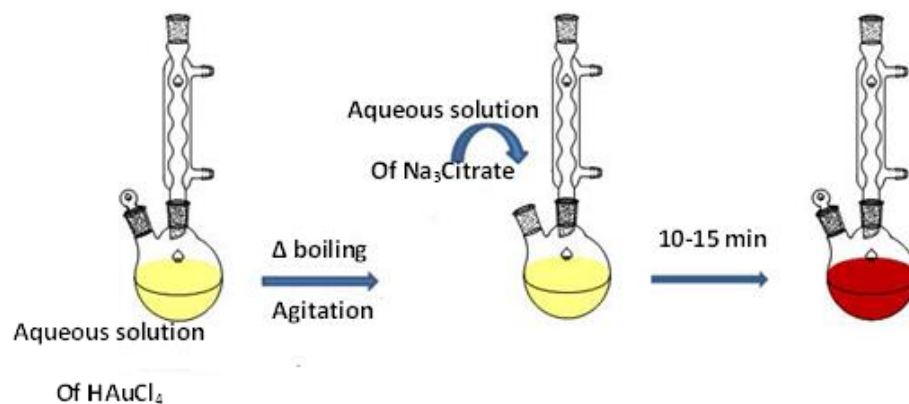


Figure 1.10 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of nanoparticles of Au by the method of Turkevich.

Figure 1. 11 show the reaction mechanism of the reduction of salt by the citrate. According to this mechanism, we need 3 moles of citrate to reduce one mole of Au³⁺ ions into Au⁰. Thus, the reduction of the salt to metallic gold is only possible in the presence of an excess of reducing agent. This corresponds to a molar ratio of 1/3 between the sodium citrate and Au.

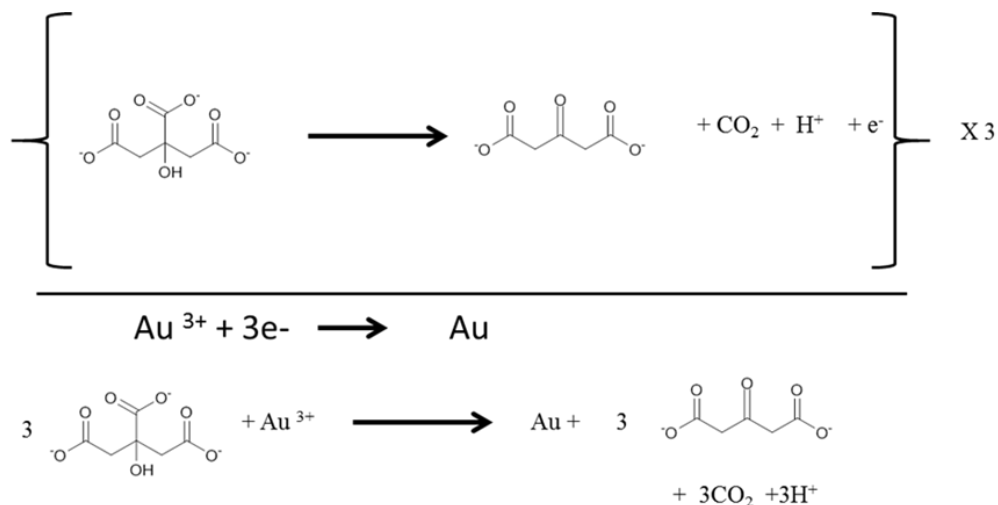


Figure 1. 11 Reaction mechanism for the reduction of the salt citrate.

This method of synthesis remains one of the most used because it permits to obtain spherical particles of different sizes by changing the ratio $[\text{HAuCl}_4] / [\text{Citrate}]$. Sodium citrate plays a dual role: it allows on one hand to reduce Au^{3+} ions in Au^0 and its stabilizing nanoparticles by adsorbed on their surface. This despite widespread in the literature, this reaction is complex in many parameters.

1.4.1.2 Method of Frens:

From Turkevich¹⁴, we concluded that his method might be promising for the preparation of monodisperse gold suspensions with broadly dissimilar particle diameters by reduction of gold chloride with sodium citrate in aqueous solution.

Unlike the Turkevich method¹⁴, the method of Frens¹⁵ is carried out in two steps following the experimental procedure is shown in Figures 1.10. During the first step is obtained spherical gold particles of sizes between 15 and 20 nm in diameter **Figure 1.12**.

These are used as seeds in the second step to obtain spherical particles of larger sizes

Figure 1.13.

Step 1: Synthesis of spherical nanoparticles: ($\text{\O} \sim 15\text{-}20\text{nm}$).

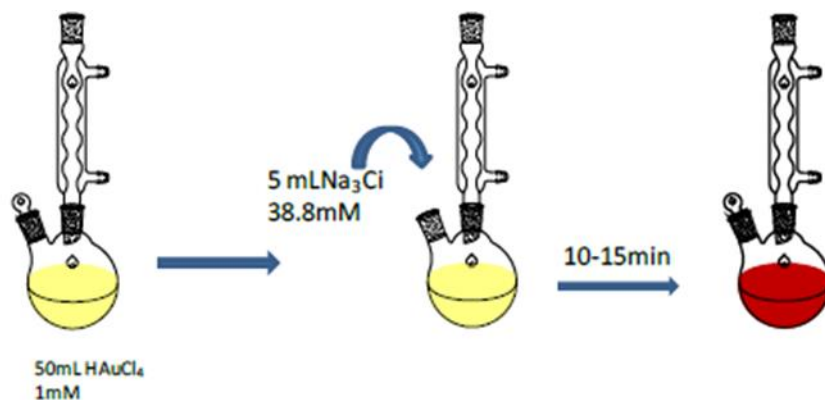


Figure 1.12 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of 15 nm diameter gold nanoparticles.

Step 2: Synthesis of spherical nanoparticles of larger sizes.

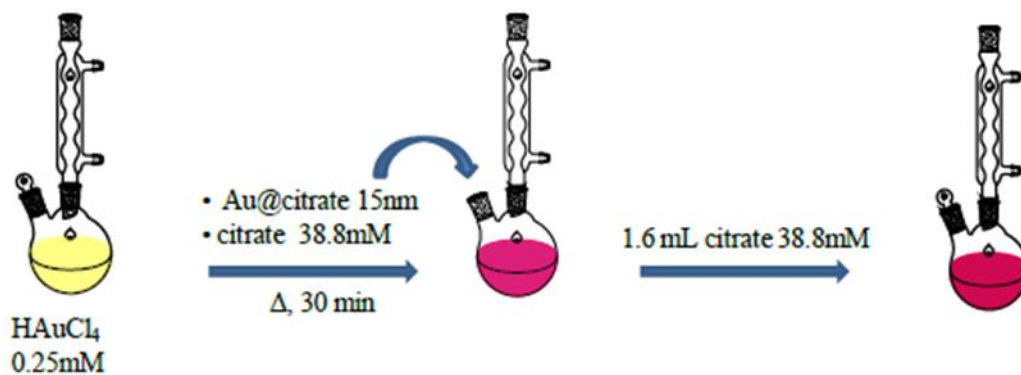


Figure 1.13 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of nanoparticles of sizes greater than 15 nm.

Frens proposed technique where reducing stabilizing agent, citrate to gold proportion was changed. This outcome in particles is easily obtained with a wide size range (diameters between 10 and 20 nm). Nevertheless, it is critical to note that from 20 nm diameter, deformation of the particles is observed leading to a higher polydispersity in forms and monodispersity was observed to be poor.

1.4.1.3 Freund and Spiro method:

The monodisperse citrate-stabilized gold colloids were prepared from HAuCl_4 and trisodium citrate by the method of Frens¹⁵ with some modifications⁴⁵.

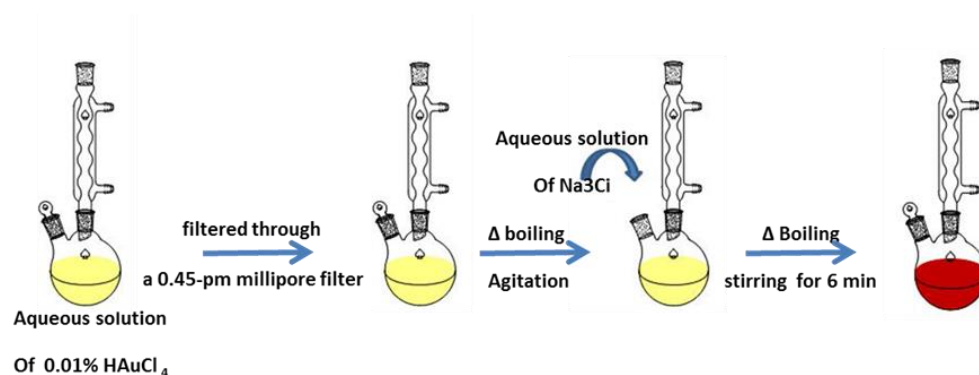


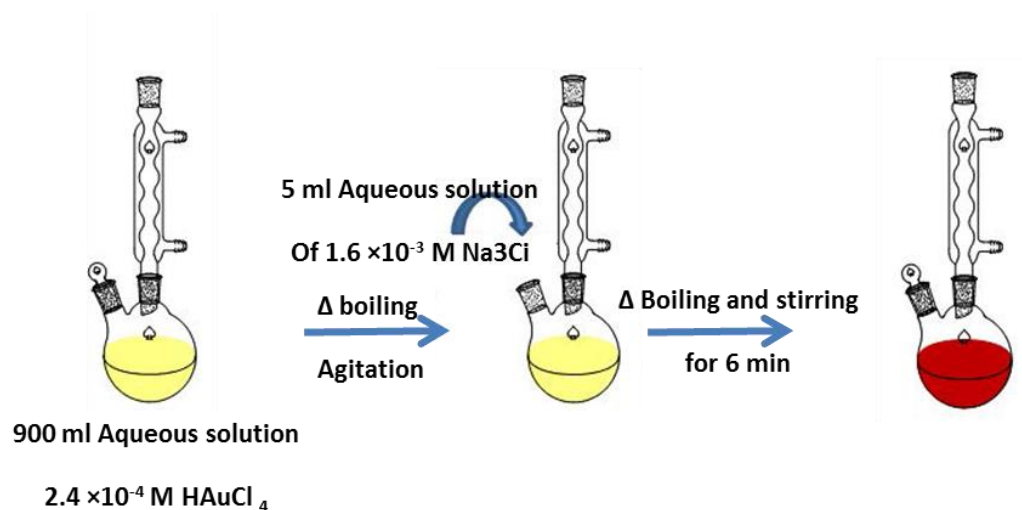
Figure 1.14 Investigational pattern for the synthesis of nanoparticles of Au by the strategy of Freund and Spiro.

The solution was at 25°C and stored in a 25 mL volumetric flask. The colloids were indefinitely stable if stored at $5\text{--}10^\circ\text{C}$.

1.4.1.4 Chow and Zukoski method⁴⁶

For this type reaction conditions used here, in agreement with Frens¹⁵, when boiling the HAuCl_4 and citrate solutions were mixed, there was almost instantaneous appearance

of dark red color indicating the formation of 15 to 25 nm diameter gold particles **Figure**



1.15.

Figure 1.15 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of nanoparticles of Au by the Chow and Zukoski method.

1.5 Catalytic test

Catalytic reactions play important roles in our daily life. Catalysis contributes to sustainable development through a decrease of the energy consumption of the endothermic processes and eliminating or at least dramatically decreasing pollution from chemical and refining processes. The development of selective, highly active catalysts working under mild conditions meets the requirements of green chemistry. Application of nanoparticles and nanostructures in catalytic materials may generate improved unique properties.

Gold the most stable among all metals was thought to be inactive in catalysis until Haruta's discovery of the catalytic power of gold in carbon monoxide oxidation when its

size is in the nanometer range. Later high activity of gold nanoparticles was demonstrated in various oxygen– transfer and hydrogenation reactions such as hydrogenation of alkenes. Gold catalysts have many advantages compared to platinum group metals; it is resistant to the oxidative atmosphere, moreover gold has greater price stability, high resistance to corrosion, flexibility⁴⁷ and very high electron negativity. In fact, gold has a stable form with an oxidation state of +1.

In my work, I focused on supported gold catalysts in TiO₂ support for CO oxidation reactions to understand better the nature of the active sites and on reaction specific modifications to develop more efficient catalysts for the reaction.

1.5.1 Gold nanoparticles: catalysis and environment

Au nanoparticles dispersed metal oxide supports reducible (MnO₂, α - Fe₂O₃, Co₃O₄, NiO, CuO, and TiO₂) and not reducible (SiO₂, Al₂O₃) are considered very promising catalysts in the field of electrochemistry, environmental protection, and chemical synthesis. Most of these catalysts are active, selective and durable to moderate temperatures and efficiency generally depends on the interaction between the nanoparticles and the substrate. These properties depend on some parameters, among which one can mention:

- **Particle size**; in the sense that the particles of smaller sizes have a larger specific surface area which therefore provides a more activity high Janssens et al. have drawn a curve (
- **Figure 1.16**) of the catalytic activity of gold supported on different oxides for oxidation of CO⁴⁸.

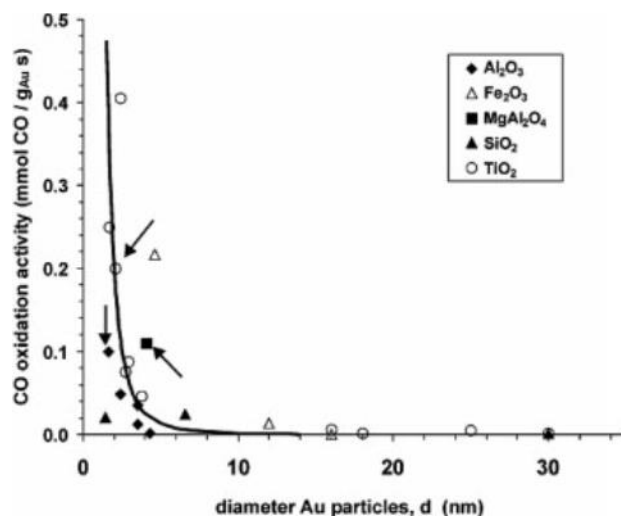


Figure 1.16 Catalytic activity of the gold for the complete oxidation of CO as a function of the size of nanoparticles.

- Nature of support;** because it is essential that it has a surface specific capable of providing a strong interaction with the particles. The support facilitates the formation of extremely small metal particles having a high proportion of their atoms at the surface; With regard to the oxidation of CO, the catalyst supports were divided by Schubert et al⁴⁹ into two categories: the supports "active" and "inert" materials. Gold supported on the irreducible oxides as Al_2O_3 , MgO , and SiO_2 , are not very active while those employing reducible oxides as Fe_2O_3 , NiO_x , CoO_x , TiO_2 , are active. The activity of gold supported shows a strong dependence on the particle size and thus those that have more surface defects (corners, stops) on which is adsorbed oxygen⁵⁰.
- The method of preparation;** In the first work that studied the effect of the preparation method on the activity of the oxidation of CO, Bamwenda et al⁴⁸

have concluded that the catalysts from the deposition - precipitation are more active than those prepared by impregnation or photo deposition. However, Schüth et al. showed that colloidal gold deposit is capable of generating as active catalysts than those prepared by deposition-precipitation and thermally more stable⁵¹.

- **Heat treatment;** one consequence of, the small size of the nanoparticles is lowered the melting point. The heat treatment can cause melting and sintering of nanoparticles hence the importance of the choice of the calcination temperature. The majority of work in the literature notes a decrease in the catalytic activity accompanying heat treatment. Park and Lee reported a decrease in the activity of the catalysts Au/Fe₂O₃, Au/TiO₂, Au/Al₂O₃ with increasing calcination temperature⁵². Haruta attributed the good thermal stability of the catalysts obtained by deposition-precipitation on TiO₂ epitaxial contact between nanoparticles and support⁵³. The calcination atmosphere also has a great influence on the catalytic performance; gold supported on manganese oxide treated air is more active than it was treated in hydrogen or vacuum due to a stronger interaction between the oxidized metal and manganese⁵⁴. Boccuzzi et al⁵⁵ Followed the evolution of sintering of gold supported on TiO₂ synthesized by deposition-precipitation "function of the calcination temperature". They observed that the particle size changes from 2.4 to 10.6 nm with increasing the calcination temperature from 200°C to 600°C. This increase in temperature results in a different distribution of corners and edges.

Thanks to this important chemical reactivity catalysis based on nanoparticles of Au has a great potential for many applications including, among others, the control of pollutants, the detection of flammable gasses and transformations of organic substances. In this section, we will list some examples of catalysts based applications of nanoparticles of Au.

1.6 Oxidation reaction of CO

The interest in the oxidation reaction of CO to CO₂ comes from the fact that it is a simple reaction, easy to implement and can be catalyzed by metal oxides. The CO oxidation reaction takes place at a high temperature in general (> 1000 ° C) in the presence of cyclohexane. This reaction causes many environmental damages. These reasons have led many researchers to find a way to turn at low temperatures this toxic gas into a less harmful compound. Haruta et al. showed that the nanoparticles of Au supported on TiO₂ and Al₂O₃ ensured 50% of the CO conversion CO₂ and O₂ at very low temperatures down to -70 °C⁵⁶. They also found that the chemical yield of this reaction became more important when the particle size was ≤ 4 nm.

The oxidation reaction at a low temperature of the CO by the nanoparticles of Au having size, less than 5nm opened the field of research into the chemical reactions can be catalyzed by the Au nanoparticles.

1.6.1 Mechanism for CO oxidation

There are many mechanisms could explain this reaction such as a mechanism including the oxide support and mechanism involving gold particles only that mean

When the support is non-reducible, a CO oxidation mechanism involves gold nanoparticles only. For instance, Schubert et al⁴⁹ conclude that when gold is supported on magnesia, silica or alumina, the O₂ adsorption on low coordinated sites of the gold surface and caused to a lower activity than when oxygen can be activated on a reducible support. In this study, I will focus on the first due to support to our idea.

1.6.1.1 Mechanisms including the oxide support

All the mechanisms proposed in the literature are based on the nature of the active phase. Two general mechanisms for catalysts gold supported on reducible oxides: Haruta's mechanism with fully metallic gold particles and including unreduced gold species at the metal – support interface such as Bond and Thompson's mechanism. The differences arise from the nature of the active phase and intermediates of the reaction.

1.6.1.1.1 Metal gold particles: Haruta's mechanism

According to Haruta proposition in CO oxidation, we conclude that reducible supports such as Fe₂O₃ or TiO₂ lead to more active catalysts than non-reducible supports such as Al₂O₃ or SiO₂. O₂ can be absorbed and activated on these supports when gold is fully reduced extremely high activity is obtained. Semicircular gold particles are more active than spherical particles due to the greater boundary of the interface between the gold and the support^{49, 57}.

Haruta al⁵⁵ proposed a four-step mechanism for the catalysts Au/ZnO, Au/TiO₂ assuming that the active sites are metallic gold particles. The mechanism includes the CO

adsorption on gold followed by adsorption of oxygen on the support around the perimeter of the gold particles, the formation of carbonaceous species on the support and their CO₂ decomposition. This mechanism was modified later by Haruta and have considered active sites Au(0) and Au^{δ+} at the interface Au-TiO₂⁵⁸ **Figure 1.17**.

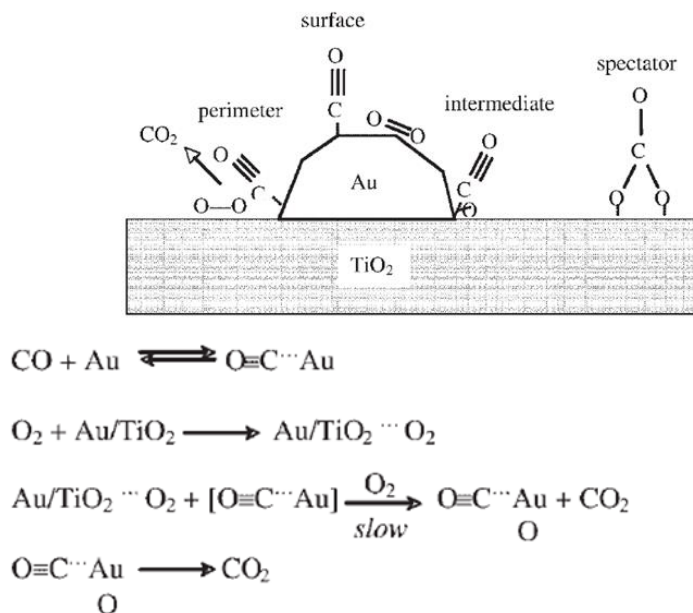


Figure 1.17 as proposed by Haruta et al. Mechanism of CO oxidation on supported gold catalysts⁵⁹.

1.6.1.2 Bond and Thompson's mechanism: unreduced gold at the interface

Bond and Thompson proposed a mechanism that involved metallic gold and Au³⁺ as active sites **Figure 1.18**. CO is first adsorbed on a gold weakly coordinating atom and an OH group of the carrier moves to the 3+ to form a carboxylic group and an anionic gap, the latter being filled with oxygen in the form of O₂⁻. This ion (O₂⁻) will oxidize the

carboxylic group by forming CO_2 and OH_2^- group to the surface. This group (OH_2^-) again reacts with CO and CO_2 giving two OH groups on the surface⁶⁰.

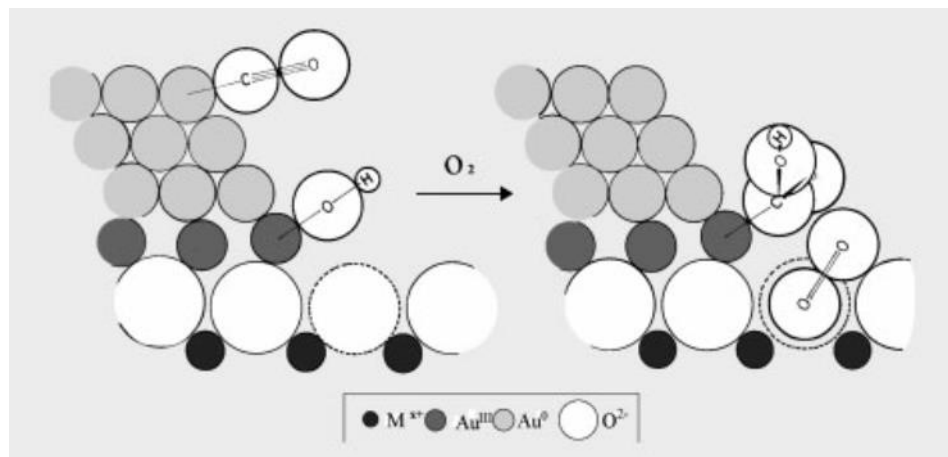


Figure 1.18 Mechanism as proposed by Bond and Thompson of co-oxidation on supported gold catalysts⁶⁰.

Chapter 2.

Characterization Techniques

The different experimental procedures utilized over the course of the present work are discussed in this chapter.

2.1 Introduction

The work presented in this chapter lays emphasis on the study of gold nanoparticles by using various techniques such as UV-visible Spectroscopy, X-ray Diffraction (XRD), Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM), Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM), ICP Mass Spectrometry, X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS), Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy (NMR) and Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR).

This chapter is devoted to explaining the basic principles of the different techniques used for the characterization.

2.2 UV-Vis spectroscopy

UV-visible spectroscopy is a powerful tool for the characterization of colloidal particles⁶¹.

Many molecules are transparent in portions of the electromagnetic spectrum called visible and ultraviolet regions (VIS) radiation (UV), in the wavelength range of 200 nm to 800 nm. When continuous radiation passes through a material part of the radiation can be absorbed, if this occurs, the residual radiation passing through the prism leaves gaps spectrum, called absorption spectrum. As a result, of the absorption energy of atoms or molecules move from a low energy state (ground state) to an (excited state) higher energy state.

Differences between electronic energy levels of the molecules varies from 125 to 650 kJ / mol.⁶²

When a spherical metal nanoparticle is irradiated by light, the oscillating electric field causes consistent oscillation of the electrons as shown in

Figure 2.1.

The oscillation frequency is controlled by four elements:

1. The density of electrons,
2. the effective mass of the electrons
3. The shape
4. The size of the charge distribution ⁶³.

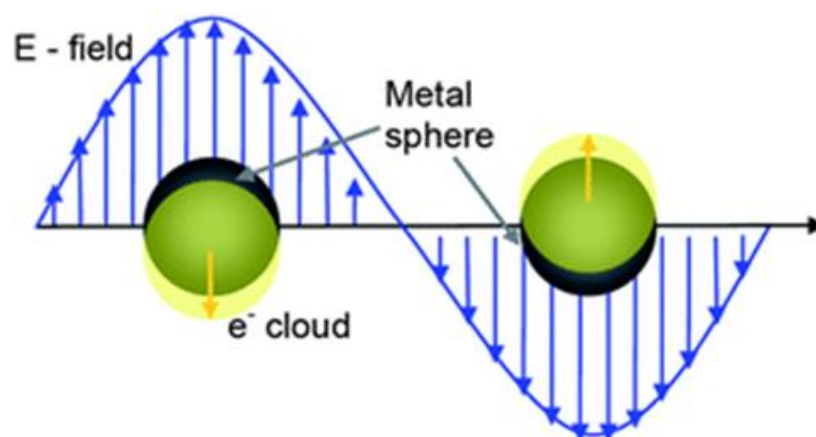


Figure 2.1 Plasmon oscillation of a sphere Scheme, showing the displacement of the electron cloud on the cores.

In the work described in this thesis, the measurements were done on Hewlett-Packard diode array spectrophotometer (model HP-8452) operated at a resolution of 2 nm.

2.3 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

We now know that X-rays are electromagnetic radiation found in a portion of the spectrum between ultraviolet and gamma rays, and occur when a beam of electrons accelerated by a high voltage (a few tens of kilovolts), strikes a metal target.

When a beam of X-rays incident on a crystalline material, the electrons of the atoms constituting the solid oscillate with the same frequency as the incident radiation. Each of these electrons will be considered as a separate oscillator, its amplitude is very low when compared with the incident wave but all these coherent sources interfere with each other to give a resultant wave corresponding to the atom.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected on a Bruker D8 Advanced A25 diffractometer equipped with a Cu X-ray tube (Cu-K α ; $\lambda = 0.15418$ nm) operated at 40 kV and 40 mA in the Bragg–Brentano geometry using a linear position-sensitive detector with an opening of 2.9°. The diffractometer was configured with a 0.44° divergence slit, a 2.9° anti-scatter slit, 2.5° Soller slits, and a nickel filter to attenuate contributions from Cu-K β fluorescence. Data sets were acquired in continuous scanning mode over the 2 θ range of 10–80°. The XRD data were analyzed using the Rietveld method with the fundamental parameters approach, as implemented in the software TOPAS V4.2 (Bruker-AXS) ⁶⁴.

2.4 The Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM)

The scanning electron microscope instrument (SEM) is an instrument that permits to investigate the surface morphology and topography of both inorganic and organic materials. It is capable of providing morphological data of the investigated material with spatial resolution of about one nanometer⁶⁵.

When the sample is bombarded with electrons, electron beam propagation within it is mainly due to the multiple collisions experienced by electrons with atoms of the sample while losing their energy. Some of these are elastic collisions, and in such cases, the electron beam passed through the sample without significant loss of energy. However, most collisions are inelastic, so that the distribution of emitted electrons have a very large peak in the region of energies of 0-50 eV⁶⁶.

The collisions of electron beam with atom electrons result in the electron emission from the sample. When an electron from an inner shell of the atom is removed by a high-energy electron beam, the atom can return to ground state, by two different ways: an electron from the upper layers can fill the gap in the inner layer emitting a photon, or other electron emitting an upper layer. Photon emission produces a characteristic X-ray spectrum while the electrons emitted are known as Auger electron. Both effects are very important in the microstructural analysis because their energies are characteristic of the elements that issued them. Therefore, measurement of these energies allow the elemental analysis of the sample and measuring the emission intensity gives a quantitative chemical analysis⁶⁶. The actual content of Au was determined by EDS on a scanning electron microscope (FEI Nova NanoSEM) with microanalysis system model EDAX.

2.5 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

As mentioned above, the size of the deposited particles is of great importance for a material with a good catalytic performance. To find the average particle size observations Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of the catalysts were performed. The transmission electron microscope basically consists of an electron gun, condenser lens, objective lens, intermediate lens and projecting lens. The electron gun is the only electrostatic lens having a microscope and the others are electromagnetic lenses. It means that the magnetic field in the center of the TEM column is produced by applying an electron current to the copper coils. It is pertinent to note that the magnetic field exists only in the location of coils.

When the electron beam of a typical energy of 300 keV interacts with a thin (< 500 nm) sample several types of signals are produced. It allows us to make the elemental and structural characterization. Just to briefly mention that the produced signals include elastic, back-scattered, absorbed secondary electrons, Auger, and characteristic X-rays.

The electrons passing through the sample can be classified into two main types; i.e. those going through the sample without being diverted from their incident direction and are called the direct electrons. There is another type that is diverted from their direction of incidence. If the energy of diverted electrons is the same as the incident electron, then these are called diffracted electrons. On the other hand, if their energy is not the same, then these are called energy-loss electrons. The diffracted electrons combined with direct electrons give rise to the conventional TEM techniques such as bright-field TEM (BF-TEM), dark-field TEM (DF-TEM), and selected area electron diffraction (SAED). The

energy loss electrons give rise to TEM techniques such as electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) and energy-filtered TEM (EF-TEM). The EFTEM technique is important to make the elemental maps of samples by using a TEM. The detection of characteristic x-rays in a TEM leads to energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) technique and is very useful in identifying the presence of elements in the samples.

It is important to note that the TEM images suffer from lens aberrations and the spherical aberration is the largest contributor to these aberrations. This is why the latest TEM instruments are equipped with spherical aberration correctors and are called Cs-correctors.

TEM imaging samples were prepared by drop casting the as-prepared gold nanoparticles solution over a 150-mesh Formvar-coated copper grid. TEM imaging was done using an FEI Titan G2 80-300 CT electron microscope, equipped with a charge-coupled device (CCD) camera (model US4000) from Gatan, Inc. The particle size distribution of the gold nanoparticles was determined by calculating the size of at least 200 nanoparticles from the bright field (BF)-TEM electron micrographs using Image J software. The presence of a ligand around the NP was investigated in two steps. The first step included the acquisition of a BF-TEM micrograph from a region of the specimen to allow a view of the ligand as a shell around the AuNP. Second, an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) spectrum from the same region was acquired in order to show the presence of sodium through the demonstration of a Na-K peak at 1.04 keV in the spectrum. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) analysis of the samples was performed by using an aberration-corrected FEI TEM (model Titan G2 60-300 ST) equipped with an Image-Corrector from CEOS. The image corrector was aligned to reduce the spherical

aberration coefficient (Cs) of the objective lens to about $-2 \mu\text{m}$ prior to the acquisition of aberration-corrected electron micrographs containing the AuNP.

There are a couple of TEM instruments were employed to analyze the samples. These both instruments are from FEI Company (Hillsboro, OR). The model of the instruments are Titan 80-300 CT and Titan 60-300 ST. The latter instrument was also equipped a spherical aberration corrector. The point resolutions of these instruments were 0.24 nm and 0.08 nm, respectively and both of them were equipped with EDS detectors from EDAX. Moreover the both instrument were also capable of allowing having a scanning TEM (STEM) analysis of samples.

2.6 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis

ICP can be performed on solid and liquid samples to calculate the quantitative and subjective information of various metals and non-metals and trace unknowns. The Procedure for the ICP is the following:

1. Select the mass of the sample for proper digestion depending on the type of matrix, analytic levels
2. Detection method to be used
3. Weigh each sample (analytical samples and controls)
4. Record all mass transfer in the sample vessels
5. Select acid (s) for digestion based on the matrix and vessels
6. Transfer the sample vessels containing the samples
7. Added record numbers of each acid.

In my case i used 1: 3 HCl: HNO₃. Select the microwave digestion program. Quantitatively transfer each cooled digest to appropriately labeled plastic bottle and diluted as appropriate to the detection technique; labels, volume or mass and reagents used for dilution. Data interpretation ICP-MS analysis is straightforward. Its result is reported as a concentration in mg / L, which can be easy, converted into the mass concentration.

Elemental analyzes of Au, B and Na were conducted by inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) using a Thermo iCap 6500. Before analysis, 15 mg of the sample was decomposed by an acid mixture of nitric acid and hydrochloric acid (under pressure and high temperature).

2.7 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy known as XPS has been developed from the fifties by professor K. Siegbahn for which he was awarded the Physics Nobel Prize in 1981.

In XPS, a X-ray beam irradiates the sample and ejects core-level electrons from sample atoms. The kinetic energy of the ejected electrons from the top 1 to 10 nm of the material is analyzed. The binding energy of electrons can be determined as below:

$$E_{\text{binding}} = E_{\text{photon}} - E_{\text{kinetic}} - \Phi_{\text{spectrometer}}$$

Where E_{binding} is the binding energy of the electron, E_{photon} is the energy of the X-ray photons, E_{kinetic} is the measured kinetic energy of the emitted electron and $\Phi_{\text{spectrometer}}$ is the work function of the spectrometer.

The binding energy provides information on sample elemental composition, as well as on chemical and electronic state of the elements in the sample.

From the XPS spectra, the quantification of the elements can be calculated from the ratio of integrated peak areas normalized by respective sensitivity factors.

XPS studies were carried out in a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD spectrometer equipped with a monochromatic Al K α X-ray source ($h\nu=1486.6$ eV) operating at 75 W, a multichannel plate and delay line detector under a vacuum of $\sim 10^{-9}$ mbar. The survey and high-resolution spectra were collected at fixed analyzer pass energies of 160 eV and 20 eV, respectively. Binding energies were referenced to the C 1s binding energy of adventitious carbon contamination which was taken to be 284.8 eV. The data were analyzed with commercially available software, CASAXPS. The metallic peaks were fitted with an asymmetric hybrid Doniach-Sunjic function.

convoluted with a Gaussian/Lorentzian product while non-metallic peaks were fitted with mixed Gaussian (70%)–Lorentzian (30%) (GL30) function after a Shirley-type background subtraction. The sample for XPS was filtered three times using a 3-kDa cutoff centrifugation filter to remove any excess free ions or stabilizers.⁶⁷

2.8 Concepts and techniques in solid-state Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)

Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR) is the powerful analytical tool that provides greater information in physical, chemical, and biological properties of matter. This technique is non-destructive and has finds applications in several areas of science. Simple one-dimensional techniques NMR can be routinely used by chemists to study chemical structure. Two-dimensional techniques can be also used to determine the structure of more complicated molecules.

The key parts of NMR spectrometers are persistent superconducting magnets to generate the magnetic and a coil of wire through which a current passes generating another magnetic field and a computerized system that governs the entire apparatus which includes an amplification system and registry.

2.8.1 Fundamental of NMR

2.8.1.1 Magnetic properties of the nucleus: nuclear spin

Spin is an intrinsic quantum property of all nucleuses and is determined by the unpaired number of elementary particles (neutrons and protons) that form. The overall spin of the nucleus is determined by the spin quantum number I . If the numbers of both the protons and neutrons are even then $I = 0$. For nuclei with an odd number of neutrons and protons generally have a quantum number of nonzero integer spin ($I = 1/2, 2/3, 3/5, \dots$). Within this last group of nuclei, nuclei are chemically important as ^1H , ^{13}C , ^{15}N , ^{19}F and ^{31}P having an equal number of spin $1/2$.

2.8.1.2 Spin precession in the magnetic field

The magnetic moment associated with an electron orbit is defined as;

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \gamma \mathbf{L} \quad (1)$$

Where L is the angular momentum of the electron and the gyromagnetic ratio is γ . As shown in figure 2 atom in a magnetic field, B , has the energy, E , given by

$$E = -\boldsymbol{\mu} \cdot \mathbf{B} = \mu B \cos \theta \quad (2)$$

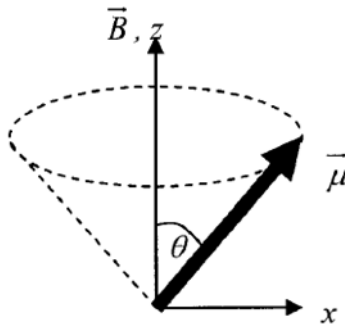


Figure 2. 2 Nuclear spin precession under an external magnetic field, B .

The spin precession around the magnetic field applied to the Larmor frequency, ω_L , given by,

$$\omega_L = \gamma B \quad (3)$$

2.8.1.3 The Zeeman interaction

In the presence of magnetic field the energy of a nucleus split and has a minimum when its magnetic moment is parallel to the magnetic field where it has maximum when it is anti-parallel to the magnetic field. For a $I=1/2$ the splitting so-called Zeeman effect and $2I+1$ possible orientation is produced as shown in **Figure 2.3**.

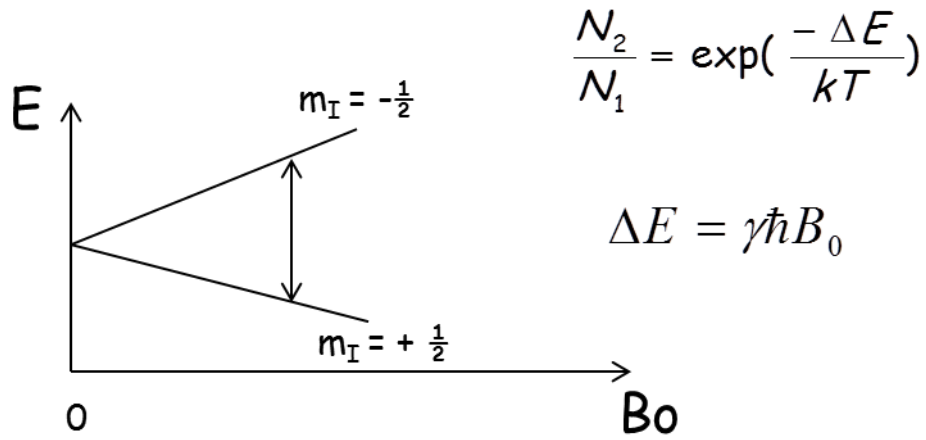


Figure 2.3 Splitting of the energy levels $I = 1/2$ and $I = -1/2$ the presence of an applied magnetic field B_0 .

The energy ($\Delta E = \gamma\hbar B_0$) in the range of radio frequencies can be detected between levels which allows us to measure the NMR parameters.

2.8.1.4 Transitions: applying a second magnetic RF- B_1 (pulse) perpendicular to B_0

When the sample is placed under the magnetic field B_0 applied to z axis **Figure 2. 4**, magnetic moment of the sample start to precess with Larmor frequency along the z axis. When a radio frequency (RF) pulse B_1 close to Larmor frequency is applied to the x axis through the solenoid coil the magnetization rotate from the z to x axis. Once the RF is turned

off the rotated magnetic moment begin relaxed to the equilibrium state and turn back to z axis. And produce free induction decay (FID) as shown in **Figure 2.5**. An FID is a superposition of several FIDs corresponding to spin in different chemical environment. Finally the Fourier transformation will transform the FID into the frequency scale in the usual NMR spectra.

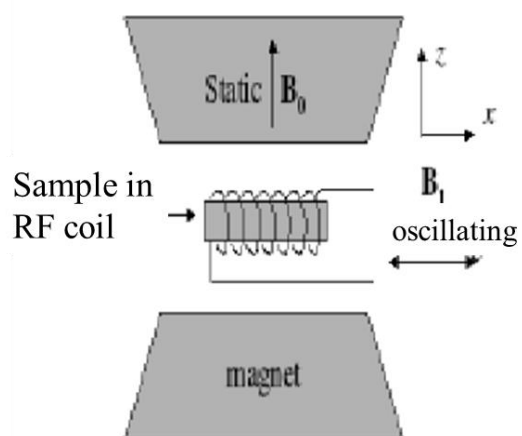


Figure 2. 4 The schematic diagram of NMR spectroscopy.

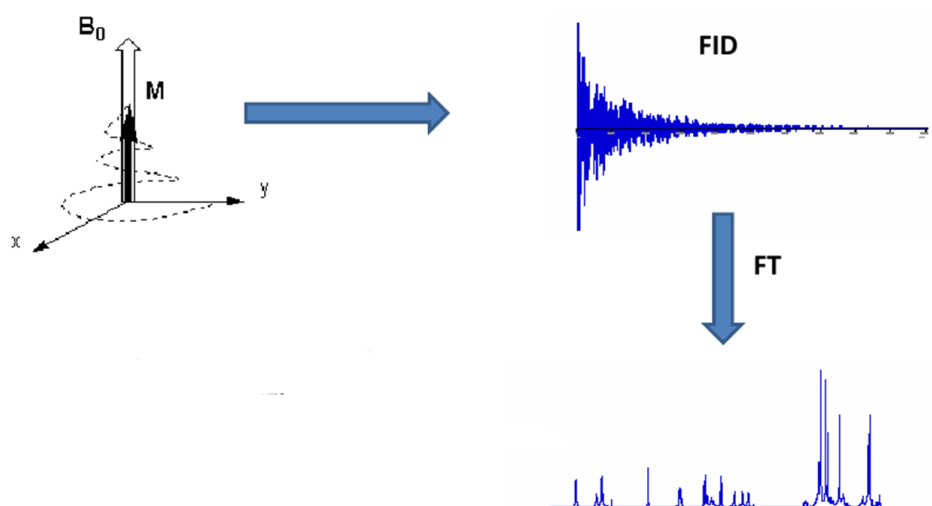


Figure 2.5 Free induction decay (FID) and Fourier transformation of FID of NMR signal.

2.8.1.5 Chemical shift

The chemical shift depends on many factors, but the most important and significant are the electron density of the environment **Figure 2. 6**. It helps distinguish spins that lie within different chemical groups, such as the ^{13}C nuclei of aromatic groups, CH_3 , CH_2 COOH .

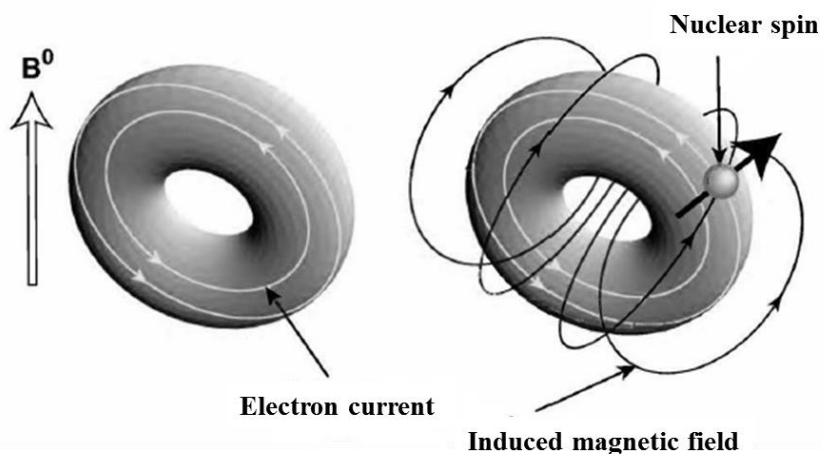


Figure 2. 6 A mechanism that produces the chemical shift. Figure obtained from ref⁶⁸.

The chemical shift cannot be compared with results from different teams because it depends on the properties of the magnetic field. For these reasons, the chemical shift is defined in terms of the difference of resonance between the core nucleus of interest and a reference. Therefore, it is convenient to express the chemical shift, δ , by comparing the Larmor frequency of the atom of interest to that of a reference atom, as shown in the equation:

$$\delta = \frac{\omega_L - \omega_L^{Ref}}{\omega_L^{Ref}}$$

Where ω_L is the Larmor frequency in a sample and ω^{Ref} in the reference sample under the same magnetic field. Usually tetramethylsilane is used as reference sample for ^1H and ^{13}C .

2.8.1.6 Nuclear magnetic resonance Magic Angle Spinning MAS

To obtain a well resolved spectrum for solid samples, technique as magic angle spinning was introduced. As outlined in **Figure 2.7**. The angle between the vector connecting the spins and the applied magnetic field so-called magic angle is equal to 54.74° . By the mechanical rotation of the sample with the magic angle, the molecule feel like they are isolated without coupling as in liquid state, resulting a very well resolved signals.

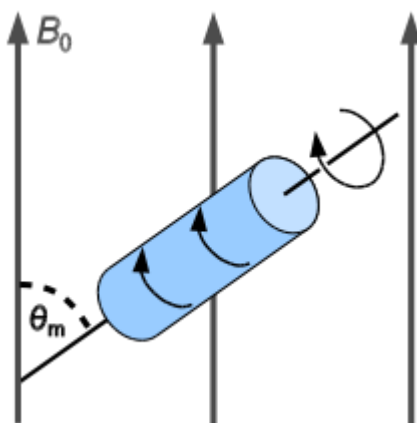


Figure 2.7 Magic Angle Spinning (MAS) NMR technique.

2.8.1.7 Cross Polarization (CP)

The low natural abundance and the long relaxation times of the nucleus make a long time of wait between acquisitions implies that the signal is very poor. Both problems can be solved using the MAS technique combined with the cross-polarization (CPMAS) sequence as shown in **Figure 2. 8** . The abundant nucleus is excited, and its energy is then transferred to the observed nucleus. So that for instance for the polarization transfer from a ^1H to a ^{13}C .

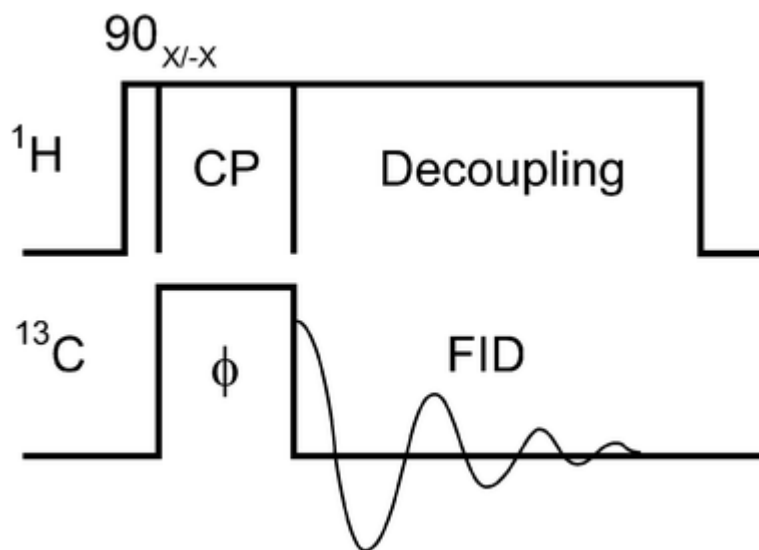


Figure 2. 8 Scheme of the pulse sequence employed for CPMAS experiments.

One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS solid-state NMR spectra at room temperature were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE III spectrometer operating at 400MHz resonance frequency for ^1H with a conventional double resonance 4 mm MAS probe. For the 100K experiment at 400 MHz, a Bruker low temperature 3.2 mm double resonance probe was employed. The spinning frequency was set to 10 kHz. ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts are reported with respect to TMS as an external reference. The following sequence was used: 90° pulse on the proton (pulse length 2.4 μs), then a cross-polarization step with contact time of 2 ms, and finally acquisition of the ^{13}C signals under high-power proton decoupling. The delay between the scans was set to 5 s, to allow for the complete relaxation of the ^1H nuclei, and the number of scans collected varied between 50 000 and 100 000 at room temperature and 1024 scans at 100K. An exponential apodization function corresponding to a line broadening of 80 Hz was applied prior to Fourier transformation.

The 2D ^1H - ^{13}C heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) solid state NMR spectroscopy experiments at 100 K were conducted using a low temperature 3.2 mm MAS probe. The experiments were performed according to the following scheme: 90° proton pulse, t_1 evolution period, CP to ^{13}C and detection of the ^{13}C magnetization under TPPM decoupling. For the cross-polarization step, a ramped radio frequency (RF) field centered at 75 kHz was applied to the proton while the ^{13}C channel RF field was matched to obtain an optimal signal. A total of 64 t_1 increments with 512 scans each was collected and 8 ms contact time. During t_1 , e -DUMBO-1 homonuclear ^1H decoupling was applied and proton chemical shift was corrected by applying a scaling factor of 0.57.

1D ^{23}Na MAS solid state NMR spectra at room temperature were recorded on a Bruker AVANCE III spectrometer operating at 900MHz resonance frequency for ^1H with a conventional double resonance 3.2 mm MAS probe with a spinning frequency of 18 kHz and repetition delay of 1s.

2.9 Infrared Spectroscopy Fourier Transforms (FTIR)

Infrared spectroscopy is based on the absorption of infrared radiation by the material being analyzed. The analysis is performed using a Fourier Transform Spectrometer (FTIR) on the sample sending infrared radiation and measuring the wavelengths and intensities at which the material absorbs. An IR spectrometer is comprised of:

- The radiation source that contains two beams. A beam path of a fixed optical path (reference beam) and the other optical path of a variable wavelength (sample beam).

- The detector compares the intensity of the reference and sample segments for each frequency and outputs a transmission spectrum (%) or absorbance (A).

IR spectra of the samples were recorded using an FTIR spectrometer (Perkin Elmer Spectrum 100) with a mid-infrared deuterated triglycine sulfate (MIR- DTGS) detector. The spectra were obtained at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in the range of $4000\text{--}650\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and with the accumulation of 32 scans.

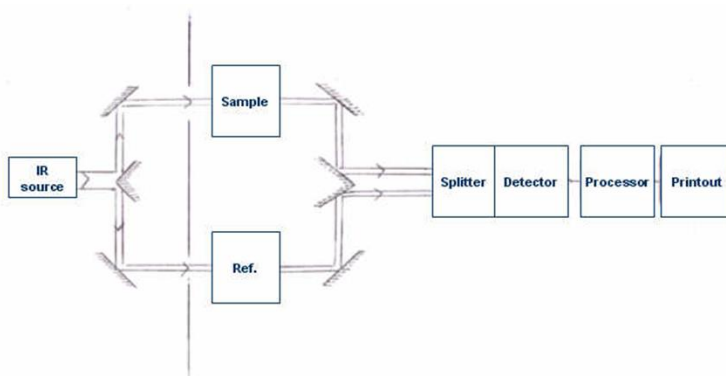


Figure 2.9 Operation infrared spectrometer schema.

Chapter 3.

Control The Size of Gold Nanoparticles By Using Carboxylic Ligands As Stabilizer

The use of citrate as a stabilizer on the gold nanoparticles preparation is known from 60 years ago. However, understanding the role of the stabilizer on the formation of nanoparticles remains an unsolved challenge. In this chapter, in order to understand their role in the stabilization and the size control of Au nanoparticles, we have prepared gold nanoparticles with different carboxylate ligand. These particles were obtained by treatment of HAuCl_4 with different carboxylate ligands as stabilizer agents and sodium borohydride as a reducer in order to obtain highly stable metal nanoparticles.

3.1 Introduction

Gold nanoparticles were considered highly interesting in a wide variety of fundamental research and technical applications because of their exceptional optical, electric and catalytic properties⁶⁹. The fundamental work by Haruta⁷⁰ exhibited that diminishing the size of gold nanoparticles expanded their activity in CO oxidation⁷¹. Since the researchers started with a report on the preparation of gold nanoparticles by reducing tetra chloroauric acid (HAuCl₄) in aqueous solution⁷² incredible exertion has been dedicated to controlling the size and shape of the gold nanoparticles^{15, 73}. Earlier this exertion focus on tuning the size of gold particles reported by Frens¹⁵. He was varying the ratio of the reductant (sodium citrate) and HAuCl₄. In the investigations that followed, a range of reductants has been used to obtain different sized gold nanoparticles by reduction of HAuCl₄. For example, such that sodium borohydride⁷⁴, hydroxylamine⁷⁵, ascorbic^{76,27,28} and some biomolecules⁷⁷.

However, the Citrate-based reduction is now one of the most common methods for routinely synthesizing monodisperse gold nanoparticles (AuNP) for a wide-range of applications⁷⁸. The use of citrate as a stabilizer is not restricted to gold or other metals⁷⁹ but includes a wide range of materials⁸⁰. Despite widespread use of gold nanoparticles, apart from the knowledge of their ability to render the region surrounding the Au particle negatively charged because of the anionic carboxylate groups.

In this work, we investigated the effect of carboxylic ligand ions on the size of the gold nanoparticles. It was found that the size of the gold nanoparticles could be tuned by changing the type of carboxylic ions and their concentration in the reaction system.

We achieve this by combining Ultraviolet–Visible Spectroscopy, Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) and High-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HRTEM).

3.2 Experimental details

3.2.1 Materials

All chemicals were reagent grade, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and were used without further purification: Tetrachloroaurate trihydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$); Trisodium citrate dihydrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), Isocitric Acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$), Citric Acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$), Trimesic acid ($\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$), disodium succinate ($\text{Na}_2\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$), Phthalic acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COOH})_2$), Disodium glutarate ($\text{Na}_2\text{C}_5\text{H}_6\text{O}_4$), Tartaric acid ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$), Sodium acetate (NaCH_3COO), Acetic acid ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$) And Formic acid (CH_2O_2) were used as stabilizers and sodium borohydride (NaBH_4) was used as a reducing agent. All reactions were done in aqueous media using deionized water (Millipore Milli-Q system, 18.2 M Ω -cm). All glassware was treated with aqua-regia (3:1, HCl/HNO_3) during washing.

3.2.2 Preparation of gold nanoparticles

100 mL of 0.1 M aqueous stock solutions of trisodium citrate, Isocitric acid, Citric acid, Trimesic acid, disodium succinate, Phthalic acid, Disodium glutarate, Tartaric acid, Sodium acetate, Acetic acid, Formic acid (CH_2O_2) and chloroauric acid were prepared separately by dissolving the required amount of $\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$, $\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{Na}_2\text{O}_4$, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COOH})_2$, $\text{Na}_2\text{C}_5\text{H}_6\text{O}_4$, $\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$, NaCH_3COO , $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$, CH_2O_2 and $\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, respectively in water. The 0.25 mL of the chloroauric acid stock

solution was placed in separate 100 mL round bottom flasks equipped with a stir bar to which the required amount of the ligands stock solution was added to reach the desired ligands: Au molar ratio between 0.2:1 to 30:1. Necessary amounts of water were then added so that the reaction mixture volume measured 50 mL. Within approximately 2 min, 3 mL of freshly prepared 0.1 M (10 equivalent) aqueous sodium borohydride solution was added and the resultant solution was maintained under stirring conditions (600 rpm) for 1 hour. The final concentration of gold chloride in all of the reaction mixtures was 5×10^{-4} M. Stable solutions were obtained for all reactions with the exception of ligands: Au ratio of 30:1, where spontaneous precipitation was observed: After the addition of the equivalent amount of ligand (20:1 ratio) slow precipitation was observed over an extended period of time.

The capping and stabilizing by the Carboxylates is achieved through charge stabilization mechanism showed below **Figure 3.1**.

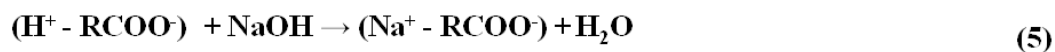
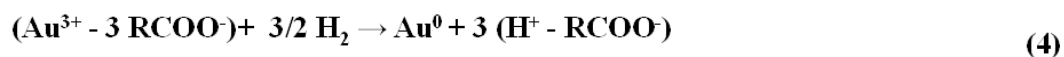
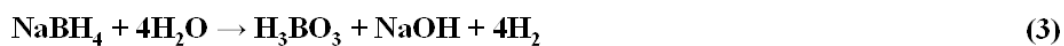
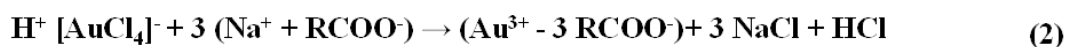
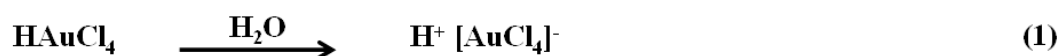


Figure 3.1 Proposed stabilization Mechanism of gold nanoparticles

3.2.3 Methods of characterization

The results of each freshly prepared Au NPs suspension treated by analytical techniques such as UV-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis), Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) measurements and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) are presented in the results and discussion sections.

3.3 Results and discussion

3.3.1 UV-Vis spectral analysis of gold colloidal suspension

Gold nanoparticles exhibit a distinct optical feature commonly referred to as Localized Surface Plasmon Resonance (LSPR), that is, the collective oscillation of electrons in the conduction band of gold nanoparticles in resonance with a specific wavelength of incident light. LSPR of gold nanoparticles results in a strong absorbance band in the visible region (500 nm-600 nm), which can be measured by UV-Vis spectroscopy.

The LSPR spectrum is dependent both on the size and shape of gold nanoparticles. The peak absorbance wavelength increases with particle diameter. UV-VIS measurements can also be used to evaluate the functionalization of gold nanoparticles. Upon binding of ligands to the gold nanoparticle surface, the LSPR spectrum will red-shift by a few nanometers.

In order to study the effect of the ligands structure and concentration on the gold nanoparticles sizes, UV-Visible spectra of gold colloids prepared with different types of

carboxylate stabilizer (tri, di and mono) for [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [Stabilizer: Au] ratio were collected.

The gold nanoparticle solutions synthesized with different tricarboxylate ligands (trisodium citrate, citric acid, isocitric acid and trimesic acid) Au ratios from 0.2:1 to 10:1, exhibited a localized surface plasmon resonance peak (λ_{\max}) at ca. 520 nm, confirming the total reduction of HAuCl_4 and the presence of gold nanoparticles. This peak is strong size-dependent and shifts to a longer wavelength with increasing the size of gold nanoparticles^{69b}. However, the size distribution of gold nanoparticles has a significant effect on the width of the peak: wider peak represents wider size distribution of nanoparticles. By comparing the different tricarboxylic ligand **Figure 3.2**, sodium citrate and isocitric acid give the smaller nanoparticles and the best size distribution (sharp peak at 520 nm). However, by increasing the ratio (5:1 and 10:1), all the ligands show a large distribution (wider peak) and big size nanoparticles (shift to the highest value).

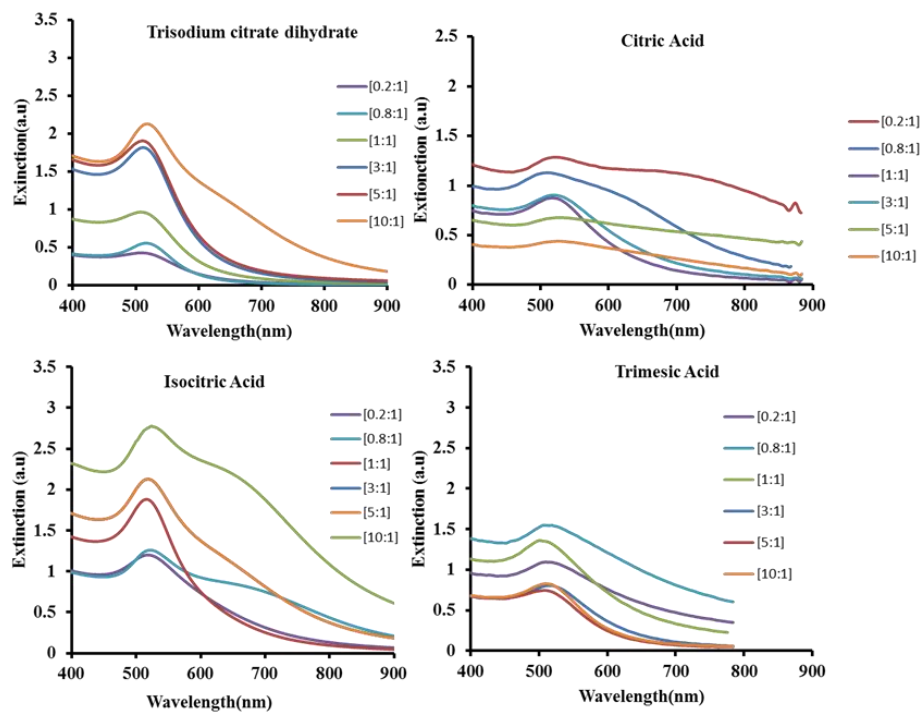


Figure 3.2 UV- Visible spectrum of gold colloid suspensions as a function of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [tri-carboxylic acid (trisodium citrate, citric acid, isocitric acid and trimesic acid): Au].

Figure 3.3 shows the UV-vis spectra of Dicarboxylic ligand (disodium succinate, phthalic acid, sodium glutarate and tartaric acid) with different stabilizer: Au ratio. The results show a very similar behavior in all the spectra: relatively small nanoparticles for the size between 0.2 and 1 and a larger one for the higher ratio (shift to the red zone).

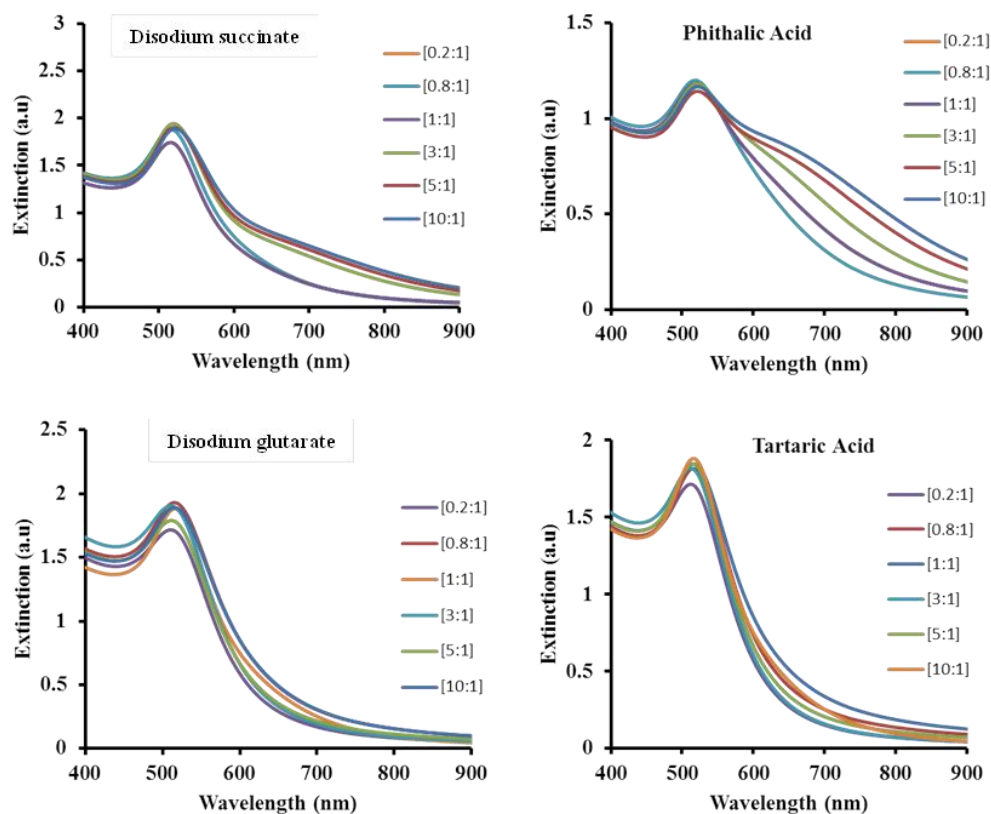


Figure 3.3 Visible spectrum of gold colloid suspensions as a function of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [Di carboxylic acid (sodium succinate, phthalic acid, sodium glutarate and tartaric acid): Au].

In **Figure 3.4**, by varying the mono-carboxylic ligand (acetic acid, sodium acetate and formic acid) to Au ratio, we observe that the acetic acid gives the larger distribution with the higher size. As the results below, the more ligand we add, the bigger size of gold particles thus formed and larger is the distribution.

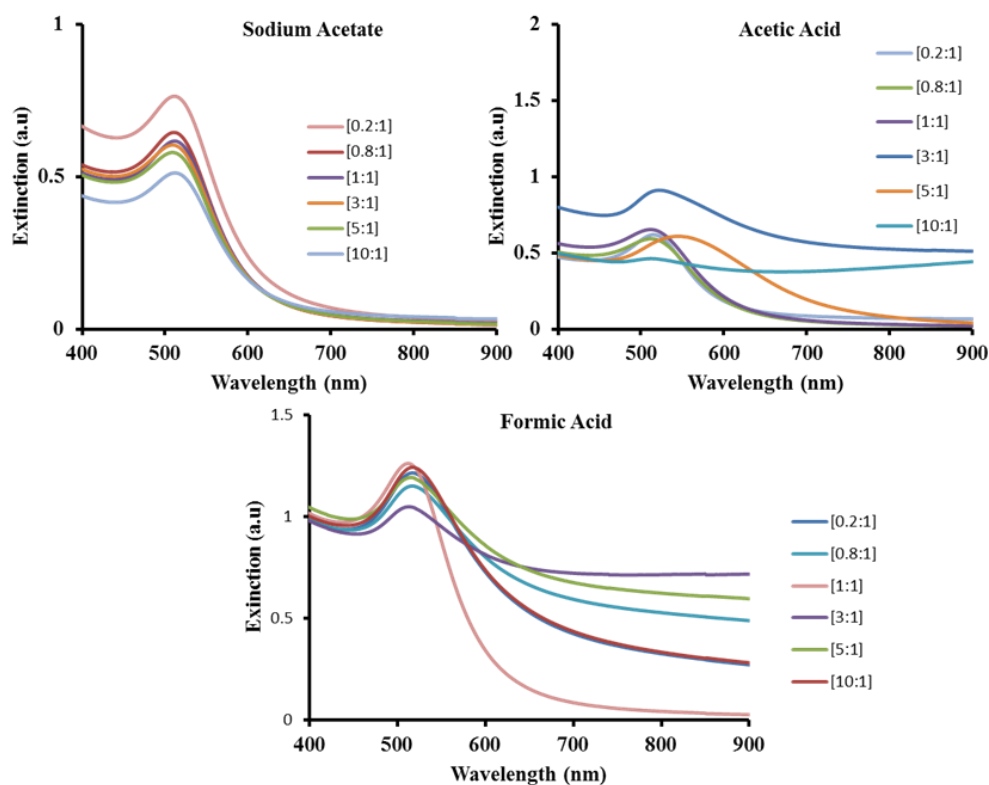


Figure 3.4 Visible spectrum of gold colloid suspensions as a function of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [Mono carboxylic acid (acetic acid, sodium acetate and formic acid): Au].

The color of colloidal dispersions of gold particles with all the ligands (Mono-, Di- and Tricarboxylate) in water varies from red, purple to clear color, depending upon the shape and size of particles. The color and optical properties of gold nanoparticles originate from localized surface plasmon and are sensitive to their local dielectric environment. With the increase in particle size, the absorption band shifts to longer wavelengths. When the gold sol is partially coagulated the color becomes purple to clear color.

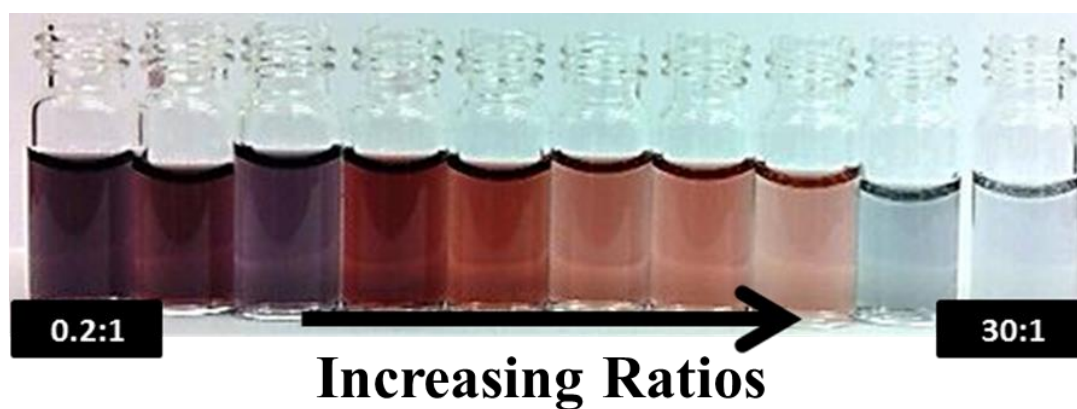


Figure 3.5 The color of the suspension varies from red to no color (light scattering by particles in a colloid or particles in a fine suspension) for the bigger ones (high ratio). These are respectively pink and red for the small particles suspensions.

From the figure above, Unaggregated gold nanoparticles will have a red color in solution as seen in the picture above. If the particles aggregate, the solution will appear blue/purple and can progress to a clear solution with black precipitates.

The surrounding environment is usually the surfactant with great importance as it prevents the particles from aggregating. This paragraph was detailed later in this Chapter.

In accordance with Lorenz-Mie-Debye theory for an arbitrary size of the particle, the surface plasmon resonance of the gold particles is redshifted with increasing of particle size **Figure 3.6**,

Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8 ^{61a, 81}.

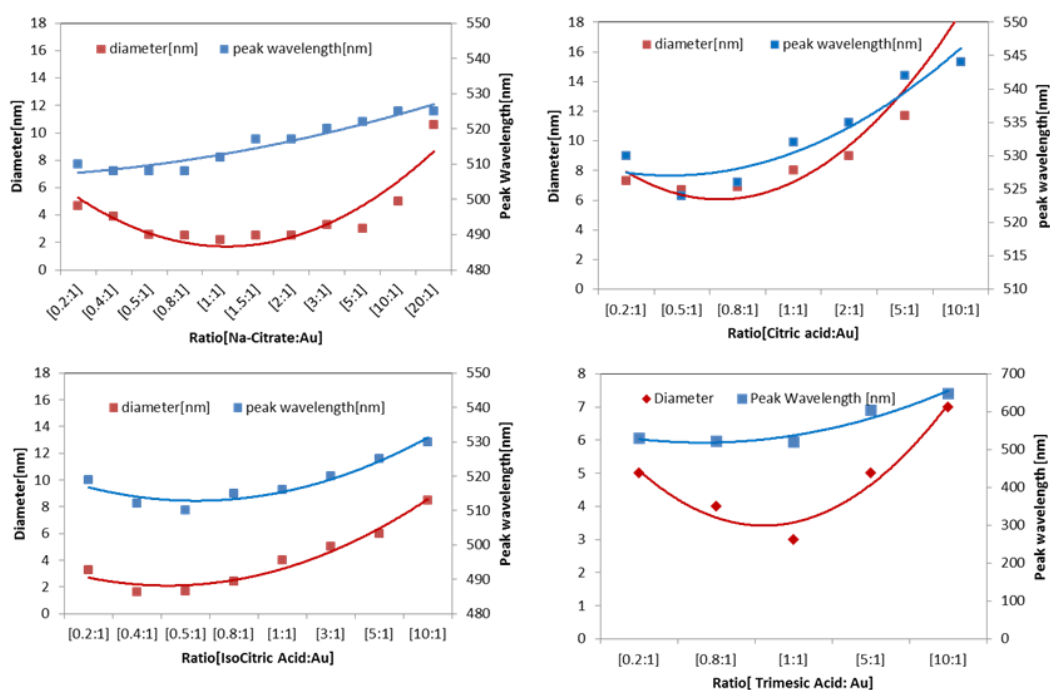


Figure 3.6 The absorption spectra of Gold nanoparticles (UV-Visible) and the diameters (TEM) ranging from 2 - 10 nm of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [tri carboxylic acid (trisodium citrate, citric acid, isocitric acid and trimesic acid): Au].

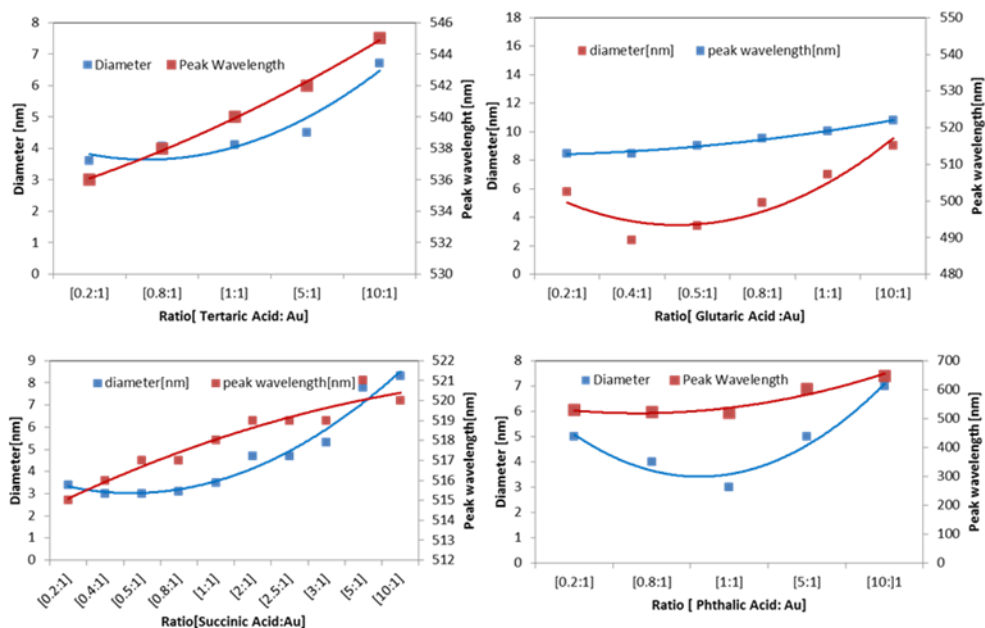


Figure 3.7 The absorption spectra of Gold nanoparticles (UV-Visible) and the diameters (TEM) ranging from 2 - 10 nm of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [Di carboxylic acid (succinic acid, phthalic acid, sodium glutarate and tartaric acid): Au].

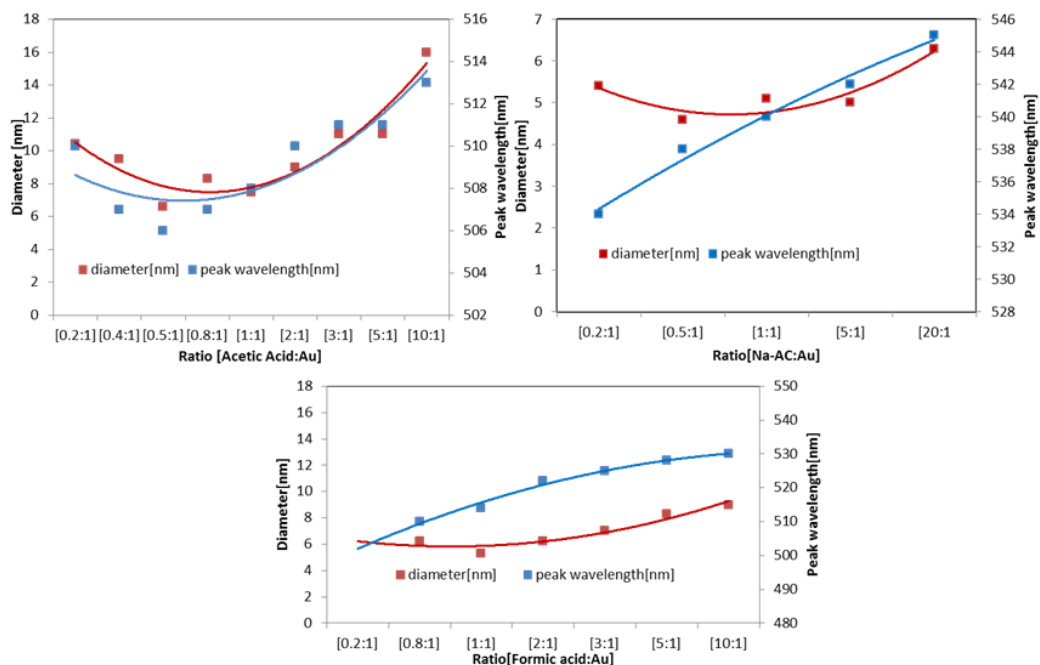


Figure 3.8 The absorption spectra of Gold nanoparticles (UV-Visible) and the diameters (TEM) ranging from 2 - 10 nm of [0.2:1], [0.8:1], [1:1], [3:1], [5:1] and [10:1] = [Mono carboxylic acid (acetic acid, sodium acetate and formic acid): Au].

We have extracted the wavelength at the maximum absorbance peak for NPs diameter ranging from 3 up to 16 nm diameter and displayed results in **Figure 3.6**,

Figure 3.7 and **Figure 3.8**.

Results show that;

- The absorbance increases quite linearly with the size of NPs (below 6nm diameter).
- The peaks shifted to red with simultaneous broadening as the particle size and elongation increased.

In addition, the intensity of the absorbance in the 600–800 nm window gradually increased with the increased stabilizer ratios, possibly due to the increased polydispersity and/or anisotropic shape of the particles.

3.3.2 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis of gold colloidal suspension

TEM has been one of the most used techniques to estimate the gold nanoparticle size. TEM was used to observe the changes in the particle size of Au with change the ratio of the stabilizer. TEM images and size distribution histograms for the metallic AuNPs@ Sodium Citrate are illustrated in **Figure 3.9**. TEM observations show very well dispersed nanoparticles at a low ratio with some aggregation for the higher one (5:1 and 10:1). The average particle sizes for the AuNPs were 4.7, 2.5, 2.2, 3.3, 3 and 5 nm, with Sodium Citrate/Au ratio of 0.2:1, 0.8:1, 1:1, 3:1, 5:1, and 10:1 respectively. Indicating that smaller Au nanoparticles size was obtained for the 1:1 ratio.

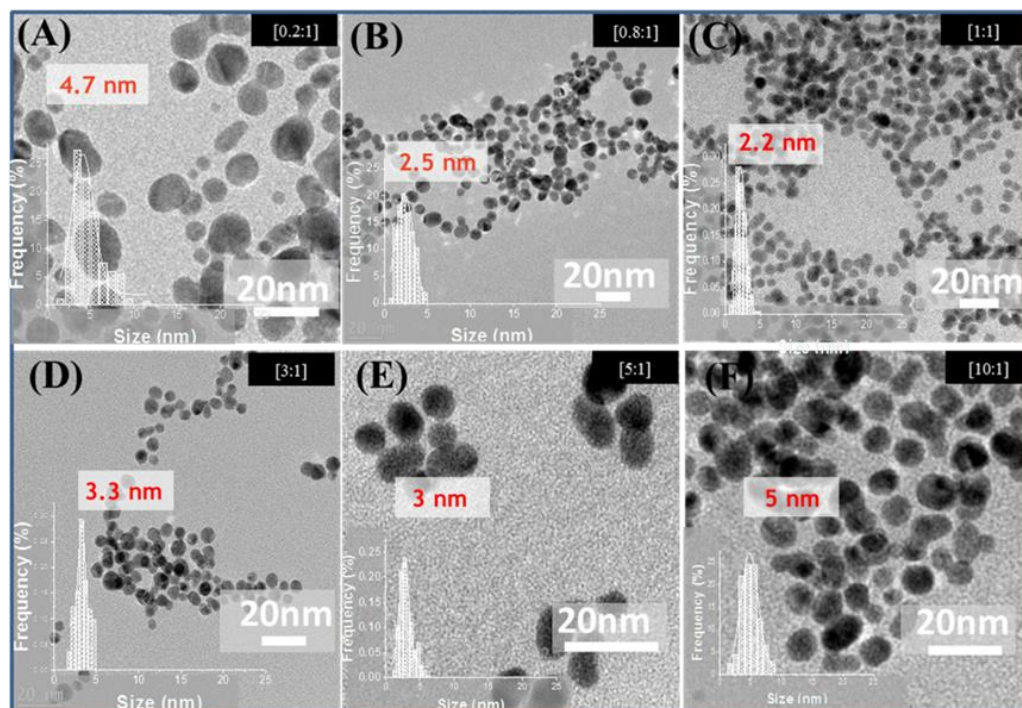


Figure 3.9 TEM images of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Sodium Citrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) Sodium Citrate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F)[10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

The same study was repeated in the acidic form of citrate which is citric acid **Figure 3.10**. The TEM images of gold nanoparticles synthesized with citric acid show a relatively bigger size comparing to the sodium citrate, 7 nm at 1:1 ratio to 2.2 nm in the case of sodium citrate. It can be seen that at high concentration of stabilizer, and also at low concentration, a broad particle size distribution with agglomerated fine nanoparticles are observed.

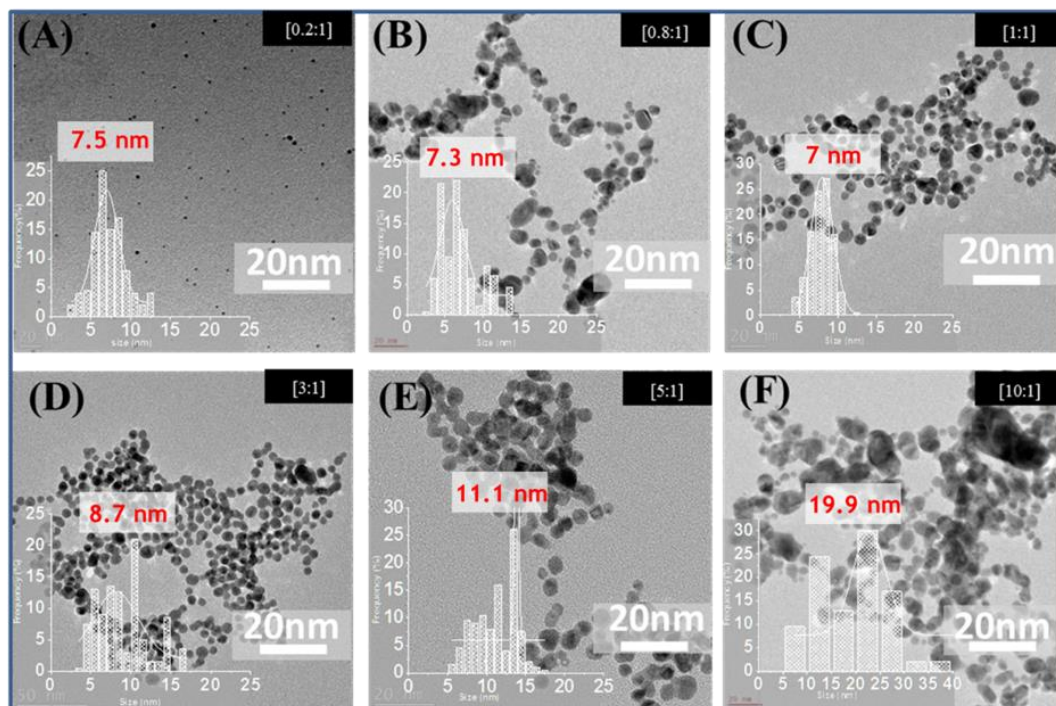


Figure 3.10 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of citric acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$) Citric Acid/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

Gold nanoparticles synthesized with a variable ratio of Isocitric acid: Au **Figure 3.11** exhibit the similar behavior of those with citric acid. The ratio 1:1 yields the smallest gold nanoparticles with an average size of 7.6 nm. Higher or Lower ratio lead to bigger nanoparticles.

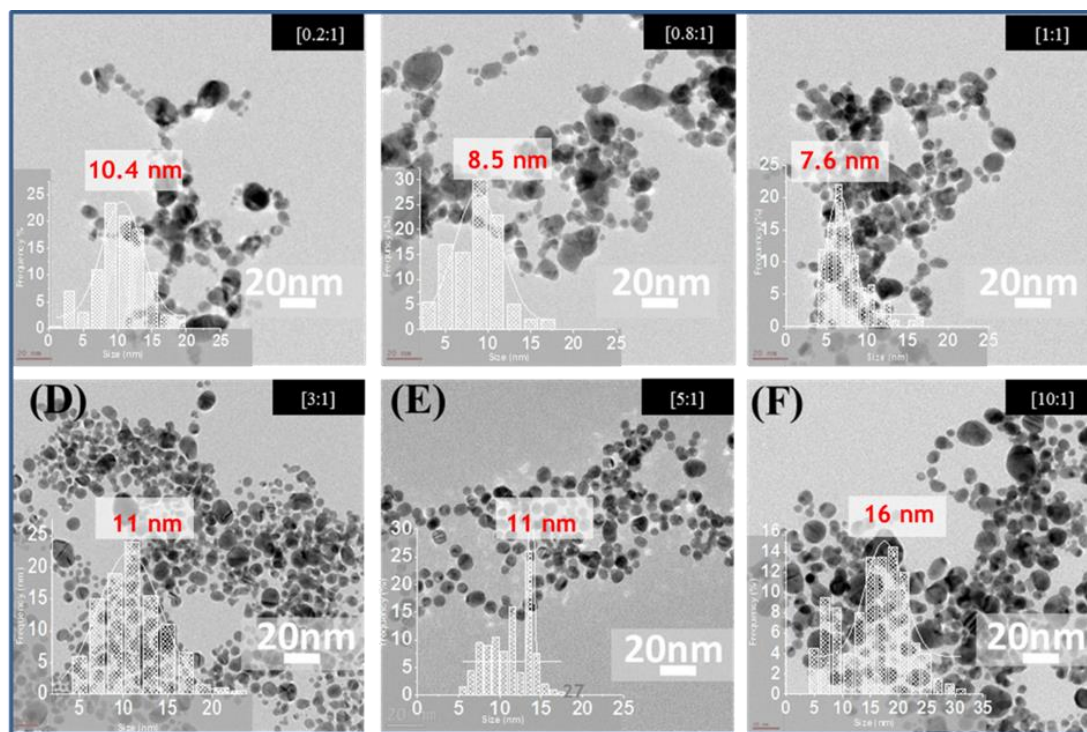


Figure 3.11 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Isocitric acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_7$) Isocitric acid/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

To complete the study with tri-carboxylate stabilizers, TEM of trimesic acid at different ratio was analyzed **Figure 3.12**. The TEM image shows very well dispersed nanoparticles with an average size of 5 nm. As the results obtained with the other ligands, the smaller one was obtained with a 1:1 ratio.

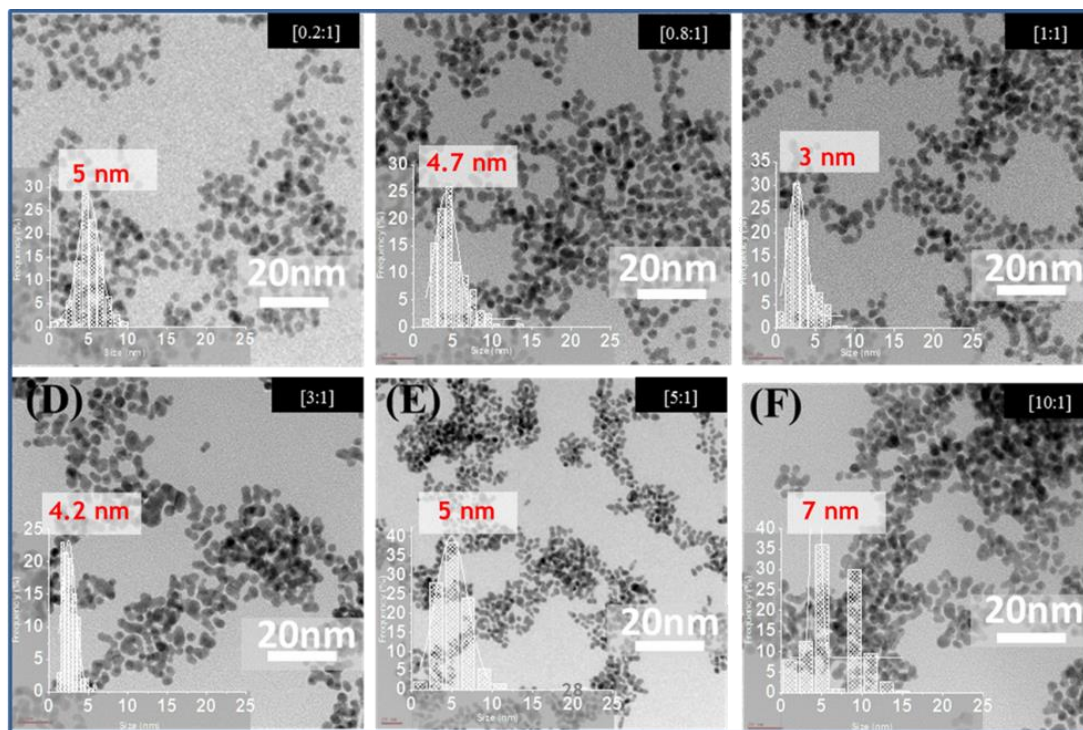


Figure 3.12 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH₄ reduction in the presence of different amounts of trimesic acid (C₉H₆O₆) Trimesic Acid/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

To conclude about the tri-carboxylate ligands, the TEM results show:

- I. The smaller nanoparticles were obtained with an optimum ratio of 1:1 for the 4 stabilizers.
- II. The basic form allows the formation of much smaller size comparing to the acidic form. It can be explained by the high affinity of the basic anionic ligand L⁻ comparing to the acidic neutral form LH acting for the stabilization of the cationic gold Au^{x+} before the total reduction.

- III. Changing the structure of the ligand with the same molecular formula don't affect the size of the nanoparticles (citric acid and isocitric acid).
- IV. The utilization of rigid ligand (trimesic acid) affords to smaller Au nanoparticles.

The effect of the structure on the Au-NPS size was also revealed for the dicarboxylate ligands. 4 ligands were used at a different ratio from 0.2:1 to 10:1: sodium succinate ($C_4H_4Na_2O_4$), sodium glutarate($Na_2C_5H_6O_4$), phthalic acid ($C_6H_4(COOH)_2$) and tartaric acid ($C_4H_6O_6$) (**Figure 3.13, Figure 3.14, Figure 3.15 and Figure 3.16**). Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images of the gold particles prepared with different ratios show an optimum ratio between 0.2:1 and 1:1. Increase the ratio (10:1) give bigger Au-NPS with agglomeration and large distribution.

A comparison between the TEM images obtained for dicarboxylates ligand and the tri-carboxylate at different ratio give the following conclusions:

- I. As in the case of the tri-carboxylate ligand, the basic form allows the formation of smaller Au-NPS.
- II. For the same structure of carbon chain (sodium succinate and sodium glutarate), dicarboxylate ligand gives relatively smaller Au-NPS.
- III. A modification of the dicarboxylate ligand structure (more OH groups, a lower alkyl chain, rigid ligand) doesn't have a big effect on the average diameter of Au-NPS.

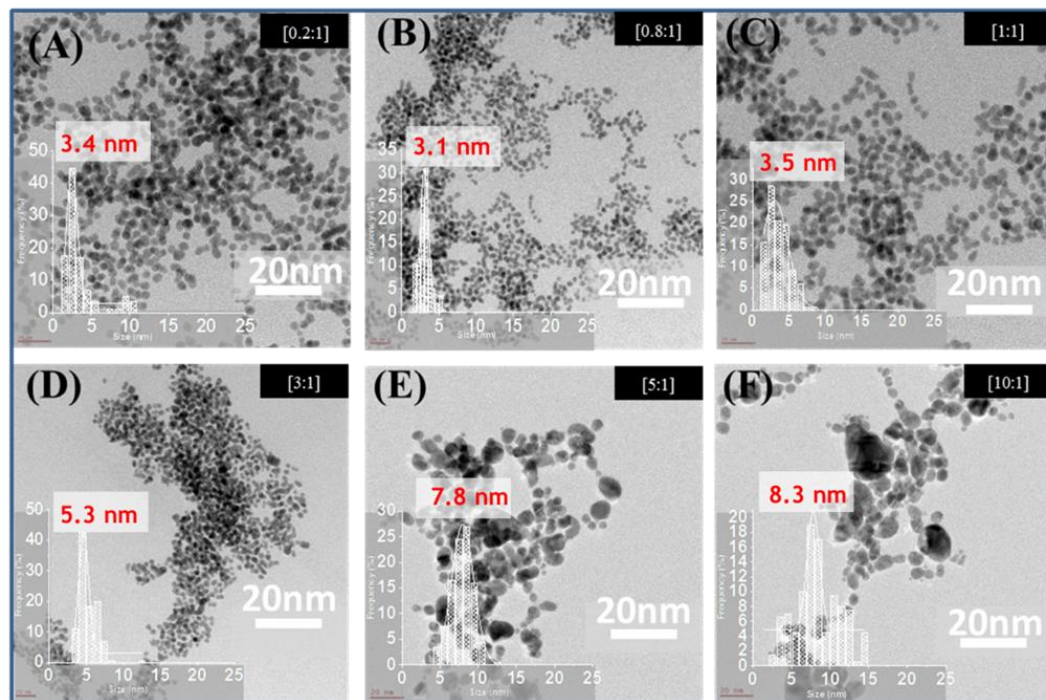


Figure 3.13. TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of sodium succinate ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{Na}_2\text{O}_4$) sodium succinate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

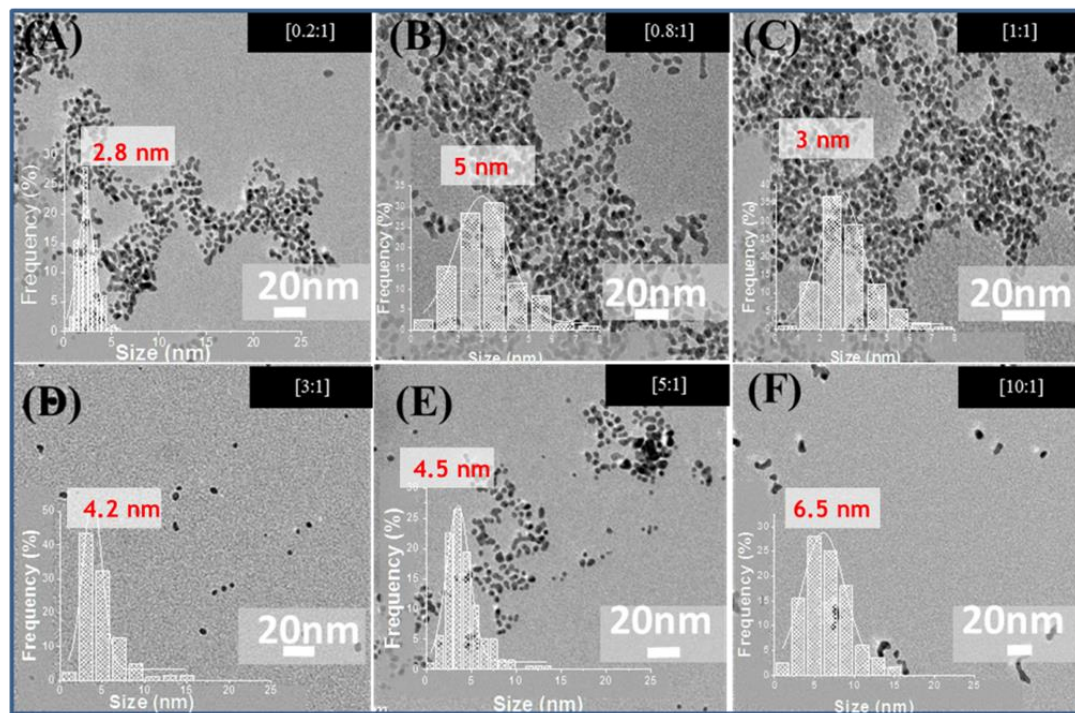


Figure 3.14 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of sodium glutarate ($\text{Na}_2\text{C}_5\text{H}_6\text{O}_4$) Sodium glutarate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

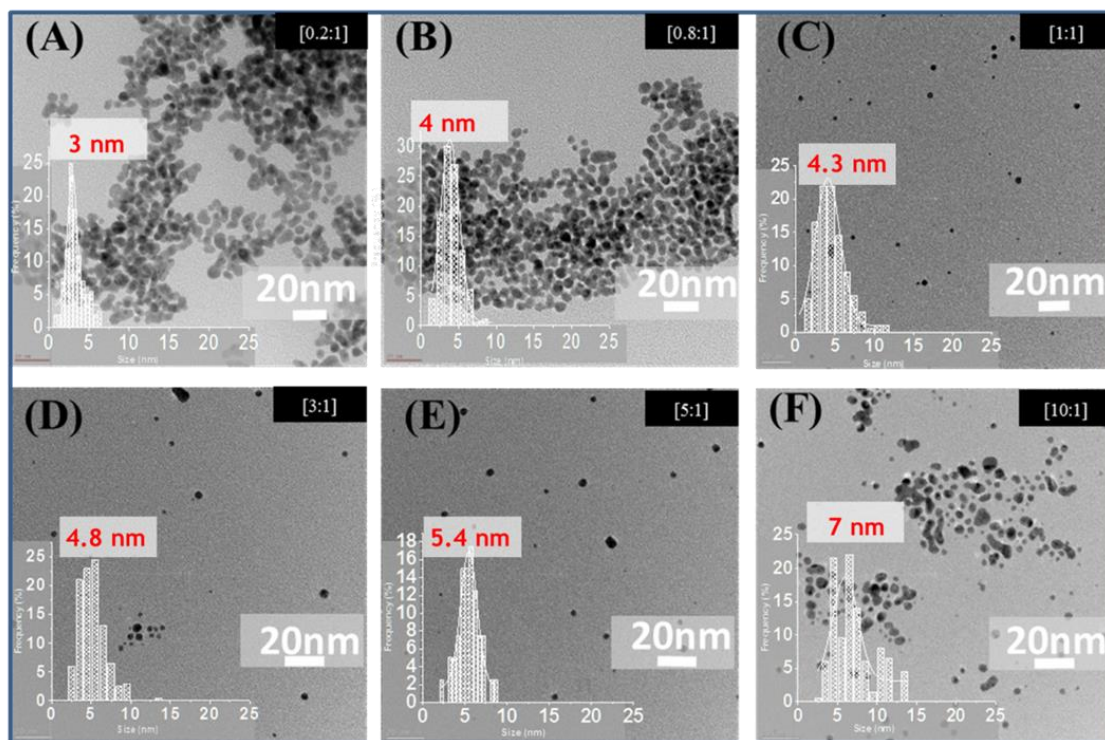


Figure 3.15 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of phthalic acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COOH})_2$) Phthalic Acid / Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

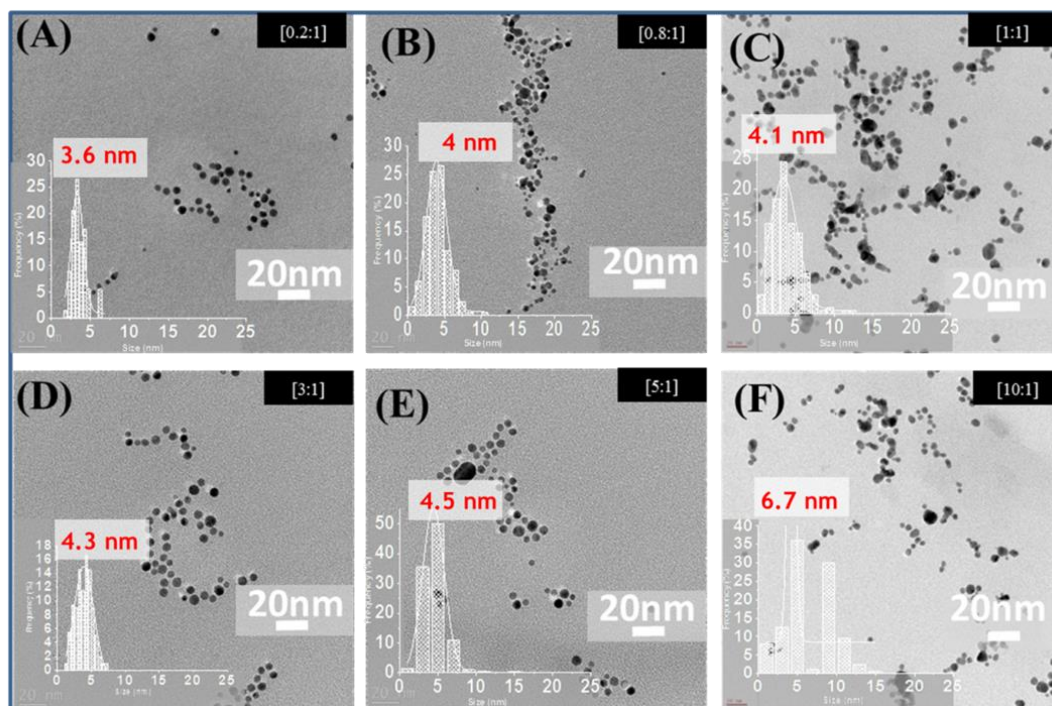


Figure 3.16 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Tartaric acid ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$) Tartaric Acid /Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

For the mono-carboxylate ligand, the effect of the ratios on the particle size was investigated and the particle sizes were easily tuned by a constant amount of HAuCl_4 and change the monocarboxylic acid /Au ratio: 0.2:1, 0.8:1, 1:1, 3:1, 5:1, and 10:1. **Figure 3.16, Figure 3.17, Figure 3.18 and**

Figure 3.19, I can conclude the following results;

The size of the noble metal nanoparticles appeared to be dependent on the stabilizing agents' ratios during the chemical reduction process. Larger average Au nanoparticle size was obtained with lower stabilizer ratio. The formation of big nanoparticles was clearly

observed at high or lowers the 1:1 monocarboxylic acid (NaCH_3COO), ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$) And (CH_2O_2) /Au.

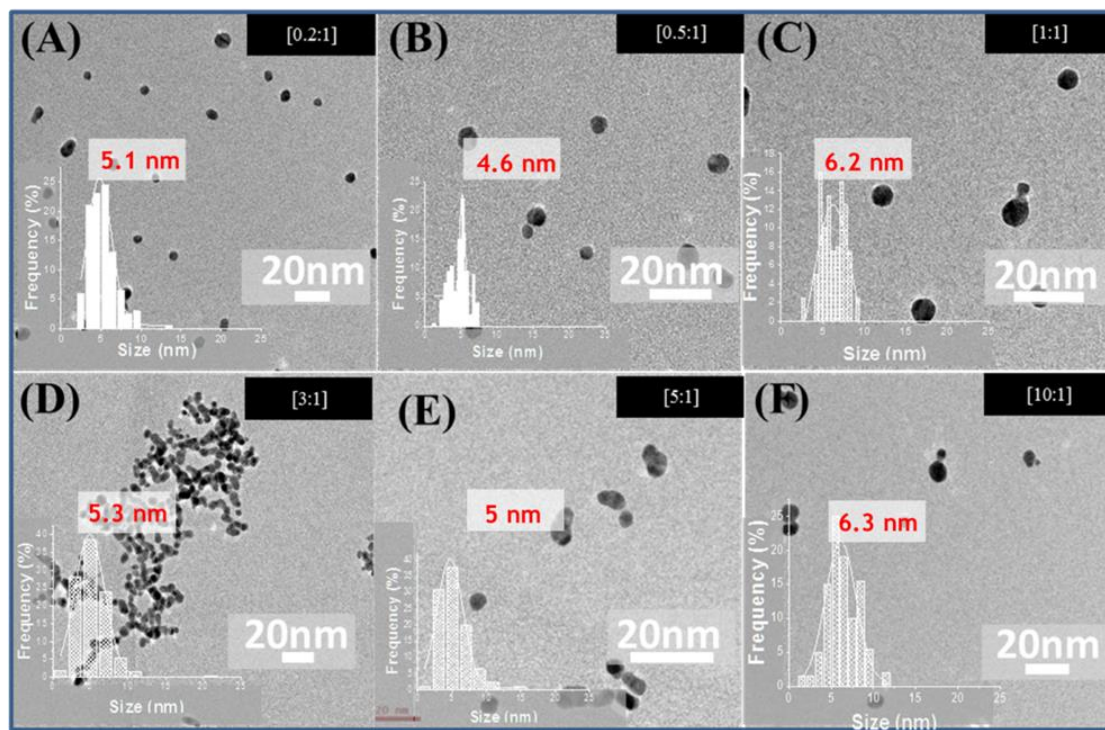


Figure 3.17 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of sodium acetate (NaCH_3COO) Sodium acetate /Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

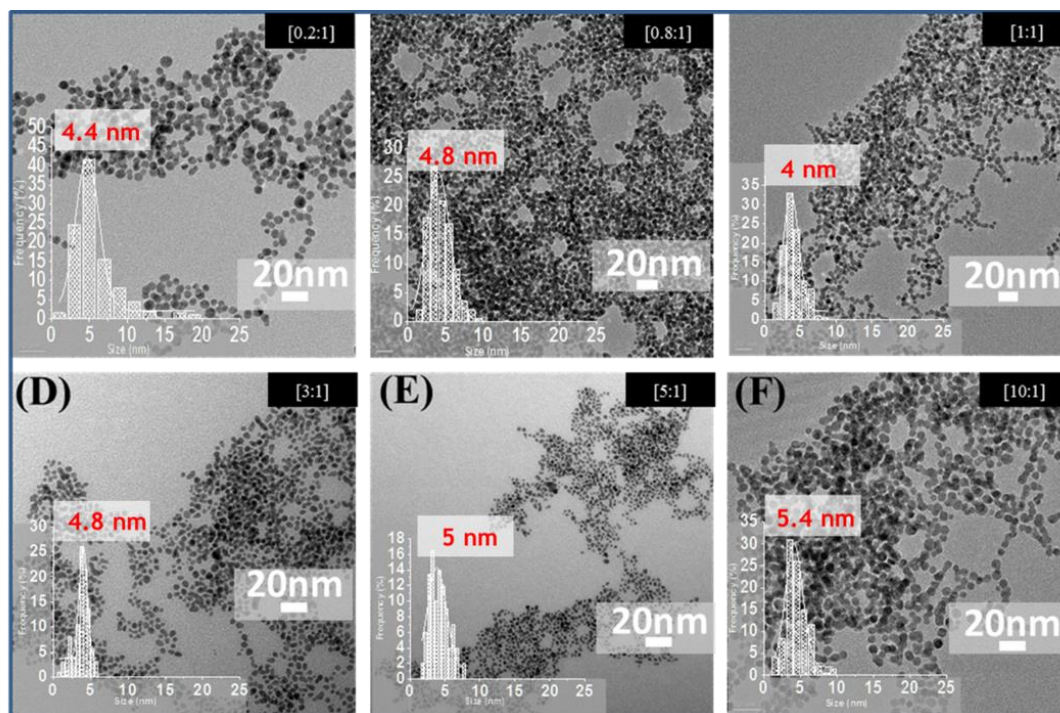


Figure 3.18 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Acetic Acid ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$) Acetic Acid/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

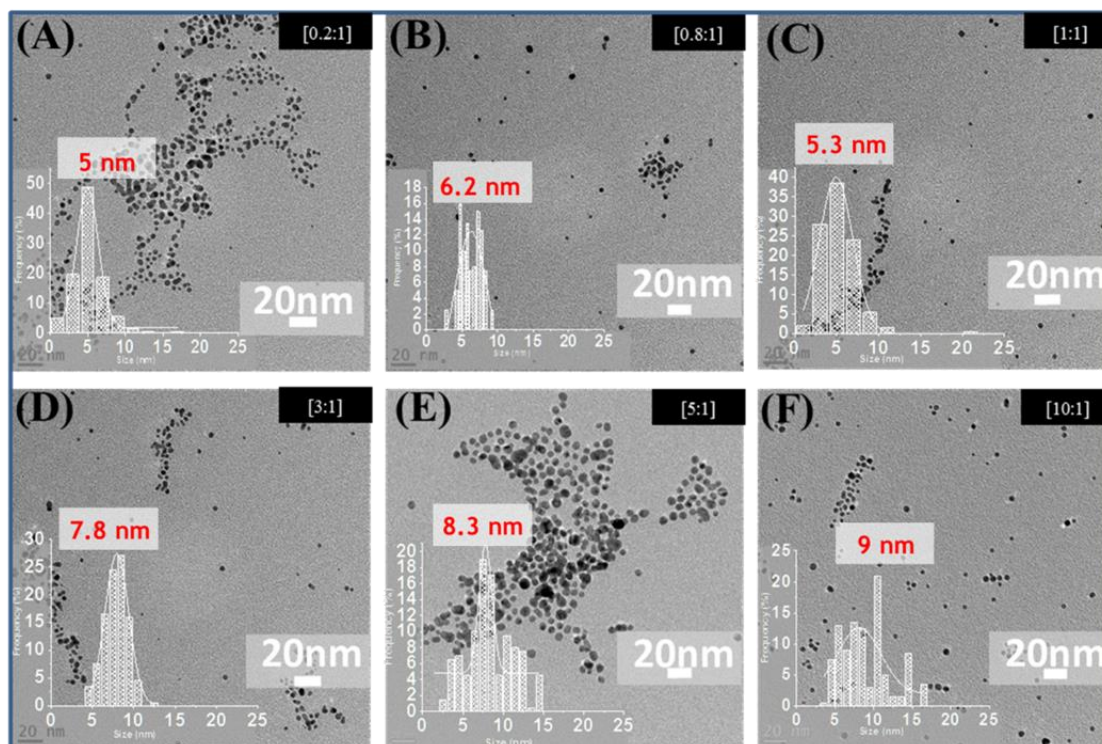


Figure 3.19 TEM images and respective particle size distributions of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Formic Acid (CH_2O_2) Formic Acid /Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

I would like to summarise the section above with this **Figure 3.20**, the molar ratios of the stabilizers (Tri, Di and Mono) carboxylic acid which are $(1,4,5,15,25\text{ and }50) \times 10^{-4}$ M. As the ratios of stabilizers/ Au increased from 0.2:1 to 0.8:1, 1:1, 3:1,5:1 and 10:1, suggesting increased the size of the gold nanoparticles as the ligands concentration was higher, as had already been found by Frens¹⁵. an optimum size from 0.4:1 up to 2:1 stabilizers/Au ratios we found, after this range the size start to increased again. Due to the limitation of the stabilizer to protect the NPs.

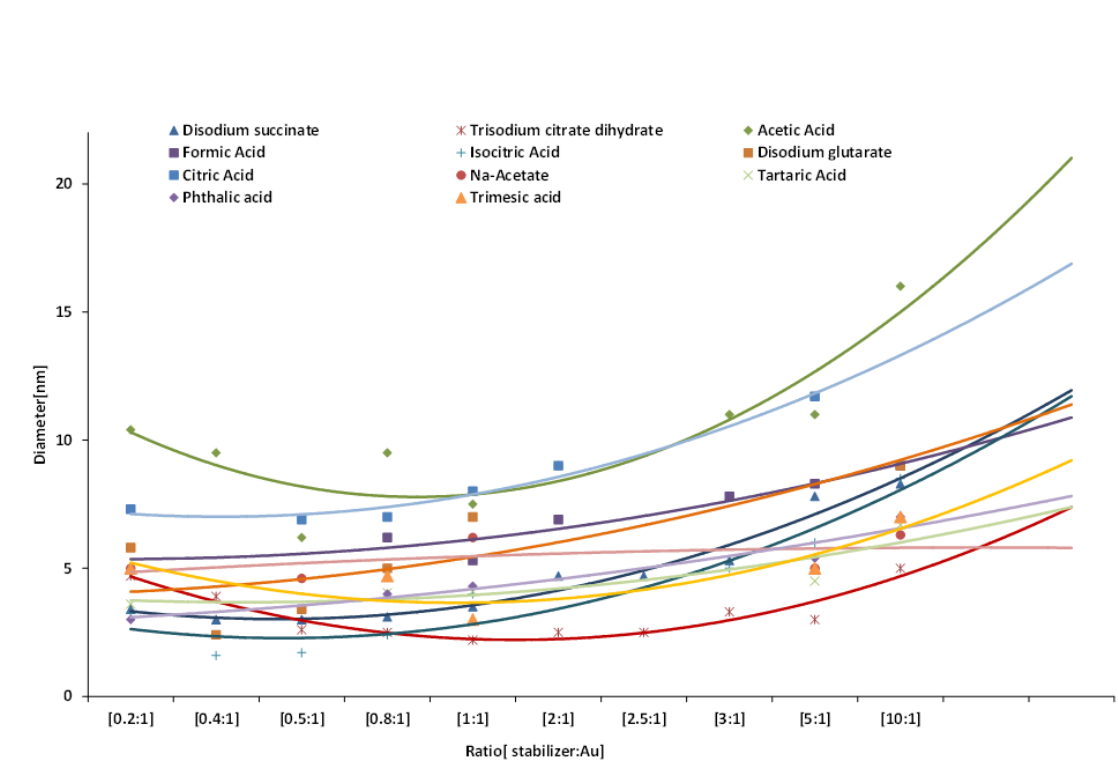


Figure 3.20 Comparison between various stabilizers.

3.3.3 HRTEM and FFT Analysis

HRTEM is a powerful tool for the structural characterizations with atomic resolution. It is coupled with the Fourier analysis. A powerful mathematical tool with various applications in image processing. Because the image in the Fourier, it is easy to examine or process certain frequencies of the image, thus influencing the geometric structure. The Au NPs morphology was investigated by the High-Resolution TEM (HRTEM) and the corresponding Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) images for citrate: Au 1:1 ratio. The results show clearly visible [111] lattice planes of gold ($d_{111} = 2.3 \text{ \AA}$) covered the whole particle **Figure 3.21 a**. For another particles, the distances between lattice planes are $d_{111} = 2.3 \text{ \AA}$ and $d_{100} = 0.2 \text{ \AA}$ **Figure 3.21 b**. HRTEM images reveal substantial

differences in morphology of the particles; The Au NPs possess an icosahedral and cuboctahedral shape that is typical for AuNPs. **Figure 3.22** Icosahedron was obviously the major shape detected. Both HRTEM image and FFT pattern **Figure 3.21** and **Figure 3.22** confirm the single crystalline nature of the Au NPs.

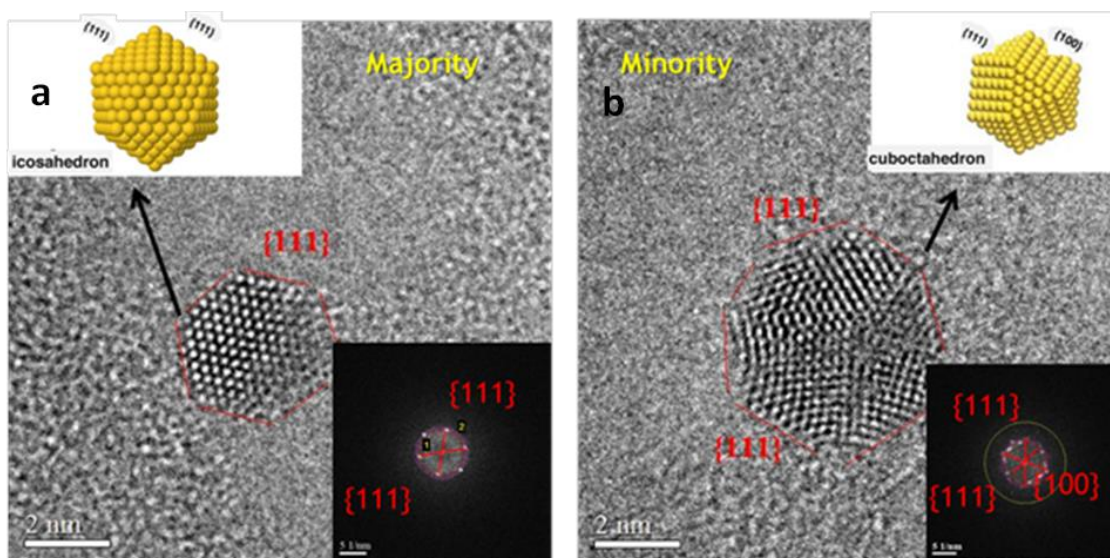


Figure 3.21 FFT investigation the exposed the plane of the Au NPs.

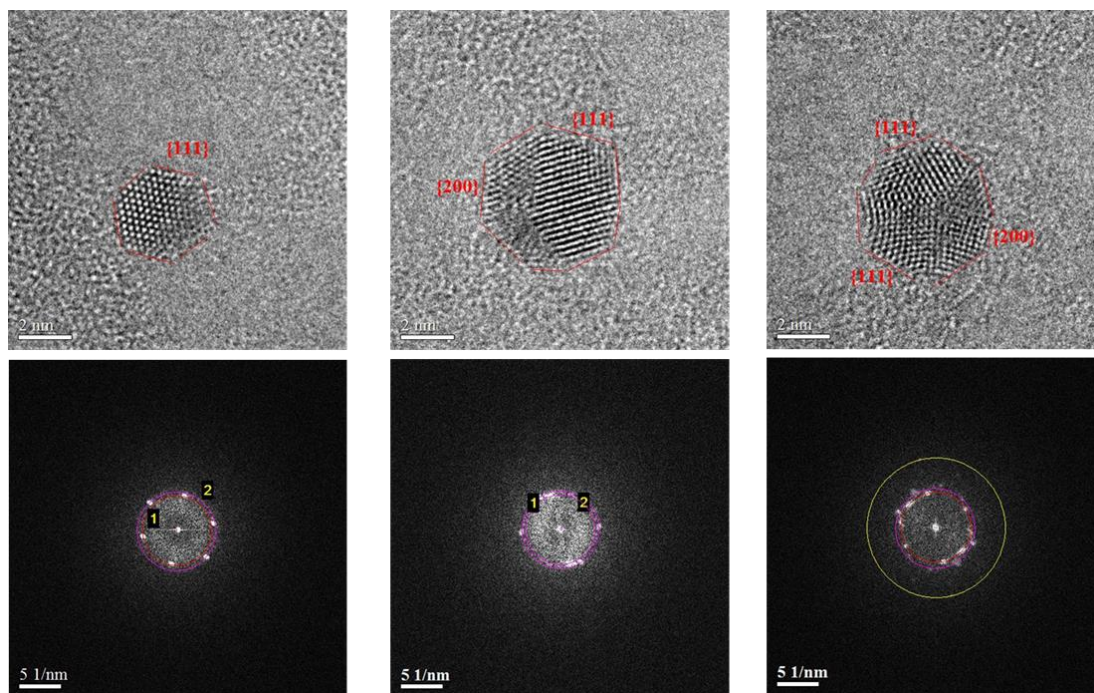


Figure 3.22 FFT investigation that the majority shape of citrate: Au at ratio 1:1.

3.3.4 Effect of post-synthesis heat treatment on size of the Au NPs

In this paragraph we investigate the effect of the temperature on the synthesis of AuNPs. This reaction was done at 5°C: a dilute solution of HAuCl_4 (10 mL, 5×10^{-4} M) was added to an aqueous citrate solution (5 mL, 5×10^{-4} M) to make 1:1 Citrate :Au ratio after few second the reducing agent NaBH_4 was added and the solution was stirred at 5°C for 60 min. The solution color turn to (red) and the formation of gold nanoparticles was confirmed **Figure 3.23**. The formation of AuNPs was probed by TEM in order to study the growth of the nanoparticle. It was observed that the size of the AuNPs was smaller under this condition **Figure 3.24**. The lower is the temperature (for example 5°C); the smaller is the size of the nanoparticles formed (1nm) **Figure 3.25** compared to the size of gold nanoparticles when we prepare it at 25°C (2.2nm) **Figure 3.25 Right**.

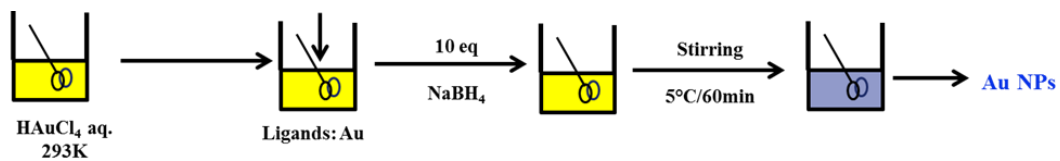


Figure 3.23 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of gold nanoparticles at 5°C.

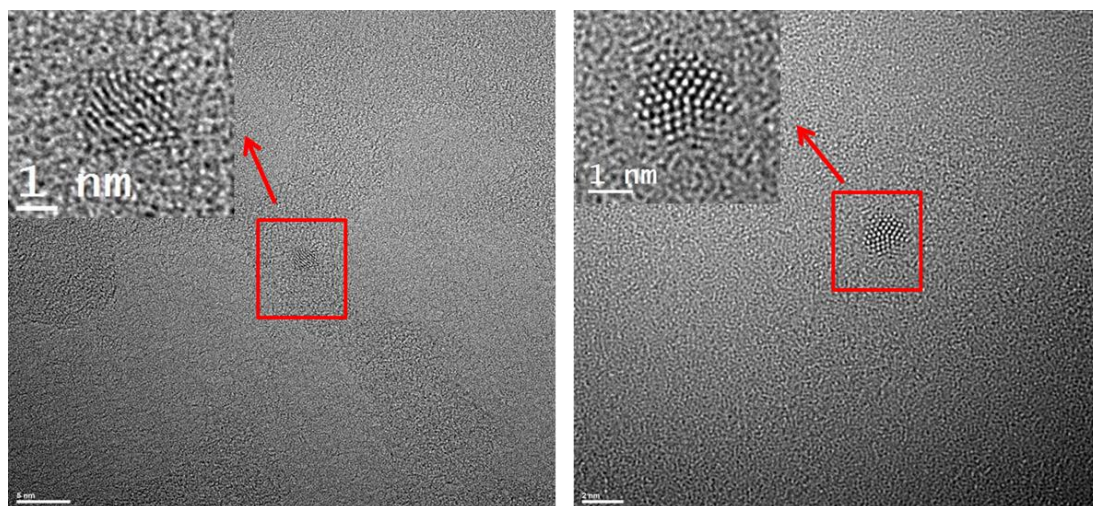


Figure 3.24 TEM and HR-TEM images of Au NPs synthesized at 5°C in the presence of Sodium Citrate.

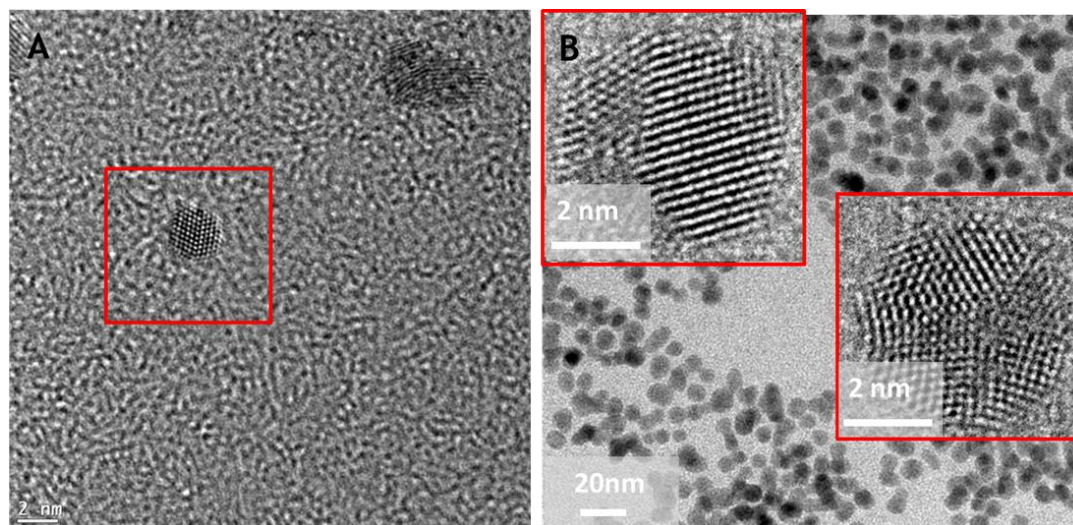


Figure 3.25 TEM and HR-TEM images of Au NPs synthesized at 5°C (left) and at 25°C (Right) in the presence of Sodium Citrate.

3.4 Conclusions

In conclusion, by using the UV-vis technique is complementary to TEM characterization. we are able to detect the morphology (size and shape) of NPs, the molar ratios of the stabilizers increased from 0.2:1 to 0.8:1, 1:1, 3:1,5:1 and 10:1, suggesting increased the size of the gold nanoparticles as the ligands concentration was higher. An optimum size from 0.4:1 up to 2:1 stabilizers/Au ratios we found, after this range the size start to increase again. Due to the limitation of the stabilizer to protect the NPs. The UV-vis spectra display their maximum absorbance peaks and their dependence on the NPs sizes.

The following chapter will discuss the nature of the interactions between citrate (and other carboxylate ligands) and the AuNPs in terms of the mode of coordination at the surface, and the formal oxidation state of Au when interacting with negatively charged carboxylate ligands (i.e., LL in the Green formalism)⁸².

Chapter 4.

The Binding Mode of Citrate in The Stabilization Of Gold Nanoparticles

The binding mode of citrate and other carboxylate-containing “ligands” (glutarate, acetate) to gold nanoparticles is crucial for understanding their stabilizing role. Carbon-13 and sodium-23 Solid-state MAS NMR combined with computational modeling (DFT), XPS and TEM measurements are used to provide a detailed picture of the coordination mode of citrate and other carboxylate-containing ligands to gold nanoparticles (AuNPs). The binding between the carboxylate group and the AuNP surface occurs in different modes: mono-carboxylate bidentate ($M_1\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$), pseudo mono-carboxylate bidentate with a freely rotating oxygen ($M_2\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$) and dicarboxylate bidentate ($D\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$). The three modes are simultaneously present at low ratios of citrate to gold, and the pseudo mono-carboxylate bidentate ($M_2\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$) mode is favored at high citrate: gold ratios. The calculated ^{13}C chemical shifts of analogous carboxylate-gold binding modes found in the organometallic literature are in qualitative agreement with the experimental data. XPS confirms that the surface AuNP atoms are predominantly in the zero oxidation state even after coordination of the citrate, although trace amounts of $\text{Au}^{\delta+}$ are observed. ^{23}Na NMR experiments suggest that Na^+ ions are present near the gold surface, indicating that the carboxylate binding occurs in an LL type interaction.

4.1 Introduction

The lab-scale synthesis of stable colloidal gold solutions dates as far back as the seminal work reported by Faraday in 1857,⁸³ and the interest in understanding their properties⁸⁴ and exploring their diverse applications^{71b, 85} continues to grow. Traditionally, gold was considered to be an inactive catalytic metal, until work by Haruta^{71a} demonstrated that decreasing the size of gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) increased their activity towards CO oxidation. Over the last two to three decades, gold has garnered immense interest not only in catalysis⁷¹ but also in various other physical and biological fields.

The citrate-based reduction of gold⁸⁶ is now one of the most common methods for synthesizing monodisperse AuNPs for a wide range of applications.^{78b} Citrate anions were found to act both as good reducing agents and as an efficient stabilizing agent.⁸⁷ The use of citrate as a stabilizer is not restricted to gold or other metals⁷⁹ but includes a wide range of materials.⁸⁰

Despite the widespread use of AuNPs, and although it is known that the region surrounding the AuNP becomes negatively charged due to the anionic carboxylate groups, a detailed understanding of the interactions between the Au surface and the citrate ligand still is still elusive. A clear understanding of the chemical and physical interactions between various “ligands” and gold surfaces is indispensable not only for the mechanistic study of catalytic activity at the metal surface but also for biological interactions and potential toxicity effects. Previous work on the citrate-based synthesis of AuNPs has focused on three aspects: reduction of Au(III) complex ions,⁸⁸ nucleation and

growth kinetics,^{78a, 89} and the mode of the metal stabilizer interaction on the surface.⁹⁰ However, the nature of the binding modes between the citrate anion and the gold nanoparticle, once reduced by NaBH₄, remains unknown at the molecular level.

Thus far, the stabilization of gold by citrate and the interactions which occur at the interface have been studied by physical methods such as atomic force microscopy (AFM),^{90a} scanning tunnelling microscopy (STM),^{90b} electroanalytical methods,⁹¹ and more recently by different Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) techniques and associated theoretical modeling.^{90c, 90d, 92} Scanning probe microscopy studies investigated the mode of coordination of citrate to gold surfaces and suggested that the citrate anion lies flat on the gold surface and that the interaction involves all three of its carboxylate groups.⁴³ However, subsequent FTIR studies indicate that the citrate groups are bound to the gold surface by coordination of the carboxylate ligands in a monodentate mode,^{90d, 93} a bridging bidentate mode,^{92a} or possibly through a combination of both mono- and bridging bidentate coordination modes via one of the carboxylate groups.^{90c} To date, the conditions that favour a specific mode of coordination have not been addressed.

Solid-state NMR (SSNMR) has been used successfully to study adsorbed molecules on gold nanoparticles⁹⁴ including thiolates,⁹⁵ phosphines,⁹⁶ carbenes,⁹⁷ CO⁹⁸ and amines.⁹⁹ Solution NMR has been used to study capping groups on nanoparticles,¹⁰⁰ including the decomposition of citrate when the latter is used as a reducing agent.¹⁰¹ However, determining the binding of carboxylates, which have two equivalent oxygen atoms in the ionized form, is more complex in comparison. Thus far, predicting the binding mode of carboxylates on AuNPs remains unclear and SSNMR has yet to be used to probe the surface binding interactions for this class of AuNPs.

4.2 Aim of this chapter

Here we determine the nature of the interaction between citrate (and other carboxylate-containing ligands) and AuNPs in terms of the modes of coordination at the surface, and the formal oxidation state of Au when interacting with these negatively charged carboxylate ligands (i.e., LL^- in the Green formalism⁸²). We achieve this by combining ^{13}C cross polarization magic angle spinning (CP/MAS), ^{23}Na MAS, and low-temperature SSNMR, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) and density functional theory (DFT) calculations.

4.3 Experimental details

4.3.1 Materials

All chemicals were reagent grade, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and were used without further purification. Tetrachloroaurate trihydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$), trisodium citrate dihydrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), Trimesic acid ($\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{O}_6$), disodium glutarate ($\text{Na}_2\text{C}_5\text{H}_6\text{O}_4$), Sodium Succinate ($\text{C}_4\text{H}_4\text{Na}_2\text{O}_4$), Methyl acetate ($\text{CH}_3\text{COOCH}_3$) and sodium acetate (NaCH_3COO) were used as stabilizers and sodium borohydride (NaBH_4) was used as a reducing agent. All reactions were done in aqueous media using deionized water (Millipore Milli-Q system, 18.2 $\text{M}\Omega\text{-cm}$). All glassware was treated with aqua-regia (3:1, HCl/HNO_3) during washing.

4.3.2 AuNP synthesis

100 mL of 0.1 M aqueous stock solutions of trisodium citrate and chloroauric acid were prepared separately by dissolving the required amounts of $\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ or $\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$, respectively. The final concentration of gold chloride in all of the reaction mixtures was 5×10^{-4} M. 0.25 mL aliquots of the chloroauric acid stock solution were placed in separate 100 mL round bottom flasks equipped with a stir bar to which the required amount of trisodium citrate stock solution was added to reach the desired citrate: Au ratio of between 0.2:1 to 30:1. Necessary amounts of water were then added so that the reaction mixture volume measured 47.5 mL. Within approximately 2 min, 2.5 mL of freshly prepared 0.1 M aqueous sodium borohydride solution was added and the resultant solution was maintained under stirring conditions (600 rpm) for 1 hour. Stable solutions were obtained for all reactions with the exception of when the citrate: Au ratio was 30:1, where spontaneous precipitation was observed after the initial reduction of gold ions, and the 20:1 ratio where slow precipitation was observed over an extended period of time. The gold nanoparticle solutions synthesized with citrate: Au ratios below 20:1 exhibited a localized surface plasmon resonance peak (λ_{max}) at ca. 520 nm. The gold nanoparticles thus obtained at this stage were characterized by TEM and solid state NMR.

4.4 Results and discussion

A series of gold nanoparticles were prepared with different citrate: Au ratios, with 1:1 to 5:1 yielding AuNPs with average diameters of approximately 2-3 nm and a desirable

narrow size distribution (**Figure 4.1a**). Spherical aberration correction allows nanoparticle facets to be clearly observed in HRTEM images (**Figure 4.1b**). Shows the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum of crystalline bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate (hereafter referred to simply as, 'sodium citrate'). The peaks at 46 ppm and 48 ppm correspond to the two CH_2 carbons, the peak at 75 ppm is assigned to the quaternary carbon, with three peaks in the carboxylate region at 178, 181, and 183 ppm. When citrate is adsorbed on AuNPs with different citrate: Au ratios, the HRTEM and ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra have the following distinct features:

Particles prepared with a citrate: Au ratio of 0.2:1 have a broad particle size distribution centered at a diameter of 4.7 nm (**Figure 4.2a**) and a calculated maximum coverage, ($\theta_{(\text{cal})}$), of the nanoparticle by the citrate of 0.75. On certain occasions (probably linked to data acquisition time) it was possible using HRTEM to observe nanoparticles having a uniform thin surrounding layer (**Figure 4.1c**). The low contrast of this layer indicates it is likely carbonaceous material that therefore originated from the sodium citrate used during the synthesis. The thickness of this layer is ca. 0.58 nm, which interestingly is comparable with the dimensions of the sodium citrate salt formula unit. The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR show, in addition to peaks that occur at the same position as those of crystalline bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate, three new peaks in the carboxylate region spanning the chemical shift range from 162 – 167 ppm (**Figure 4.3**).

- Particles prepared with a citrate: Au ratio of 1:1 (**Figure 4.1a and Figure 4.3**) have a narrow particle size distribution centered around a diameter of 2.2 nm and $\theta_{(\text{cal})}$ of 2.1. The band of peaks at 162-167 ppm in the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum is replaced by a single narrow peak at 167 ppm.

- Particles prepared with a citrate: Au ratio of 5:1 (**Figure 4.1a and Figure 4.3**) have a size distribution centred around a diameter of 3 nm, and a $\theta_{(cal)}$ of 13.0. Here, we observe that the relative intensity of the peak at 167 ppm has diminished, which can be attributed to a relative increase in the contribution from bulk sodium citrate which is now present in excess.

- At the very high citrate: Au ratio of 20:1 (**Figure 4.1a and Figure 4.3**), the HRTEM images show a layer that is ca. 1.1 nm thick (**Figure 4.1a and Figure 4.3**) around the AuNP, nearly twice that observed for lower citrate: Au ratios.

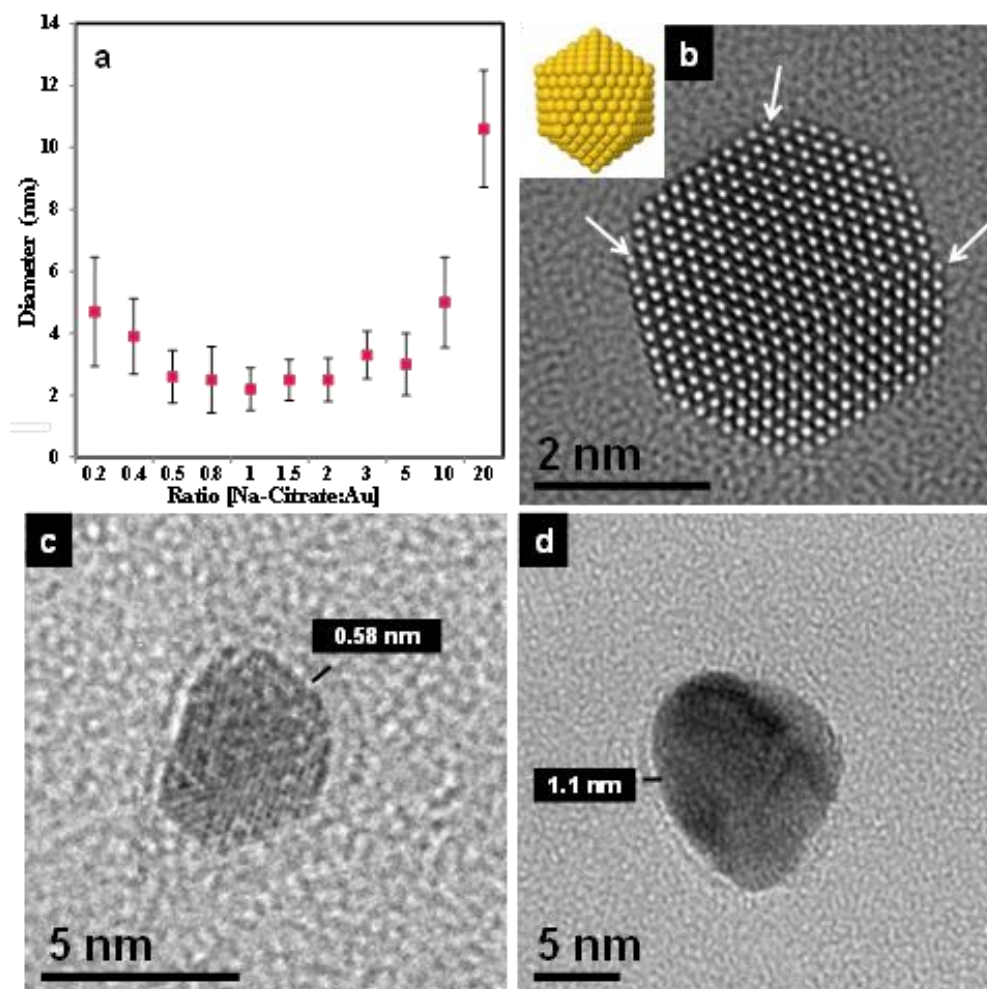


Figure 4.1 (A) Average gold nanoparticle size along with the standard deviation as a function of the sodium citrate: gold ratio. (B) HRTEM image of a gold nanoparticle synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of citrate with a 1:1 citrate: Au ratio. White arrows indicate surface defect sites. HRTEM images of AuNP with carbonaceous layers of different thickness when synthesized with (C) 0.2:1 and (D) 20:1 citrate: Au ratios.

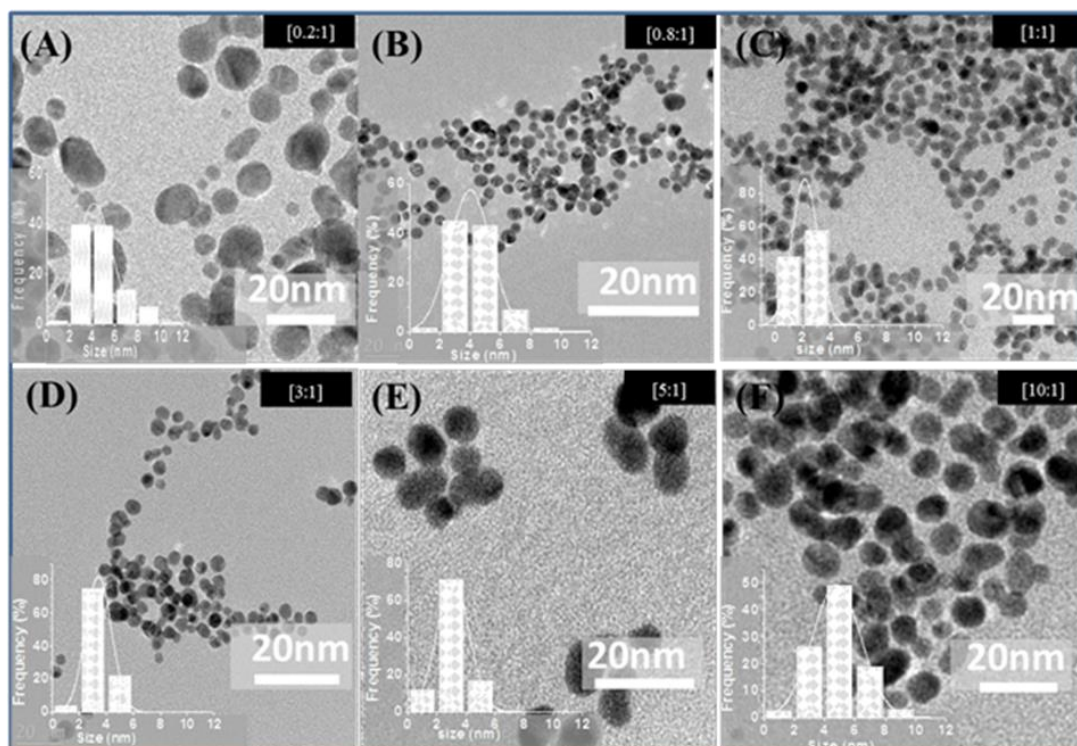


Figure 4.2 TEM images of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of citrate with respect to a constant amount of HAuCl_4 . Citrate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

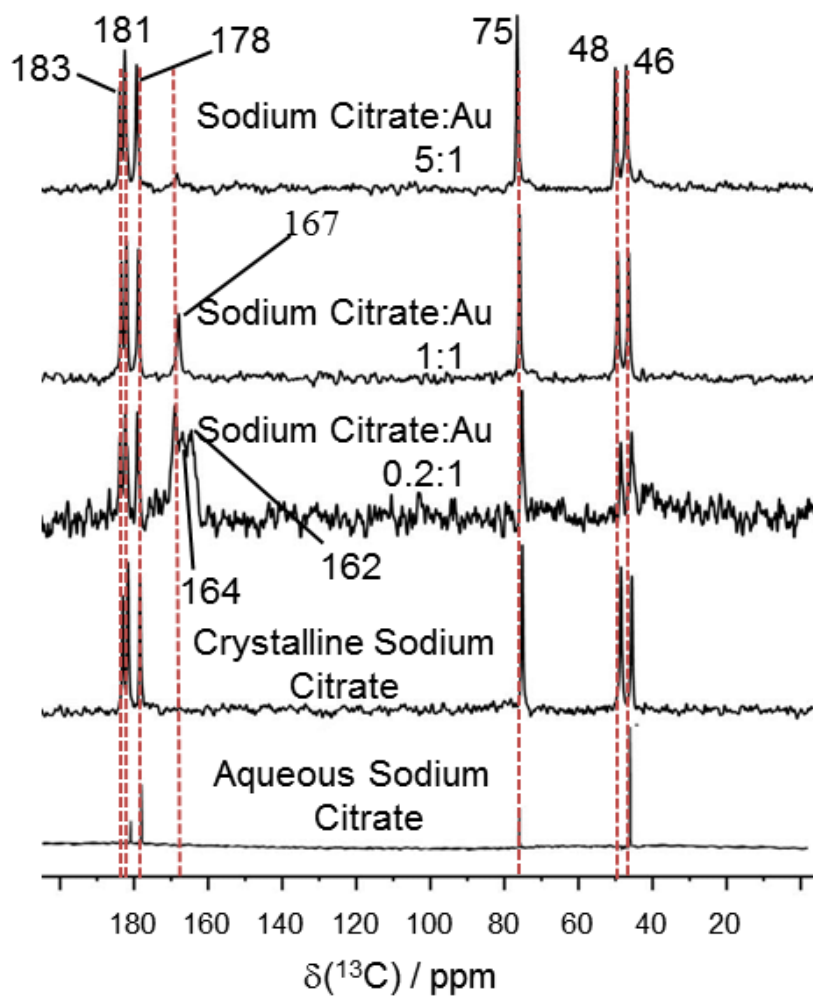


Figure 4.3 One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of (A) citrate: Au with different ligand: gold ratios. (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000, repetition delay = 5 s, contact time = 2 ms, exponential line broadening = 80 Hz).

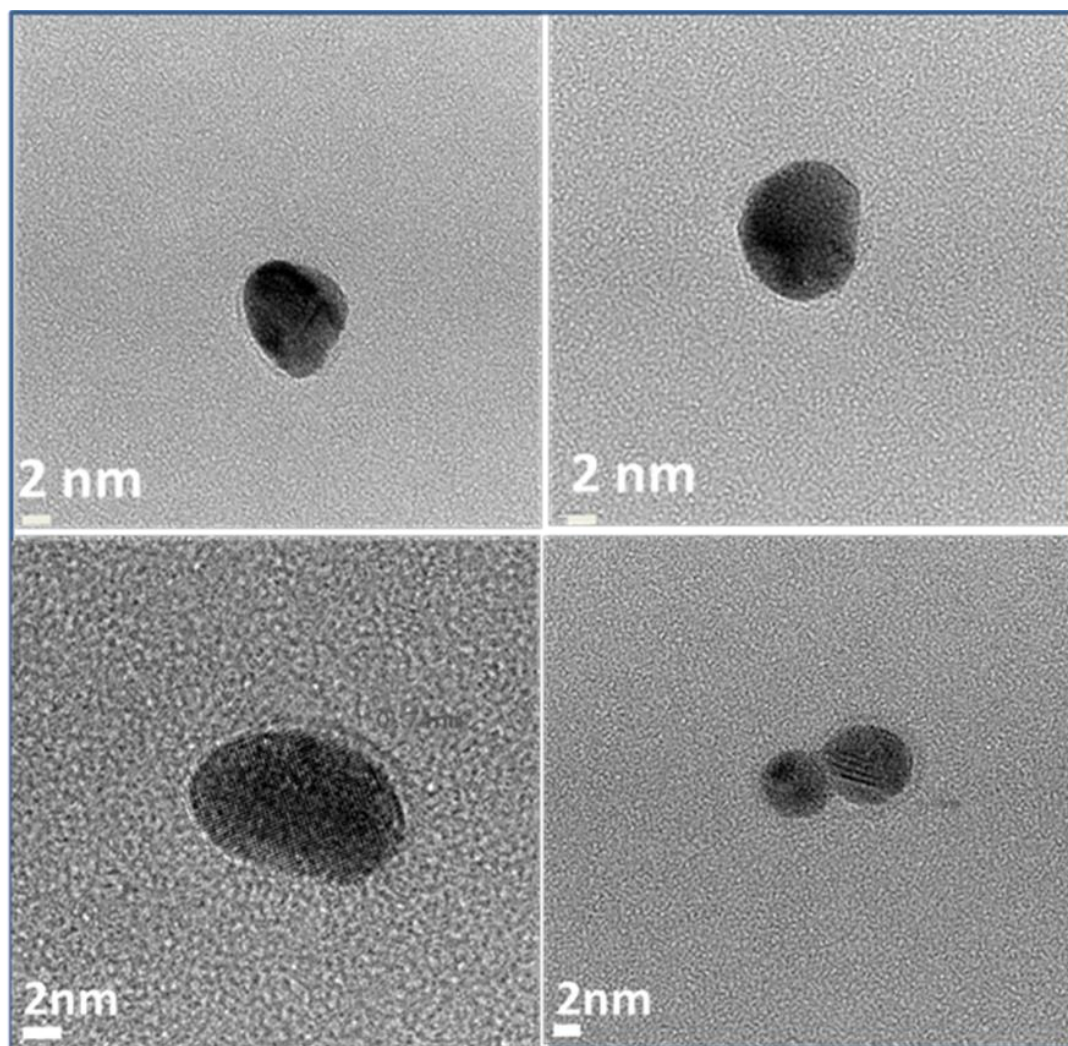


Figure 4.4 HRTEM images of selected AuNP that show a thin layer around them, and synthesized with a citrate to gold ratio of 0.2:1. The low contrast layer surrounding the AuNP is a carbonaceous material, confirmed by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS), and is derived from the trisodium citrate added as a stabilizer during synthesis.

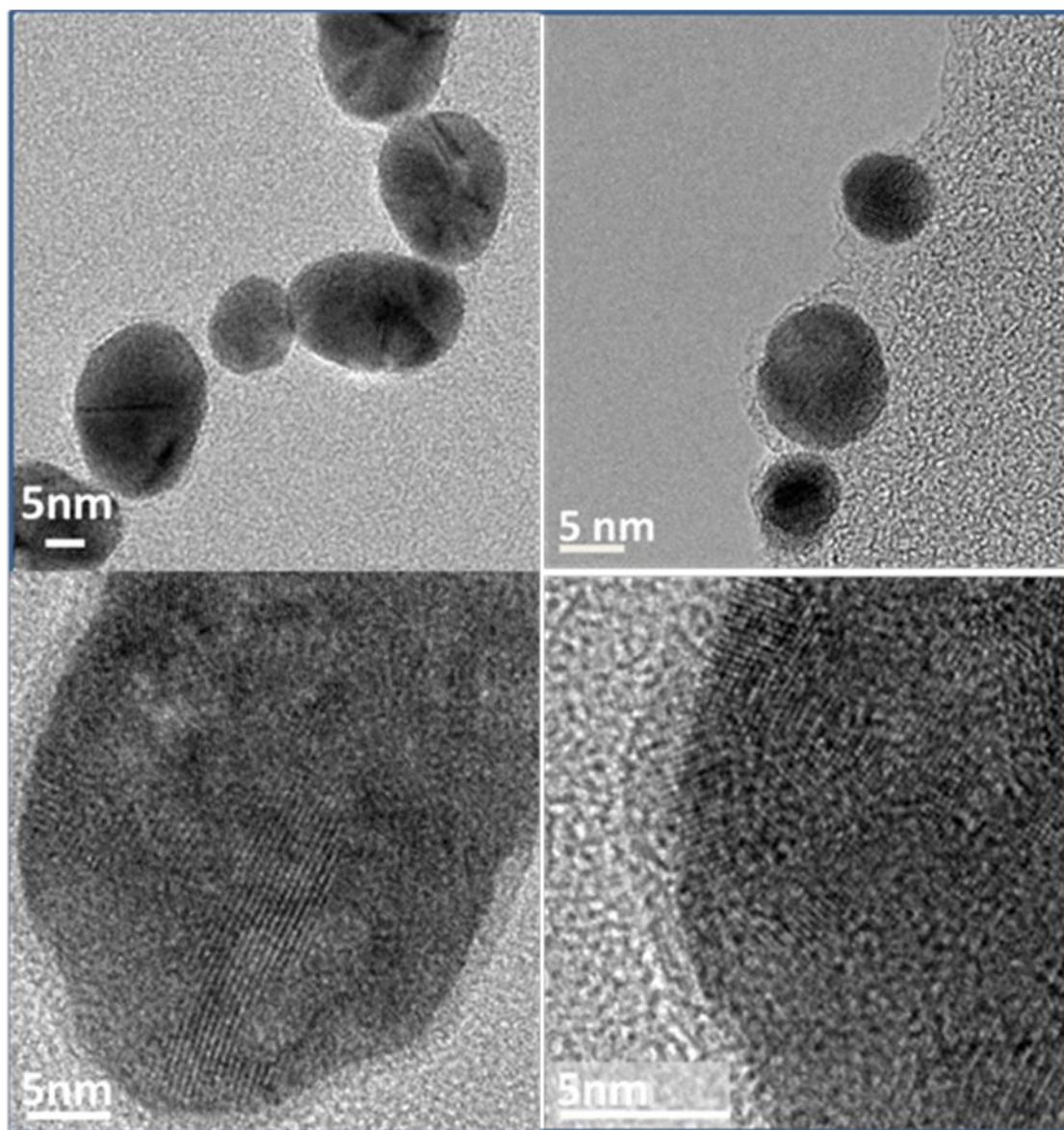


Figure 4.5 HRTEM images of AuNP samples synthesized with a citrate to gold ratio of 20:1. The presence of a layer of carbonaceous material can be clearly observed.

Due to the remarkably high resolution obtained with a spherical aberration (Cs) correction to the HRTEM images, interesting structural details become visible. The faceted structure of the nanoparticle is evident and further we can clearly observe that although the facets are atomically flat, there are a number of surface steps and vacant sites at vertices, as indicated by the arrows in **Figure 4.1b** that could potentially influence the mode of binding of the “surface ligand” in the vicinity.

To complement the SSNMR and HRTEM observations, DFT calculations of systems containing carboxylate groups and various Au surface models were undertaken. We studied the behavior of the interactions of the carboxylate in acetate (Ac), succinate (Sc) and glutarate (Gt) **Figure 4.6**.

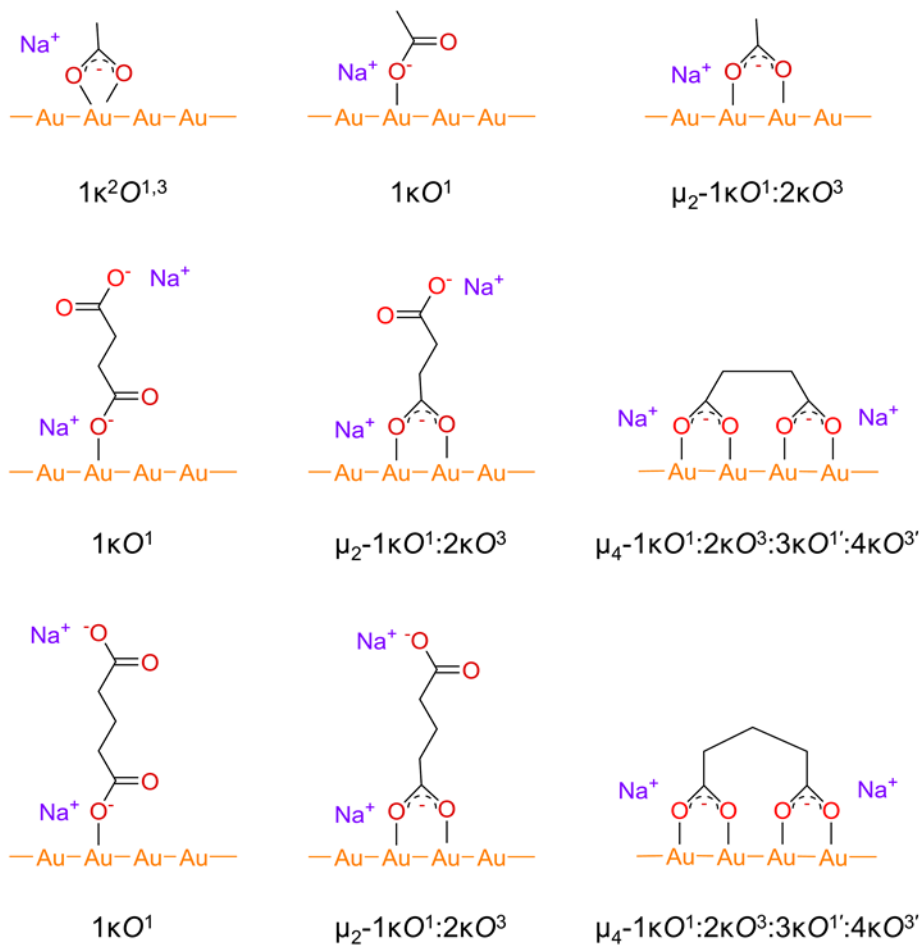


Figure 4.6 Schematic representations of the possible modes of coordination of (top) sodium acetate: Au, (middle) sodium succinate: Au, and (bottom) sodium glutarate: Au.

In this framework, coordination of Sc to the Au surface mimics the coordination of the middle and terminal carboxylates of citrate, while coordination of Gt mimics the two terminal carboxylates of citrate.

When one Ac anion is placed near either of the Au(111) or (100) surfaces,¹⁰² the geometry optimized Ac is consistently found to bridge two Au surface atoms, with each carboxylate oxygen interacting with one Au (i.e., *syn,syn*- $\eta^1:\eta^1:\mu^2$, hereafter ' μ^2 '), as in **Figure 4.7a and b**. Additionally, the non-H acetate atoms, which lie essentially in a

plane, are nearly normal to the respective Au surface planes. The μ^2 mode was found independently of the initial coordination mode. The acetate binding energy, E_{Bind} , is calculated to be -30.5 kcal/mol for Ac on the Au(100) surface and -17.1 kcal/mol for Au(111), indicating stronger binding to Au(100),

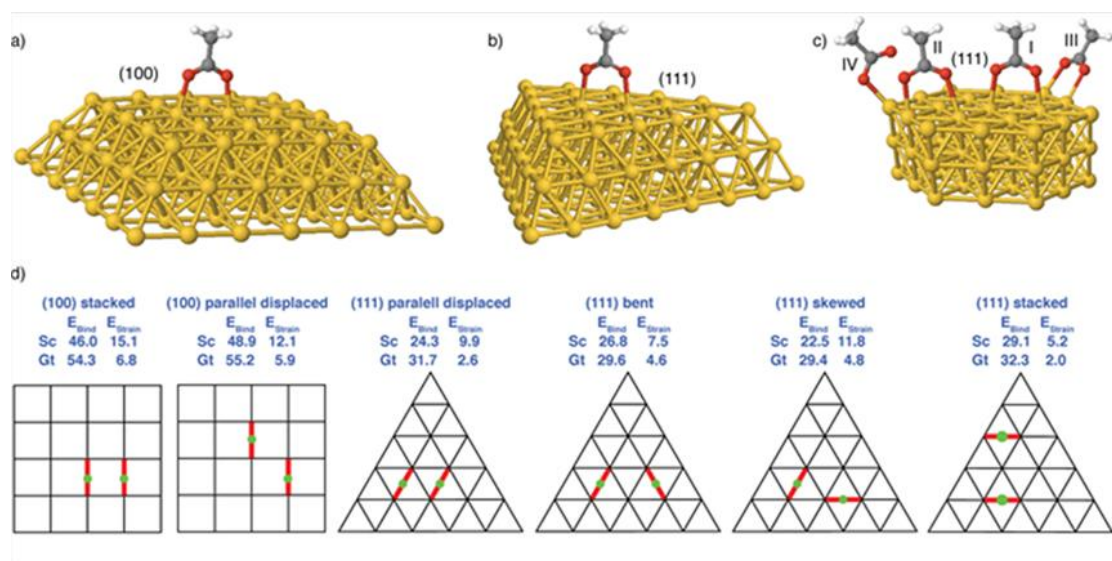


Figure 4.7 DFT-optimized ligand geometries for a single acetate anion interacting with (a) the Au(100) and (b) the Au(111) model surfaces, and of four acetate anions interacting with an Au(111) model surface. In (a) and (b) the acetate is bound in a μ^2 fashion, while in (c) the 4 acetates are found in a variety of coordination modes (both μ^2 and κ^1). In (d), a cartoon representation of the possible coordination modes of succinate (Sc) and glutarate (Gt) to the Au(100) and Au(111) model surfaces is given. The total binding energy, E_{Bind} , and the strain energy, E_{Strain} , calculated relative to the binding of two isolated acetate anions are reported in kcal/mol. The single carboxylate units are represented as a thick red line and a green circle.

in rough accord with that found in an earlier theoretical study of the formate adsorption on Au₂₀.¹⁰³ The rather low Ac binding energy is due to the inclusion of solvent effects, which substantially stabilize the isolated Ac anion. As the acetate/Au interaction is μ^2 , the average Au-O interaction energy is half the above values (ca. -10-15 kcal/mol in water).

Based on these results, for Gt and Sc we only explored geometries presenting μ^2 coordinated carboxylates. The representations in **Figure 4.7d** indicate that Sc and Gt can assume two conformations on Au(100), corresponding to a perfectly stacked or to a parallel-displaced disposition of the two carboxylates, while at least four different dispositions of the carboxylates are possible on the Au(111). The 3D representations of all optimized geometries show that in all cases both carboxylates interact with the surface via a μ^2 coordination geometry, with Au-O distances in the 2.2-2.4 Å range. The E_{Bind} of the carboxylates is in the 25-55 kcal/mol range, which is substantially below the experimentally determined Au-O bond energy in AuO (3 eV \approx 290 kJ/mol), and the computationally determined Au-O dissociation energy of O₂ on an Au surface,¹⁰⁴ which underscores that the Au-O interactions occurring on the AuNP surfaces are weak compared to covalent interactions.

Comparing Sc and Gt with Ac, our calculations suggest that Gt binding is roughly 3-7 kcal/mol stronger than Sc binding on both surfaces, which suggests that binding of citrate through the terminal carboxylates should be favored over binding through one terminal and the central carboxylate. Nevertheless, the relatively small difference in the binding energy of Sc and Gt to a specific surface, particularly Au(111), suggests that the two and three methylene bridges are flexible enough to adapt to the AuNP surface environment, as determined by coordination of other carboxylates and/or counterions.

To understand if binding of the two carboxylate groups of Sc and Gt results in a strain on the carboxylate skeleton, we calculated the strain energy, E_{Strain} , which was found to be low, indicating that binding of dicarboxylates only requires a limited conformational adaptation of the dicarboxylate skeleton, and thus should be favored relative to binding via a single carboxylate.

As higher loading levels may favor other binding modes,⁹³ we modelled the coordination of up to four Ac on Au(111). Consistent with the results for Sc and Gt, the bridging bidentate coordination mode is retained if two Ac anions coordinate next to each other. However, with four Ac anions on the small surface fragment shown in **Figure 3c**, other coordination modes are observed. Figure 3c shows a wide variation in Au-O binding motifs for Ac on Au(111), with ligands binding at the edge in a κ^1 fashion (Ac IV in **Figure 4.7**), and in a μ^2 fashion. We note that the monodentate mode was observed particularly at surface edges. It is possible that AuNP surface defects, such as the step edges and vacancies observed in the HRTEM images (highlighted in **Figure 4.1**) could contribute towards such alternative binding modes.¹⁰⁵

We find that the largest energy cost to binding multiple neighbors is associated with the edge acetate anion in the μ^2 motif (III in **Figure 4.7**), which is about 9 kcal/mol greater than for the other acetate ligands on this Au(111) surface. The additional energy required to bind four Ac anions next to each other as in **Figure 4.7c**, calculated as the total binding energy of four Ac minus four times the binding energy of an isolated Ac, is +20.3 kcal/mol. This energy cost is clearly related to electrostatic repulsion between the Ac anions, but which is much higher in the gas phase, and suggests an important role of the solvent and Na^+ counterions in neutralizing the excess negative Au surface charge.

In summary, DFT calculations predict that at very low loading levels the Ac anion is likely to coordinate in a μ^2 fashion to regular Au surfaces via the two oxygen atoms of the carboxylate. Moving to dicarboxylates, DFT calculations suggest that Sc and Gt can effectively coordinate to both Au(100) and Au(111), with the three methylene spacer favoring Gt coordination. Extrapolating these results to citrate coordination, DFT calculations suggest that citrate will weakly bind to the Au nanoparticle, preferentially via μ^2 binding of the terminal carboxylates.

Based on several model molecular structures and known crystal structures, it is found that the Au-O interaction for a carboxylate group produces a ^{13}C shielding effect on the order of 15 - 30 ppm. This is consistent with the observations made via the ^{13}C SSNMR experiments in **Figure 4.3**. We also find that the bidentate but non-bridging coordination mode will likely lead to a more modest deshielding effect (relative to the parent sodium salt) on the order of a few ppm at Au-O distances considered relevant for an interaction, and this is inconsistent with experimental observations.

We thus arrive at the schematic structures presented in **Figure 4.6**. The following simple interpretations are used to assign the ^{13}C SSNMR spectra: where the surface coverage is lower, the peaks in the spectra can be attributed to monocarboxylate monodentate at 167 ppm and bridging bidentate mono- at 162 ppm and di-carboxylate at 164 ppm. At higher surface coverage the broad band (3 peaks) becomes a single narrow peak at 167 ppm, due to a mode which gives closer packing with the monodentate surface-coordinated carboxylates linked to Au. This agrees with recent IR results of Park and Shumaker-Parry,⁴⁹ who showed that citrate can adsorb on the Au surface via 1 or 2 oxygen atoms. However, the difference between bridging and chelating modes could not

be spectrally distinguished with FTIR. NMR experiments as a function of pH also support this conclusion.

In addition to the binding mode, the carbon-13 SSNMR spectra also allow us to deduce the three-dimensional structure of the citrate at the AuNP surface. Generally, small changes in structure lead to notable changes in the shifts of all the carbons (e.g. see appendices for spectra of the two known forms of crystalline sodium citrate). Since in the AuNP samples all the carbon shifts are identical to those measured for bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate we conclude that the citrate backbone retains that structure and hydration arrangement when bound to the NP surface, and only the carboxylate groups interacting directly with the gold surface are different.

To confirm the carboxylate–Au interaction, additional SSNMR experiments were done with: (a) different dicarboxylate-containing species (namely sodium glutarate and sodium succinate) as well as a monocarboxylate system (sodium acetate), (b) low temperature (^{13}C CP/MAS NMR) at different citrate: Au ratios, and (c) ^{23}Na MAS NMR. At low ligand: Au ratios (0.2:1), peaks in the range 162-168 ppm were observed in the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum of NPs with glutarate or succinate, as for the analogous sodium citrate results.

To confirm the carboxylate–Au interaction, additional SSNMR experiments were done with:

a) Different Tri -carboxylate-containing species (tri sodium citrate- trimesic acid), di-carboxylate-containing species (namely sodium glutarate and sodium succinate) as well as a mono-carboxylate system (sodium acetate and Methyl acetate),

b) Variation in the pH of citrate: Au at the ratio of 1:1 and

c) Low temperature (^{13}C CP/MAS NMR) at different citrate: Au ratios.

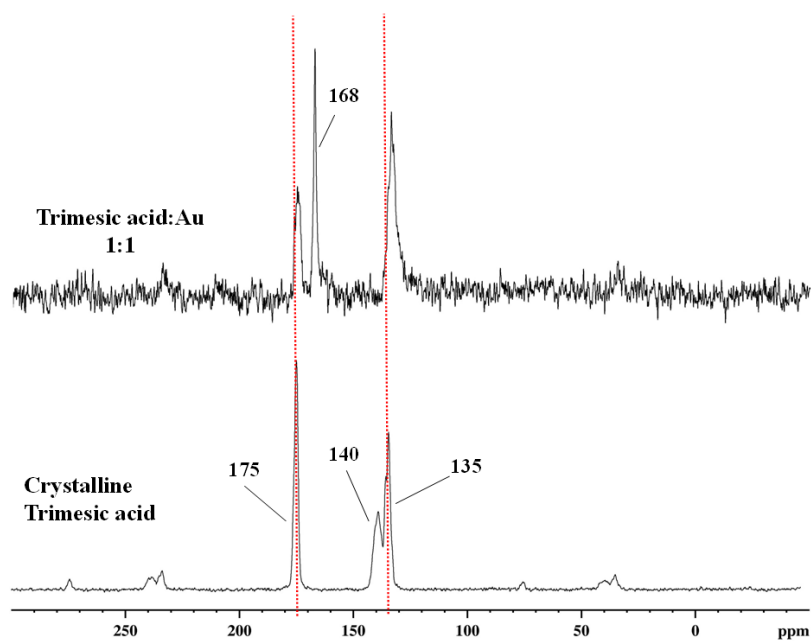


Figure 4.8 ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of Trimesic acid: gold 1:1 ratio. (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000, repetition delay = 5 s, contact time = 2 ms, exponential line broadening = 80 Hz).

These new peaks in the same spectral region were also detected with the Trimesic acid system, which is another tri-carboxylate-containing ligand **Figure 4.8**. A series of gold nanoparticles were prepared with different Trimesic acid: Au ratios (ranging from 0.2:1 to 10:1). Amongst them, the ratios between 1:1 and 5:1 yielded the smallest AuNPs, with average diameters of approximately 3-5 nm, and a desirable narrow size distribution **Figure 4.9**. AuNPs synthesized with Trimesic acid: Au ratios above or below this level exhibited larger average particle diameters and broader size distributions

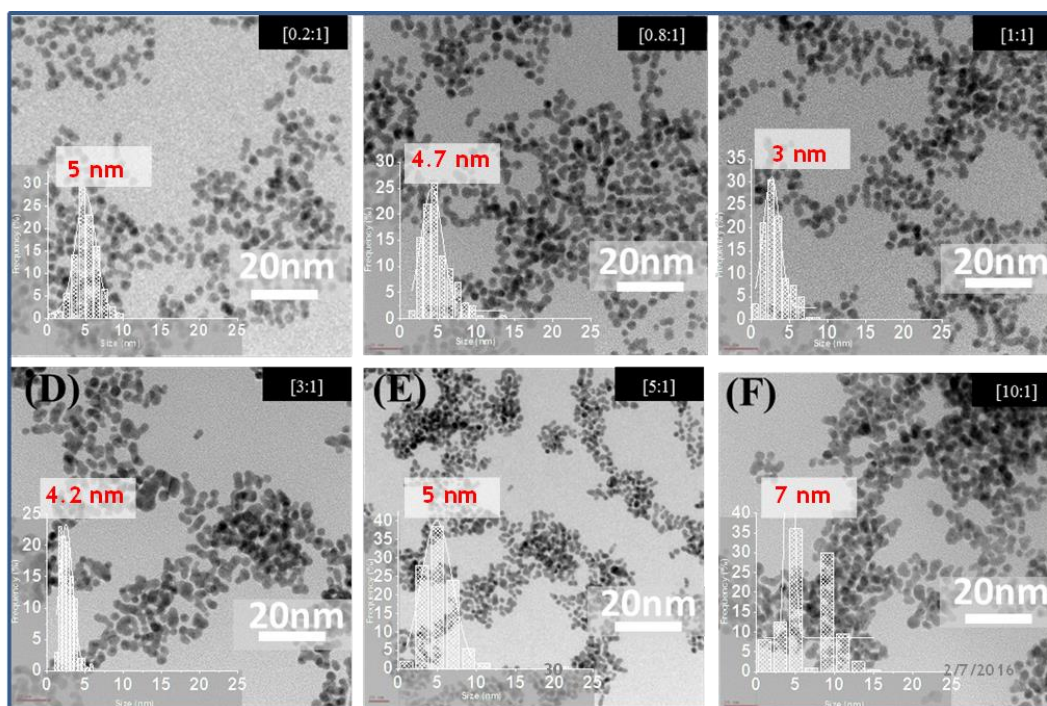


Figure 4.9 TEM images of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of Trimesic acid with respect to a constant amount of HAuCl_4 . Trimesic acid /Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1]. The inset in each image shows the particle size distribution for respective samples fitted by a Gaussian curve.

We begin by considering sodium glutarate, which was used to stabilize small AuNPs at the low glutarate: Au ratio of 0.2:1 **Figure 4.10**.

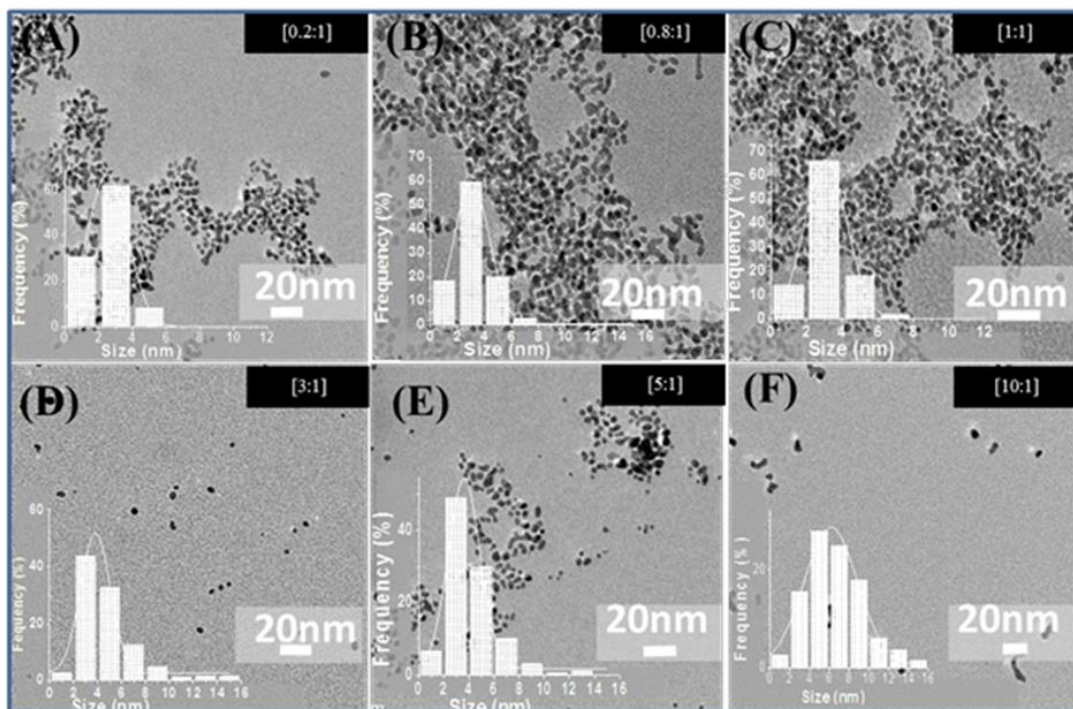


Figure 4.10 TEM images and respective particle size distributions (inset) of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of glutarate with respect to a constant amount of HAuCl_4 . Glutarate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1].

The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum of crystalline sodium glutarate shows 3 peaks: one at 24 ppm ($\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-CH}_2$), one at 41 ppm ($\text{CH}_2\text{-CH}_2\text{-COO}^-$), and one at 183 ppm (3 carboxylates, COO^-) **Figure 4. 11**. When interacting with Au at low ligand: Au ratios (0.2:1), new peaks in the range 162-168 ppm were observed, which is analogous to the above results with sodium citrate **Figure 4.3**. These new peaks in the same spectral

region were also detected with systems containing sodium succinate, which is another dicarboxylate-containing ligand **Figure 4. 12**.

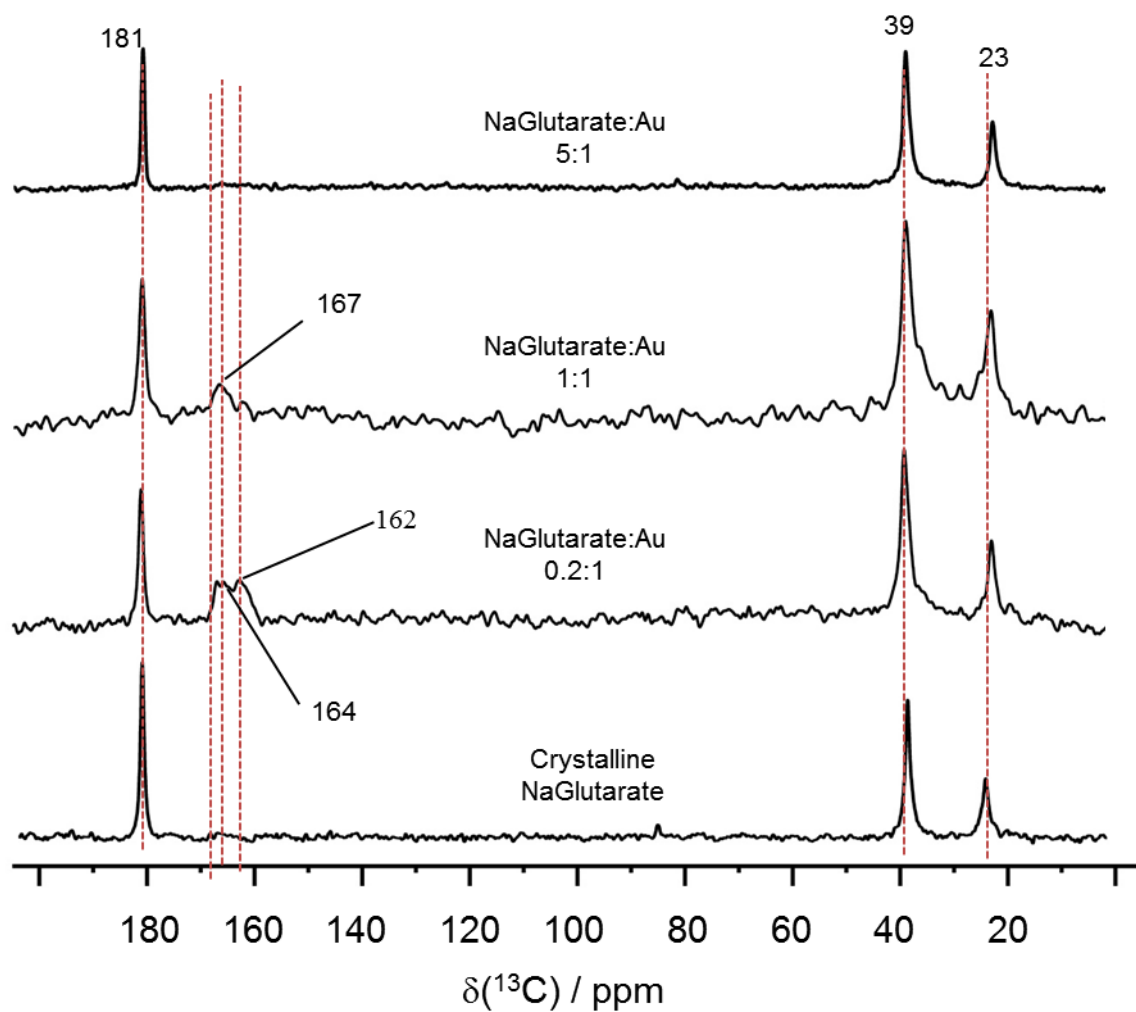


Figure 4. 11 ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of Glutarate: gold with different ligand: gold ratios. (number of scans = 50 000).

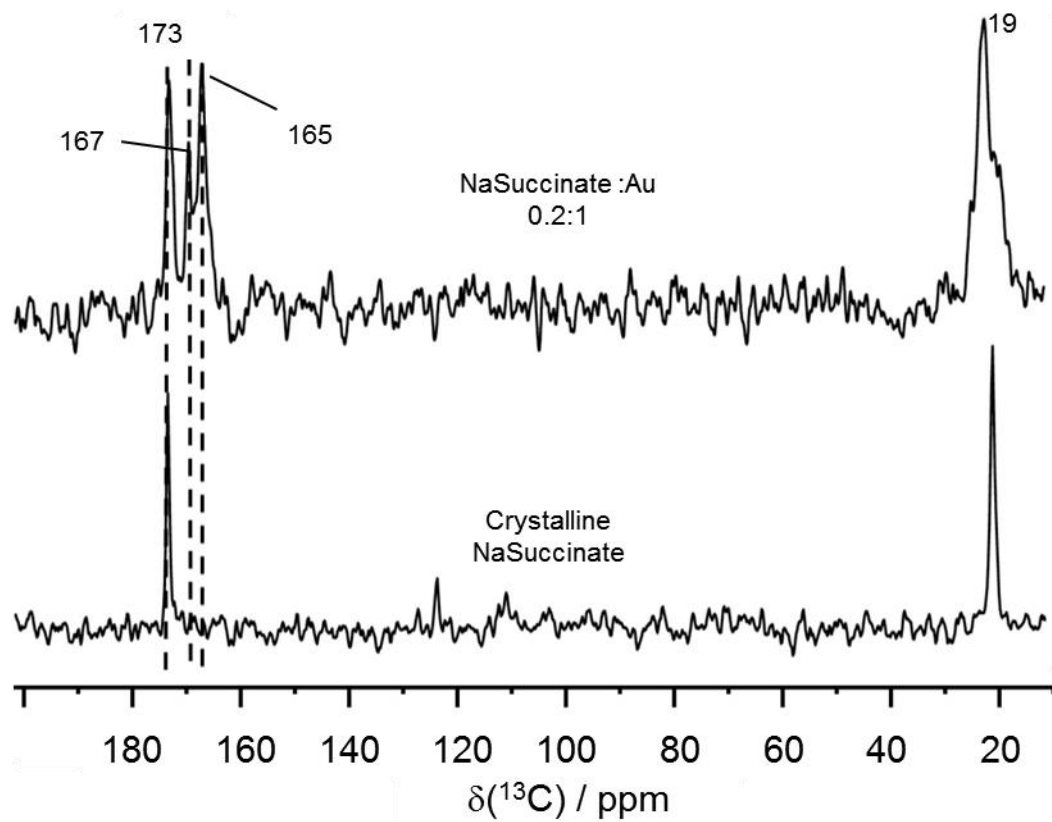


Figure 4. 12 ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of succinate/Au 0.2:1 (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000, repetition delay = 5).

We conclude that the peaks at 162 ppm and 164 ppm can be assigned to a mono-carboxylate bidentate ($M_1-\eta^2-\mu^2$) and di-carboxylate bidentate ($D-\eta^2-\mu^2$) interactions respectively **Figure 4.6**. The narrow peak at 167 ppm is attributed to pseudo mono-carboxylate bidentate with a freely rotating oxygen ($M_2-\eta^2-\mu^2$) **Figure 4.6**. By increasing the amount of the ligand species (sodium citrate, sodium glutarate and sodium succinate) to a 1:1 ratio with the AuNP, the ($M_2-\eta^2-\mu^2$) mode of binding is favoured. Particles stabilized with sodium acetate, provide further insight regarding the binding mode using SSNMR **Figure 4.13**. The AuNP diameter distributions for these particles are shown in **Figure 4. 14**.

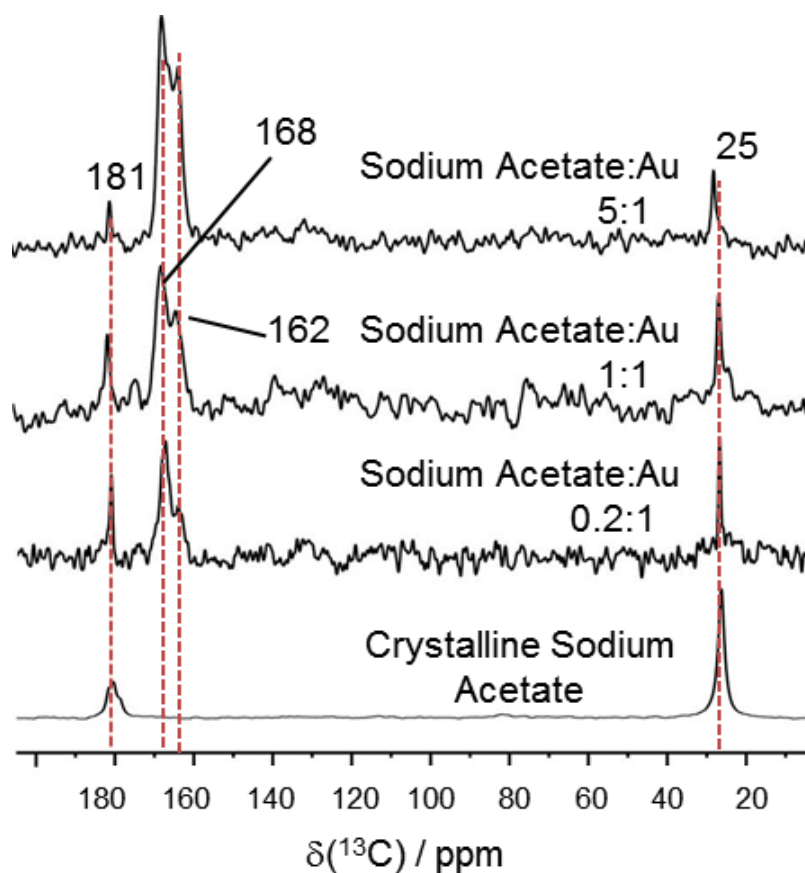


Figure 4.13 One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of acetate: Au systems having different ligand: Au ratios. (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000).

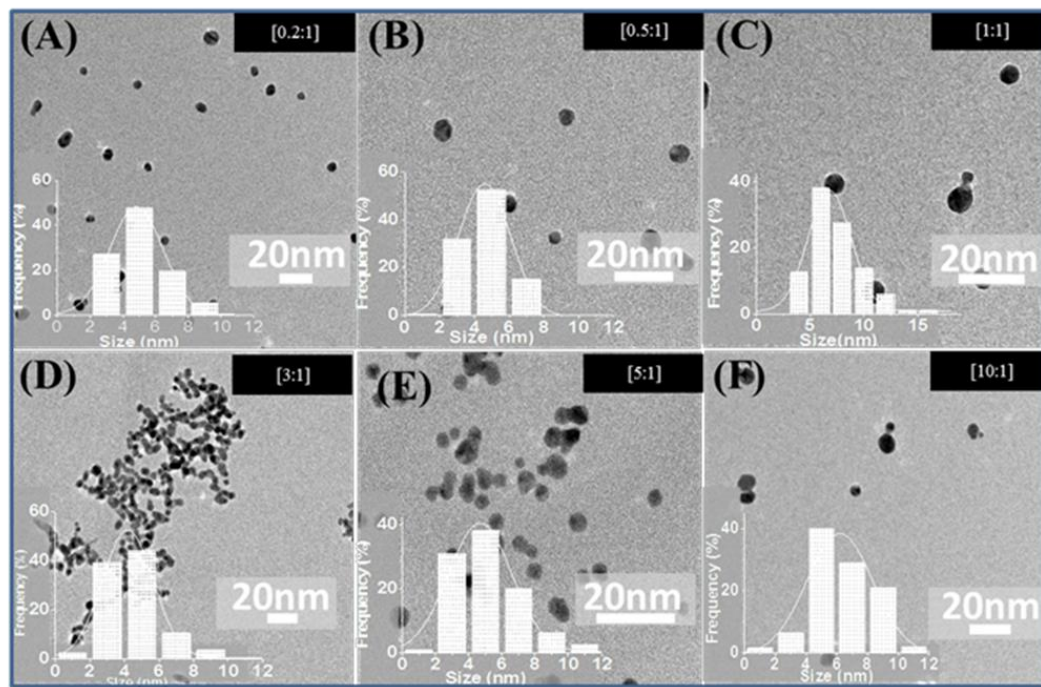


Figure 4. 14 TEM images and respective particle size distributions (inset) of AuNP synthesized by NaBH_4 reduction in the presence of different amounts of acetate with respect to a constant amount of HAuCl_4 . Sodium acetate/Au ratio: from (A) [0.2:1] to (F) [10:1].

The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum of crystalline sodium acetate shows the contribution of the methyl and carboxylate carbons at 25 ppm and 181 ppm, respectively. After coordination, and as with the citrate and glutarate ligands, new resonances appear at 168 and 162 ppm, which are tentatively assigned as belonging to a mono-carboxylate bidentate ($\text{M}_1\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$) and pseudo mono-carboxylate bidentate with freely rotating oxygen ($\text{M}_2\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$), respectively. The third peak at 164 ppm see with citrate attributed previously

to the di-carboxylate bidentate ($D-\eta^2-\mu^2$) coordination mode is necessarily absent, as acetate contains a single carboxylate. By increasing the sodium acetate to gold ratio, the intensity of both NMR signals remains roughly constant. The new resonances confirm again the mixed coordination of the carboxylate group onto the AuNP surface; however, here the mixed coordination modes coexist at both low and high ratios, likely due to the absence of significant steric effects and a facility of exchange between bound and free acetate.

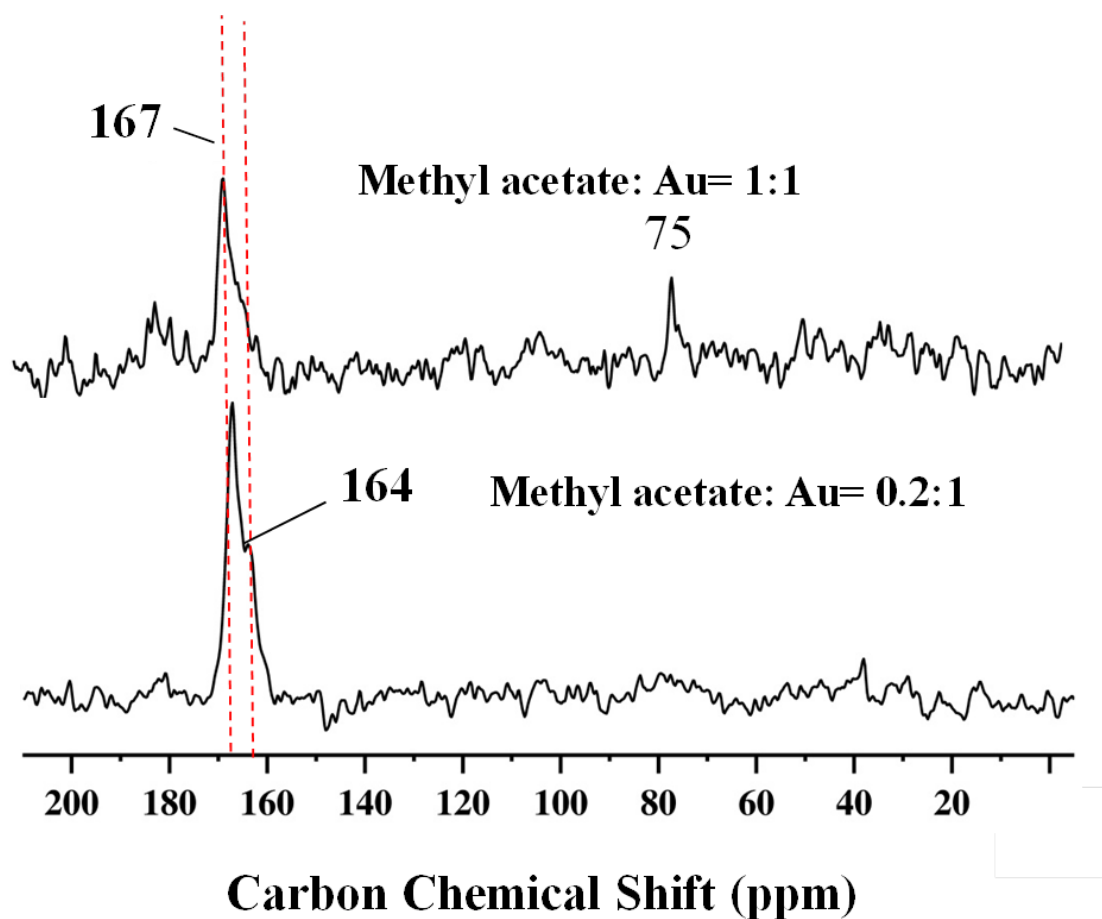


Figure 4. 15 One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of Methyl acetate: Au systems having different ligand: Au ratios. (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000).

To investigate more, we done the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of Methyl acetate, We overcome with this conclusion; When is adsorbed on AuNPs with different Methyl acetate: Au (1:1 and 0.2:1) ratios, the spectra have the following distinct features:

The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR show in addition to crystalline Methyl acetate, one new peak in the carboxylate region spanning the chemical shift at 164 ppm and one peak correspond to free ligand at 75ppm **Figure 4. 15**.

- For Methyl acetate: Au ratio of 1:1, the band of the peak in the 164 ppm range in the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum is still at the same position **Figure 4.3**. It seems that all the ligand coordinates to AuNPs surface. This is the same case with acetate **Figure 4.13**.

As a further probe of the ligand-AuNP interaction, experiments were done as a function of pH for sodium citrate stabilized particles. After the synthesis of the AuNP, which required the addition of 10 equivalents of sodium borohydride, the pH of the solution was measured to be 9. This value is considerably higher than the three pKa values of sodium citrate ($\text{pKa}_1 = 3.14$, $\text{pKa}_2 = 4.75$ and $\text{pKa}_3 = 6.39$), indicating that all carboxylate (COO^-) groups are deprotonated. The pH of the AuNP solution was then adjusted to either pH = 6 or pH = 3 by adding the required amount of 0.1 M hydrochloric acid, HCl *aq* after synthesis. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) results show a dramatic increase in AuNP diameter, from 2.2 nm at pH = 9 to 5.0 nm and 7.6 nm for pH = 6 and 3 **Figure 4. 16**.

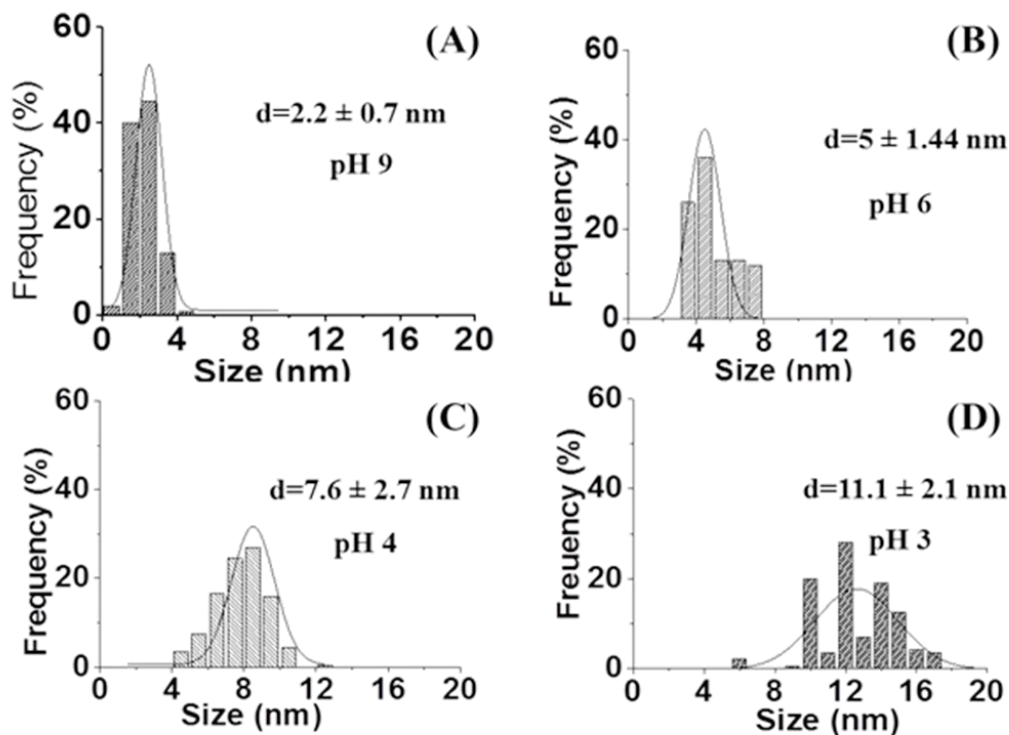


Figure 4. 16 Histograms of particle size distributions calculated from TEM images show a significant increase in the average nanoparticle size with a decrease in the solution pH from 2.2 nm at pH = 9 to 5.0, 7.6 and 11.1 nm at pH = 6, 4 and 3, respectively. This increase in particle size with respect to decreasing pH confirms that the basic form of citrate (R-COO^-) is able to effectively restrict the growth of nanoparticles and hence is a better stabilizer than the acidic form (R-COOH).

This increase in particle diameter confirms that the deprotonated form of citrate (R-COO^-) is a better stabilizer than the forms which are either partially or fully protonated (i.e., contain R-COOH). The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra **Figure 4. 17** of citrate on AuNPs with a citrate: Au ratio of 1:1 and with different pH values support this hypothesis. When the fully deprotonated form of citrate is lost, the characteristic peak of

citrate coordinated to the AuNP at 167 ppm is absent, which we interpret as direct evidence for the elimination of the Au-O interaction. Based upon this, we can speculate that at pH = 9, one carboxylate group of the citrate interacts with the AuNP surface, while the other two are engaged in an ionic interaction with Na⁺. We also note that at lower pH values, the ¹³C NMR peaks of free citrate are shifted to the higher field because the carboxylate groups have been protonated.¹⁰⁶ These same shifts were also recorded for aqueous sodium citrate in liquid state ¹³C NMR at variable pH **Figure 4. 18**. The above experiments provide direct proof of the role of the carboxylate anion in controlling the size of the gold nanoparticles and highlight that the stabilization ability of the fully deprotonated form is greater than the protonated form.

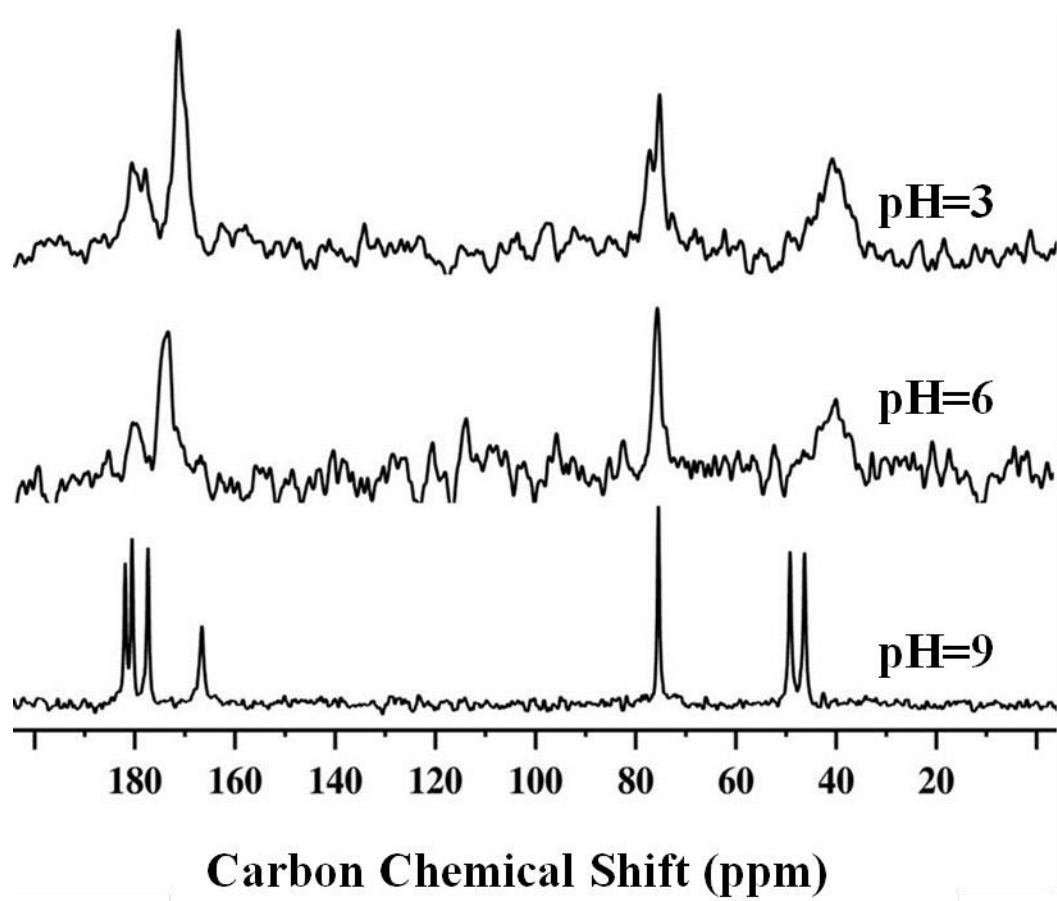


Figure 4. 17 One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of the citrate: Au ratio is maintained at 1:1, while the system pH is varied (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000).

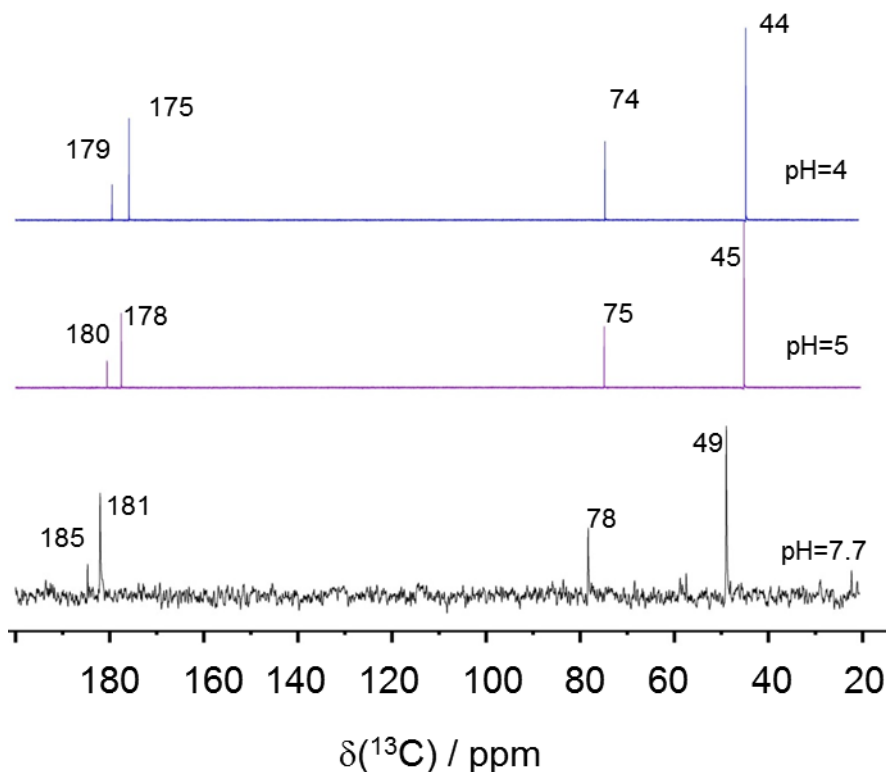


Figure 4.18 The liquid ^{13}C NMR spectra of an aqueous sodium citrate solution with different pH values show that the resonances shift to the higher field (i.e., lower chemical shifts) because the carboxylate groups of the citrate anion become progressively protonated as the pH is lowered.

To confirm this interpretation, ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra were recorded at 100 K (**Figure 4.19**). For the sodium citrate to Au ratio of 1:1 and 0.2:1 (appendices), the single peak at 167 ppm at RT is replaced by three resonances at 163, 165 and 167 ppm (**Figure 4.19**) at 100 K. This indicates that decreased temperatures reduce the accessible conformations for the carboxylate ligand and the three modes of coordination discussed above all make measurable contributions to the ^{13}C spectrum (i.e., $\text{M}_1\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$, $\text{D-}\eta^2\text{:}\eta^2\text{:}\mu^2$

and $M_2\text{-}\eta^2\text{-}\mu^2$). At low citrate:Au ratios (i.e., 0.2:1) the three peaks corresponding to the binding citrate are still present, but there is an increase in signal intensity at 165 ppm (Figure 4.3). The $D\text{-}\eta^2\text{:}\eta^2\text{:}\mu^2$ mode is favoured at low temperature.

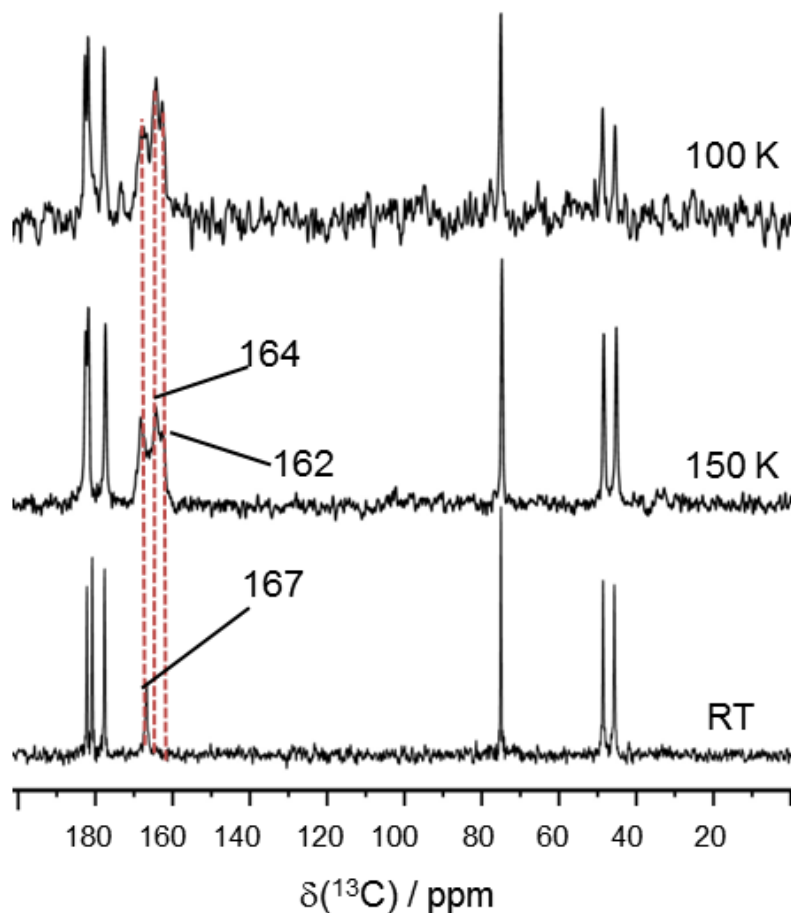


Figure 4.19 The carbonyl region of the 1D ^{13}C CP/MAS spectrum at 298, 150 and 100 K is shown for a citrate:Au ratio of 1:1. The NMR signal was strongly enhanced compared to room temperature, and 1024 scans for the spectra at 100 K and 4096 scans for the spectra at 150 K were acquired for the 1D ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum shown.

These ligand-stabilized AuNPs were also characterized by ^{13}C CP/MAS¹⁰⁷ at room and low temperature (100K), as well as by ^{23}Na MAS NMR. shows the ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum of crystalline sodium citrate dihydrate which exhibits peaks at 46 ppm and 48 ppm that correspond to the two CH_2 carbons, the peak at 75 ppm is assigned to the quaternary carbon, with three peaks in the carboxylate region at 178, 181, and 183 ppm¹⁰⁸. Liquid state ^{13}C NMR of aqueous sodium citrate shows two sharp peaks in the carboxylate region and one peak for the CH_2 moieties.

The low contrast of this layer indicates that it is likely a carbonaceous material that originated from the sodium citrate used during the synthesis. The thickness of this layer is ca. 8.0 Å, which interestingly is comparable with the dimensions of the sodium citrate salt formula unit.¹⁰⁹ The 0.58nm layer observed in the HRTEM images (**Figure 4.1c**) could serve as evidence for the formation of a Sodium citrate layer surrounding the AuNP surface. The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR show in addition to crystalline sodium citrate, three new peaks in the carboxylate region spanning the chemical shift range from 162 – 167 ppm **Figure 4.3**.

- At the very high citrate: Au ratio of 20:1. The HRTEM images show a layer that is ca 1.1nm thick **Figure 4.1d** around the AuNP that is more than twice that observed for the citrate-stabilized AuNP synthesized at lower citrate: Au ratios.

While it is difficult by energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) to distinguish carbon on the shell from that of the grid, we could identify the presence of Na within this layer, which strongly supports that it is derived from the sodium citrate used as a

stabilizer **Figure 4.20**. This again indicates the presence of a layer of sodium citrate surrounding the Au surface. However, we expect that the peaks observed in the 162 – 167 ppm range of the ^{13}C solid-state NMR arise only from the carboxylate groups of citrates that are directly interacting with the Au surface within this layer, as discussed and justified below.

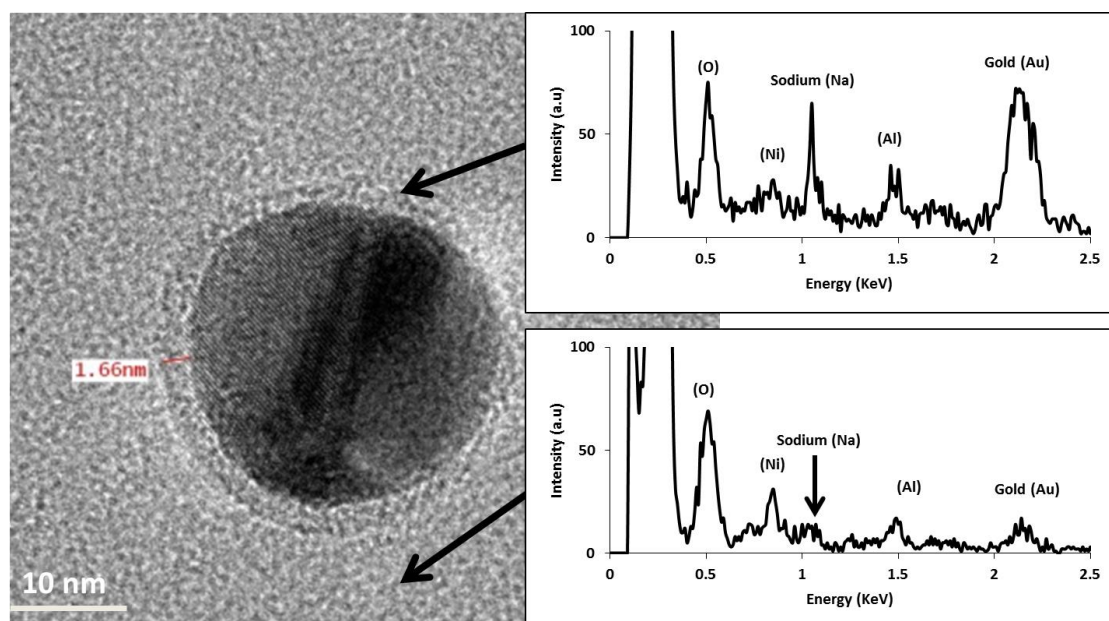


Figure 4.20 TEM/EDX spot analysis of the layer (20:1 citrate: Au ratio). We demonstrate that we have AuNP, O, C, Na, and Ni coming from the grid.

4.4.1 Calculations of ^{13}C magnetic shielding and chemical shifts

4.4.1.1 Models to probe the influence of structural parameters on ^{13}C shielding

Due to the metallic nature of the above model systems containing surface-supported acetate anions, the computational codes available to us could not be used to calculate

magnetic shielding values. However, by considering reasonably similar structures which have been published in the literature and which involve carboxylate – gold interactions, it was thought that a qualitative interpretation of the changes in the ^{13}C shielding values at the carboxylate carbon could be established via these model systems. Upon searching the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Center (CCDC) database, a rather analogous structure, $[\text{Au}(\text{O}_2\text{CCF}_3)\text{P}(\text{CH}_3)_3]$ was located which could serve as a model for a κ^1 coordination mode (CCDC reference code: FOBXID)¹¹⁰. With the fluorine atoms substituted for hydrogen atoms (**Figure 4. 22**), we selected one molecular fragment, relaxed the positions of the newly added hydrogen atoms, and calculated the ^{13}C magnetic shielding at the carbon nuclei. The calculated ^{13}C magnetic shielding at the carboxylate carbon ($\sigma_{\text{iso}} = 25.43$ ppm) can be used as a reference value in the discussion which follows, where we examine the sensitivity of the ^{13}C magnetic shielding to key structural parameters.

Calculations of Magnetic Shielding Using ADF Software. Using model molecular systems to probe the sensitivity of the ^{13}C magnetic shielding with respect to local geometry changes in a carboxylate group (more completely described in the (appendices), essentially all computational parameters remain as before, except that for magnetic shielding calculations, effects due to the spin-orbit mechanism were included¹¹¹. Specific computational details can also be found in the (appendices).

Calculations Using Periodic Quantum Chemistry Software. Magnetic shielding calculations involving periodic crystal structures as input used the CASTEP software (version 5.5)¹¹². Input files were generated using Materials Studio (v. 3.2.0.0), and ultrasoft pseudopotentials¹¹³ were used to describe the core electrons while plane waves

described the valence electrons. As in the above calculations using the ADF computational code, the PBE GGA XC functional was employed. Dispersion effects were included using the approach outlined by Tkatchenko and Scheffler (TS), which has often been applied for crystalline organic systems. The plane wave basis set energy cutoff was set at 700 eV and the k-point spacing was set at 0.05 \AA^{-1} in reciprocal space. Crystal structures were taken from a variety of literature sources, as disclosed in the (appendices). Importantly, for all crystalline systems, optimization of the hydrogen positions was performed before calculating the magnetic shielding values.

System	E_{Au}^b / kJ mol^{-1}	E_{Ac}^c / kJ mol^{-1}	E_{tot}^d / kJ mol^{-1}	BSSE ^e / kJ mol^{-1}	B. E. ^f / kJ mol^{-1}
Au(111) + 1 acetate	-15983.85	-4240.00	-20505.84	-2.15	-284.14
Au(100) + 1 acetate	-14025.78	-4239.94	-18555.53	-0.91	-290.72
Au(110) + 1 acetate	-14395.80	-4239.55	-18951.82	-0.68	-317.15
Au(111) + 4 acetates – I^g	-15983.85	-4240.38	-20504.86	-2.14	-282.77
Au(111) + 4 acetates – II	-15983.85	-4238.57	-20500.98	-3.52	-282.08
Au(111) + 4 acetates – III	-15983.85	-4240.56	-20539.37	-4.44	-319.40
Au(111) + 4 acetates – IV	-15983.85	-4236.18	-20500.54	-5.63	-286.14

Table 4. 1 Calculations of binding energies for acetate anions on Au model surfaces.

^a Calculations were carried out at the same level of theory as the geometry optimization calculations (i.e., GGA level of DFT, PBE XC functional, all-electron TZ2P basis on ligand atoms, TZ2P basis on Au atoms, but with a frozen core (up to 4f), relativistic effects included via the scalar ZORA, and dispersion included via Grimme three parameter correction). For descriptions of the acronyms used and relevant references, see main text.

^b Bond energy of the relevant gold surface model.

^c Bond energy of the isolated acetate anion.

^d Bond energy of the acetate anion and gold surface together.

^e Basis set superposition error. We note that contrary to the typical expectation, the BSSE is confirmed to be slightly negative for the systems considered herein.

^f Binding energy, B. E. = $E_{\text{tot}} - E_{\text{Au}} - E_{\text{Ac}} + \text{BSSE}$.

^g Corresponds to acetate ‘I’. Although in this system, there a total of four acetates were interacting with the Au(111) surface, for simplicity, the interaction energies between each ligand were ignored. Hence, each acetate ligand was treated in isolation and the E_{tot} values in these rows correspond to only the Au(111) surface and the particular acetate anion (i.e., ‘I’, ‘II’, ‘III’, ‘IV’) specified in the first column of the row.

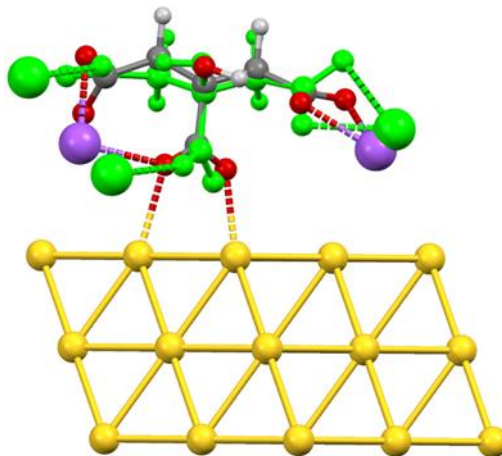


Figure 4. 21 Overlay of the DFT-optimized structure of a citrate anion (including two Na⁺ counterions) on an Au(111) surface model with the accepted crystal structure of sodium citrate dihydrate (CCDC refcode: UMOGAE). The atomic rmsd between the citrate carbon and oxygen atoms is 0.57 Å, highlighting the conformational similarity between the two citrates. The citrate corresponding to the crystal structure of sodium

citrate dihydrate has been arbitrarily colored green to allow for enhanced visual inspection.

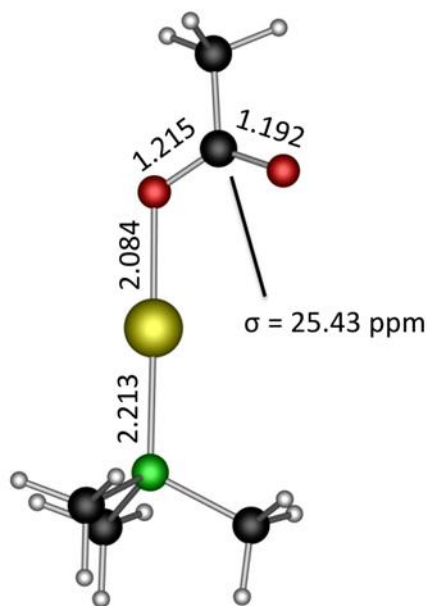


Figure 4. 22 Molecular model for a κ^1 carboxylate-gold interaction, with selected bond distances and the magnetic shielding at the carboxylate carbon indicated. It is based on the crystal structure of $[\text{Au}(\text{O}_2\text{CCF}_3)\text{P}(\text{CH}_3)_3]$ published by Preisenberger et al.,¹¹⁰ but with the fluorine atoms of the CF_3 group replaced by H atoms. Prior to the shielding calculation, the H atomic positions were optimized.

Using the above model as a point of reference, in **Figure 4.23A**, it is seen that reasonably large changes in the Au-O internuclear distance (several tenths of an Å) result in only modest changes in the ^{13}C shielding values of the carboxylate carbon (about +1 ppm of shielding for a +0.1 Å increase in the Au-O distance). This underscores that changes in the Au-O coordination mode itself cannot explain the most significant changes

in the observed ^{13}C chemical shifts upon interacting with the Au surface, which was on the order of 15 to 20 ppm relative to the salt forms. At the same time, it may help explain the subtle effects such as the distribution of the ^{13}C NMR resonances observed experimentally in the region of 162 to 168 ppm.

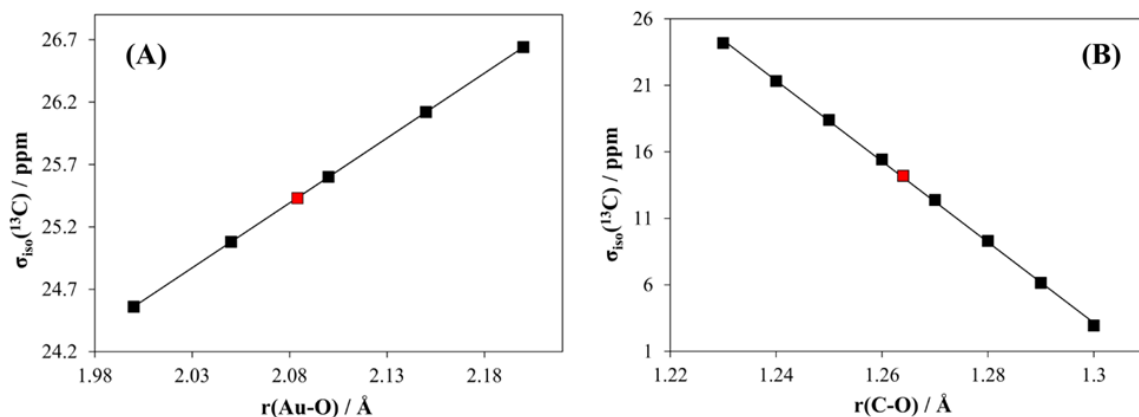


Figure 4.23 Plots highlighting the changes in ^{13}C magnetic shielding as a function of key structural parameters. In (a), the σ_{iso} for the carboxylate carbon is seen to be correlated positively with the Au-O distance in the model based on that shown in **Figure 4.22**. In (b), the σ_{iso} of the carboxylate carbon in the acetate anion model is seen to be correlated negatively with the C-O distance. The red squares indicate reference (equilibrium) geometries while the other data points result from calculations using the reference geometries after modifying only the bond distance displayed in the plots. Linear regression fits and Pearson R2 values: for (a), $\sigma_{\text{iso}} = 10.40(r(\text{Au-O})) + 3.7554$, $R2 = 1.00$; for (b) $\sigma_{\text{iso}} = -303.4(r(\text{C-O})) + 397.6$, $R2 = 0.999$.

We now consider the importance of the C-O bond distance in determining the ^{13}C magnetic shielding values using an acetate anion as the model (although perhaps a bit crude, we assume for this qualitative example that the two C-O bond distances are

equivalent). Here, even very small changes of 0.01 Å result in substantial changes in the calculated shielding (about a +3 ppm change in σ_{iso} for every -0.01 Å change in the C-O internuclear distance), as seen in **Figure 4.23B**. We note that prior literature accounts using IR spectroscopy observed increased C-O stretching frequencies upon going from the salt forms to the AuNP surface-supported species,^{90c} hence changes in the C-O bond length on the order of -0.05 Å are entirely reasonable. Concretely, if we look at the C-O bond lengths in the parent sodium acetate and sodium acetate trihydrate,¹¹⁴ they are seen to be ca. 1.25 – 1.26 Å, while in the κ^1 coordination model (i.e., initially [Au(O₂CCF₃)P(CH₃)₃], where we subsequently replaced the F atoms with H in the CF₃ moiety) these distances are reduced to about 1.20 Å.¹¹⁰ Based on the trends established here using model systems, structural changes of this sort could lead to increased σ_{iso} (i.e., decreased δ_{iso} values) of about 15 ppm, in reasonable accord with the experimental findings.

Additionally, these calculations are able to partition the magnetic shielding contributions into diamagnetic, paramagnetic, and spin-orbit mechanisms. The relativistic corrections to the carboxylate ¹³C magnetic shielding are captured in the spin-orbit terms, which are presently calculated to be very small in the Au-containing systems (about 0.1 ppm of the total magnetic shielding for the [Au(O₂CCH₃)P(CH₃)₃] molecular model, **Figure 4. 22**). Due to the very minimal contributions by the spin-orbit mechanism, one may safely ignore relativistic corrections to the ¹³C magnetic shielding at the carboxylate carbon nuclei. With this in mind, we thought to complement these “gas-phase” calculations with computations that include the translational symmetry found in most crystal structures (i.e., so-called ‘periodic codes’). As the periodic codes available

to us do not include relativistic corrections in the computation of magnetic shielding, it was important for us to have first verified the negligible significance of these terms in the system of interest before use.

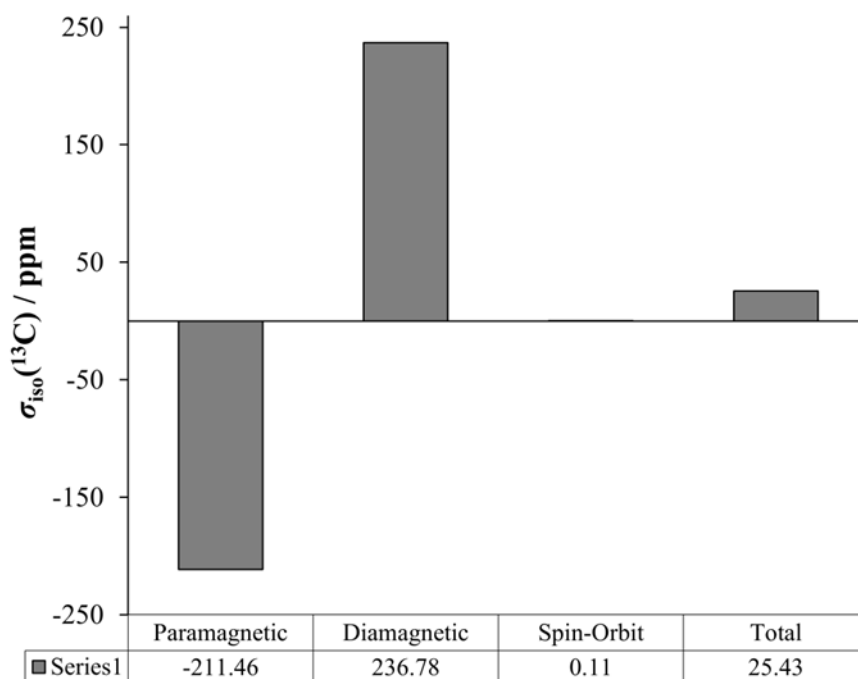


Figure 4.24 Contributions to total isotropic ^{13}C magnetic shielding for the carboxylate carbon in the $[\text{Au}(\text{O}_2\text{CCH}_3)\text{P}(\text{CH}_3)_3]$ molecular model, highlighting the relatively minor effect of the spin-orbit term on total shielding Using Periodic DFT to Probe Changes in ^{13}C Magnetic Shielding.

To calibrate the conversion of quantum chemically calculated magnetic shielding to experimental chemical shifts, we used the accepted crystal structures of sodium acetate trihydrate³ and sodium citrate dihydrate.¹¹⁵ These calculated shielding values, when coupled with the experimentally measured ^{13}C shifts as part of the present study, and those found in the literature,⁵ lead to the calibration plot below in **Figure 4. 25**.

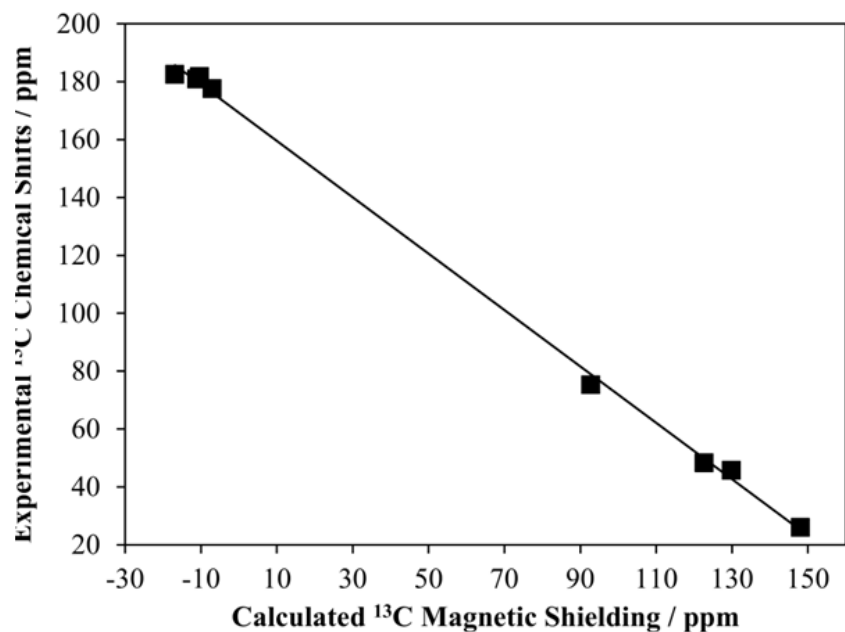


Figure 4. 25 Calibration plot for isotropic magnetic shielding (σ_{iso}) vs. isotropic chemical shifts (δ_{iso}) for all carbon atoms in the structures of sodium acetate trihydrate and sodium citrate dihydrate. The crystal structures used can be found in the preceding section where the geometrical parameters are disclosed. This calibration curve is subsequently used to generate chemical shift values for similar systems. Linear regression fit and Pearson R2 value: $\delta_{\text{iso}} = -0.9738\sigma_{\text{iso}} + 169.3$, $R^2 = 0.999$.

With this established, we calculate ^{13}C σ_{iso} values for the carboxylate carbon nuclei in the crystal structures of $[\text{Au}(\text{O}_2\text{CCH}_3)\text{P}(\text{Ph})_3]$ and $[\text{Au}(\text{O}_2\text{CCF}_3)\text{P}(\text{CH}_3)_3]$ ^{110, 1166} which again are being used as qualitative models of the surface interactions. Using the shielding/shift relationship established in **Figure 4.22**, we arrive at the predicted chemical shift values, as found **Table 4. 2**.

System	$\sigma_{\text{iso}}(^{13}\text{C, calc.}) / \text{ppm}$	$\delta_{\text{iso}}(^{13}\text{C, calc.}) / \text{ppm}$
[Au(O ₂ CCH ₃)P(Ph) ₃]	3.90	165.49
[Au(O ₂ CCF ₃)P(CH ₃) ₃] – molecule A	8.88	160.64
[Au(O ₂ CCF ₃)P(CH ₃) ₃] – molecule B	15.12	154.57
[Au(O ₂ CCF ₃)P(CH ₃) ₃] – molecule C	20.85	148.99

Table 4. 2 Chemical Shifts for Systems Involving Carboxylate – Gold Interactions.

^a Carbon-13 chemical shift values are determined from the calculated magnetic shielding values according to the relationship established. Structures used for the calculations are given in the sections above. Please note that the crystal structure of [Au(O₂CCF₃)P(CH₃)₃] possesses three unique molecules in the asymmetric unit (i.e., $Z' = 3$) and we have chosen to distinguish them with the arbitrary labels of ‘A’, ‘B’, and ‘C’. For comparison, recall that the experimental ¹³C shift values of the carboxylate carbon nuclei in the sodium citrate dihydrate and sodium acetate salts fell within the range 178 to 183 ppm, as described in the main paper.

From the ensemble of calculations presented here in this additional discussion section, it is clear that increased chemical shielding (i.e., decreased chemical shifts) are expected to be observed when the acetate (and also citrate) ligands bind to the surface of the Au nanoparticle. Although difficult to quantitatively establish, the order of magnitude for the change in the carboxylate ¹³C shift is seen to range from approximately 15 to 30 ppm, which is in reasonable accord with the experimental observations. Based on the findings from the ‘gas-phase’ computational software, it is seen that this effect is not so critically due to the presence of the Au atoms, but rather due to a reduction in the C-O bond distance(s) upon coordination with the Au surface. Importantly, this is consistent with the results from IR spectroscopy^{90c} which had illustrated an increase in the frequencies of

the various C-O stretching modes upon having a carboxylate group of the citrate anion interacting with the Au nanoparticle.

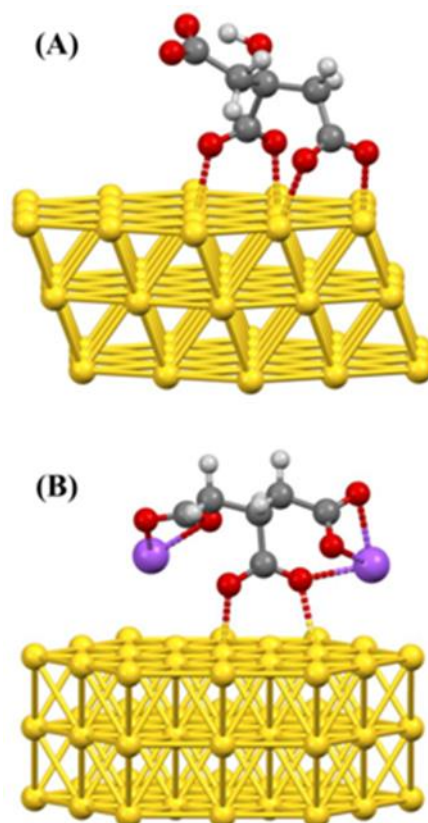


Figure 4. 26 DFT-optimized ligand geometries for a single citrate anion interacting with the Au(111) model surface. In (A), no sodium cations are included, while in (B), two sodium cations are included in the geometry optimization.

To generalise these results for the acetate to the other carboxylate-containing systems considered as part of this study, we arrive at the schematic structures presented in **Figure 4.27**.

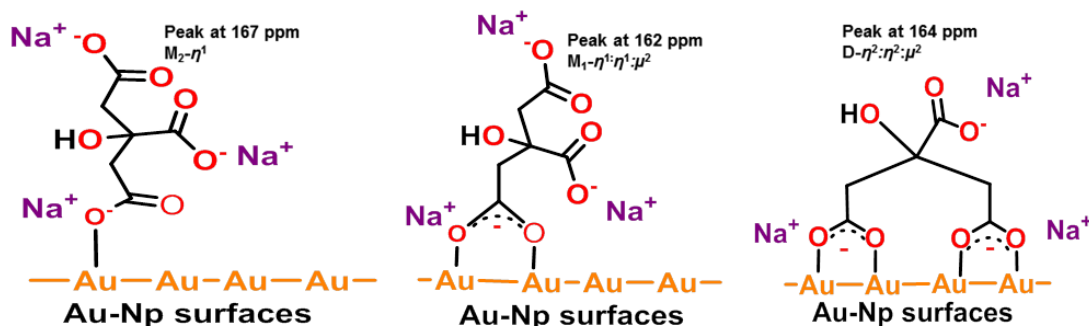


Figure 4.27 Schematic representations of the different modes of coordination of citrate: Au, with their corresponding ^{13}C chemical shifts provided.

The following simple interpretations are used to assign the ^{13}C SSNMR spectra: where the coverage of the surface is lower, the peaks in the ^{13}C SSNMR spectra can be attributed to κ^1 (monodentate, 167 ppm) and μ^2 (bridging bidentate mono- 162 ppm and di-carboxylate 164 ppm) resonances. At higher surface coverage the broad band (3 peaks) becomes a single narrow peak, possibly due to the transition from a μ^2 to a κ^1 mode which allows closer packing in the monodentate surface-coordinated carboxylates linked to Au. This agrees with recent IR results reported by Park and Shumaker-Parry^{90c} who showed that citrate can be adsorbed on the Au surface via 1 or 2 oxygen atoms.

However, the difference between bridging and chelating modes could not be spectrally distinguished with FTIR. It is noteworthy to mention here that this could potentially be resolved by NMR because of its sensitivity towards these two kinds of coordination (i.e., κ^1 mode X^- , or μ^2 mode LX^- , respectively).^{90c}

We also mention in brief some dispersion-corrected DFT findings regarding a citrate anion interacting with a model Au(111) surface. While the greater conformational freedom of the citrate anion relative to the acetate anion makes conclusive interpretations

rather difficult using quantum chemical methods, we find different local minima for the citrate/Au(111) system depending on whether Na^+ counterions are included. We took as the starting conformation the ‘extended’ form, with the central carboxylate of the citrate anion directed towards the Au(111) surface.

The only difference is whether Na^+ cations were located proximate to the terminal carboxylates of the citrate. Intriguingly, when Na^+ cations are not present, the geometry optimized structure undergoes a substantial conformational change such that one of the terminal carboxylates interacts with the Au(111) edge **Figure 4.27A**.

However, when including the Na^+ counterions, this conformational change is not seen, and the extended form of the citrate is preserved **Figure 4.27 B**. Importantly, when comparing the heavy atom positions of the geometry optimized citrate on Au(111) displayed in **Figure 4.27B** with the citrate anion structure from the crystal structure of sodium citrate dihydrate,¹¹⁷ it is seen that the carbon atomic rmsd is only 0.16 Å (if the oxygen atoms are included in the rmsd calculation, this value raises to 0.57 Å. When considering the ^{13}C SSNMR results in **Figure 4.3**, only the carboxylate carbon signals vary between the crystalline form of sodium citrate dihydrate and the citrate which is interacting with the gold nanoparticle. Due to the profound sensitivity of ^{13}C chemical shifts to local structure,¹¹⁸ we would expect that if the structure in **Figure 4.27A** was realistic, then additional new ^{13}C NMR peaks from the other carbon sites in the citrate should appear, which is contrary to our observations. Likewise, considering the minimal perturbations in the conformation of the citrate seen in **Figure 4.27B** relative to the crystalline structure of sodium citrate dihydrate, it would be expected that no new ^{13}C

peaks outside of the carboxylate region would be observed, which is consistent with our experimental ^{13}C SSNMR observations.

A remaining question concerns the nature of the carboxylate binding interaction, which can be LX or LL, (2 electron donor: L-type ligands and 1electron donor: X-type ligands)⁸², is resolved with ^{23}Na NMR. ⁸² **Figure 4.28** shows the ^{23}Na multiple quantum MAS (MQMAS) NMR spectra of sodium citrate (in black) and citrate:Au (1:1 ratio) (in red). Details of the spectra and the analysis are given in (appendices). The ^{23}Na MQMAS experiment permits to resolve four peaks corresponding to the four crystallographically distinct Na^+ cations in the asymmetric unit cell of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate. Interestingly, the ^{23}Na MQMAS spectrum of citrate:Au (1:1 ratio) shows the same number of ^{23}Na peaks (in addition to the peak at 7.21 ppm which is assigned to NaCl), with the only significant difference being a shift in one of the sodium sites. The structure of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate contains two sodiums that each coordinate only one terminal carboxylate, and two that each coordinate both a central and a terminal carboxylate. Since only one sodium shift changes upon binding this is further clear evidence that binding occurs through a terminal carboxy group, and that the displaced sodium cation remains in the vicinity of the citrate. This strongly suggests that the carboxylate groups act as an LL ligand, as shown in **Figure 4.27**.

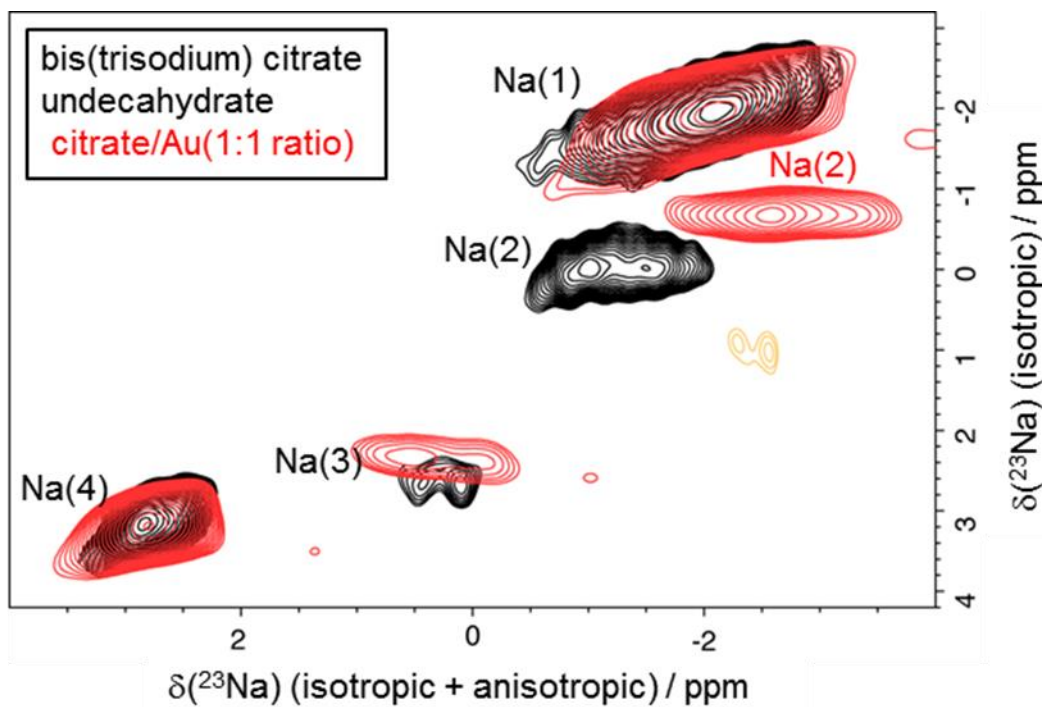


Figure 4.28 ^{23}Na MQMAS NMR spectra of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate (in black) and a system having a citrate: Au ratio of 1:1 (in red) acquired at 21.1 T.

This also supports the conclusion from the carbon spectra above that the structure of the citrate is very similar to that in bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate. This also implies that the surface gold atoms interacting with citrate are $\text{Au}(0)$.³⁷ High resolution XPS spectra of the Au 4f core level from a citrate-stabilized AuNP sample, as well as bulk Au, are shown in **Figure 4.29** and **Figure 4.30**, respectively (see Methods and SI for further details). The observed amount of partially charged $\text{Au}^{+\delta}$ species in the stabilized sample represents 4% of the total gold species. Importantly, 38 to 51 % of the Au atoms should constitute the AuNP surface for particle diameters between 2 to 3 nm. These results thus indicate that the dominant oxidation state of gold in the citrate-stabilized AuNP sample is $\text{Au}(0)$, with minimal charge transfer at the citrate/AuNP interface.

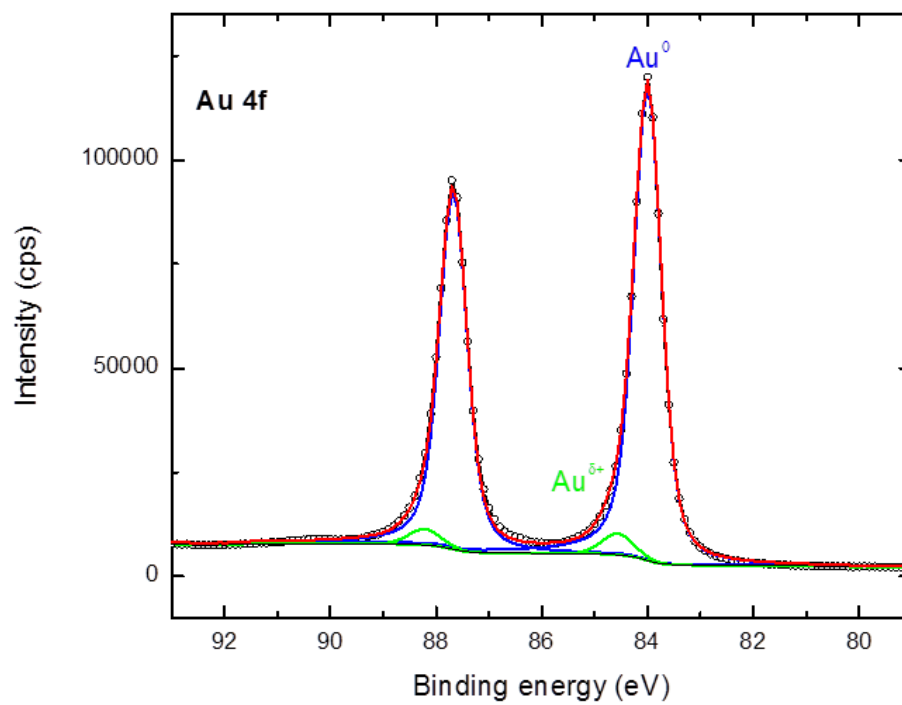


Figure 4.29 XPS spectrum of the Au 4f core levels of citrate stabilized gold nanoparticles synthesized using a 1:1 citrate: Au ratio.

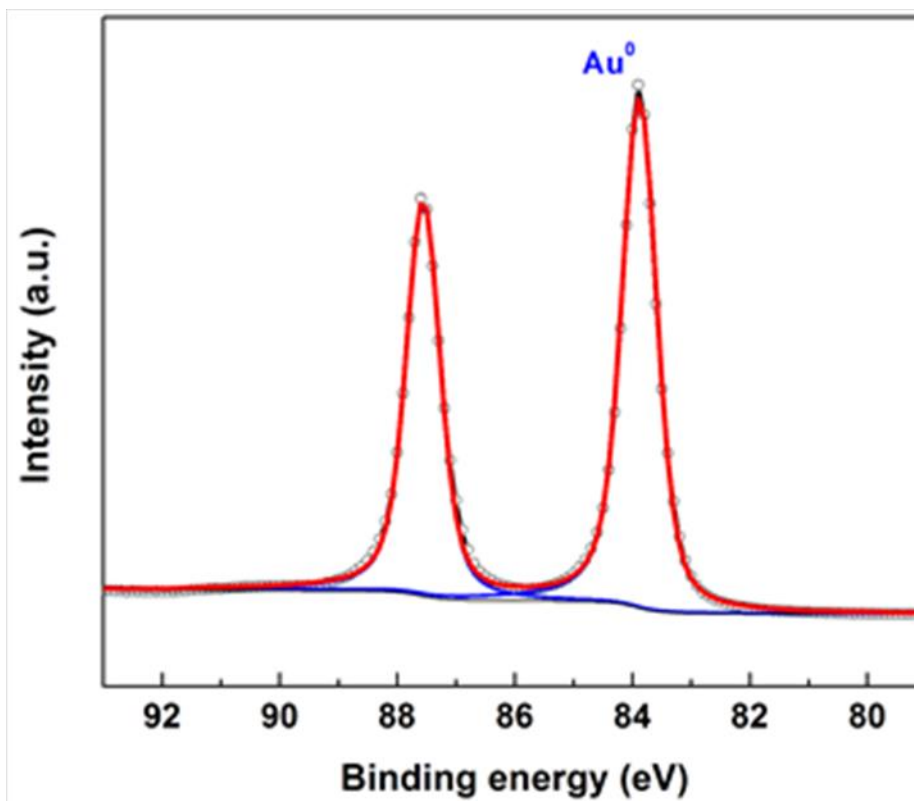


Figure 4. 30 XPS spectrum of the Au 4f core level from bulk Au substrate.

XPS also shows that Na and a very small amount of Cl are present in the sample (**Figure 4. 31**), forming part of the stabilizing layer surrounding the AuNP. No detectable amount of boron was observed, suggesting that anions such as B(OH)_4^- derived from the NaBH_4 precursor are not present near the Au surface in the presence of citrate anions.

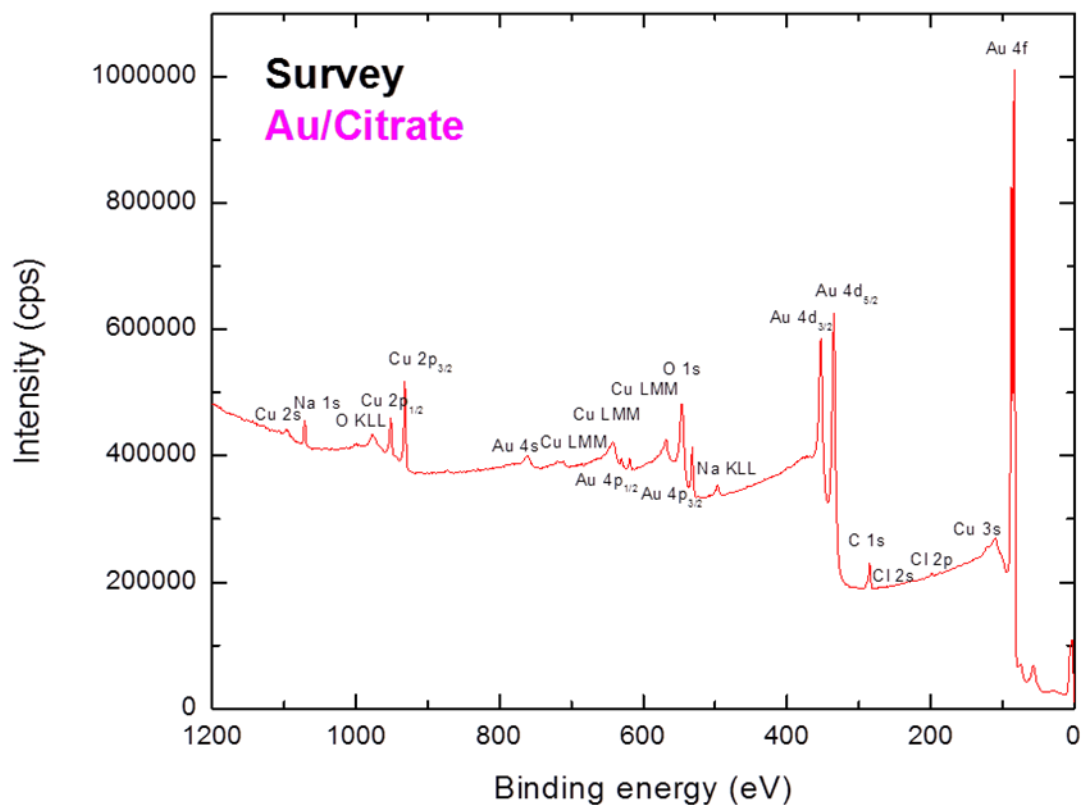


Figure 4. 31 Survey XPS spectrum of a citrate stabilized AuNP sample 1:1 citrate: Au ratio.

In order to get more investigation about the binding mode. We tried to wash the NPs after synthesis **Figure 4. 32** to remove the ligands components along with a maximal recovery of AuNP colloids from the synthesized solution, an optimal centrifugation process was obtained based on tests of centrifugation force 4000 g and duration 30 min by following a purification process schematically illustrated in **Figure 4. 32**.

There was a total of four rounds of purification (treatment); the supernatant resulting from the initial centrifugation of 1 mL freshly synthesized AuNPs solution was transferred to a vial and the centrifuged AuNP were immediately dispersed in ultrapure water of its original volume. The composite AuNP solution underwent a second, third

and fourth round of centrifugation by following the same operating procedure as the first round to minimize ligands components and maximize recovery of AuNPs. Then, the AuNPs in all rounds were dried at room temperature to do NMR study.

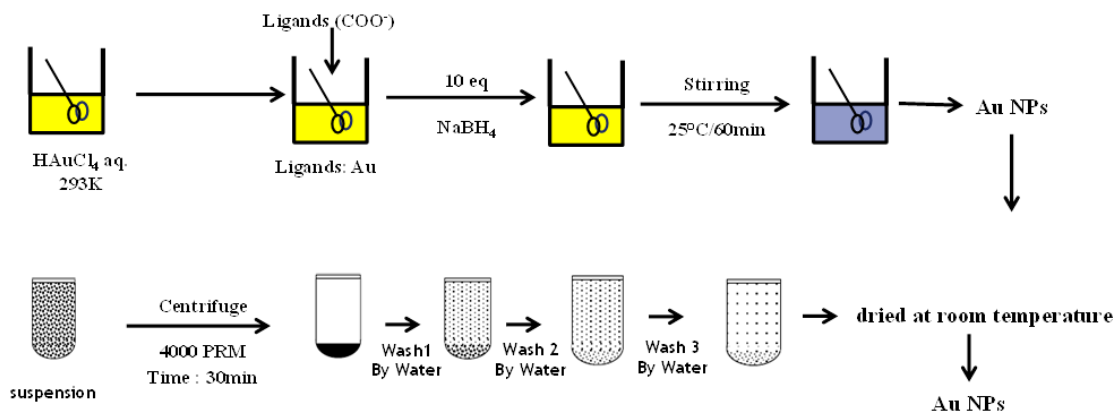


Figure 4. 32 Schematic purification process of gold nanoparticles (post-synthesis).

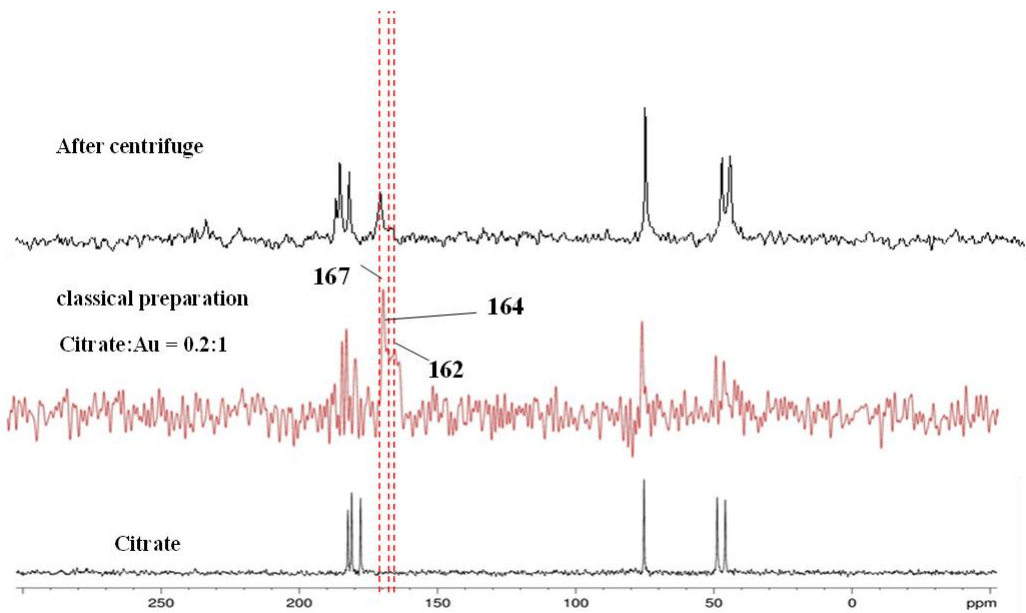


Figure 4. 33 One-dimensional (1D) ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of citrate:Au at 0.2:1 ratio before and after centrifuge. (number of scans = 50 000 to 100 000).

To verify whether the interaction of the organic ligand with the gold nanoparticles still remain or not. We clean the gold nanoparticles surface by remove the access of the ligands. We come to this conclusion;

The ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra **Figure 4. 33** of citrate on AuNPs with a citrate: Au ratio of 0.2:1 and with centrifuge system support this hypothesis. When the excess of ligands form AuNPs, the characteristic peak of citrate coordinated to the AuNP at 167 ppm is there, which we interpret as direct evidence for the Au-O interaction. The above experiments provide direct proof of the role of the carboxylate and highlight there stabilization ability on gold nanoparticles.

We conducted a detailed study by IR spectroscopy of the resulting nanostructures. **Figure 4. 34** shows the FTIR spectra of the Au nanoparticles which are prepared by using citrate with various ratios as a stabilizer. The band at 1620 cm^{-1} corresponds to the vibration of the asymmetric ν_{as} (C=O) while one located at 1400 cm^{-1} is characteristic of its symmetrical (C=O) ν_{s} . The evolution of the first band of 1580 cm^{-1} with the decrease in the amount citrate. It is also observed that decreasing the amount of ligands in the system causes a reduction in the intensity of the vibration band of deformation of the C=O.

This difference clearly shows that the interaction between the citrate and the Au nanoparticle surface is controlled by the COO^- anions. The change in IR C=O stretching: symmetric, Asymmetric, shows that the Carbonyl groups are possible functional groups coordinated to the gold nanoparticles surface.

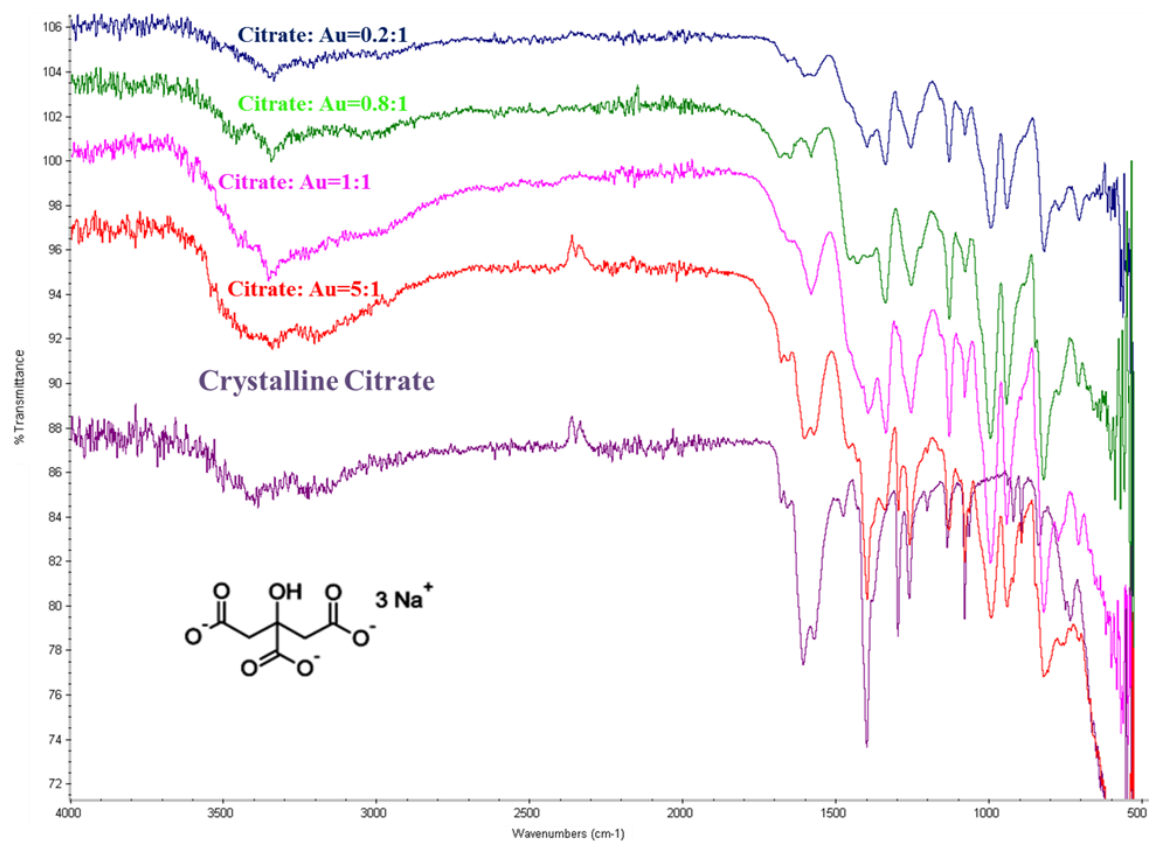


Figure 4. 34 FTIR spectra of AuNP synthesized by NaBH₄ reduction in the presence of different amounts of citrate with respect to a constant amount of HAuCl₄. Sodium Citrate/Au ratio: 0.2:1, 0.8:1, 1:1 and 5:1.

As shown in **Figure 4. 35 a and b**, respectively. In these images, a few examples are found the stabilizers are a distribution on the Au particles. We can differentiate that by the white color which related to the ligands. The thickness of this color ranges from more than one individual layers.

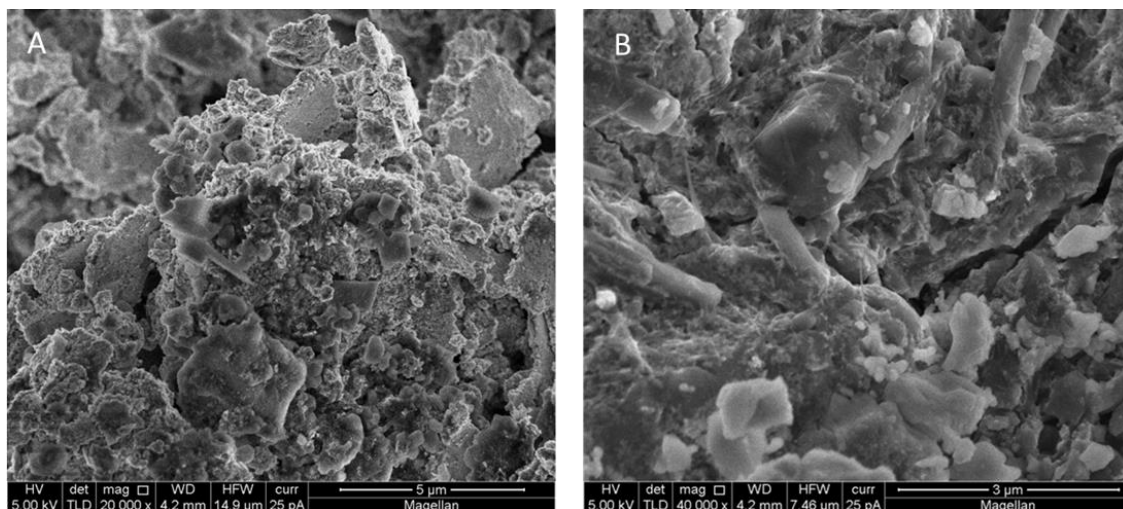


Figure 4.35 SEM images of the surface morphology after deposition of 1:1 citrate/Au ratio.

4.5 Conclusions

In conclusion, by combining SSNMR, TEM, XPS and dispersion-corrected DFT calculations, we determined the structure and mode of interaction of various carboxylate-containing systems with AuNP surfaces. From the NMR data we observe that the interaction involves coordination of one or two carboxylate groups to the surface Au atoms, and that the structure of citrate is the same as in crystalline bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate. Guided by DFT calculations, we deduce that the binding between the carboxylate group and the AuNP surface occurs in three different modes: monocarboxylate bidentate ($M_1-\eta^2:\eta^2:\mu^2$), pseudo monocarboxylate bidentate ($M_2-\eta^2-\mu^2$) and dicarboxylate bidentate ($D-\eta^2:\eta^2:\mu^2$).

The relative amount of citrate anions with respect to the AuNP is a crucial factor influencing the predominant mode of binding. Based upon our combined computational and experimental results, we tentatively assert that at higher citrate:Au ratios, the $M_2-\eta^2-\mu^2$ mode is preferred over the bridging bidentate mode. According to our binding energy calculations, the binding interaction for acetate is weak relative to a covalent Au-O bond, and XPS experiments indicate that the AuNP surface atoms are mainly in the zero oxidation state, with a very minor presence of partially charged $Au^{+\delta}$ species. ^{23}Na NMR experiments suggest that Na^+ ions are present near the gold surface, indicating that the carboxylate binding occurs as an LL type interaction ($2e^-$ donor).⁸²

Chapter 5.

Gold Base Catalysts

Gold was considered inactive and it was the noble metal less used in homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysis. Gradually gold catalysts appeared in homogeneous catalysis in the selective oxidation of amino alcohol or¹¹⁹ amino acids in the synthesis of arenes¹²⁰. Until 1986 gold was considered inactive in heterogeneous catalysis. After the pioneering study of Haruta et al¹²¹. showing that the supported gold nanoparticles possess extraordinary properties for the oxidation of carbon monoxide (CO) in presence of hydrogen¹²², the number of publications in the field of heterogeneous catalysis on gold has increased considerably.

Since then gold catalysts have proved active in many heterogeneous catalytic reactions. These reactions involving hydrogen and carbon monoxide, but giving quite different products, can also occur. These include methanol synthesis from syngas¹²³, the reduction of nitrogen oxides¹²⁴, the oxidation of methane or volatile organic compounds (VOC) by molecular oxygen¹²⁵. Many investigations agree on the fact that, high catalytic activity is obtained only when gold is present as highly dispersed nanoparticles. For this reason, the method of preparation is essential. Many methods proposed in the literature are essentially based on the precipitation of the gold precursor at basic pH on an inorganic oxide. Obtaining nanoparticles is not an easy task because of the tendency of metallic gold to sinter. Therefore, preparing effective catalysts would require an optimum control of many preparation parameters and a deep understanding of the mode of interaction between gold and the support.

5.1 Introduction

Over the last ten years, the ability of gold-based catalysts to catalyze several reactions has been widely studied. Gold catalysts exhibit high activity only when present as dispersed supported nanoparticles¹²⁶. To do this, a lot of preparation methods have been developed, but the most used is deposition - precipitation. This method produces particles having a size less than 3 nm, but problems such as reproducibility or the loss of gold, particularly when using NaOH or Na₂CO₃ as precipitant, are often reported. Meanwhile, the choice of the support is very important because it not only allows stabilizing metallic gold nanoparticles but also to promote the catalytic activity due to the presence of defects in the support. Indeed, such defects can trap the metal nanoparticle and enhance charge transfer between the support and the nanoparticle¹²⁷.

After Haruta *et al*¹²¹ first reported that gold can exhibit high catalytic performance in the CO oxidation at sub-ambient temperatures, several investigations were later devoted to the study of the catalytic performance of gold in oxidation reactions such as partial oxidation of propylene to propylene oxide, total oxidation of hydrocarbons, and Improved performance in liquid-phase aerobic epoxidation¹²². The complete oxidation of CO is the most studied reaction in the field of gold catalysis. Several factors influence the catalytic activity such as, the method of preparation, the particle size, and shape that are the consequence of the preparation method, the nature of the support, the heat treatment or methods of activation, and the feed composition (presence of water, SO₂, H₂ etc.).

One possible application of gold catalysts is envisaged in the field of combustion of the hydrocarbons and CO at low temperatures. This Chapter is devoted to the preparation, characterization and catalytic behavior of gold catalysts synthesized by the so-called conventional method (deposition – precipitation and co-precipitation). The advantages and disadvantages of these methods will also be discussed. A comprehensive study of the chemistry of gold precursors in solution, the nature of the metal - support interaction, the washing and heat treatment will be undertaken. The catalysts are characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), Temperature Programmed Oxidation (TPO) and Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM). All the catalysts are tested in the total oxidation of the CO and the results will be discussed later.

5.2 Factors influencing the catalytic activity of supported gold catalysts

5.2.1 Effect of method of preparation

The first to have made a detailed study of the effect of the preparation method on the CO oxidation activity of gold-based catalysts were Bamwenda et al⁴⁸. According to the investigators, the catalysts prepared by deposition - precipitation are more active than the catalysts prepared by impregnation and photo - deposition. The activity of these catalysts was shown to be ten times better than that of platinum based catalysts. There is general agreement in the literature on the fact that preparation methods such as deposition - precipitation, co-precipitation and vapor deposition produce very well dispersed catalysts with a particle size of <5 nm, which are very active in the oxidation of CO. However, impregnation leads to poorly dispersed catalysts with particles sizes greater than 10 nm,

which are not active in CO oxidation. A reduction in hydrogen activation treatment followed by oxidation and a further reduction may increase the activity of catalysts¹²⁸.

5.2.2 Effect of support the supports used

5.2.2.1 Type nature of support

Many materials have been used as supports for gold catalysts. With regard to the oxidation of CO, the supports were separated by Schubert et al^{49, 129}. into two groups: "active" and "inert" carriers. Gold catalysts supported on basic and irreducible oxides such as Al₂O₃, SiO₂, and MgO is less active while those employing reducible oxides as Fe₂O₃, NiO_x, CoO_x, TiO₂, are active. It has been proved that the gold catalysts supported on inert oxides show a strong dependence of the catalytic activity with the size of particles¹³⁰. For this system, an oxygen adsorption on the defect sites (edges and corners)¹³¹ of gold particles has been proposed. The increase in the catalytic activity of gold catalysts supported on reducible oxides has been attributed to the ability of these supports to provide oxygen. It is claimed that the reaction is sensitive to the structure of the metal interface - carrier¹³² and the heat treatment of the catalysts¹³³. The two types of carriers can produce active catalysts for the oxidation of CO, but the mechanism (see Chapter I: Proposed mechanisms) and the factors influencing the activity are different.

5.2.2.2 The effect of metal-support interaction

The primary role of the support is to stabilize and disperse the nanoparticles metal. Yet other effects occur at the interface metal - support. They result in significant changes in catalytic and physicochemical properties of the metal, but also of those of the

support. The definition of the interaction metal - support was proposed by Foger¹³⁴ as: The direct influence of the support on the chemisorption and properties of a catalytic metallic phase by stabilizing an unusual metallic structure, or by changing the electronic properties due to the transfer electrons between the metal particles and the carrier or by creating a chemical bond between the metal and the support. The interactions can be classified as weak interaction (WMSI), medium (MMSI) or strong (WSIS). The metals supported on non-reducible oxides (SiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , MgO etc.) and carbon or graphite has weak interactions. Those in zeolites undergo medium interactions. The metals supported on reducible oxides (especially TiO_2) show strong interactions¹³⁵.

Haruta¹³⁶ suggests that the great thermal stability of gold catalysts at 300°C is due to the epitaxial contact of gold nanoparticles and the substrate. Contact is made between the densely packed surface of gold (111) and the face (110) of the α - Fe_2O_3 , (111) of Co_3O_4 , (112) of anatase titania, and (110) of rutile TiO_2 . The TEM study showed that gold nanoparticles less than 2 nm, have an angle of contact with the support lower than 90° and a hemispheric morphology. The particles larger than 5 nm have a contact angle greater than 90° and similar hemispherical morphology. The influence of the preparation method on the contact between the gold and the support was explained by Bamwenda et al⁴⁸. Deposition-precipitation leads to hemispheric nanoparticles attached strongly to TiO_2 . Whereas, the impregnation and the photo-deposition preparation techniques simply yield spherical particles deposited on the substrate surface. The difference in contact between the gold and the support affects the catalytic properties. As a matter of fact, the catalysts obtained by deposition precipitation have catalytic activity in CO oxidation

(expressed as TOF) about four times greater than that of the catalysts obtained by impregnation and photo deposition.

Radnik *et al.* made an XPS¹³⁷ study of gold supported on titania. They reported low values of the gold binding energy. This was attributed to the transfer of electrons from support to the gold particles becoming negatively charged. It is a well-known phenomenon due to metal interactions - strong support (SMSI effect). Grunwaldt *et al.*¹³⁸ concluded that the number of gold sites with low coordination differs with the supports because of the different metal-support interactions resulting in different morphologies. This morphology difference causes changes in the influence of interface and the catalytic activity¹³⁹.

5.2.3 Particle size

The oxidation of CO does not take place unless gold is dispersed on a support in the form of nanoparticles smaller than 5 nm, which yields extraordinary activity^{140,141}. Valden *et al.*¹⁴² have studied the kinetics of the oxidation of CO at low temperature on gold clusters of different sizes supported on titanium thin film. They observed a strong dependence of TOF and the activation energy with the size of the gold clusters. A maximum intrinsic activity was reported for clusters having a size of 3.2 nm **Figure 5.1**. It has been proposed that the sensitivity to the structure of gold catalysts come from the change of the electronic properties of gold clusters according to their size¹⁴³.

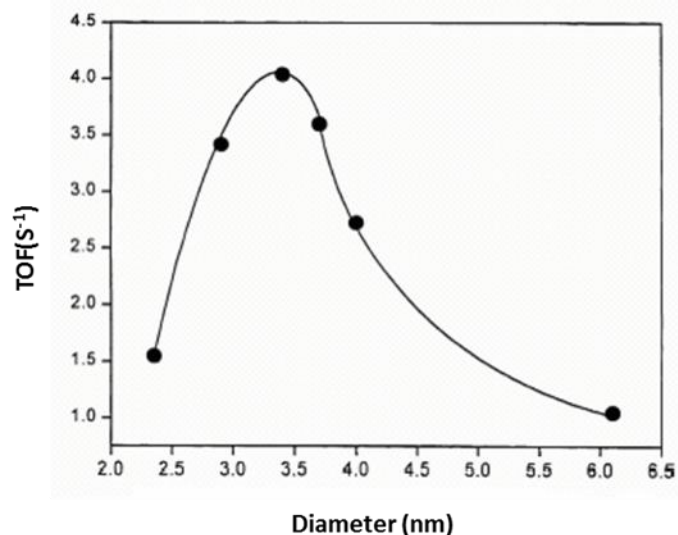


Figure 5.1 Variation of CO oxidation activity as a function of the gold clusters of size from¹⁴².

5.2.4 Particle morphology and interactions metal - media

Haruta¹⁴⁴ studied the influence of the preparation method on the morphology of gold particles. It was shown that deposition - precipitation, co-precipitation, and vapor deposition produce hemispherical particles which are strongly bound to the support by plane faces and which are much more resistant to heat treatment than spherical particles. Haruta¹³⁶ suggested that the great thermal stability of gold catalysts supported on titania is due to the epitaxial contact between the nanoparticles and the substrate. The same research group¹⁴⁵ investigated the effect of heat treatment of a mechanical mixture of spherical gold particles of about 5 nm and titania. An increase in the activity of catalysts with the increase of the calcination temperature has been observed. The authors concluded that the nature of the contact of gold resulting in a longer distance interfacial perimeter is responsible for the activity at low temperature. Horvath et al¹⁴⁶, by studying

the system Au / Fe₂O₃, concluded that it is neither the size nor the particle oxidation state of the gold that has to have a very good activity, but that the most important factor is the electronic interaction between the particles and the carrier. Later, Gupta et al¹⁴⁷. suggested that the catalytic activity of the catalyst Au / Fe₂O₃ for the oxidation of CO is due to the transfer of chemisorption energy from the metal particle to the support thus leading to a localized temperature surge at the metal/support interface, which may act as the sites of higher CO oxidation activity.

5.2.5 Heat treatment

The low melting temperature of gold may cause sintering of the particles while increasing the temperature. The choice of the calcination temperature is very important. The optimum calcination temperature from the literature is 300°C. Park and Lee⁵² reported a decrease of the activity of catalysts Au/Fe₂O₃, Au/TiO₂, Au/Al₂O₃ with increasing temperature of calcination. XPS and EXAFS studies showed the evolution of Au(OH)₃ to the Au₂O₃ oxide followed by reduction of Au at a higher temperature. The presence of oxidized gold and the easy production of a metal-support interface were observed to be beneficial for the oxidation of CO. Lee et al⁵⁴ have shown the importance of the calcining atmosphere for gold-based catalysts supported on oxides of manganese. The air treated catalysts are more active than catalysts treated in hydrogen or vacuum due to a stronger interaction between the oxidized metal and manganese. Maciejewski et al¹³² did not observe sintering of gold particles when supported on TiO₂ and ZnO up to 600°C. Au/TiO₂ calcined at 500°C and Au/ZnO calcined at 560°C exhibit maximum activity in CO oxidation. Boccuzzi et al¹⁴⁸ reported an increase in particle size (Au/TiO₂) from 2.4 to 10.6 nm with increasing the calcination temperature from 200°C to 600°C for catalysts

prepared by deposition - precipitation. They also found that the increase in temperature causes the different distribution of special sites of corners and edges¹⁴⁹.

5.3 Aim of this chapter

The aim of this Chapter is the synthesis, characterization and testing of a suitable gold catalyst for the oxidation of carbon monoxide (CO). In this Chapter 1wt%, Au/TiO₂ catalyst was prepared by deposition-precipitation. Different synthesis conditions such as pH, ligands, and catalyst pretreatment were investigated in order to find suitable conditions for the preparation of catalyst that would be more active at a lower temperature range (25°C – 300°C). The techniques used for catalyst characterization include TPO, XRD, HRTEM and fixed-bed tubular reactor in order to explain the catalyst surface structure and its suitability in affecting the ligands adsorption and subsequently evaluate the catalytic activity and the interaction with the support (sizes, shapes, oxidation etc.).

5.4 Results and discussions

5.4.1 Supports and catalysts

5.4.1.1 Supports

The support used during this study is TiO₂ (Degussa, P25). The TiO₂ support contains a mixture of both anatase and rutile phases, as determined by the XRD patterns shown in **Figure 5.2**.

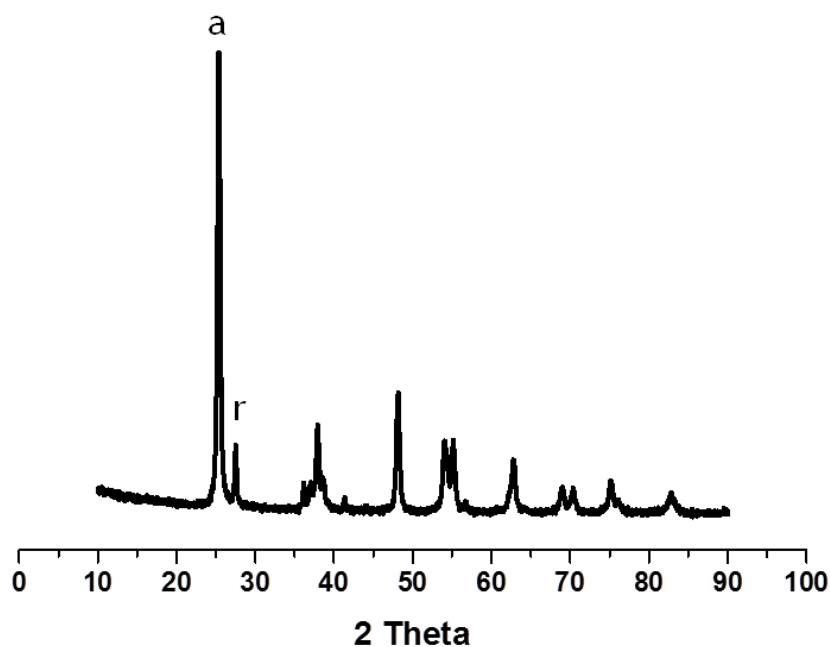


Figure 5.2 XRD patterns of TiO₂ support

The peaks denoted a and r corresponds respectively to the anatase (101) and rutile (110) reflections. The peak at $2\theta = 25.4^\circ$ confirms the TiO₂ anatase structure¹⁵⁰. Strong diffraction peaks at 25° and 48° indicating TiO₂ in the anatase phase¹⁵¹. There is no any spurious diffraction peak found in the sample”besides TiO₂, there are no other crystalline phases”. The intensity of XRD peaks of the sample reflects that the formed nanoparticles are crystalline and broad diffraction peaks indicate very small size crystallite.

5.4.1.2 Catalysts

Au supported catalysts were prepared by Deposition – precipitation. The method is to precipitate gold hydroxide on the surface of a support. We used as a precipitating agent,

Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) 0.1 M introduced in large excess. The use of NaOH allows a formation of OH groups **Figure 5.3**¹⁵². The deposition of $\text{Au}(\text{OH})_4^-$ exclusively on the surface of metal oxide support.

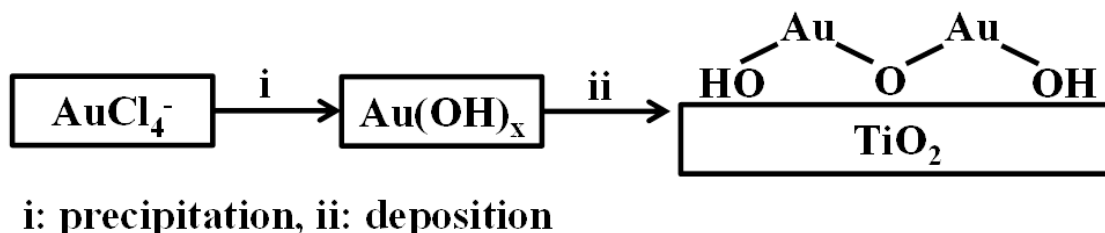


Figure 5.3 deposition-precipitation (DP)

By Nechayev and Nikolenko¹⁵³ results as shown in **Figure 5.3**. By deposition precipitation method, the Au precursor is brought out of solution onto a suspension of the support. The pH of the solution is raised in order to precipitate Au, typically as a hydroxide. The surface of the support acts as the nucleating center and this leads to a greater part of the active Au precursor being attached to the support. Thus, when the pH of a solution of gold chloride is from 3 to 4, the neutral $\text{AuCl}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ is the major species. At pH 7, $\text{AuCl}(\text{OH})_3^-$ is probably prevalent. At pH 10 and above, the $\text{Au}(\text{OH})_4^-$ anion is the dominant species, hydrolyzed species such as $[\text{Au}(\text{OH})_n\text{Cl}_{4-n}]^-$ ($n = 1-3$) react with the surface of the support. This procedure is, in general, applicable to supports with high and medium values of the isoelectric point (point of zero charges = PZC) (Okumura *et al*, 1998). The pzc is the unique value for an oxide and an indicator that the oxide shows acidic or basic properties. For example, the isoelectric point of P-25 TiO_2 is reported to be in the range of 4.5–6.3¹⁵⁴. The pH values below the PZC of the support generate an oxide, which will be positively charged in water and adhesion of negatively charged

colloid/clusters with good dispersion can then occur, so that anionic species should adsorb by electrostatic attraction at lower pH; neutral species, of course, will not adsorb in this manner.

The connection of negatively charged gold complexes to the positive support matrix takes place **Figure 5.4**. Our idea is to control the pH solution at 9 that mean the hydrolyzed species $\text{Au}(\text{OH})_4^-$ react with the surface of TiO_2 .this later will enhance the activity of the catalysis.

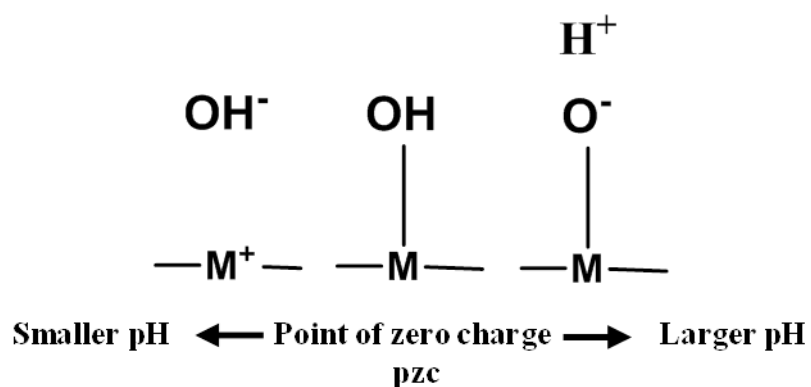


Figure 5.4 Dissociation of the hydroxyl group in aqueous solution and point of zero charges (pzc).

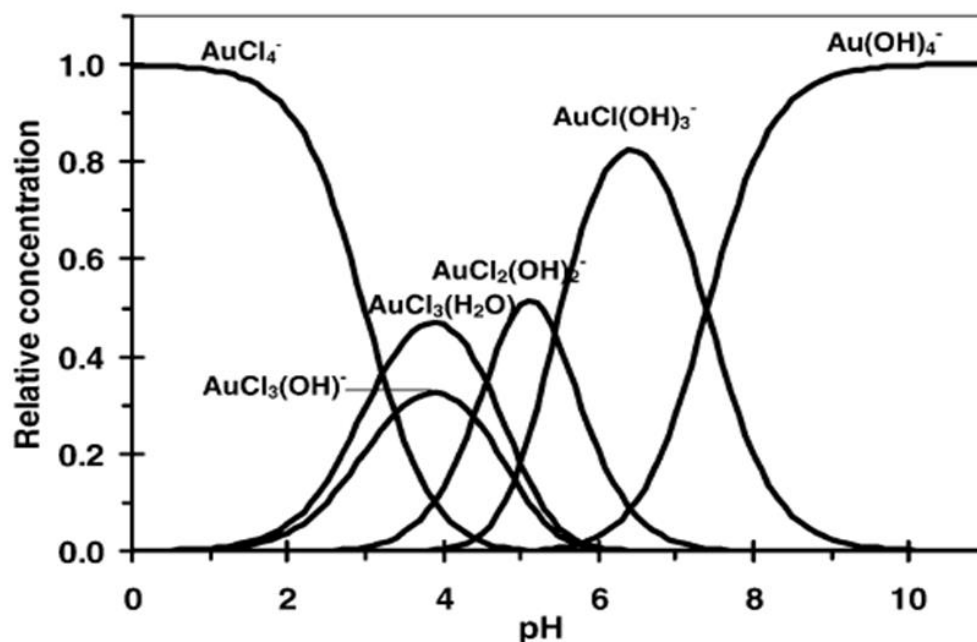


Figure 5.5 Relative equilibrium concentration of gold complexes¹⁵⁵

At the same protocol we prepare two samples; in the absence of ligands which is used as a reference and in the presence of various ligands (Mono, Di and Try) carboxylic at different Au/ligand ratios.

5.4.2 Preparation of Au/TiO₂ catalysts

5.4.2.1 Materials

All chemicals were reagent grade, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and were used without further purification. Tetrachloroaurate trihydrate ($\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$), trisodium citrate dihydrate ($\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), disodium glutarate ($\text{Na}_2\text{C}_5\text{H}_6\text{O}_4$), and sodium acetate (NaCH_3COO) were used as stabilizers and NaOH (sigma-aldrich, 99.99%) was used as a precipitating agent and TiO₂ (Degussa P-25) was used as support. All reactions

were done in aqueous media using deionized water (Millipore Milli-Q system, 18.2 M Ω -cm). All glassware was washed with aqua-regia (3:1, HCl/HNO₃) solution before catalyst preparation.

5.4.2.2 Synthesis samples preparation in the presence and absence of ligands by deposition precipitation:

The appropriate amounts of Gold(III) chloride hydrate with a concentration of 5×10^{-4} M and TiO₂ were measured in such a way that they make a (1 g per 50 ml of solution). These were mixed with distilled water and stirred with an overhead stirrer for about 20 min. A solution of HAuCl₄ · 3H₂O in 50 ml of distilled water was prepared and added to the support solution in a drop wise manner (approx. 1 drop in 2 seconds). When all the gold solution had been added to the support suspension, the mixture was stirred for about 15 to 20 min. Before precipitation with NaOH solution 0.1 M, which was also added in a drop wise manner at approximately the same dropping rate as that used for the gold solution. The Sodium hydroxide solution was added until pH = 9. The suspension is filtered and the obtained solid is washed with water several times to remove Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions. The washed precipitate is later dried in an oven at 100°C for 4 hours as shown in **Figure 5.6**.

A similar method (as described above) was used to synthesize this catalyst with the various ligands (Na₃C₆H₅O₇·2H₂O, Na₂C₅H₆O₄ and NaCH₃COO) and different Au/ligand molar ratios (0.2:1, 1:1 and 5:1) as shown in **Figure 5.7**.

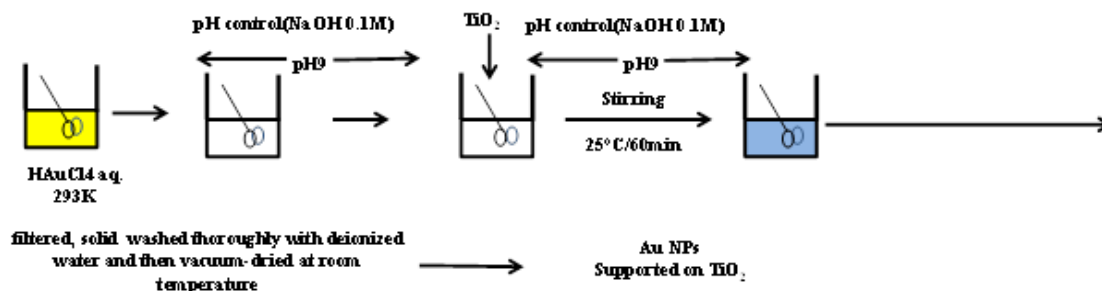


Figure 5.6 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of reference preparation-In the Absence of ligands.

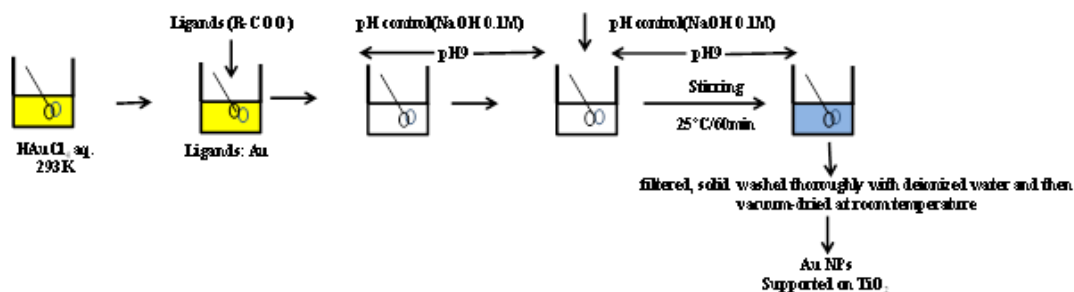


Figure 5.7 Experimental scheme for the synthesis of samples-In the presence of ligands.

5.4.3 Catalyst characterization

5.4.3.1 Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

The catalysts were characterized by TEM to determine the morphology of the solid and the size of gold crystallites as well as the size distribution of the particles. Two electron microscopes: Titan 80-300 CT and Titan 60-300 ST from FEI Company (Hillsboro, OR) are used to performing the Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) study on the synthesized samples. Both microscopes were equipped with X-ray Energy Dispersive Spectrometry (EDS) detectors from Energy-Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

(EDAX), In Selected area Electron Diffraction (SAED), and TEM-EDS modes to investigate size, crystal structure, and elemental composition of prepared samples. Several Bright fields (BF) mode of the TEM (BF-TEM) micrographs were acquired by setting the microscope at different low magnifications and similarly HRTEM micrographs were obtained by setting the microscope at high image magnifications. The Aberration Corrected Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (AC-STEM) analysis was carried out on Titan 60-300 ST to investigate the presence of ligand on the surface of gold nanoparticles (Au-NPs). The Cs-corrector of the microscope was aligned and its spherical aberration coefficient (Cs) reduced to the value of about negative 2 microns. In this way, several AC-TEM micrographs were acquired by setting the objective lens of the microscope in slightly over-focusing condition so that the Au atoms in acquired images exhibit the so called “white-atom” contrast. It is to be noted that the entire TEM datasets were acquired and analyzed by using Digital-Micrograph Software Package of version GMS1.85 from Gatan, Inc.

Microstructure and morphology of the samples before and after the catalytic runs at various temperatures were determined by STEM, the catalyst was deposited onto a holey carbon foil supported on a copper grid. STEM investigations were performed with a CM30ST microscope (FEI; LaB6 cathode, operated at 300 kV, point resolution ~0.2 nm).

The particle sizes were studied with Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM). The dry powder was dispersed in ethanol and deposited onto a perforated carbon foil supported on a copper grid. The investigations were performed on a Tecnai F30 microscope (FEI, Eindhoven), the field emission cathode operated at 300 kV).

STEM images obtained with a High Angle Annular Dark Field (HAADF) detector revealed Au particles with bright contrast (Z contrast).

The resulting images were analyzed using Image Pro Analyzer, and at least 100 nanoparticles were evaluated per sample.

As an example, the images of the gold catalysts fresh sample (un calcined) supported on Titanium dioxide are shown in **Figure 5.7**. The citrate: Au molar ratio is 1:1.

The gold particles can be distinguished by a lighter contrast on the surface of the support. As we can see from the pictures, the catalysts prepared by DP exhibit high dispersion and a particle size of about 5 nm. We made some high-resolution images on this sample to study the morphology of gold particles **Figure 5.8**. The crystalline characteristic of gold nanoparticles is shown by the presence of lattice fringes. The measured lattice spacing of 0.23 nm corresponds well to the (111) plane of Au (theoretical value: 0.235 nm).

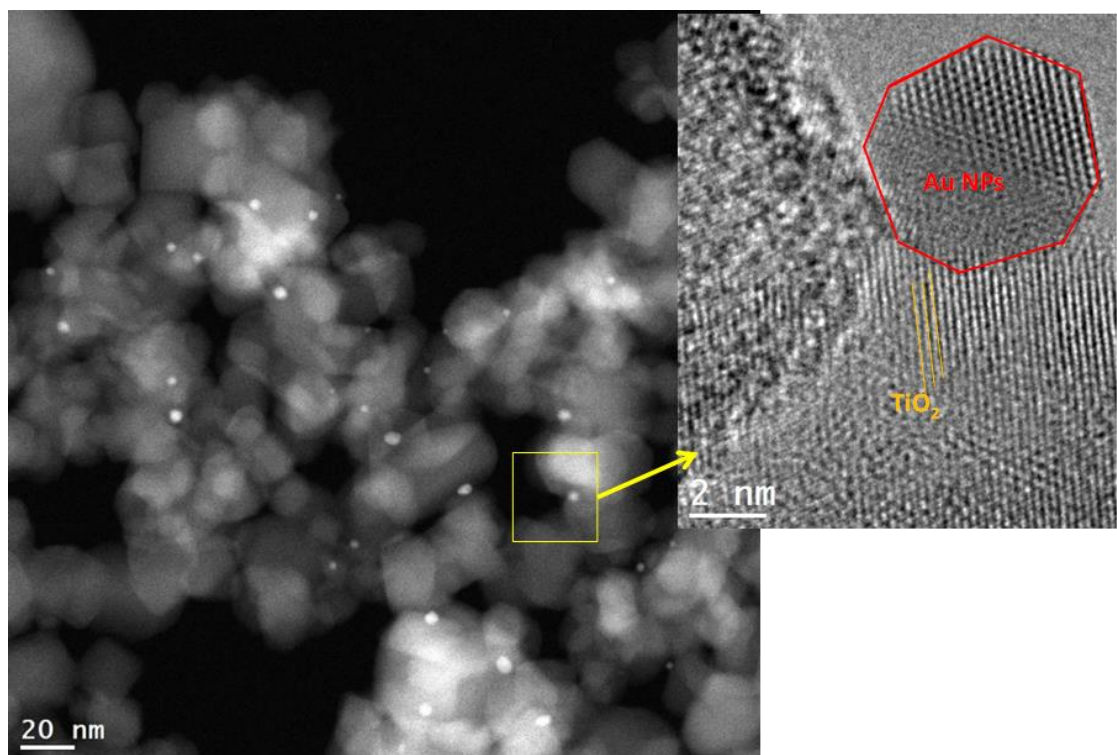


Figure 5.8 High resolution TEM Snapshots of 1:1 ratio of Citrate: gold catalysts supported on Titanium dioxide.

We observe Rhombic dodecahedron shape **Figure 5. 9**. This allowed us to use the model proposed by Robert E. Benfield¹⁵⁶ for calculating the dispersion of particles assuming an Rhombic dodecahedron shape. The atomic site type of the Rhombic dodecahedron is shown in **Figure 5. 9** and their populations are given as functions of cluster edge length m .

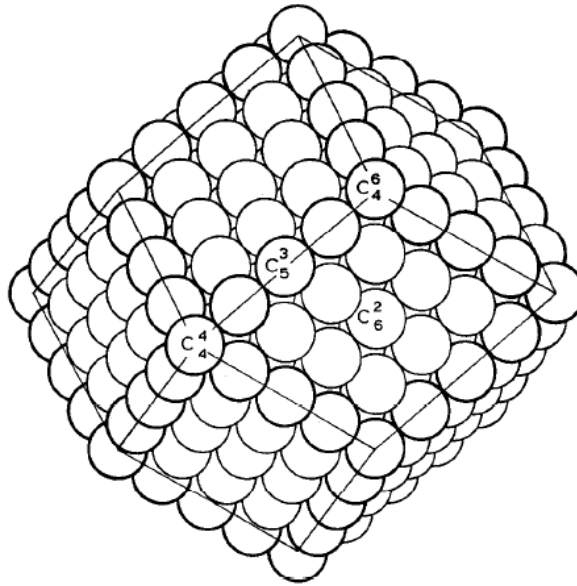


Figure 5. 9 Rhombic dodecahedron with 147 atoms ($m = 4$), showing the different surface atom sites and their coordination numbers.

The number of surface atoms is taking into account the contact surface of the particle with the carrier and the actual dispersion becomes:

$$D = N_s / N_t^{157}$$

The N_s and N_t quantities and are determined by the geometric calculations for the cubic face-centered system. Formulae for the populations of different atomic sites in the Rhombic dodecahedron are calculated as a function of the cluster edge length m . The N_t and N_s can be calculated by the following equations:

 Rhombic dodecahedron [Figure 5. 9]

Total number of atoms	$(2m - 1)(2m^2 - 2m + 1)$
Number of surface atoms	$12m^2 - 24m + 14$
Number of bulk atoms	$(2m - 3)(2m^2 - 6m + 5)$

Table 5.1 Formulae for the populations of different atomic sites in the Rhombic dodecahedron, as functions of cluster edge length^{157,156}.

Based on these calculations, all the results obtained for all catalysts supported on Titanium dioxide characterized by TEM are summarized later.

5.4.3.2 Temperature programmed oxidation (TPO)

In a temperature programmed oxidation (TPO), the sample is exposed to a gas stream containing oxygen (O₂), diluted with an inert gas (N₂) while gradually increasing the temperature.

This technique is used to detect the presence of different oxidizable species having different temperatures and oxidation rates. In this work, the catalyst which is Au/TiO₂ (~ 30 mg) was placed in a U-shaped quartz reactor placed in a furnace then switching valve to select the gas we would like to use for the treatment of the sample, in this work, the pre-treated for the sample was done under 5% O₂ and N₂ 95%, the temperature was set up from 25 to 600 °C with a ramp of 5K/min. After that, the sample is cooled down to room

temperature. We monitored the amount of CO₂ formed during TPO using a quadrupole mass spectrometer QMS (m/Z=44).

The process of removal the ligands in an oxidizing atmosphere is accompanied by CO₂ formation as observed in the TPO experiments **Figure 5.10**. TPO patterns for all Au/TiO₂ samples are similar and consist of one broad peak in the same temperature range. Oxygen consumption is attributed to the combustion of the Carboxylic ligands present on the gold surface. The position of the maximum in the TPO profile (ca. 300°C) is observed and this is confirmed that the maximum Carboxylic ligands can be lost from the sample will be at 300°C. However, for the sample in the absence of ligand **Figure 5.11**, we cannot observe this peak due to that we did not have ligand to burn.

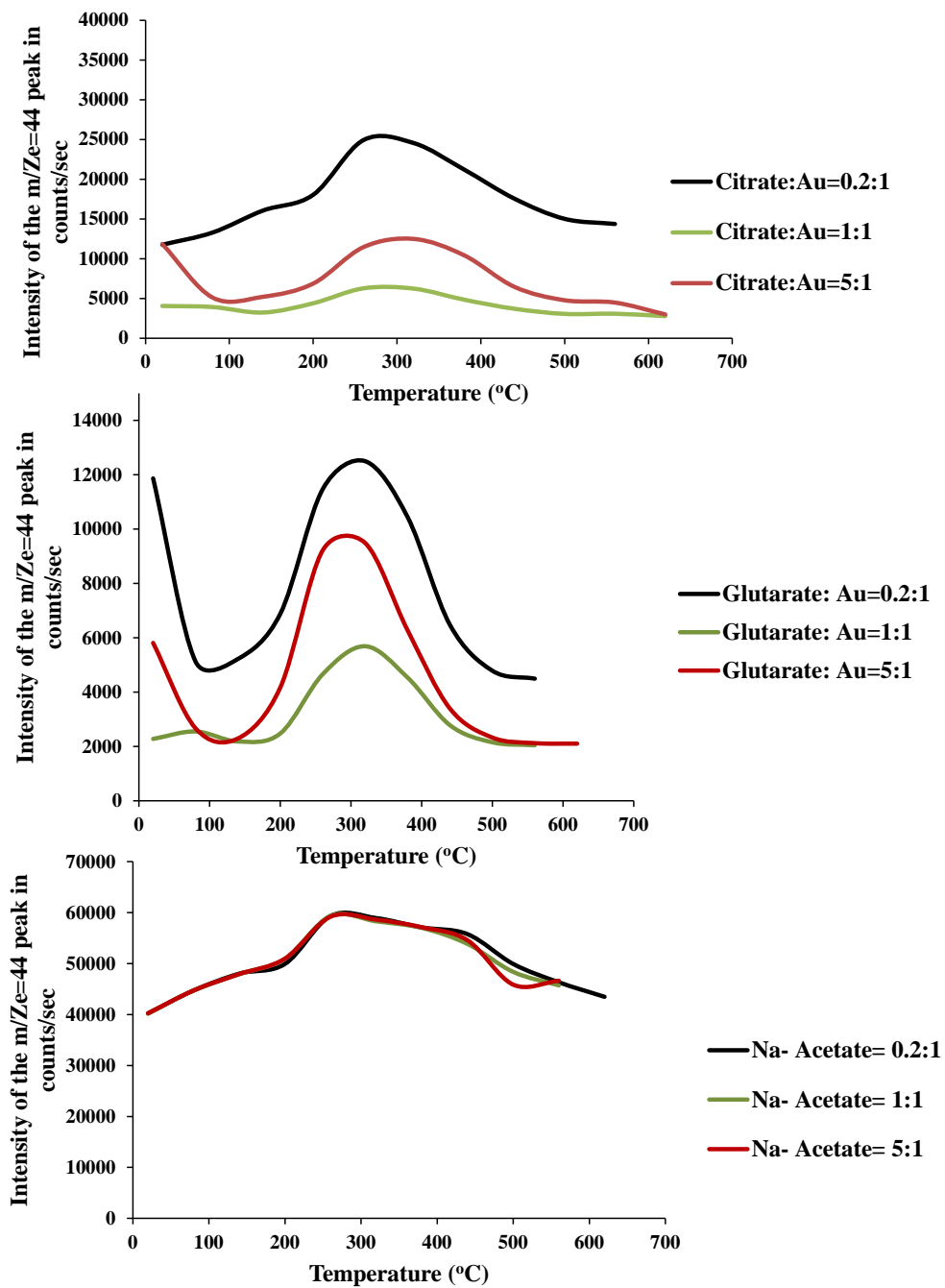


Figure 5.10 Temperature programmed oxidation of deposited Au on Titanium dioxide in the presence of ligands.

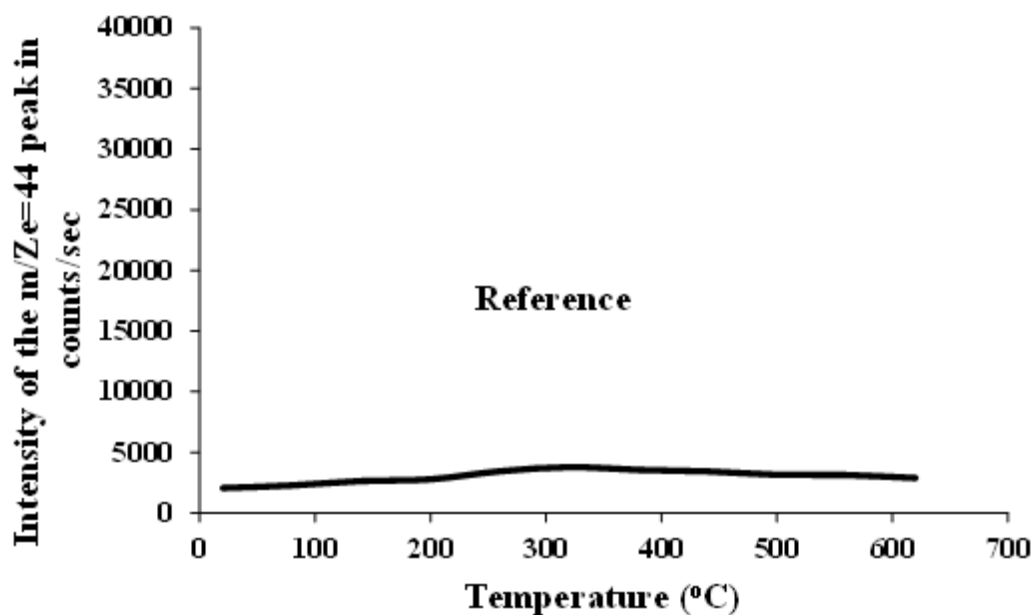


Figure 5. 11 Temperature programmed oxidation of deposited Au on Titanium dioxide in the absence of ligands.

The maximum peak was observed at approximately 320°C for the Citrate and Glutarate, which is the maximum ligand can be lost at this point. The interesting results is that with the mono carboxylic ligand which is Sodium acetate the maximum peak is around 260°C which is confirm that the interaction between the ligand and the gold are very weak compare to others. So, it easy to burn the maximum ligand at 300°C.

5.4.3.3 Inductively coupled plasma spectroscopy (ICP)

Elemental analyses of gold and carbon were conducted at the Analytical Core Lab in KAUST, Saudi Arabia. The gold content was determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) using a Thermo iCap 6500.

Before analysis, 15 mg of the sample was decomposed by an acid mixture of nitric acid and hydrochloric acid (under pressure and high temperature).

Elemental analyses were performed to determine the concentrations of gold, boron, sodium of the synthesized samples; the results of these analyses are presented in **Table 5.2**. The results indicate that the samples particularly Au/TiO₂ is gold rich content.

Sample Labels	Au concentration Wt (%)	B concentration Wt (%)	Na concentration Wt (%)
Au/TiO₂ REFERENCE	0.8	0.02	0.06
Au₁(citrate)_{0.2}/TiO₂	0.9	0.01	0.01
Au₁(citrate)₁/TiO₂	0.8	0.01	0.04
Au₁(citrate)₅/TiO₂	0.8	0.01	0.04
Au₁(Glutarate)_{0.2}/TiO₂	0.9	0.01	0.02
Au₁(Glutarate)₁/TiO₂	0.9	0.01	0.02
Au₁(Glutarate)₅/TiO₂	0.8	0.03	0.1
Au₁(Sodium Acetate)_{0.2}/TiO₂	1.0	0.02	0.02
Au₁(Sodium Acetate)₁/TiO₂	0.6	0.01	0.03
Au₁(Sodium Acetate)₅/TiO₂	0.7	0.01	0.02

Table 5.2 Elemental analyses of Au/TiO₂.

5.4.3.4 CHNS/O analyzer

The total amount of carbon was tentatively determined using a CHNS/O Analyzer Flash 2000 -Thermo Scientific at hot carrier gas extraction method.

Sample name	Theoretical calculations	Before Calcination	After pre=treatment at 300°C
	%C(Wt)	%C(Wt)	%C(Wt)
Au ₁ (citrate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	0.04	0.47	0.31
Au ₁ (citrate) ₁ /TiO ₂	0.18	0.53	0.44
Au ₁ (citrate) ₅ /TiO ₂	0.89	0.76	0.34
Au ₁ (Glutarate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	0.02	0.41	0.10
Au ₁ (Glutarate) ₁ /TiO ₂	0.11	0.50	0.28
Au ₁ (Glutarate) ₅ /TiO ₂	0.56	0.63	0.13
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	0.01	0.27	0.04
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) ₁ /TiO ₂	0.06	0.28	0.12
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) ₅ /TiO ₂	0.30	0.29	0.09

Table 5.3 Elemental analysis of carbon before and after the pre-treatment at 300°C.

According to our lab her at KAUST, Carbon analysis can be performed using CHNS/O Analyzer if the content is equal or above 0.2 (Wt) %.(for quantification). However, because the samples have less amount of carbon (theoretical calculation), it is important to understand the potential and limitations of this technique.

5.4.3.5 TEM investigations

In a recent paper⁵⁰ gold was deposited on TiO₂ and it was shown by structural studies that below 1 nm the gold particles exist in icosahedral symmetry whereas above 1 nm the gold is in fcc cuboctahedral symmetry. This indicates that the geometrical symmetry is also an important factor in developing high activity.

In spite of the catalytic results, there is still no direct evidence available on how gold nanoparticles become active in the catalytic reactions. What we know is that gold species must be in the Nano size diameter range of the supports. All changes in the size of the catalysts are correlated to the catalytic activities of the samples.

In this section, we investigate by scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) at different pre-treatment temperatures the average size of gold supported catalysts were obtained by reduction of HAuCl₄ metal salt with ligands contained carboxylic group using the method as we detailed before.

5.4.3.5.1 TEM investigations before pretreatment (untreated)

As we explained in chapters three and four the effect of the nature of the ligands ratios and we came with this conclusion; by decreasing a number of ligands used, the unsupported particle formed is bigger. Indeed, in the presence of a large amount of ligands (excess), increasing the average particles size was faster. However, the good ratio to obtain small gold nanoparticles is 1:1 (ligands: Au).

Here, we again proved that; by using the supported particles the size of AuNPs is governed by the ratio between the concentration of carboxylic ligands and the

concentration of gold salt. It is noted that the use of a different concentrated solution of carboxylic ligands leads to the formation and stabilization smaller sizes of particles. Whereas in the presence of low or excess concentration carboxylic ligands, full recovery of the particles by ligands ions is incomplete, this induces so that the particles will tend to aggregate to form larger particles **Figure 5.12**.

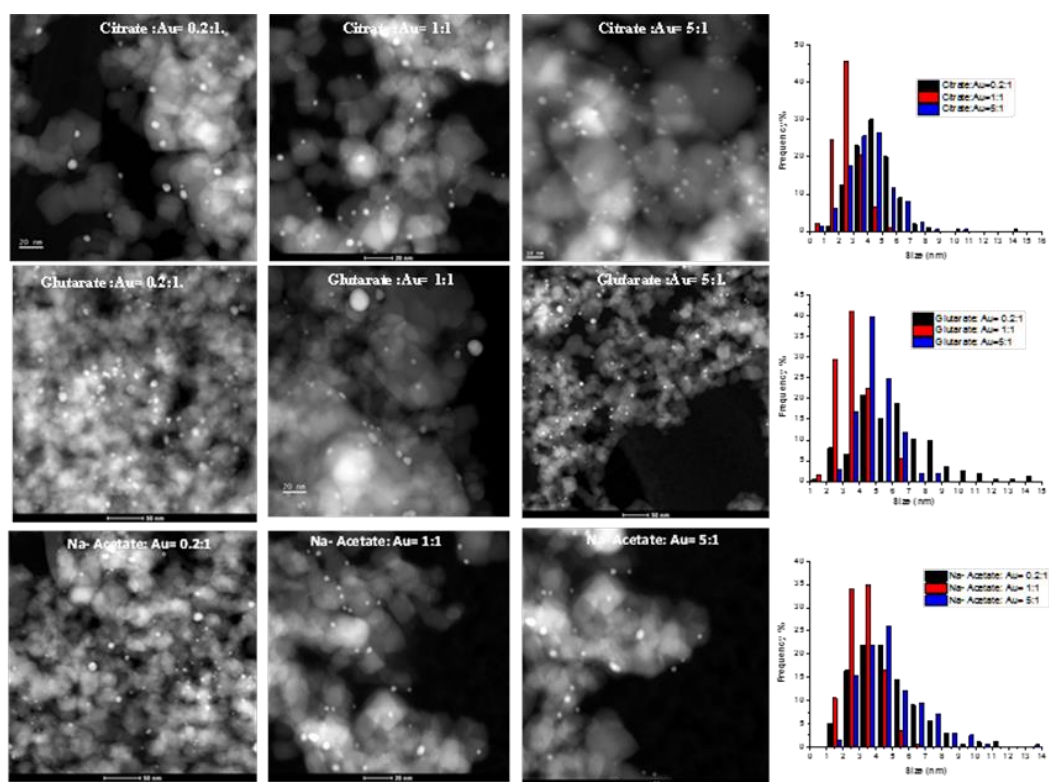


Figure 5.12 (left) STEM images of the 1% Au/TiO₂ fresh samples (untreated) prepared using different ratios of ligands: Citrate, Glutarate, and Na- Acetate. Histograms for the average size for each catalysis at different ratios (Right).

5.4.3.5.2 TEM investigations after pretreatment at 300°C

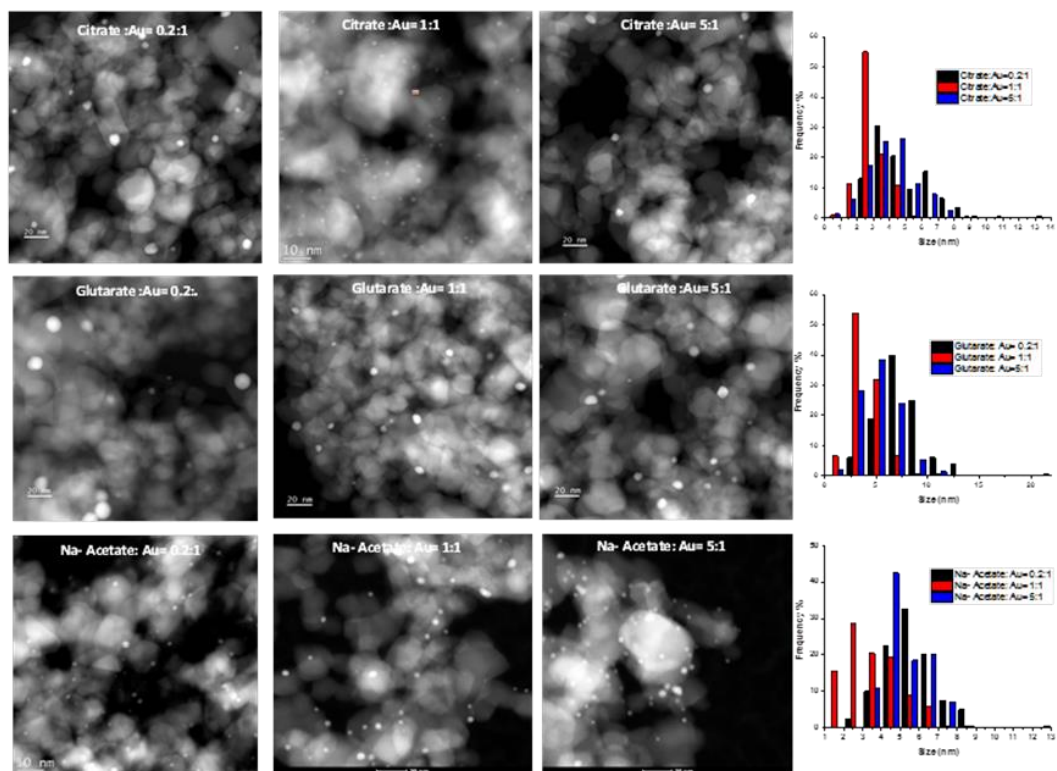


Figure 5.13 (left) STEM images of the 1% Au/TiO₂ samples calcined at 300°C and prepared using different ratios Au/ligands: Citrate, Glutarate, and Na- Acetate. Histograms for the average size for each ligand at different rations (Right).

The treatment at 300°C before the catalytic run, it is important to note that, in these conditions, the particles obtained are very polydispersed in size and shape. The gold nanoparticles increased with mean particle size in the range 4.9–4.1 nm for the Citrate ligand, 7.3–5.3 nm for the Glutarate ligand and 5.5–5.3 nm for the Na- Acetate ligand at 0.2:1, 1:1 and 5:1 ligands: Au ratios respectively were obtained according to transmission electron microscopy results. Particle size generally increased slowly with pre-treatment at 300°C temperature. As noticed in **Figure 5.13**. The smaller size of Au/TiO₂ was

obtaining with a ratio 1:1 with all ligands types, this good agreement with unsupported particles. Besides using the TPO, the results shows that the maximum ligand was removed but still some ligand on the surface of gold NPs to protect the gold and keep the size small much they can.

5.4.3.5.3 TEM investigations after reaction at 300°C

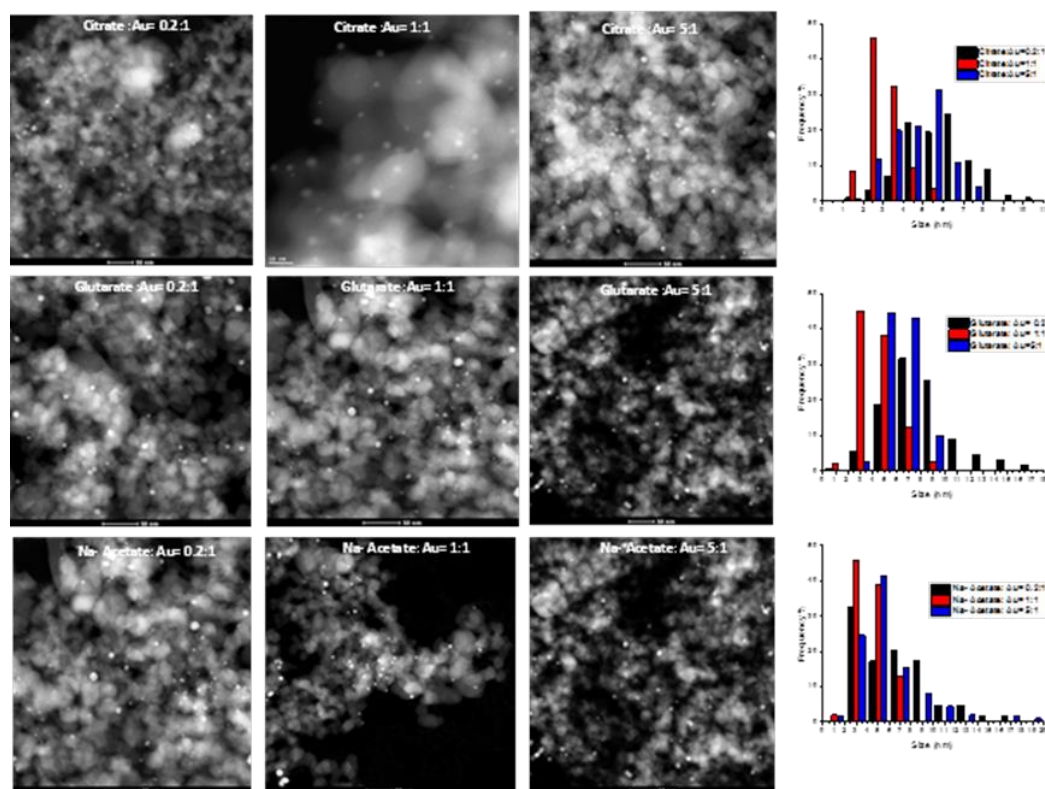


Figure 5.14 (left) STEM images of 1% Au/TiO₂ samples at different ratios of ligands: Citrate, Glutarate, and Na- Acetate. Histograms for the average size for each ligand at different ratios (Right). after reaction at 300°C.

5.4.3.5.4 TEM Investigations after reaction at 450°C

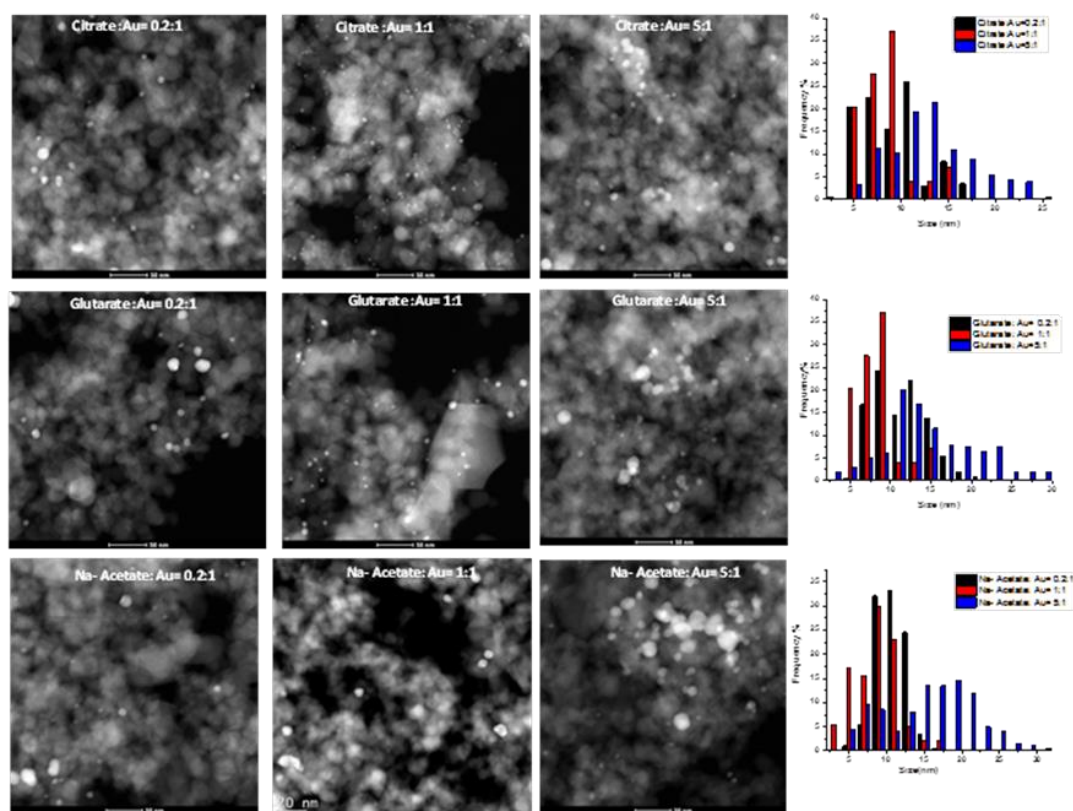


Figure 5.15 (left) STEM images of 1% Au/TiO₂ samples at different ratios of ligands: Citrate, Glutarate, and Na- Acetate. Histograms for the average size for each ligand at different ratios (Right). after reaction at 450°C

As shown in **Figure 5.14** and **Figure 5.15**. In general, we obtain different sizes of nanoparticles by varying the temperatures (300- 450) °C. Other important points to note are the following;

- The slow increase of crystallite size in the stage of calcination 300°C and after the reaction at 300°C. This indicated that the present of the ligands molecules on the gold

NPs surfaces. Which is confirmed by TPO results Prevent the rapid growth of crystals

Figure 5. 14.

- Increasing the temperature to 450°C yields more agglomeration as illustrated **Figure 5.15**. Hence, there is a significant change in the mean particle size at a higher temperature. Due to losing the protected agents from the surface of the gold nanoparticles.

Figure 5.16 Shows the STEM images for the samples in the absence of ligand at different pretreatment temperatures. The corresponding mean average particle size shows that the particle size has increased very slightly from 9.2 to 11.0 nm during the heating process across this series of samples that mean the AuNPs immobilized onto TiO₂. These results confirm the role of the ligands to prevent the aggregation of the particles.

In additional from the results reported. We observed that there is no difference of activity as a function of pretreatment temperature.

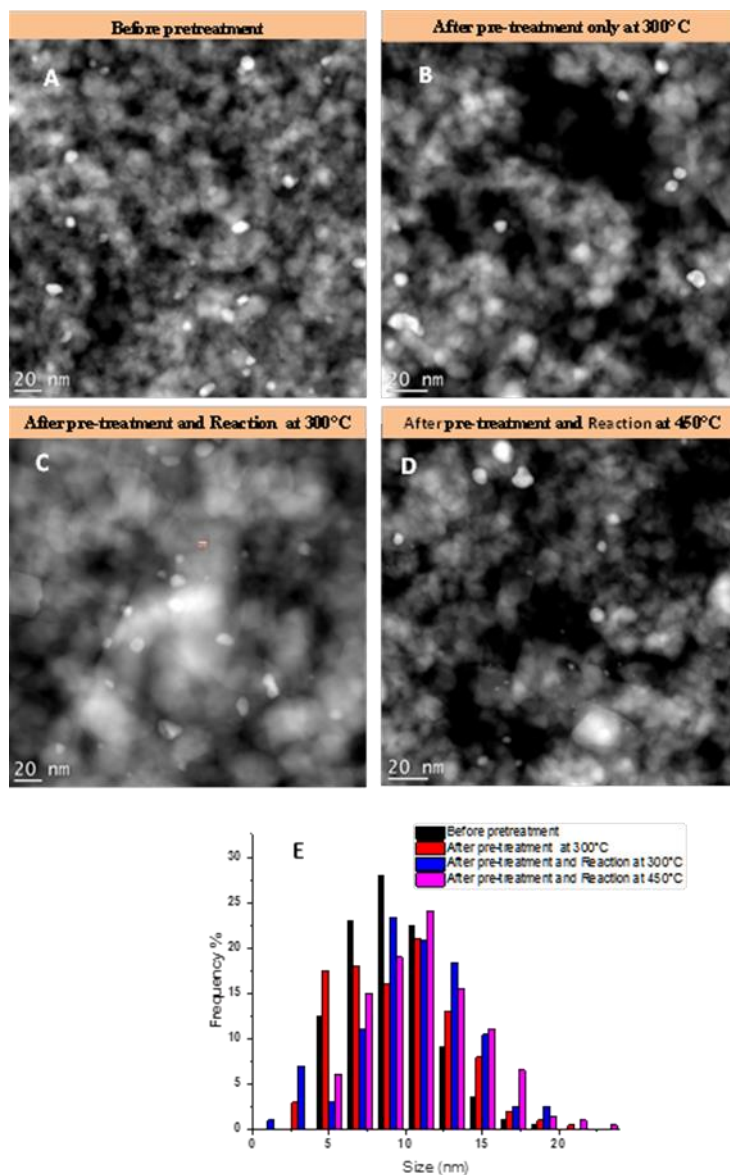


Figure 5.16 TEM images and corresponding histograms of size distributions of the samples in absence of ligands at different pretreatments temperatures: (A) 1% Au/TiO₂-untreated, (B) 1% Au/TiO₂-300°C before the reaction, (C) 1% Au/TiO₂-300 °C after the reaction and (D) 1% Au/TiO₂-450°C. (E) Histograms for the average size of the gold nanoparticles at different conditions.

The calculated average sizes of gold nanoparticles were obtained from TEM, these results confirmed the sintering of gold by increasing the pre-treatment temperature.

Sample Labels	Before Pretreatment NP size (nm)	After Pretreatment At 300°C NP size (nm)	After pre-treatment and Reaction at 300°C NP size (nm)	After pre-treatment and Reaction at 450°C. NP size (nm)
Au/TiO ₂ REFERENCE	9.2	9.5	10.4	11.0
Au ₁ (citrate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	4.5	4.9	5.9	9.0
Au ₁ (citrate) ₁ /TiO ₂	2.6	2.8	3	8.0
Au ₁ (citrate) ₅ /TiO ₂	3.9	4.1	4.5	12.9
Au ₁ (Glutarate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	6.2	7.3	7.8	11.2
Au ₁ (Glutarate) ₁ /TiO ₂	3.6	3.8	4.3	8.0
Au ₁ (Glutarate) ₅ /TiO ₂	4.8	5.3	6.3	14.8
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) _{0.2} /TiO ₂	4.3	5.5	6.4	10.7
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) ₁ /TiO ₂	3.2	3.5	4.2	8.5
Au ₁ (Sodium Acetate) ₅ /TiO ₂	4.8	5.3	5.8	15.8

Table 5.4 Estimated average size of Au supported on TiO₂

To conclude, the TEM investigation demonstrates the great effect of the nature ligands and depending on the pre-treatment, remarkable differences in the activity results were found.

5.5 Catalytic tests

The complete oxidation of CO is the most studied reaction in the field of Gold catalysis. Several factors influence the catalytic activity such as the method of preparation, particle size, and morphology that are a consequence of the method of preparation and heat treatment.

In this part, we present the results of the catalytic test. The most powerful among those supported on Titanium dioxide was selected.

5.5.1 Terms and apparatus

5.5.1.1 Reactor operation

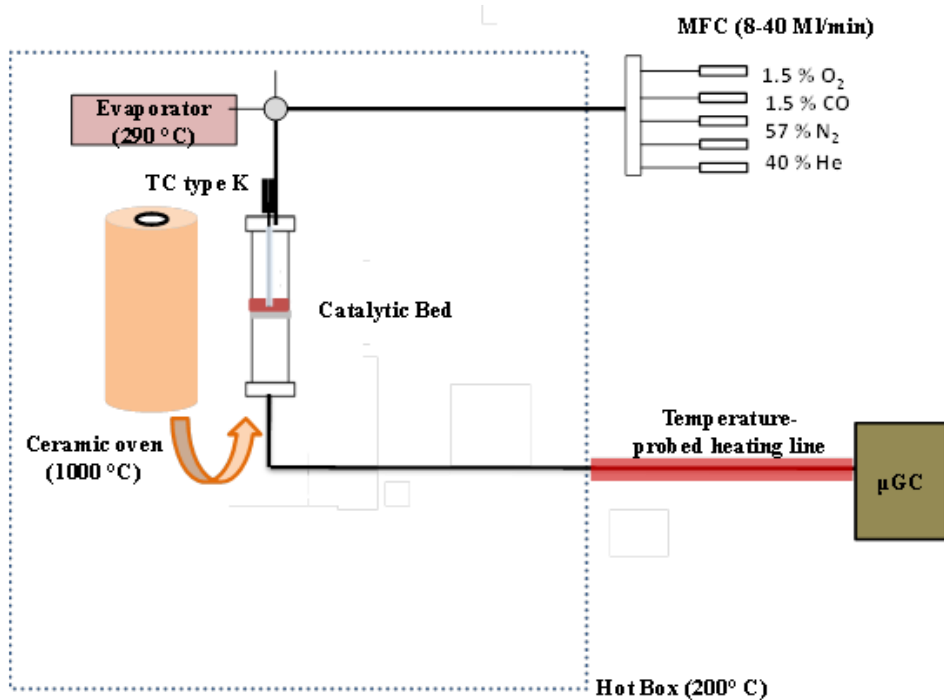


Figure 5.17 Simplified schematic representation of exothermic fixed bed dynamic reactor.

As may be observed in **Figure 5.17** shown, the system consists of an exothermic fixed bed dynamic reactor, with the catalyst bed placed upon a porous plate. The reactor was made from Stainless steel. The flow inside the reactor is up-down, whereby the reactant mixture is fed through the upper part of the reactor and the reaction products are obtained through the lower part.

After passing through a line shut-off valve, the reactant gas streams are fed to the reactor by means of a system of mass flow controllers that provide a known and controlled flow of gases. The present unit is equipped with 5 mass flow controllers. In order to stop the products flowing back through the lines, the controllers are protected with check-valves fitted with Kalretz elastomer seals (elastomeric Teflon).

Gases are introduced into the hot box system that includes an electric forced convection heater that allows the process route to be kept at temperatures of 160°C, and even 180°C, to avoid any possible condensation in the system.

This system uses a two-position 6-port valve operated by remote pneumatic control through the computer or by means of the touch screen and allows for selecting from two possible alternatives for the flow path: either towards the reactor or rerouting it towards the system's gas outlet (by-passing the reactor).

When the flow of reactants is directed towards the reactor, it passes through 15 μm sintered filters made of 316 stainless steel, at both the inlet and outlet of the reactor, thereby protecting the arrangement of valves from possible finely-separated catalyst particles.

The reactor was operated with the flow of CO, and O₂ controlled by a flow meter and mass flow controller (Bronkhorst Instrument).

In the course of this investigation, we are planning to conduct experiments in the gas phase at atmospheric pressure and temperatures ranging from 25 to 400°C.

The analysis of the gas fraction at the reactor outlet will be conducted using a Micro-GC.

5.5.1.2 Gas analysis

The gas chromatography is a non-destructive separation technique based on the distribution of sample molecules between a mobile gas phase and a stationary phase within a capillary column. A gaseous product mixture is driven with the "mobile phase", typically helium carrier gas. Column (stationary phase) used to separate these components to the detector that will produce a signal proportional to the amount of each of solutes. Indeed quantitative and qualitative data are obtained by the chromatographic analyzes, only after separation of the different components of the mixture. Under optimal conditions, an electrical signal can be recorded continuously forming what is called the chromatogram. Exploiting this chromatogram provides the concentrations of different gases¹⁵⁹.

μ GC chromatograph is a common technique for gas analysis in labs & industry; here we used (μ GC3000, SRA instruments). Equipped with 2 analysis modules, each analytical module comprises an injector, a capillary column, and a TCD detector.

The CO oxidation reaction is performed under atmospheric pressure in a fixed bed Stainless steel reactor. The mass of catalyst used is 10 mg diluted in 50 mg of Carborundum fine powder (SiC). The gas mixture contains 1.5 vol.% O₂, 1.5 vol.% CO, N₂ 57 vol.% and He 40 vol.% with a total flow of 24 ml/min. The amounts of CO and CO₂ at the reactor outlet are analyzed by μ GC. The catalytic test is repeated several times in the temperature range between the ambient to 300°C, 350°C and 450°C to measure the

reproducibility of the experiment. See **Figure 5. 11** for the CO₂, CO, and O₂ micro GC calibration curve.

5.5.1.3 Calibration curve

A GC can separate the compounds, but cannot identify them itself. By calibrating μ GC, you can find out at what time various organic compounds are being detected. The area under the curve (automatically calculated by the computer) may be expressed in terms of concentration of the gases, by running some calibration standards at a known concentration.

A calibration curve is simply a graph where the concentration of the gases is plotted along the x-axis and area is plotted along the y-axis. After running each one of the gases on the instrument and getting an area, the points are then plotted on the graph. See **Figure 5.18** the points are then connected with a line. That line represents the calibration curve.

The μ GC where is connected by a different mixture of CO, CO₂, and O₂ in inert gas He. In these connections, which consisted of four independent gas lines, the gas flow was adjusted with mass flow controllers (MFC). The gases were mixed after passing the MFCs for bypass measurements, the gas mixing units connected to the μ GC. The calibration of the peak areas was performed using calibration gas composition (1.5 % O₂, 1.5 % CO, N₂ 57 % and He 40%).

Each concentration gave different peak area. Peak area was then plotted against the concentrations. The Square of correlation coefficients (R^2) of the calibration curves. All gases calibrated show a correlation coefficient close to 1 (between 0.990 and 0.999), thereby confirming the linearity of quantitative curves **Figure 5.18**.

5.5.1.4 Calculations

For example, we estimated the conversion and the reaction rate as;

$$X = \frac{(CO_{in} - CO_{out})}{CO_{in}}$$

$$r ([mol.g^{-1}sec^{-1}]) = \frac{X \times F(CO_{in})[\frac{mol}{sec}] \times 100}{W(g) \times Au(wt\%)}$$

Where: X the conversion, CO_{in} the initial molar fraction of CO at the inlet, CO_{out} the molar fraction of CO at the outlet, r: the intrinsic rate of CO oxidation per gram of Au, $F(CO_{in})$: is the molar flow of CO [mol/ sec] at the inlet of the reactor, W: is the weight of the catalyst in g and Au (wt%): is the loading of Au weight %.

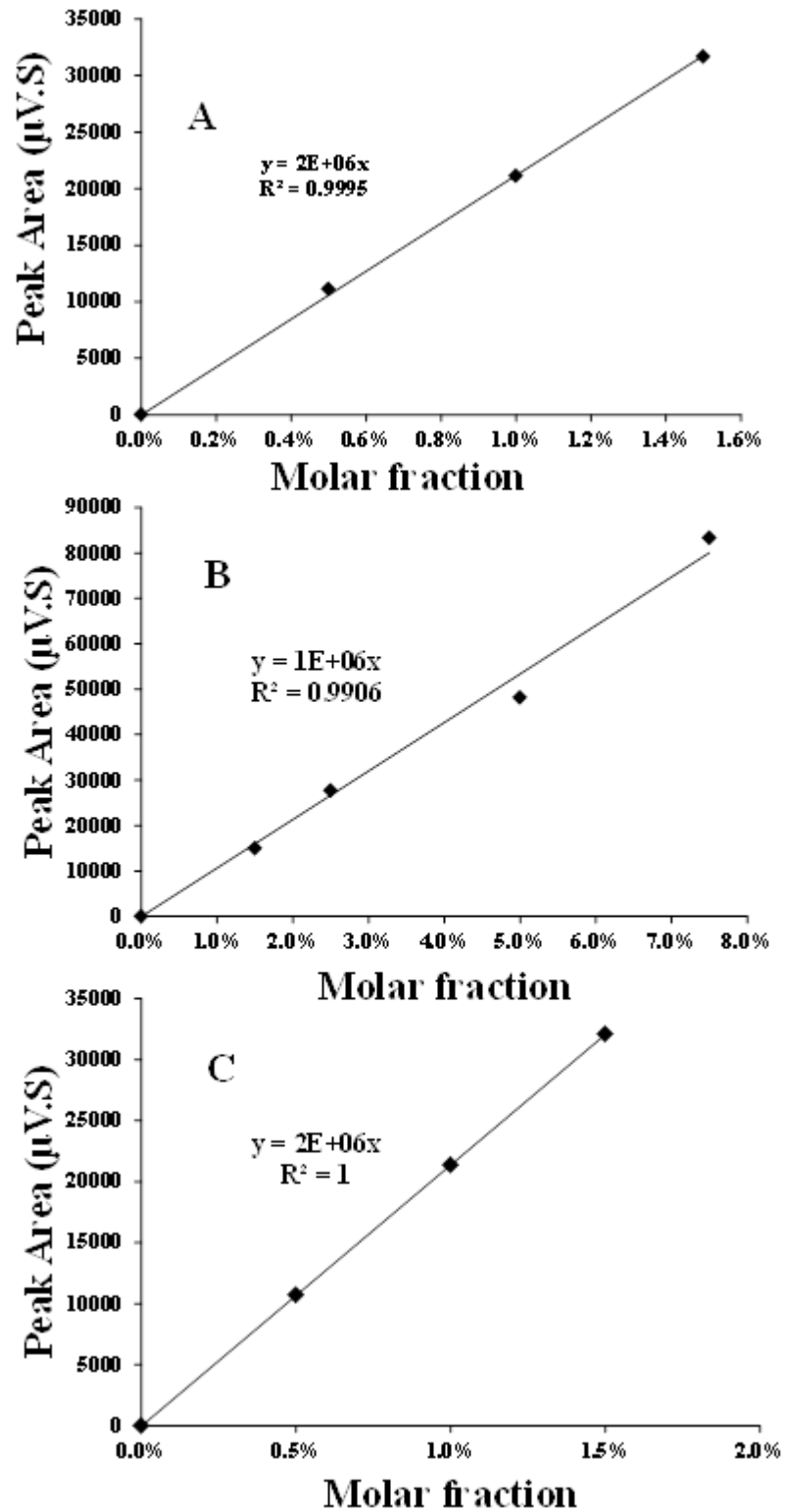


Figure 5.18 Micro GC Calibration curve for the (A) CO, (B) CO₂, and (C) O₂.

5.5.1.5 Calcination (catalyst pretreatment)

The low melting temperature of gold 1063°C may cause sintering of the particles during the reaction or the heat treatment before the reaction. Therefore, the choice of the calcination temperature is very important. The optimum calcination temperature after we did the TPO is 300 ° C **Figure 5.10**. All catalysts are treated with 5% O₂ - He at 300°C for 4 hours. The detailed study of the influence of the calcination atmosphere will be presented in this Section.

5.5.1.6 Reactor loading

The reactor loading process was preceded by thorough cleaning of the reactor with Argon gas to wash out residual gas from the reactor so as to prevent possible impurity formation during catalyst pretreatment and CO oxidation processes. The lower end of the reactor was covered with Glass Wool, 10 mg of catalysis 1% Au/ TiO₂ with 50 mg of Carborundum fine powder(SiC) (sigma > 99%) were added to the reactor and then closed tight. The reactor was then placed inside the furnace to start the catalytic test.

5.5.1.7 Temperature profile used to screen the catalyst

To measure the catalyst activity and product composition, we used the temperature profile shown in **Figure 5.19**. The catalytic test was run for 6 h. The temperature was increased from 25°C to 400°C at a rate of 5 K/min with a step value of 25 degrees. The catalytic activity was monitored at each temperature for 30 min. The total flow is 24 ml/min and the molar feed composition is 1.5% O₂, 1.5% CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%.

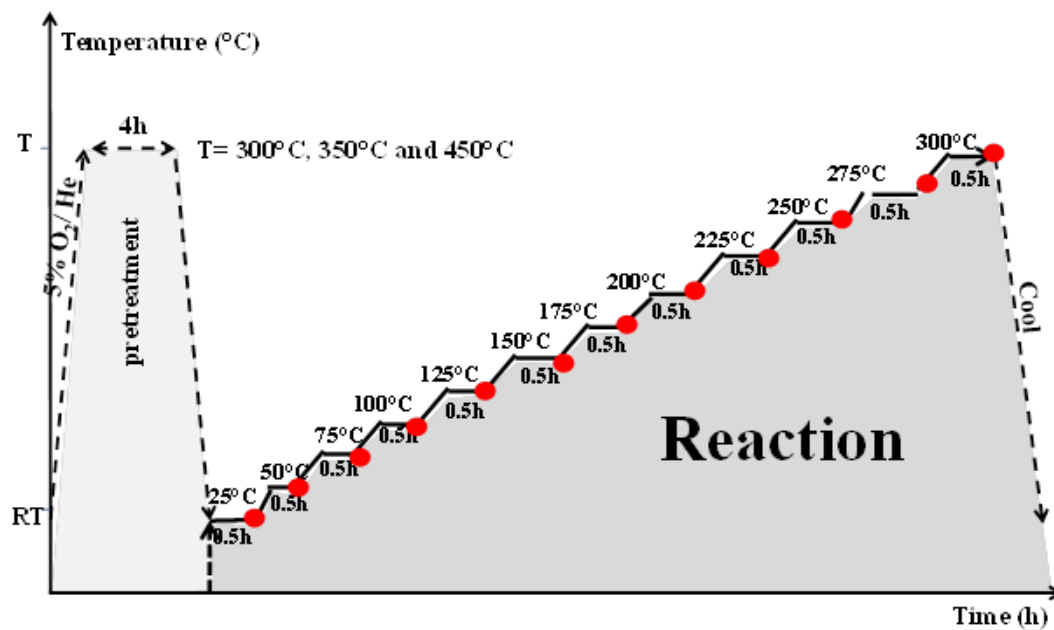


Figure 5.19 Catalytic Screening Protocol

5.5.2 Catalyst pretreatment

5.5.2.1 Study the effect of the pre-treatment temperature

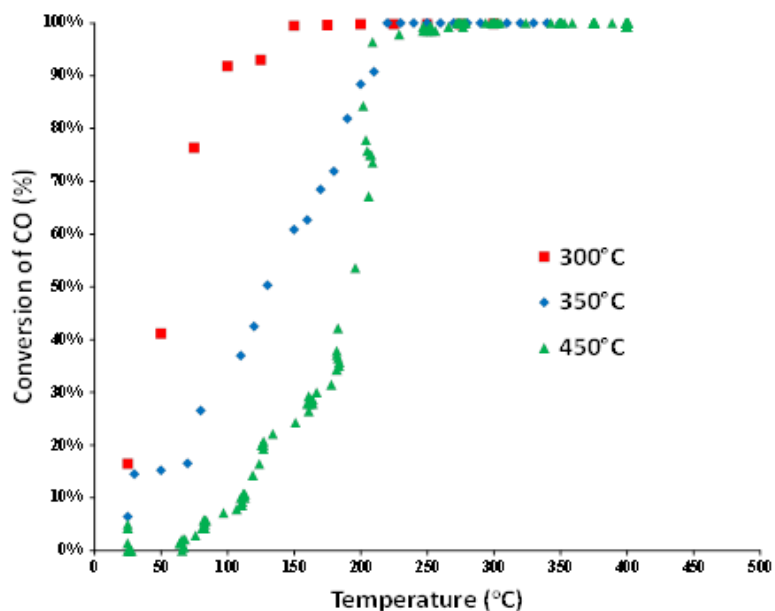


Figure 5.20 CO conversion as a function of temperature for Citrate: Au (0.2:1) ratio catalysts at 1.5% O₂, 1.5% CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂

All catalysts were tested in the full oxidation reaction of carbon monoxide as shown in **Figure 5.20**. The catalytic tests were repeated several times to ensure reproducibility of the experiments see for example **Figure 5.21** the catalyst activity investigated after pre-treatment at T= 300°C, 350°C, and 450°C temperature.

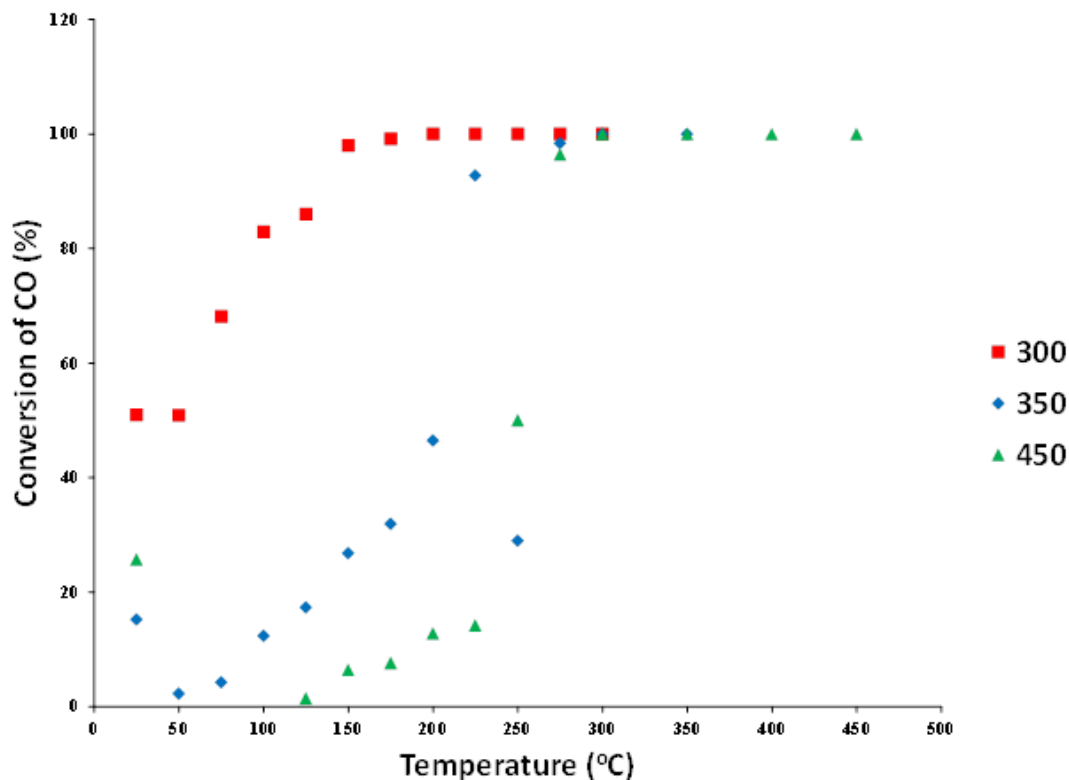


Figure 5.21 CO conversion as a function of temperature for Citrate: Au (5:1) ratio catalysts at 1.5% O₂, 1.5% CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂

The activities of catalysts loaded with gold to 1 wt%, as determined using ICP **Table 5.2**, and supported on TiO₂ are shown in **Figure 5.20**. This figure shows that pre-treating of the Citrate: Au (1:1) ratio by different temperatures gives different conversion. The above figure also revealed that the optimum temperature for pre-treatment is 300°C which leads to higher CO conversion at lower temperatures. The increase in activity with a decrease in oxidation temperature may arise from the maximal removal of the ligand while avoiding substantial sintering of gold particles.

At temperatures above 300°C, were the maximum of the ligands were removing as proved by TPO. In this case, we lose the size, resulting increase the chance for sintering (Bond and Thompson, 2000) ¹⁶⁰.

We can conclude that the observe some activity at a temperature higher than 300°C may, therefore, be arising from the massive increase in metallic gold and sintering¹⁶¹, in fact, we still see some small particles even after calcination at 450°C ¹⁶²as shown in **Figure 5.21**.

However, It is clear that at 300°C seems to be the optimal pre-treatment temperature, as well as the 100% Conversion of CO almost reach at 300°C. However, these results are different for the sample prepared in the absence of ligand. We observe that there is no effect on the pre-treatment temperature on the activity. This can be attributed to the absence of ligand to protect the gold nanoparticles. Based on the literature^{121, 140, 163}, the most straightforward explanation of this activity is that the activity can be improved by decreasing the size of the particles, this activity can be obtained on catalysts prepared at pH9 ¹⁵⁵. Therefore, we conclude that the CO conversion in the absence of ligand was not affected by the different temperature of the pretreatment as shown in **Figure 5.22**.

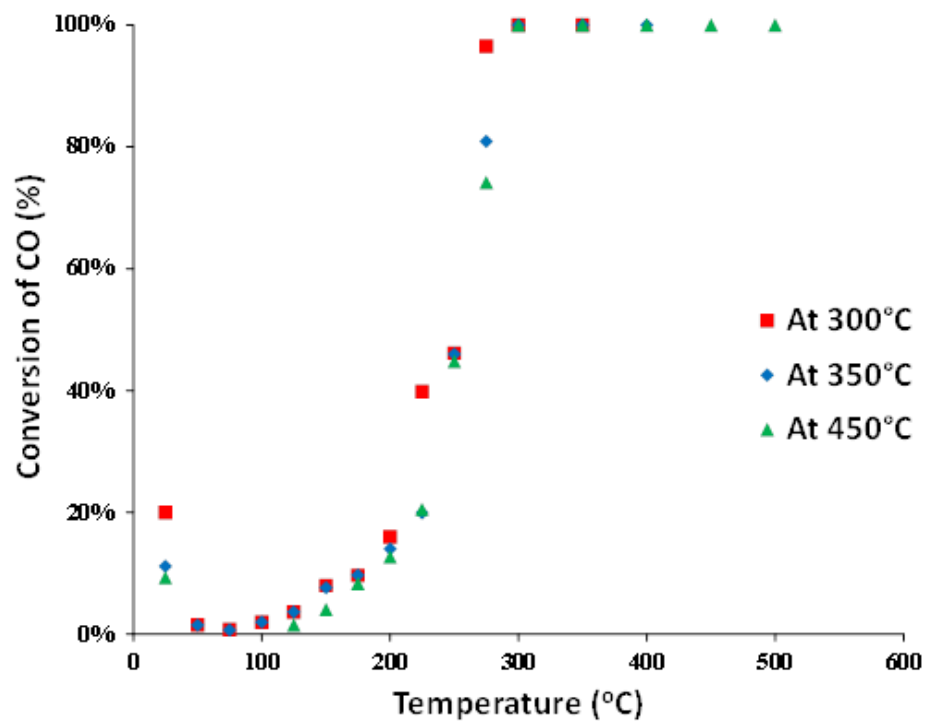


Figure 5.22 CO conversion as a function of temperature for catalysts in the absence of the ligands at 1.5% O₂, 1.5% CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂

In the light of these results, we would like to confirm using Temperature Programmed Oxidation (TPO) combined with TEM whether the reaction at 300°C is better or not in term of activity.

5.6 Catalytic activity measurement

5.6.1 Catalytic screening at different temperatures

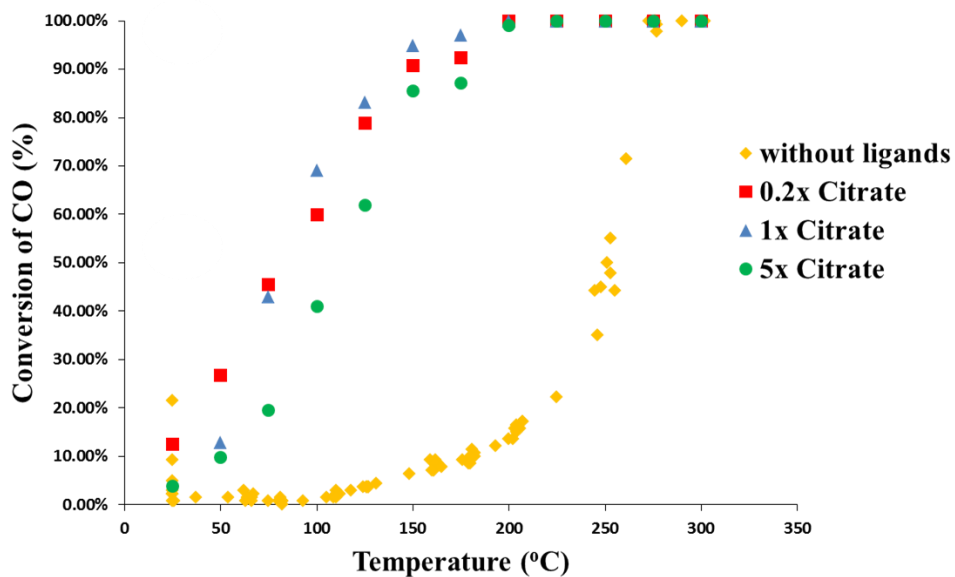


Figure 5.23 CO oxidation over Au/TiO₂ catalysts at different temperatures for Citrate at various ratios: (■) 0.2:1Citrate, Au; (▲) 1:1 Citrate: Au; (●) 5:1 Citrate, Au and (◆) without using ligands at 1.5%O₂, 1.5%CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂.

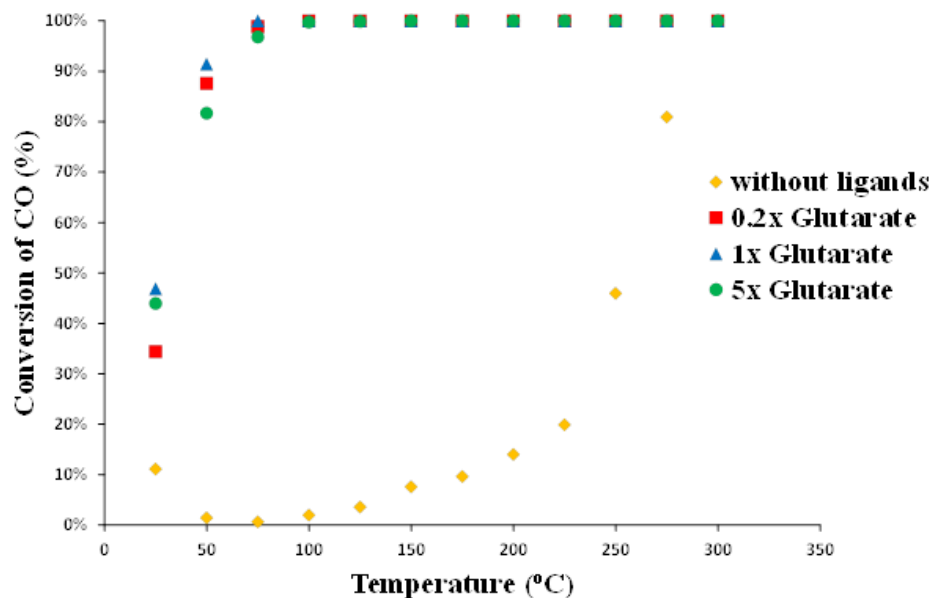


Figure 5.24 CO oxidation over Au/TiO₂ catalysts at different temperatures for Glutarate at various ratios: (■) 0.2:1 Glutarate, Au; (▲) 1:1 Glutarate: Au; (●) 5:1 Glutarate, Au and (◆) without using ligands at 1.5%O₂, 1.5%CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂

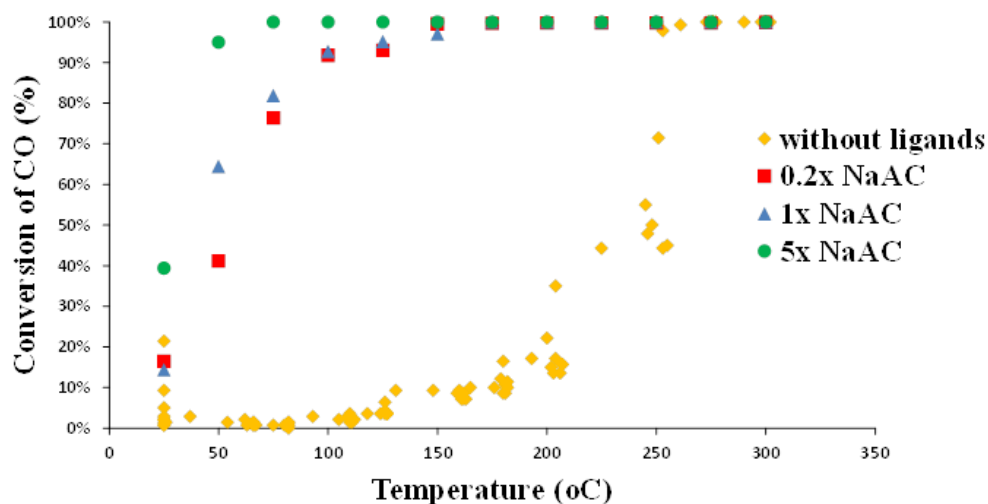


Figure 5.25 CO oxidation over Au/TiO₂ catalysts at different temperatures for Na acetate at various ratios: (■) 0.2:1 Na acetate, : Au; (▲) 1:1 Na acetate: Au; (●) 5:1 Na acetate, : Au and (◆) without using ligands at 1.5% O₂, 1.5% CO in N₂ 57% and He 40%, total flow is 24ml/min/reactor, reactor loading is ~50mg containing Carborundum fine powder(SiC) mixed respectively with ~10mg Au/TiO₂.

Figures above shows that in all cases of Au NPs synthesized were first deposit onto the support and then calcined at 300°C for different ligand at various ratios. I will summaries the **Figure 5.23, Figure 5.24 and Figure 5.25** in the following;

- The catalyst prepared in the presence of ligand was generally found to have better activity compared to the reference catalyst. Indeed, significant CO conversion can be achieved at temperatures as low as 50°C, over Au/TiO₂ synthesized in the presence of ligand.
- Maximum conversions of CO over Au/TiO₂ prepared in the presence of ligand was achieved at much lower temperatures. On another hand, for the sample prepared in the

absence of any ligands as a stabilizer, the conversion of CO at 200°C is very small (around 10%) and markedly increased to reach 100% conversion at 250°C.

- When the conversions are high, it means that more reacting molecules are adsorbed on the surface of the catalyst where they are converted into products.
- It has also been demonstrated that thermal treatments of the catalyst at 350°C or higher deactivated the catalyst.
- This treatment is believed to modify the catalyst by removing the hydroxyl groups from the ionic Au species and from the surface of the support. Hydroxyl groups are believed to be crucial for the activity of the catalyst^{60, 164}. Thermal treatment also leads to the agglomeration of Au particles which is not desirable for the high activity.

Although the catalytic activity of gold catalysts in the low temperature CO oxidation has been extensively investigated in recent decades, the nature of the active species is still controversial. It has been suggested that the role of the metal oxide is to stabilize the gold nano-particles and that the reaction happens on the gold surface^{143b, 144, 165}. Other authors proposed that the reaction takes place at the gold/metal oxide interface and that the metal oxide could act as a source of oxygen¹⁶⁶. Different researchers, however, proposed that the active species is the metallic gold because they found no proof of the presence of ionic gold species on their active catalysts^{57b}. In light of the spectroscopic analysis indicating the presence of ionic gold in the most active catalysts, a few analysts proposed that ionic gold is necessary for high CO oxidation activity although there is no consensus

on whether it is Au^{III} or Au^I. Several groups have observed the presence of ionic gold in active catalysts by Mössbauer impact spectroscopy¹⁶⁷, XPS⁵², and XANES¹⁶⁴. Guzman, gates and Minaco *et al.* Have observed the presence of Au^I on their active Au/Fe₂O₃ using FTIR¹⁶⁸. Bond and Thompson¹⁶⁹ suggested in their exhaustive literature survey on gold catalysts that the active site consists of an ensemble of Au(OH)₃ and metallic gold. In **Figure 5. 26**, where ionic gold species are believed to be the chemical “*glue*” between the metallic gold species and the support. At high temperature treatment, these species would be reduced to metallic gold and result in the agglomeration of gold on the surface of the support. This hypothesis was confirmed by Costello¹⁷⁰, where they reported that an Au(OH) species is in charge for the adsorption of CO molecule and an oxygen atom would be adsorbed on the surface of the metallic gold particle.

- In this study, we identify the active species responsible for the high activity of gold catalysts. XPS (**chapter 4**) confirm that we have Au^I, Au⁰ (the ionic gold to be necessary for high CO oxidation activity).
- Our results show that increase the pH has a significant role to play in activity due to at pH =9 as we approved that by ¹³CNMR (**chapter 4**), we keep the interaction between the ligands and the gold atoms and later this ligands by protecting the nanoparticles can enhance the catalytic activity.
- At pH = 9 (Cf. ¹³C MAS NMR study in **chapter 4**), we proved that the interaction between gold atoms and the ligand is optimal. This would protect the nanoparticles

against sintering leading to better catalytic activity. This is in good agreement with the results previously reported by Wolf and Schuth¹⁷¹.

Removal of Cl⁻ ions from the catalyst was reported to result in the deposition of small Au particles leading to higher dispersion and improved activity^{61,69}. In our study, we think that residual Cl⁻ ions are almost totally removed during the washing process

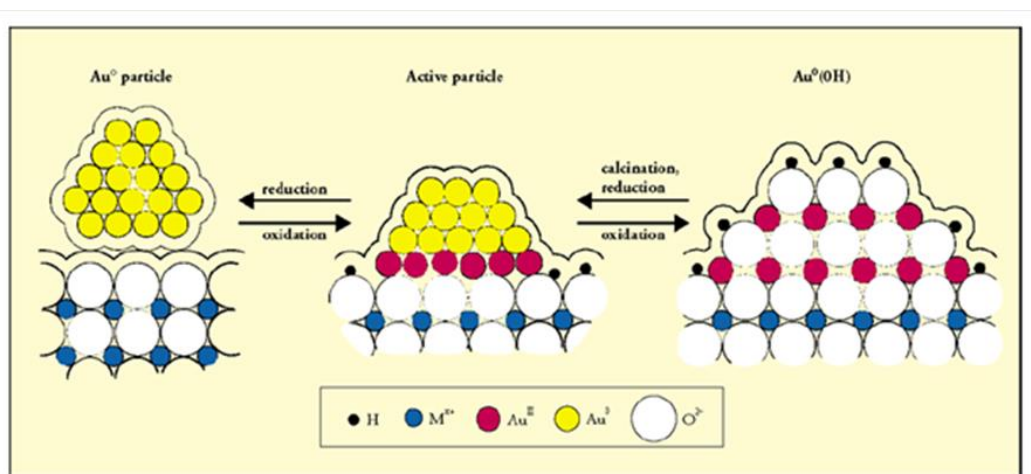


Figure 5. 26 Pictorial representation of supported gold catalyst indicating possible changes under conditions giving oxidation or reduction of the active gold particles⁷¹

5.7 Conclusion

The studies we have conducted allowed us to show the decisive influence of a number of experimental parameters on the resulting nanostructures.

The Au/TiO₂ catalysts prepared with different ligands and various Au-to-ligand ratios were evaluated for the CO oxidation at 573 K. Thanks to the different results we have obtained, we can conclude that:

1. The TEM images and size distributions of the Au nanoparticles after and before the heat treatments at 300, 350, and 450°C are shown in Table 5.4. The size of Au nanoparticles clearly increases from 2.6 nm before pretreatment to 15.8 after calcination at 450 °C. The mode of pretreatment before use is also important: calcination is frequently used with good results. It is evident that of gold particles grows with the calcination temperature which can be ascribed by more agglomerated crystals.
2. The best ratio to get reliable size is 1:1 with temperature 300°C for pretreatment and catalysis.
3. Additionally, When we have pretreatment temperature at 300°C and we do the reaction between 25°C to 300°C. We observed good activity.
4. The activities are better when we have ligand than if we did not have ligands.
5. The Glutarate seems to be having better effect than the other.

Unfortunately, based only on the present results it will be very hard to clarify the role of the ligands on the catalytic activity. Because we observed the ligands has an affect but we have treated the surface with oxygen so we did not know what is left on the surface.

Appendix 1

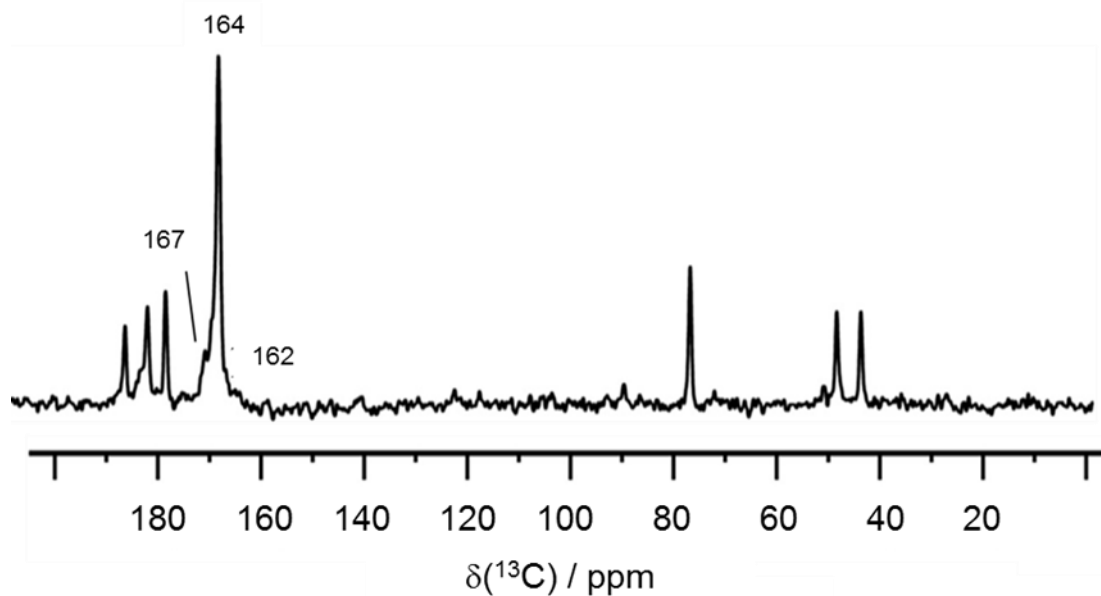


Figure 1. Low temperature (100 K) 1D ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectrum where the citrate: Au ratio is 0.2:1 acquired at 9.4 T using a pre-cooled system with the probe temperature set at 100 K, an MAS frequency of 10 kHz, and a repetition delay of 5 s.

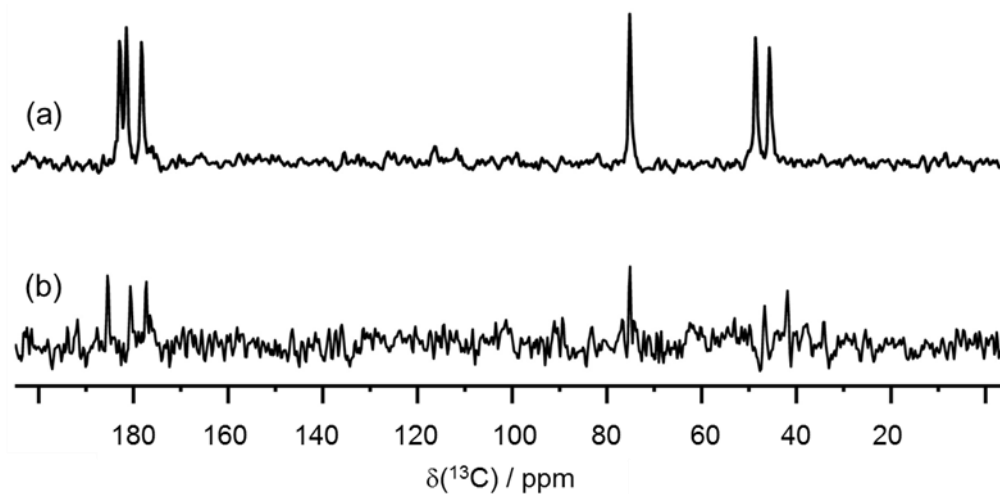


Figure 2. 1D ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of (a) trisodium citrate dihydrate (CSD code: UMOGAE) and (b). bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate (CSD code: FATTID).

Table1. Quadrupolar coupling constant, C_Q , asymmetry parameter, h , and isotropic chemical shifts, d_{iso} , of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate and citrate/Au(1:1 ratio) derived from the ^{23}Na MQMAS NMR spectra.^a

sodium citrate				citrate/Au(1:1 ratio)		
Sites ^b	$ C_Q / \text{MHz}^c$	h^c	$d_{\text{iso}} / \text{ppm}$	$ C_Q / \text{MHz}^c$	h^c	$d_{\text{iso}} / \text{ppm}$
Na(1)	1.00(0.10)	1.00(0.10)	-2.09(0.40)	1.00(0.15)	1.00(0.10)	-2.08(0.58)
Na(2)	1.28(0.03)	0.28(0.06)	-1.03(0.30)	1.23(0.02)	0.80(0.10)	-2.57(0.87)
Na(3)	1.50(0.05)	0.60(0.10)	1.00(0.50)	1.30(0.10)	0.50(0.05)	1.25(0.45)
Na(4) ^d	0.70(0.10)	0.00(0.20)	2.84(0.20)			2.80(0.20)
Na(5) ^d						7.21(0.20)

^a Error bounds are in parentheses.

^b There are four crystallographically inequivalent sodium sites in the crystal structure of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate and for citrate: Au (1:1 ratio). $\text{NaCl}_{(\text{s})}$ present in both compounds.

^c The EFG tensor, \mathbf{V} , can be diagonalized to provide three principal components defined as: $|V_{33}| \geq |V_{22}| \geq |V_{11}|$; quadrupolar coupling constant: $C_Q = eQV_{33}/h$; asymmetry parameter: $\eta_Q = (V_{11} - V_{22})/V_{33}$.

^d NaCl is observed in the full spectra shown in Figure 13. No second order broadening effects are observed for Na(4) of citrate/Au(1:1 ratio) and NaCl due to negligible EFG at that sodium site.

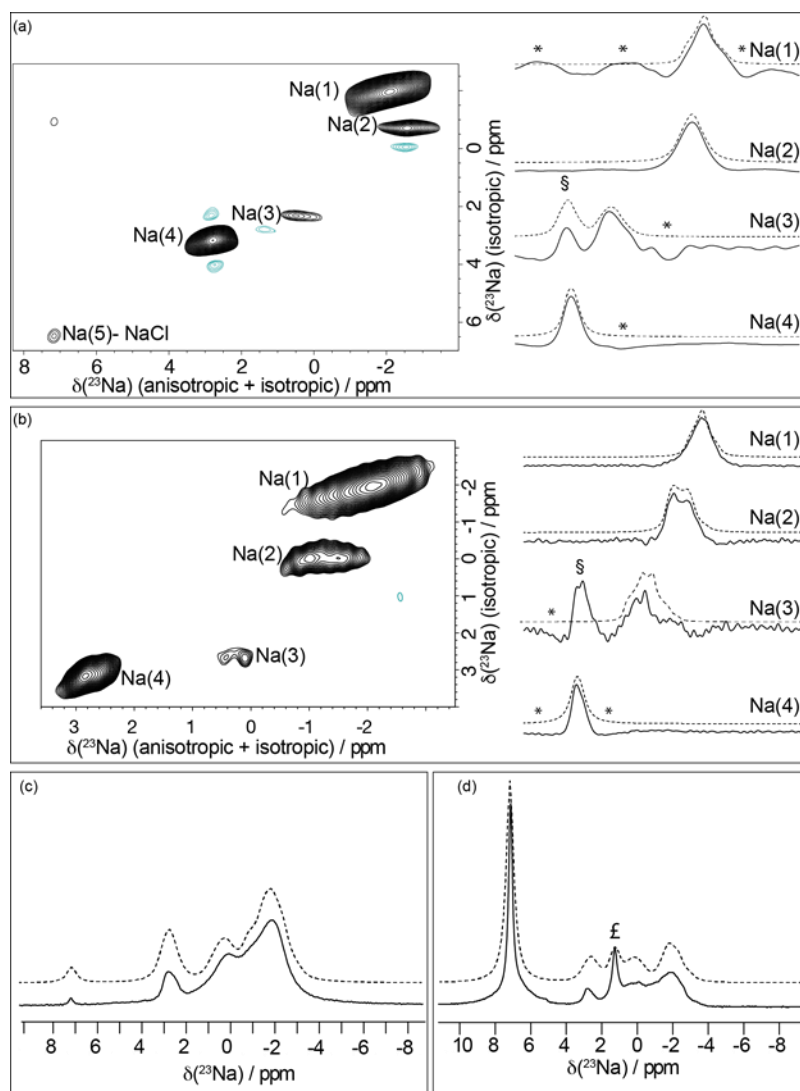


Figure 3. ^{23}Na MQMAS SSNMR spectra (left) acquired at 21.1 T along with the extracted slices (right) of all crystallographically distinct Na sites for (a) citrate/Au (1:1 ratio) and (b) bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate. In (a) the full ^{23}Na MQMAS NMR spectrum of citrate: Au (1:1 ratio) is shown to highlight the presence of NaCl at 7.21 ppm. Experimental (black) and simulated (dashed line) 1D ^{23}Na MAS NMR spectra are shown in (c) and (d) for sodium citrate and citrate/Au(1:1 ratio), respectively. All simulated spectra were generated using WSolids.¹⁷² Asterisks show distortions in the slices which are known to happen in MQMAS experiments,¹⁷³ while § designates Na(4) observed in the extracted slice containing also the Na(3) signal, and £ designates an impurity. The spectra were appropriately sheared after acquisition using the C_k convention by P. P. Man{Man, 1998 #4420} as well as using the xfshear command in TopSpin and referenced to NaCl(s), $d_{\text{iso}}(^{23}\text{Na}) = 7.21$ ppm.

Density Functional Theory (DFT) Calculation Details

Geometry optimizations and binding energy calculations on fixed Au surfaces in vacuo. For calculations involving acetate anions supported on fixed neutral gold nanoparticle surface models *in vacuo*, version 2010.02 of the Amsterdam Density Functional (ADF)¹⁷⁴ DFT software package was used. Au nanoparticle surface models were generated using the crystal structure of bulk gold.¹⁷⁵ Based on prior findings,¹⁷⁶ gold nanoparticles may be modelled using the (111), (100), and to a lesser extent (110) cleavage planes of bulk gold.¹⁷⁷ The typical size of the surfaces used possessed a depth of three layers, with each layer consisting of about 15 – 20 gold atoms. After selecting the surface models, between one and four acetate anions were added with an idealized starting geometry, and then geometry optimized at the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) level of DFT, while the Au atoms were kept fixed. For all optimizations, the exchange-correlation (XC) functional of Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (i.e., PBE) was used.¹⁷⁸ Dispersion effects were included using the three parameter correction developed by Grimme and co-workers¹⁷⁹ which is effective when modelling Au(111)-supported species.¹⁸⁰ To include relativistic effects, the zeroth-order regular approximation (ZORA)¹⁸¹ was used at the scalar level. All-electron basis sets, which were triple- ζ in the valence and included polarization functions (i.e., TZ2P according to ADF nomenclature), were used for all non-Au atoms. For the Au atoms, a frozen core (up to 4f electrons) TZ2P basis set was used. Due to the metallic nature of the Au surface, geometry optimizations required a density smearing function of width 0.03 Hartree (0.8 eV) to describe the electrons below the highest-occupied molecular orbital. Optimized geometries in Cartesian coordinates, as well as corresponding energies, can be found in the subsequent sections of the Supporting Information, while the binding energy

calculation results using the computational parameters above are in Table 2. In passing, we note that the starting geometry of one acetate anion was allowed to initially be planar with the Au(111) surface model, rather than having both oxygen atoms of the carboxylate group pointing towards the surface. The geometry optimization of this system did not lead to a stable energy minimum geometry. The initial forces were such that the ligand was pushed rather far away ($> 3 \text{ \AA}$) from the Au(111) surface. When loading 4 acetate anions onto the Au(111) surface, the Au-O internuclear distances ranged from a low of 2.19 \AA in one of the acetates binding in a $1\kappa O^1$ fashion, to $2.2 - 2.4 \text{ \AA}$ for anions binding in a μ_2 fashion.

Table 2. Calculations of binding energies for acetate anions on fixed Au model surfaces *in vacuo*^a

System (ligand(s) / support)	E_{Au}^b / kcal mol ⁻¹	E_{Ac}^c / kcal mol ⁻¹	E_{tot}^d / kcal mol ⁻¹	BSSE ^e / kcal mol ⁻¹	E_{Bind}^f / kcal mol ⁻¹
1 acetate / Au(111)	-3820.23	-1013.38	-4901.01	-0.51	67.91
1 acetate / Au(100)	-3352.24	-1013.37	-4434.88	-0.22	69.48
1 acetate / Au(110)	-3440.68	-1013.28	-4529.59	-0.16	75.80
4 acetates / Au(111) – I ^g	-3820.23	-1013.48	-4900.78	-0.51	67.58
4 acetates / Au(111) – II	-3820.23	-1013.04	-4899.85	-0.84	67.42
4 acetates / Au(111) – III	-3820.23	-1013.52	-4909.03	-1.06	76.34
4 acetates / Au(111) – IV	-3820.23	-1012.47	-4899.75	-1.35	68.39

^a Calculations were carried out at the same level of theory as the *in vacuo* geometry optimization calculations (GGA DFT, PBE XC functional, all-electron TZ2P basis on ligand atoms, frozen core TZ2P basis on Au atoms (up to 4f), relativistic effects included via the scalar ZORA, and dispersion included by the Grimme three parameter correction). For descriptions of the acronyms used and relevant references, see above computational details section. 3D structures can be found in Figure 5(a-c).

^b Bond energy of the relevant gold surface model.

^c Bond energy of the isolated acetate anion.

^d Bond energy of the acetate anion and gold surface together.

^e Basis set superposition error. We note that contrary to the typical expectation, the BSSE is confirmed to be slightly negative for the systems considered herein. Due to its small magnitude, BSSE corrections were not used in the non-fixed Au surface calculations outlined in the sections below.

^f Binding energy, $E_{\text{Bind}} = -(E_{\text{tot}} - E_{\text{Au}} - E_{\text{Ac}} + \text{BSSE})$.

^g Corresponds to acetate ‘I’, as in Figure 3c of the main text. Although in this system, a total of four acetates were interacting with the Au(111) surface, for simplicity, the interaction energies between each ligand were ignored. Hence, each acetate ligand was treated in isolation and the E_{tot} values in these rows correspond to only the Au(111) surface and the particular acetate anion (i.e., ‘I’, ‘II’, ‘III’, ‘IV’) specified in the first column of the row.

Geometry optimizations and binding energy calculations using large non-fixed Au surfaces. In reality, the Au surface must deform slightly as a result of binding the various ligands. Hence, geometry optimizations of mono- and dicarboxylates coordinating to large non-fixed gold nanoclusters have been performed with the Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP).¹⁸² To this end, 110 Au atom and 85 Au atom clusters were built using the same Au crystal structure denoted above, in order to model the (100) and (111) facets of Au nanoparticles, respectively, as depicted in **Figure 4**. These large clusters were built to model large surfaces by minimizing edge effects on the adsorption of a single carboxylate. In all cases the clusters are composed by three layers of Au atoms.

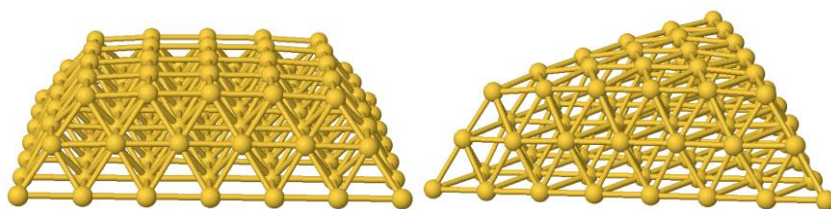


Figure 4. Nanoclusters used to model the Au(100), left, and Au(111), right, surfaces of Au nanoparticles for adsorption of a single acetate, succinate or glutarate anion. Importantly, these surfaces were allowed to deform as a result of their interaction with the various ligands.

Geometry optimizations were performed with the PBE XC functional as implemented in VASP. Plane-wave basis sets with a kinetic energy cutoff of 450 eV describe the valence electrons as defined by the $5d^{10}6s^1$ electrons of Au, $2s^22p^2$ electrons of C, $1s^1$ electron of H and $2s^22p^4$ electrons of O. Core electrons were replaced by projector augmented-wave (PAW) relativistic pseudopotentials.¹⁸³ The clusters were placed in a cubic box of $30 \text{ \AA} \times 30 \text{ \AA} \times 30 \text{ \AA}$, leaving a distance of at least 10 \AA between clusters in

neighboring simulation cells. Relaxation of the atomic positions in the supercell took place until energy differences were smaller than 0.001 eV.

After geometry optimizations, carboxylate binding energies were evaluated with ADF for two reasons. First, in the presence of a charged ligand, periodic boundary conditions can lead to artifacts in the binding energy due to the simulation box presenting a net charge. Indeed, test calculations on acetate binding on a small 55 Au atom cluster indicated the binding energy was converged only with a simulation box having a side of 40 Å. On this basis, larger boxes are expected to be required for the dianionic succinate and glutarate on the large clusters used in this work. Second, ADF allowed solvent (water) effects to be included via a continuum solvation model. Considering that carboxylates are negatively charged, it is expected that a highly polar solvent would reduce remarkably the binding energy of charged ligands. These ADF binding energy calculations were performed with the PBE functional, as before, with the numerical integration parameter set to 5. Scalar relativistic effects were included via the ZORA. A triple- ζ basis set augmented with one polarization function on all atoms (TZP) was used. A dispersion correction was introduced with the empirical Grimme three parameter model, as before. Solvent effects (water) were included with the COSMO continuum solvation model.¹⁸⁴ Radii of 2.223, 1.720, 2.000 and 1.300 Å were used for Au, O, C and H, respectively. Calculations involving the 110 atom cluster mimicking the Au(100) surface were performed in the singlet state, whereas calculations involving the 85 atoms cluster mimicking the Au(111) surface were performed with a total spin density $\alpha - \beta = 1$, and an unrestricted DFT formalism was used. The total binding energy, E_{Bind} , is calculated as in Eq. S1.

$$E_{\text{Bind}} = -(E_{\text{tot}} - E_{\text{Au}} - E_{\text{Carboxylate}}); \quad (1)$$

Where E_{tot} is the energy of the Au cluster with the carboxylate-containing anion adsorbed, E_{Au} is the energy of the free Au cluster, and $E_{\text{Carboxylate}}$ is the energy of the free carboxylate-containing ligand. As illustrated in the fixed Au surface binding energy calculations, basis set superposition effects were not significant and as such were omitted in this series.

The strain energy, E_{Strain} , for coordination of succinate and glutarate was calculated as in Eq. 2.

$$E_{\text{Strain}} = E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Au/Dicarboxylate}) - 2E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Au/Acetate}); \quad (2)$$

Where $E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Au/Dicarboxylate})$ is the binding energy of succinate or glutarate, and $E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Au/Acetate})$ is the binding energy of acetate. Within this definition, $E_{\text{Strain}} = 0$ means that the dicarboxylate binding energy is equal to two times the binding energy of an isolated acetate. In other words, the carbon spacer tethering the two carboxylate groups is not preventing optimal coordination of the dicarboxylate. The ADF-calculated binding energies of all systems are reported in **Table 3**. Pictorial representations of all the geometries with a carboxylate coordinated to the non-fixed Au nanoclusters are in **Figure 5(a-o)**, while those pertaining to fixed Au nanoclusters *in vacuo* are in **Figure 6(a-b)**. The total ADF bond energies of all the species coordinated to the large non-fixed (100) and (111) Au clusters (**as in Figure 4**) are reported in **Table 4**.

Analysis of the data reported in **Table 3** indicates that both *in vacuo* and in water, binding of the carboxylates to the Au(100) surface is favored by roughly 20 kcal mol⁻¹ over binding to the Au(111) surface. In addition, by comparing the *in vacuo* binding

energy calculations of one acetate on various Au surface models in Tables 2 and 3, it is seen that allowing for the Au surface to deform results in binding energies that are enhanced on the order of 10 kcal mol⁻¹ for Au(100), but in contrast, the binding energies do not vary significantly between the fixed and non-fixed Au(111) surfaces. This may partially explain the reduced binding energies calculated for acetate on the water-solvated Au(111) surface. Likewise, the larger E_{Bind} of the carboxylates to the Au(100) surface can be related to the lower coordination number of the Au atoms on the (100) surface, 8, relative to the coordination number on the (111) surface, 9. Further, the geometry of the Au(100) surface, with square planar coordinated Au atoms, allows for a greater flexibility of the surface atoms, relative to Au atoms on the (111) surface, with hexa-coordinated Au atoms. Indeed, in the (100) geometries, the distance between the Au atoms involved in binding of the two carboxylates can stretch up to 3.2 Å, from a value of 2.9 Å for an uncoordinated Au(100) surface. In contrast, on the Au(111) surface the distance between the Au atoms involved in binding is only increased to values of around 3.0 Å (see below SI sections for details). In line with previous work, inclusion of solvent effects strongly reduces the binding energy, due to a strong stabilization of the free carboxylates.¹⁸⁵ Analysis of the Hirshfeld charges indicates substantial transfer of electron density from the carboxylates to the Au clusters. In the case of acetate, a total of 0.68e is transferred from the acetate to the Au cluster both for μ_2 -acetate coordination to the (100) and (111) surfaces. In the case of succinate, the amount of electron density transferred to the Au clusters is almost the double, in the 1.25-1.35e range.

Table 3. Binding energy and strain energy of carboxylates on large nanoclusters^a

System (ligand / support)	E_{Bind} (<i>in vacuo</i>) / kcal mol ⁻¹	E_{Bind} (water) / kcal mol ⁻¹	E_{Strain} (water) / kcal mol ⁻¹
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μ_2 -acetate / Au(100)	80.0	30.5	not defined
κ -acetate / Au(100)	71.3	19.4	not defined
μ_4 -succinate (stacked) / Au(100)	168.5	46.0	15.1
μ_4 -glutarate (stacked) / Au(100)	170.5	54.3	6.8
μ_4 -succinate (parallel displaced) / Au(100)	171.2	48.9	12.1
μ_4 -glutarate (parallel displaced) / Au(100)	171.2	55.2	5.9
μ_2 -acetate / Au(111)	70.4	17.1	not defined
μ_4 -succinate (stacked) / Au(111)	153.7	29.1	5.2
μ_4 -glutarate (stacked) / Au(111)	151.2	32.3	2.0
μ_4 -succinate (parallel displaced) / Au(111)	149.6	24.3	9.9
μ_4 -glutarate (parallel displaced) / Au(111)	151.2	31.7	2.6
μ_4 -succinate (bent) / Au(111)	150.6	26.8	7.5
μ_4 -glutarate (bent) / Au(111)	147.9	29.6	4.6
μ_4 -succinate (skewed) / Au(111)	147.4	22.5	11.8
μ_4 -glutarate (skewed) / Au(111)	148.9	29.4	4.8

^a The binding energy is calculated both *in vacuo* and in water using the ADF package. The 3D structures of the various geometries can be found in Figure 5(a-o).

The conformational strain energy, E_{Strain} , was determined to be low, as indicated by comparing the best binding energy of succinate or glutarate with the binding energy of two isolated acetate molecules, as in Eq. S2. If no strain or cooperative effect is in place, according to our definition E_{Strain} should be equal to zero or even negative. The calculated ΔE_{Strain} for succinate on the Au(100) surface, around 15 kcal mol⁻¹, indicates some strain in the coordination of succinate, which is reduced to 6-7 kcal mol⁻¹ with the more flexible 3 methylene spacer of glutarate. Similar behaviour is found for succinate and glutarate when coordinating to the Au(111) surface, although a slightly lower ΔE_{Strain} of around 5-12 kcal mol⁻¹ is calculated. The lower ΔE_{Strain} of glutarate accounts for the stronger predicted binding of glutarate to the Au surfaces. This allows us to tentatively arrive at the conclusion that one possible binding motif for the citrate would occur preferentially using both terminal carboxylates, rather than one terminal and the central carboxylate.

Pictorial Representations of Optimized Geometries

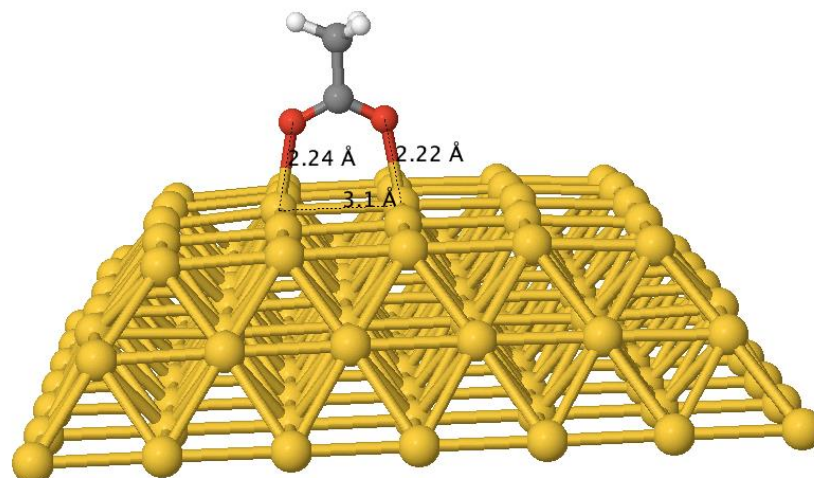


Figure 5a. Optimized geometry of one μ_2 coordinated acetate on an Au(100) model surface, as also depicted in Figure 3a.

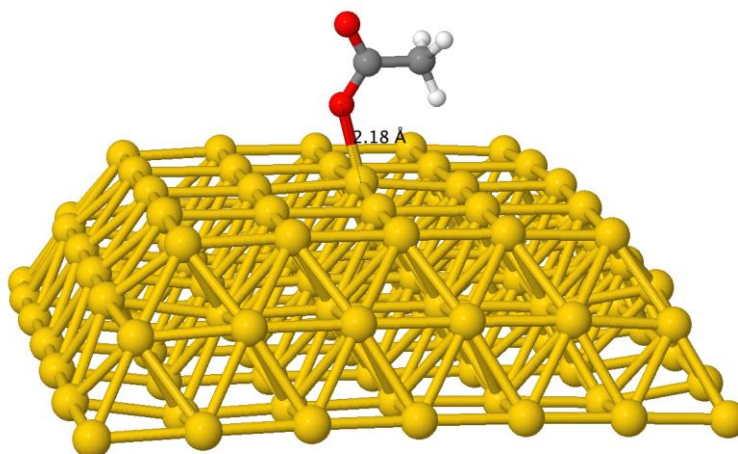


Figure 5b. Optimized geometry of one κ coordinated acetate on an Au(100) model surface.

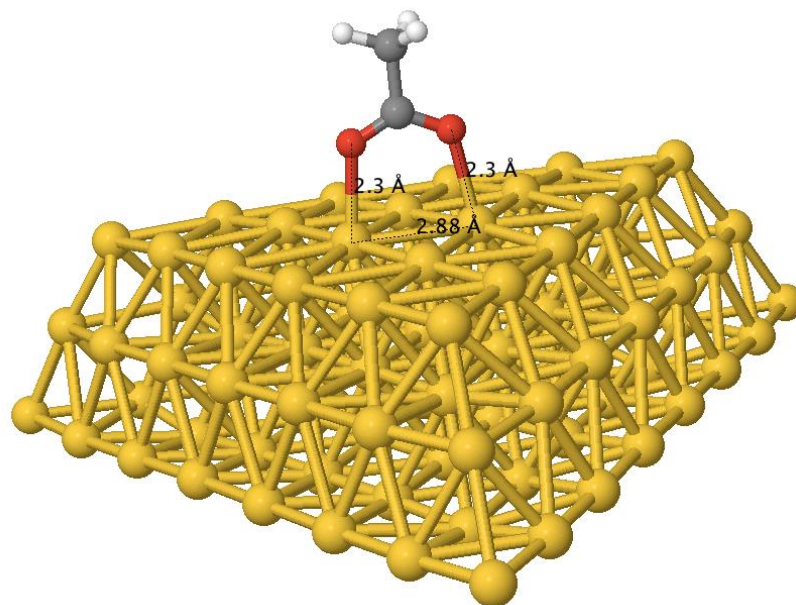


Figure 5c. Optimized geometry of one μ_2 coordinated acetate on an Au(111) model surface, as also depicted in Figure 3b.

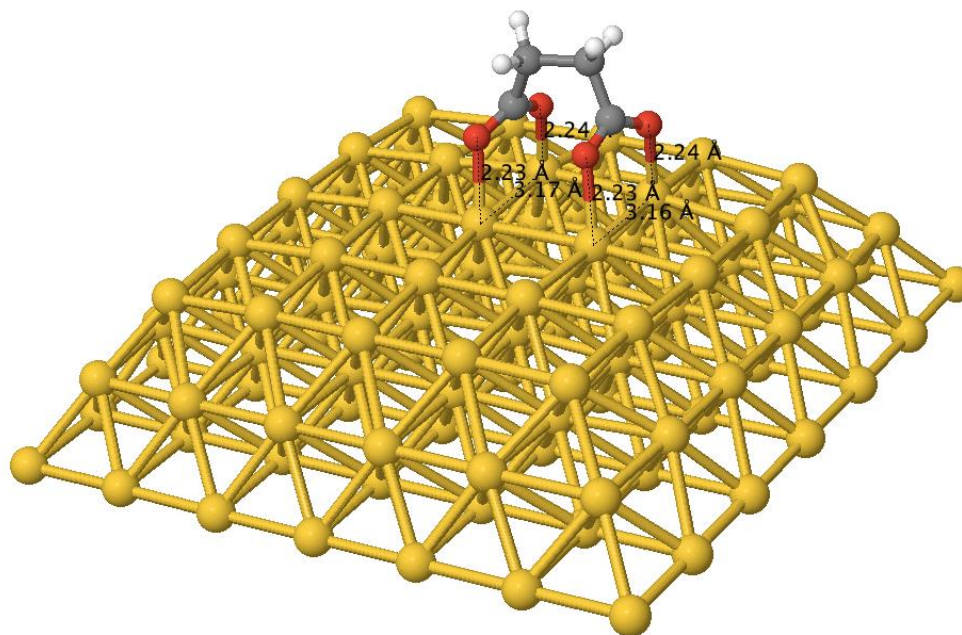


Figure 5d. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “stacked” conformation on an Au(100) model surface. A schematic of this binding motif can be found in the main manuscript, Figure 3d.

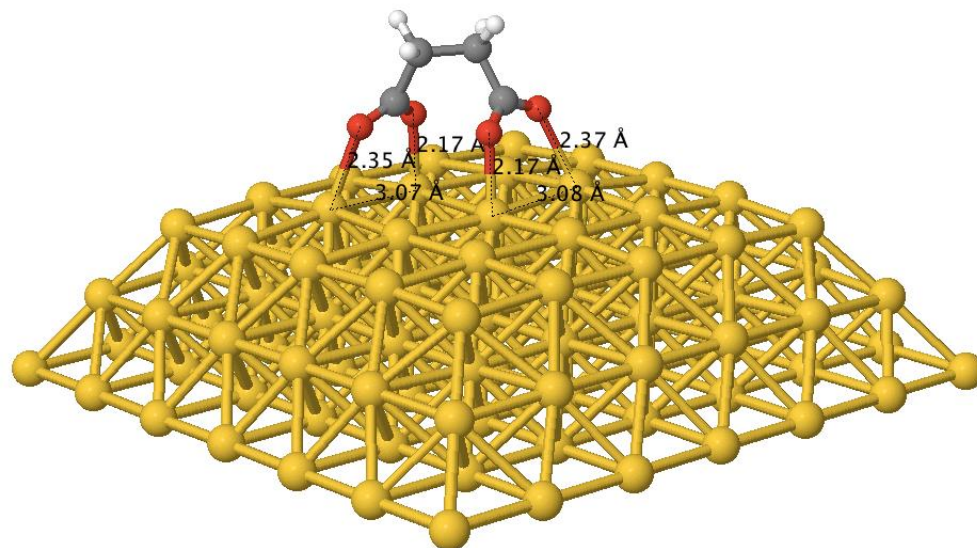


Figure 5e. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “parallel displaced” conformation on an Au(100) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

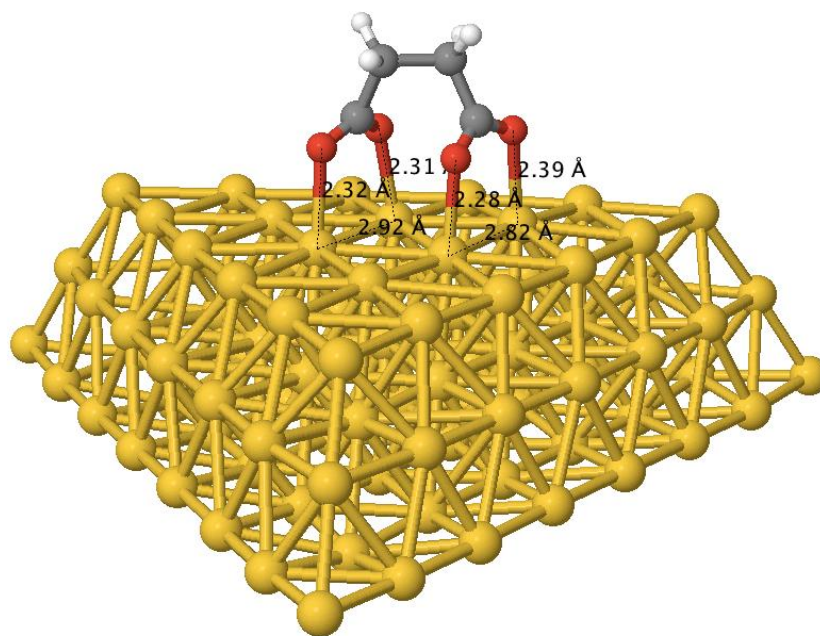


Figure 5f. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “parallel displaced” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

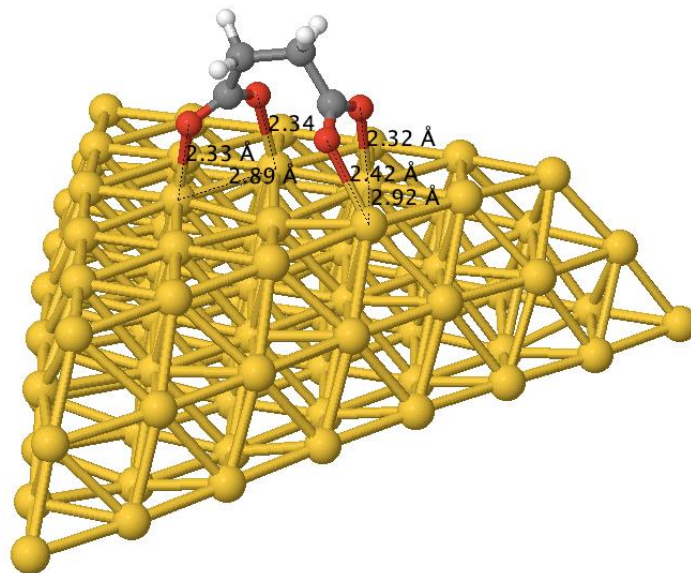


Figure 5g. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “bent” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

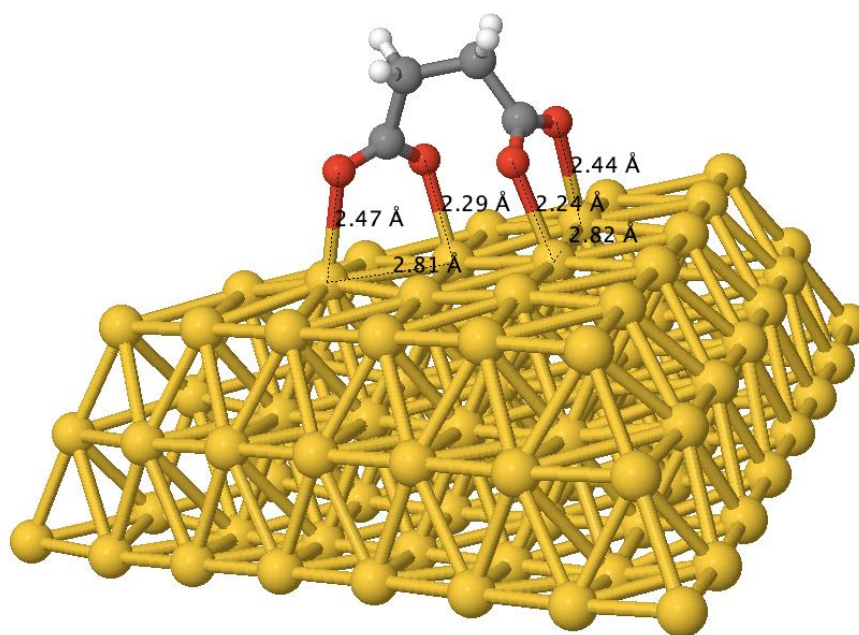


Figure 5h. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “skewed” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

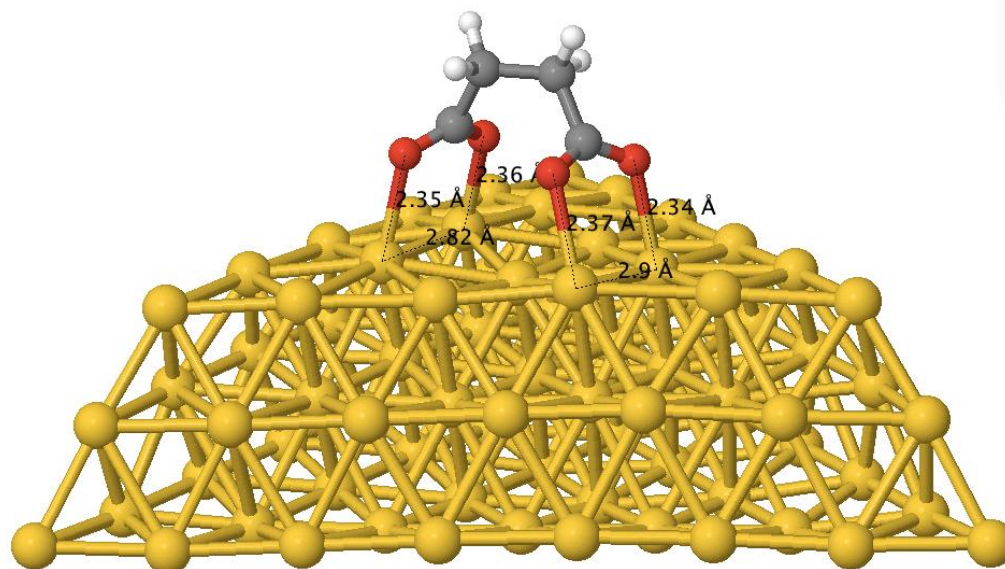


Figure 5i. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated succinate in the “stacked” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

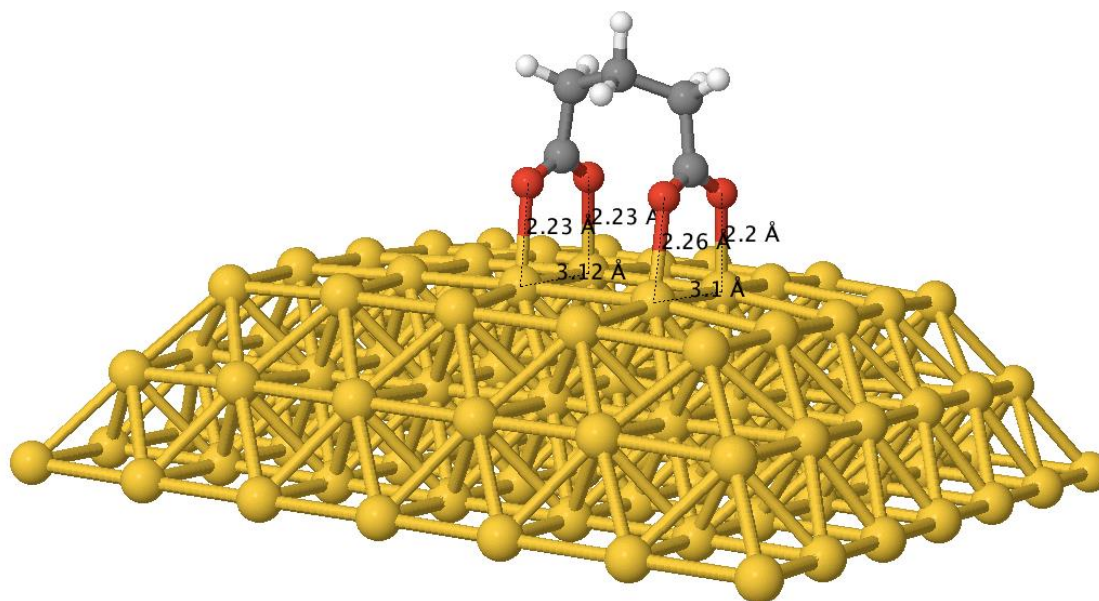


Figure 5j. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated glutarate in the “stacked” conformation on an Au(100) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

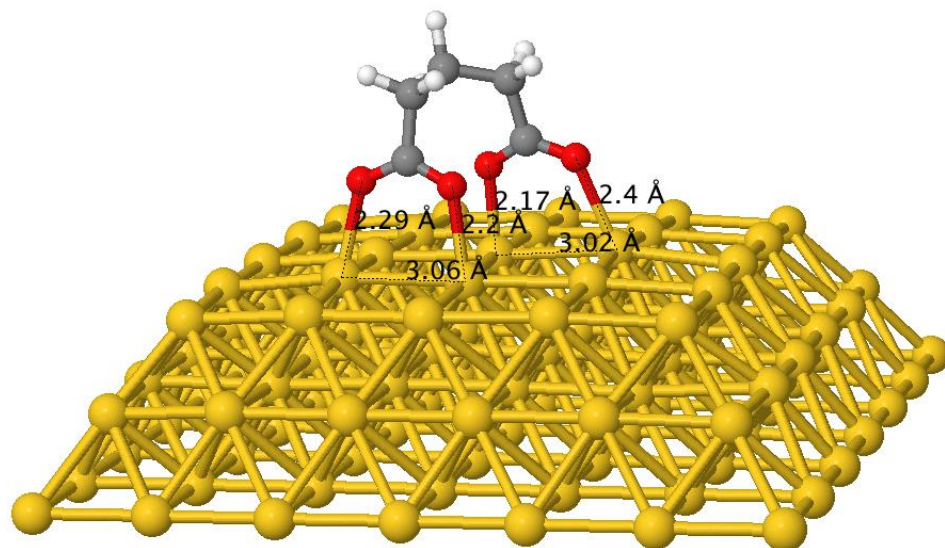


Figure 5k. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated glutarate in the “parallel displaced” conformation on an Au(100) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

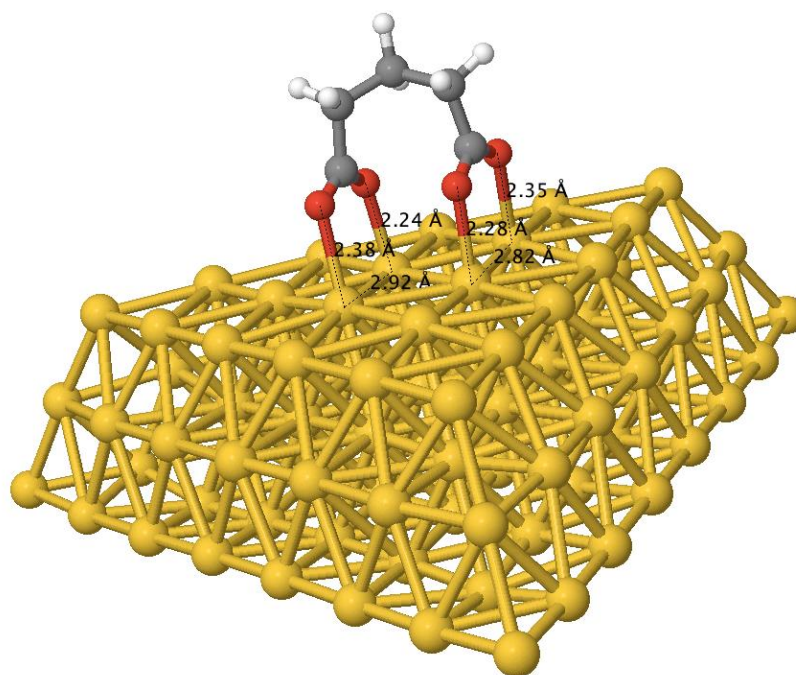


Figure 5l. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated glutarate in the “parallel displaced” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

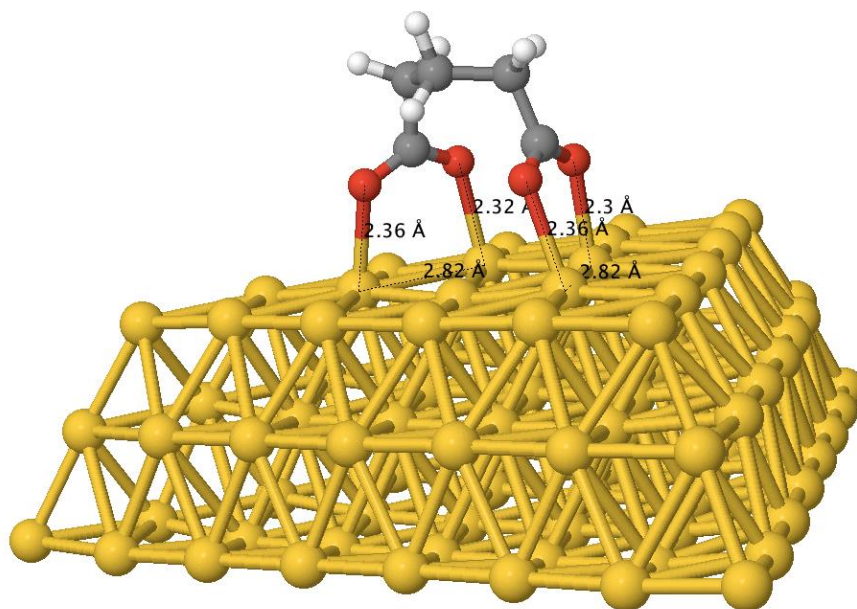


Figure 5m. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated glutarate in the “bent” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

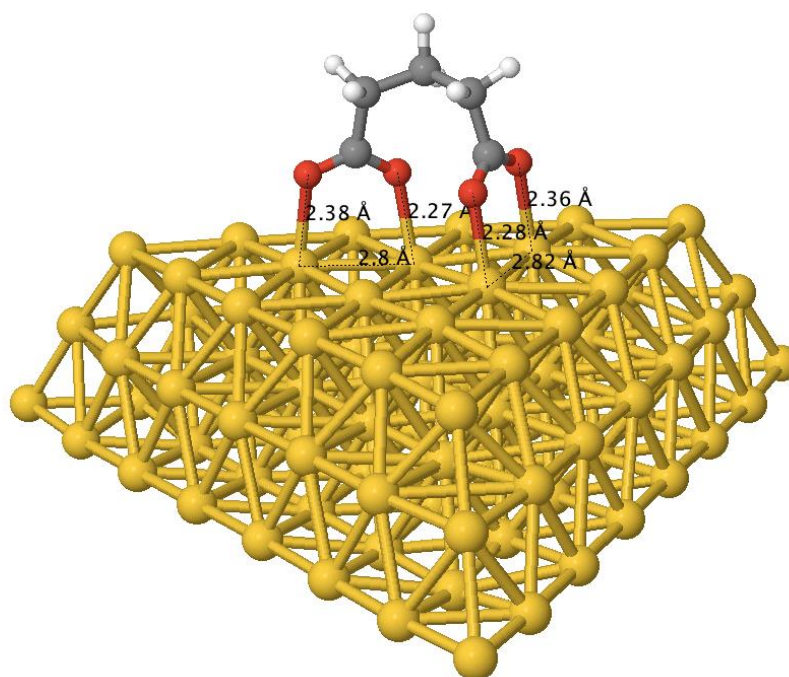


Figure 5n. Optimized geometry of one μ_4 coordinated glutarate in the “skewed” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

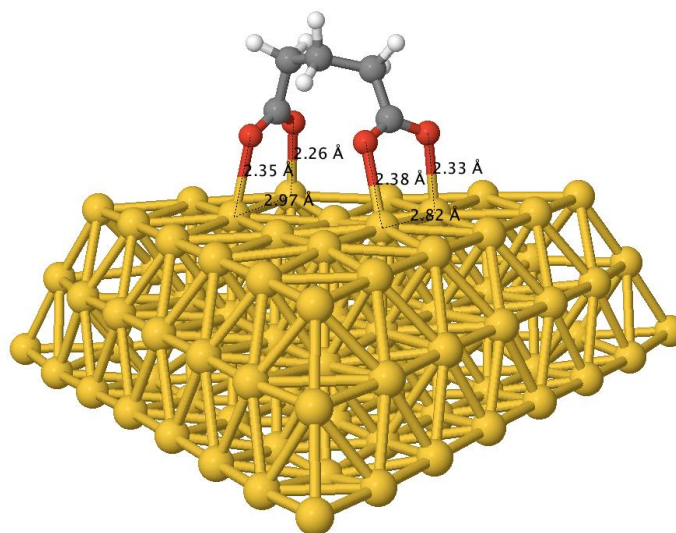


Figure 5o. Optimized geometry of one glutarate in the “stacked” conformation on an Au(111) model surface. A schematic of this motif can be found in Figure 3d.

Table 4. Total bonding energy, relative to spherical spin-restricted atoms, of carboxylates to large non-fixed nanoclusters^a

System	Bond Energy (<i>in vacuo</i>) / kcal mol ⁻¹	Bond Energy (water) / kcal mol ⁻¹
Au(100) surface model	-7499.5	-7495.5
Au(111) surface model	-5761.3	-5759.2
acetate	-1008.6	-1077.2
succinate	-1787.1	-1980.8
glutarate	-2173.2	-2360.2
μ_2 -acetate / Au(100)	-8588.1	-8603.2
κ -acetate / Au(100)	-8579.4	-8592.1
μ_4 -succinate (stacked) / Au(100)	-9455.2	-9522.3
μ_4 -succinate (parallel displaced) / Au(100)	-9457.9	-9525.2
μ_4 -glutarate (stacked) / Au(100)	-9843.2	-9909.9
μ_4 -glutarate (parallel displaced) / Au(100)	-9843.9	-9910.8
μ_2 -acetate / Au(111)	-6840.3	-6853.5
μ_4 -succinate (stacked) / Au(111)	-7702.1	-7769.1
μ_4 -glutarate (stacked) / Au(111)	-8085.6	-8151.6

μ_4 -succinate (parallel displaced) / Au(111)	-7698.0	-7764.3
μ_4 -glutarate (parallel displaced) / Au(111)	-8085.6	-8151.0
μ_4 -succinate (bent) / Au(111)	-7699.0	-7766.8
μ_4 -glutarate (bent) / Au(111)	-8082.4	-8149.0
μ_4 -succinate (skewed) / Au(111)	-7695.9	-7762.5
μ_4 -glutarate (skewed) / Au(111)	-8083.4	-8148.8

^a This is the standard approach for calculating energy in ADF. The 3D structures of the various geometries can be found in Figure 5(a-o).

We additionally tested to see if there was any enthalpic preference for acetate anions to bind at the edges of the Au surface models, as compared to the central regions of the surface (Figure 6(a-c)). These binding energy calculations were performed on selected systems. When considering the individual binding energies of the four acetate anions depicted on the Au(111) surface in Figure 3c of the main manuscript, it is found that the $1\kappa O^1$ motif occurred only near the surface edges, with the bridging (μ_2) motif occurring in the central regions of the facet. However, the μ_2 motif was also observed to occur at the edges, and additionally, the water-solvated edge acetate anion binding in the μ_2 motif (III in Fig. 3c) was calculated to be $26.4 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$, which is about 9 kcal mol^{-1} greater than corresponding binding energies for the other acetate ligands on the Au(111) surface.

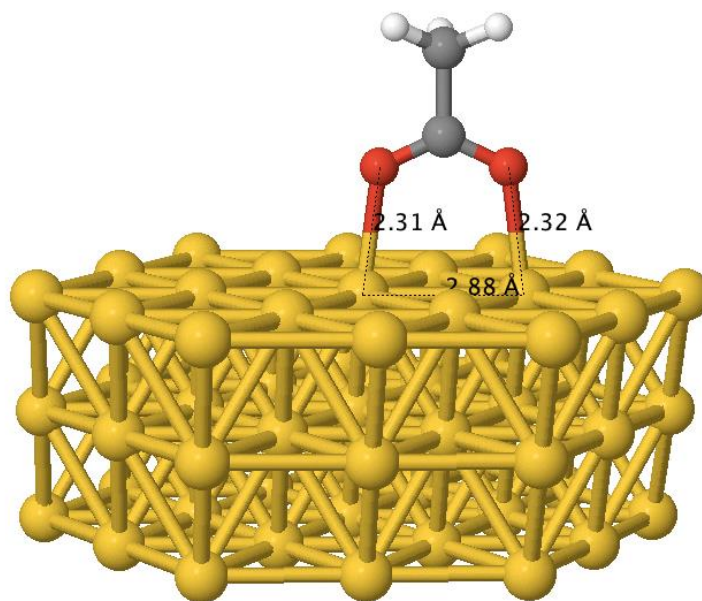


Figure 5a. Optimized geometry of one acetate on a relatively small fixed Au(111) model surface.

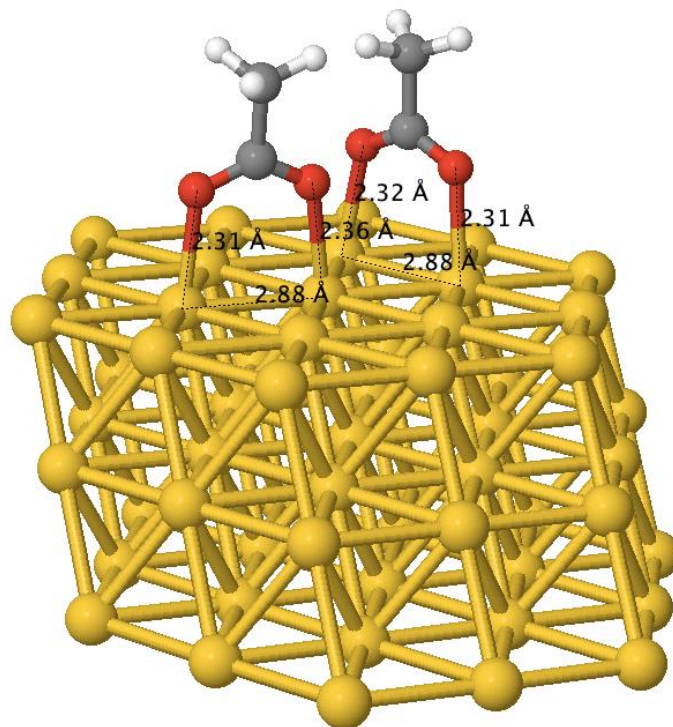


Figure 5b. Optimized geometry of two acetates on a relatively small fixed Au(111) model surface.

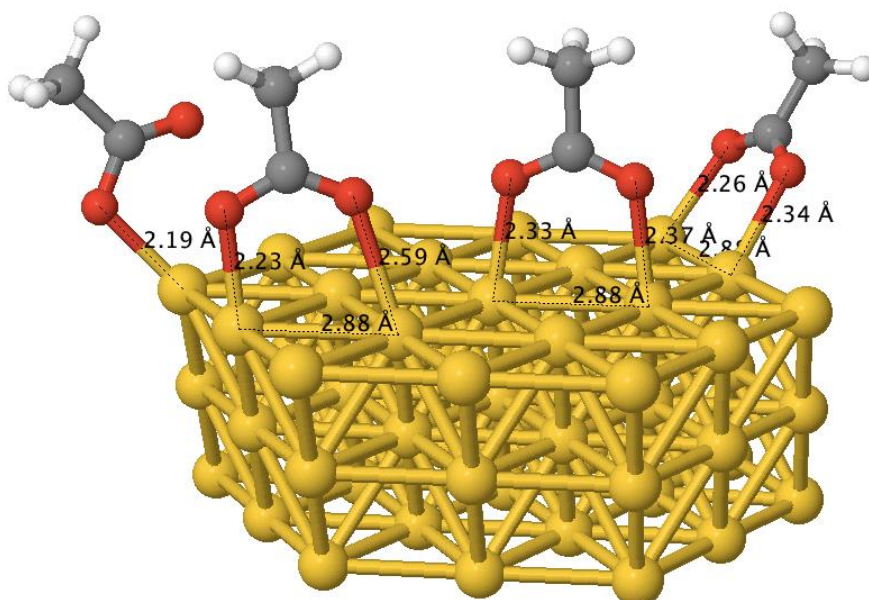


Figure 5c. Optimized geometry of four acetates on a relatively small fixed Au(111) model surface, as also depicted in Figure 3c.

Magnetic shielding calculations for water-solvated ligands on large non-fixed nanoclusters. Magnetic shielding values were calculated with the NMR module of the ADF package using the same computational protocol adopted for the calculation of the binding energies in water. The magnetic shielding was calculated for the carboxylate carbon of the acetate coordinated on the Au(100) surface of the large nanoclusters of Figures S20a and S20b, as representative cases of the κ and μ_2 coordination modes of the carboxylates. As the representative case of the μ_4 -mode, we calculated the magnetic shielding of the two carboxylate carbon atoms of succinate coordinated in the stacked and in the parallel-displaced geometries, as in Figures S20d and 20e. The resulting four magnetic shieldings were averaged to a single magnetic shielding value. These shieldings were compared to the magnetic shielding of the carboxylate carbon of water-solvated free acetate. All the calculated shieldings are reported in Table 5.

Table 5. Calculated ^{13}C isotropic magnetic shielding (σ_{iso}) and isotropic chemical shift (δ_{iso}) values^a

System	$\sigma_{\text{iso}}(^{13}\text{C})$ / ppm	$\delta_{\text{iso}}(^{13}\text{C})$ / ppm
free acetate	-1.2	0.0
κ -acetate	6.3	-7.5
μ_2 -acetate	10.9	-12.1
μ_4 -succinate (stacked), carboxylate 1	6.0	-7.2
μ_4 -succinate (stacked), carboxylate 2	7.0	-8.2
μ_4 -succinate (parallel-displaced), carboxylate 1	7.5	-8.7
μ_4 -succinate (parallel-displaced), carboxylate 2	10.3	-11.5
average of succinate carboxylate values	7.7	-8.9
standard deviation of succinate carboxylate values	2.1	-2.1

^a All bound ligand calculations used the Au(100) surface model as the support. Chemical shifts of bound ligands were calculated as follows: $\delta_{\text{iso}} = \sigma_{\text{iso}}(\text{Au/carboxylate}) - \sigma_{\text{iso}}(\text{acetate})$. All calculations included solvent (water) using COSMO.

Magnetic shielding calculations of molecular systems in vacuo using ADF. To better understand the origin of the observed ^{13}C chemical shift changes and the above magnetic shielding calculations as functions of key carboxylate structural parameters, we used model molecular systems to probe the sensitivity of the ^{13}C magnetic shielding with respect to local geometry changes in a carboxylate group. Essentially all computational parameters remain as before, except that effects due to the spin-orbit mechanism were included, as we were interested in seeing the importance of this mechanism upon the calculated ^{13}C isotropic magnetic shielding values when a carboxylate is near an Au atom.¹⁸⁶

Magnetic shielding calculations using periodic quantum chemistry software. Magnetic shielding calculations involving periodic crystal structures as input used CASTEP (v.5.5).¹⁸⁷ Input files were generated using Materials Studio (v.3.2.0.0), and ultrasoft pseudopotentials^{113a} were used to describe the core electrons, while planewaves described

the valence electrons. As in the above calculations using ADF, the PBE GGA XC functional was employed. Dispersion effects were included using the approach outlined by Tkatchenko and Scheffler (TS),¹⁸⁸ which has often been applied for crystalline organic systems. The planewave basis set energy cutoff was set as 700 eV and the k -point spacing was set at 0.05 \AA^{-1} in reciprocal space. Crystal structures were taken from a variety of literature sources, as disclosed later in the Supporting Information. Importantly, for all crystalline systems, optimization of the hydrogen positions was performed before calculating the magnetic shielding values.

In water continuum solvent, binding to the Au(100) facet is favored by roughly 20 kcal/mol over binding to the Au(111) facet both for Sc and Gt. The larger E_{Bind} of the carboxylates to the Au(100) facet can be related to the lower coordination number of the Au atoms on the (100) facet, 8, relative to the coordination number on the (111) facet, 9. Further, the geometry of the Au(100) facet, with square planar coordinated Au atoms, allows for a greater flexibility of the surface atoms, relative to Au atoms on the (111) surface, with hexa-coordinated Au atoms. Indeed, in the (100) geometries, the distance between the Au atoms involved in binding of the two carboxylates can stretch up to 3.2 \AA , from a value of 2.9 \AA for a uncoordinated Au(100) surface. In contrast, on the Au(111) surface the distance between the Au atoms involved in binding is only increased to values of around 3.0 \AA (appendices).

The conformational strain energy, E_{Strain} , was determined to be low indicating by comparing the best binding energy of Sc or Gt with the binding energy of two isolated Ac molecules, for example, $\Delta E_{\text{Strain}}(\text{Sc}) = E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Sc}) - 2E_{\text{Bind}}(\text{Ac})$. If no strain or cooperative effect is in place, according to our definition E_{Strain} should be equal to zero. The calculated ΔE_{Strain} for Sc on the Au(100) facet, around 15 kcal/mol, indicates some strain in the coordination of Sc, which is reduced to 6-7 kcal/mol with the more flexible 3 methylene spacer of Gt. Similar behaviour is found for Sc and Gt when coordinating to the Au(111) facet, although a slightly lower ΔE_{Strain} of around 5-12 kcal/mol is calculated. The lower ΔE_{Strain} of Gt accounts for the stronger predicted binding of Gt to the Au facets. This allows us to tentatively arrive at the conclusion that one possible binding motif for the citrate would occur preferentially using both terminal carboxylates, rather than one terminal and the central carboxylate.

We additionally tested to see if there was any enthalpic preference for Ac anions to bind at the edges of the Au surface models, as compared to the central regions of the surface. These binding energy calculations were performed on selected systems. When considering the individual binding energies of the four acetate anions depicted on the Au(111) surface in Figure 3c of the main manuscript, it is found that the $1\kappa O^1$ motif occurred only near the surface edges, with the bridging (μ_2) motif occurring in the central regions of the facet. However, the μ_2 motif was also observed to occur at the edges, and additionally, the edge acetate anion binding in the μ_2 motif (III in Fig. 3c) was calculated to be 26.4 kcal/mol, which is about 9 kcal/mol greater than corresponding binding energies for the other acetate ligands on the Au(111) surface.

Calculations of Magnetic Shielding Using ADF Software. Using model molecular systems to probe the sensitivity of the ^{13}C magnetic shielding with respect to local geometry changes in a carboxylate group (more completely described in subsequent sections of the appendices), essentially all computational parameters remain as before, except that for magnetic shielding calculations, effects due to the spin-orbit mechanism were included.¹⁸⁶ We note specifically that ^{13}C chemical shift calculations are not possible using the AuNP-containing model systems described in the main manuscript with the computational codes available to us, due to the partial metallic character of the AuNP surface. Hence, to comment upon whether the observed ^{13}C NMR chemical shifts in the range of 162 to 168 ppm are consistent with an Au-O interaction, we chose to look both at rather highly idealized model systems using molecular modelling software, as well as taking crystal structures from the literature where these types of interactions are present (modelled using periodic quantum chemical software, as described directly below).

Calculations Using Periodic Quantum Chemistry Software. Magnetic shielding calculations involving periodic crystal structures as input used the CASTEP software (version 5.5).¹⁸⁷ Input files were generated using Materials Studio (v.3.2.0.0), and ultrasoft pseudopotentials^{113a} were used to describe the core electrons, while planewaves described the valence electrons. As in the above calculations using the ADF computational code, the PBE GGA XC functional was employed. Dispersion effects were included using the approach outlined by Tkatchenko and Scheffler (TS),¹⁸⁸ which has often been applied for crystalline organic systems. The planewave basis set energy cutoff was set as 700 eV and the k -point spacing was set at 0.05 \AA^{-1} in reciprocal space. Crystal

structures were taken from a variety of literature sources, as disclosed later in the appendices. Importantly, for all crystalline systems, optimization of the hydrogen positions was performed before calculating the magnetic shielding values.

Single crystal X-ray crystallography - crystal structure data

CCDC number 1472104 contains the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper, which can be obtained free of charge from The CCDC via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif. X-ray diffraction experiments on the crystals obtained from the bottle which was marked as ‘sodium citrate dihydrate’ were carried out at 170 K on an Agilent CrysAlis PRO diffractometer diffractometer using Mo-K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.71073 \text{ \AA}$). The computational cell refinement, data reduction and absorption correction were processed using Agilent CrysAlis PRO software (CrysAlis PRO, Agilent Technologies, Version 1.171.37.31; cell refinement: CrysAlis PRO, Agilent Technologies, Version 1.171.37.31; data reduction: CrysAlis PRO, Agilent Technologies, Version 1.171.37.31). The structure was solved using Superflip,¹⁸⁹ and refined against F^2 in Crystals software.¹⁹⁰ All hydrogen atoms were located geometrically and refined using a riding model. Crystal structure and refinement data are given in **Table 6**.

Table 6. Relevant crystal structure data for bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate

Empirical formula	$C_{12}H_{32}Na_6O_{25}$
Formula weight	714.31
Temperature / K	170
Crystal system	orthorhombic

Space group	P b n m
$a / \text{\AA}$	6.41860 (12)
$b / \text{\AA}$	16.4125 (3)
$c / \text{\AA}$	26.2968 (4)
Volume / \AA^3	2770.24 (5)
Z	4
$\rho_{\text{calc}} (\text{g/cm}^3)$	1.713
μ / mm^{-1}	0.241
F(000)	1480.0
Crystal size / mm	$0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.1$
Radiation	MoK α ($\lambda = 0.71073 \text{\AA}$)
Index Ranges	$-8 \leq h \leq 8, -21 \leq k \leq 21, -36 \leq l \leq 36.$
2Θ range for data collection / $^\circ$	3.401 to 29.772
Reflections collected	47401
Unique reflections	3811
R_{int}	0.032
Parameters Refined	239
$R_1, wR_2 [I > 2 \sigma(I)]$	0.0264, 0.0667
$R_1, wR_2 [\text{all data}]$	0.0308, 0.0708
Goodness-of-fit on F^2	0.9461
$\delta\rho_{\text{max}}, \delta\rho_{\text{min}} / \text{e nm}^{-3}$	0.47, -0.37

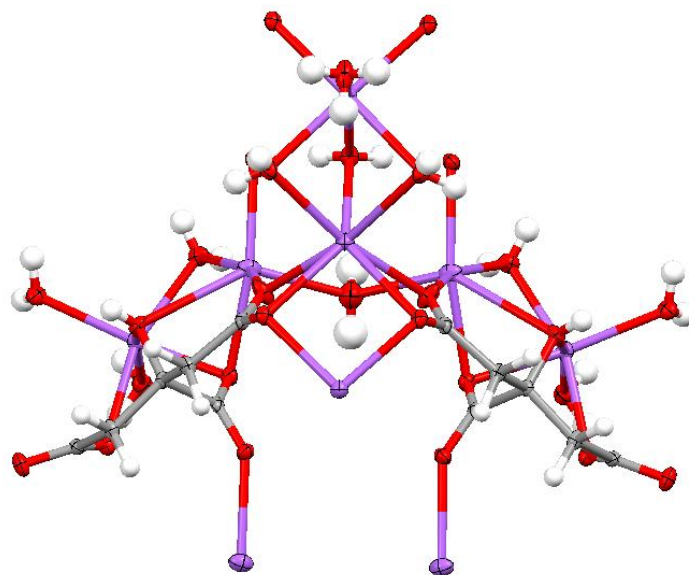


Figure 6. Structure of bis(trisodium citrate) undecahydrate where the oxygen, sodium, carbon and hydrogen atoms are presented in red, purple, grey and white, respectively. Thermal ellipsoids are drawn at 50 % probability.

Appendix 2. XYZ
 coordinates for free and
 adsorbed carboxylates
 on large non-fixed
 Au(100) and Au(111)
 nanoclusters

--
C2H3O2
 C 8.575857
 9.701839 11.376778
 C 8.593557
 9.624426 9.823724
 H 8.428308
 8.702574 11.815467
 H 7.721596
 10.328083 11.684599
 H 9.497686
 10.161989 11.763599
 O 9.375745
 10.424027 9.226483
 O 7.798850
 8.783861 9.301752

--
C4H4O4
 C 8.537489
 11.127948 12.906740
 C 7.082281
 11.668352 12.691149
 C 9.655969
 12.187935 12.906751
 C 11.110415
 11.647471 12.691134
 H 8.765408
 10.438992 12.079938
 H 8.539498
 10.526266 13.824526
 H 9.428205
 12.876642 12.079748
 H 9.653844
 12.789595 13.824502
 O 6.149141
 11.020557 13.273115

O 6.915192
 12.677125 11.935524
 O 12.044734
 12.294759 13.273054
 O 11.277823
 10.638156 11.935315

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C5H6O4
 C 9.515799
 11.517072 11.714693
 C 11.024858
 11.370646 11.359122
 C 8.566725
 10.555536 10.989082
 C 7.181793
 10.359560 11.629789
 C 6.053421
 11.364305 11.254077
 H 9.228487
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 H 9.456166
 11.337124 12.805605
 H 6.781754
 9.375184 11.325054
 H 7.246853
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 9.588734 10.917618
 H 8.407414
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 O 11.441836
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 12.399967 11.547489
 O 5.091250
 11.447619 12.084285
 O 6.134391
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C6H5O7
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 9.109221 8.756882

C 7.464369
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 O 6.003796
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 O 10.411140
 4.871882 7.293974
 O 11.141380
 6.916543 6.685320
 O 8.848382
 7.670230 10.638283

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Au100-nanocluster

Au 24.654600
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 Au 21.771000
 6.602700 4.248600
 Au 18.887100
 6.591300 4.263999
 Au 24.643497
 9.497400 4.270999

Au 16.003500
 6.580200 4.279200
 Au 21.759901
 9.486300 4.286400
 Au 13.119900
 6.568800 4.294400
 Au 18.875999
 9.474899 4.301600
 Au 24.632401
 12.381000 4.308800
 Au 10.236000
 6.557400 4.309800
 Au 15.992399
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 Au 10.224900
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 12.347100 4.354600
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 Au 15.970200
 15.230700 4.392400
 Au 21.726599
 18.136801 4.399600
 Au 7.330200
 12.313200 4.400400

Au 13.086599	Au 20.310766
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Au 18.842999	Au 17.445431
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Au 24.599100	Au 23.409517
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Au 21.715500	Au 11.710632
21.020401 4.437200	7.776031 6.423161
Au 7.319100	Au 17.437189
15.196801 4.438200	10.885787 6.397212
Au 13.075500	Au 23.363049
18.102900 4.445400	13.796537 6.452411
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21.008999 4.452600	7.961915 6.322016
Au 24.587999	Au 14.558558
23.915100 4.459800	10.874997 6.412686
Au 10.191601	Au 20.310970
18.091499 4.460599	13.781713 6.418818
Au 15.948000	Au 11.676607
20.997601 4.467800	10.866326 6.357759
Au 21.704399	Au 17.425003
23.903700 4.475000	13.769599 6.510005
Au 7.308000	Au 23.352934
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Au 13.064400	Au 8.586750
20.986500 4.483000	10.873370 6.481549
Au 18.820799	Au 14.549529
23.892599 4.490200	13.759627 6.526107
Au 10.180500	Au 20.299278
20.975100 4.498400	16.660095 6.457509
Au 15.936899	Au 11.663295
23.881201 4.505600	13.747692 6.465714
Au 7.296900	Au 17.413424
20.963701 4.513600	16.645020 6.547394
Au 13.053300	Au 23.377483
23.869801 4.520800	19.530930 6.516060
Au 10.169399	Au 8.612137
23.858700 4.536000	13.738366 6.530582
Au 7.285800	Au 14.537986
23.847300 4.551400	16.634075 6.563415
Au 23.223984	Au 20.285624
8.018122 6.245224	19.541767 6.425450

Au 11.651901	Au 10.218546
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Au 17.404076	Au 15.993845
19.531946 6.509706	15.174000 8.671982
Au 23.167835	Au 21.767653
22.445354 6.434104	18.076197 8.436541
Au 8.597151	Au 13.096111
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Au 11.644448	Au 15.980295
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Au 24.643499	Au 7.330200
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Au 16.003500	Au 13.086599
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Au 21.759899	Au 18.842999
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Au 24.632401	Au 15.959101
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Au 10.236000	Au 21.715500
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Au 15.992399	Au 7.319100
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Au 21.748800	Au 13.075500
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Au 7.352400	Au 18.831900
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**Au100-C5H6O4-
parallel-displaced**

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O 15.889962	Au 10.509348
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O 18.115295	Au 13.051552
14.829772 11.023010	17.978045 9.622426
O 15.872303	Au 7.884498
15.226101 10.783076	14.950360 9.676812
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--	17.782316 4.747190
Au111-C5H6O4-	Au 13.732653
parallel-displaced	19.216509 5.046755
Au 16.192625	Au 13.726791
9.379516 5.119478	16.402077 4.744912

Au 16.154753	Au 7.876188
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Au 14.812128	Au 10.411442
18.261177 7.479686	13.527919 9.727396
Au 16.145603	Au 10.504808
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Au 17.175323	Au 12.963442
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Au 18.539633	Au 11.316620
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Au 18.544783	Au 13.732985
13.616358 4.617586	13.591680 4.745651
Au 20.900837	Au 13.756427
15.080544 5.009536	10.780839 4.782911
Au 19.534567	Au 16.157082
15.373243 7.447684	12.188808 4.785108
Au 21.771505	Au 14.584183
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Au 6.418600	Au 8.889842
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Au 6.477346	Au 11.353288
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Au 8.859555	Au 9.666996
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Au 8.870834	Au 12.158033
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Au 11.300799	Au 12.387894
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Au 9.635859	Au 14.826262
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Au 12.151493	Au 13.036343
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Au 12.129155	Au 15.449751
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Au 14.594065	Au 15.382510
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Au 13.003573	Au 17.767523
15.081375 9.783545	15.061192 9.655872
Au 6.747781	Au 17.055902
13.551956 7.504053	13.609552 7.191493
Au 6.845395	Au 17.176548
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Au 9.606191	Au 19.531563
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Au	17.785576	H	12.777786
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Au	20.136711	H	10.619823
13.637602	9.568027	14.481874	15.595047
Au	15.433053	H	9.816948
10.695408	9.736932	14.644451	14.020258
Au	6.509458	O	10.404305
6.657550	5.062808	13.324137	11.959364
Au	8.058458	O	12.329771
9.395620	9.668397	12.108491	12.200180
Au	6.932172	O	12.839598
8.011495	7.488048	15.201951	12.051374
Au	7.350799	O	10.919335
5.226616	7.446698	16.451426	12.094307
Au	9.968206	-----	
6.304621	7.482852	---	
Au	8.158375	Au111-C5H6O4-bent	
6.632751	9.625789	Au	16.194748
Au	10.584340	9.380325	5.087186
7.949905	9.682784	Au	11.409567
Au	20.916702	6.585818	5.044527
12.174603	5.031255	Au	13.793692
Au	23.241974	7.973274	5.091089
13.645723	5.077655	Au	6.506746
Au	18.561703	23.188164	5.134230
10.788793	5.049344	Au	6.434953
Au	6.618057	20.435499	5.002668
3.903964	5.176481	Au	7.271112
Au	9.037300	21.883522	7.399572
5.222275	5.063819	Au	8.941919
C	11.263598	21.895758	5.002866
13.032234	14.139670	Au	8.879931
C	11.356409	19.125807	4.697152
12.789993	12.626703	Au	11.328555
C	10.784710	20.563635	5.032692
14.445514	14.506117	Au	9.883709
C	11.773849	20.831467	7.444582
15.569452	14.139800	Au	12.324209
C	11.851660	19.550400	7.508054
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H	10.547567	20.482786	9.592267
12.290726	14.530446	Au	6.897717
H	11.437409	19.094650	7.441335
16.513741	14.588687		

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Au 8.006580	Au 9.566518
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Au 10.487116	Au 12.119489
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Au 13.005821	Au 14.554484
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Au 7.911227	Au 12.964200
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Au 11.302216	Au 6.779813
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Au 13.727869	Au 6.851905
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Au 13.715863	Au 9.588768
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Au 16.141859	Au 7.933118
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Au 14.782341	Au 10.422356
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Au 17.148911	Au 12.993233
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Au 18.525448	Au 11.313761
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Au 20.892794	Au 13.751642
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Au 19.509624	Au 16.153475
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Au 21.775856	Au 14.581446
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Au 6.434972	Au 8.889197
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Au 6.451290	Au 8.946549
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Au 6.468139	Au 11.351580
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Au 8.857363	Au 9.680157
16.352629 4.661337	9.326079 7.217870

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 O 12.579967
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 O 10.396316
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**Au111-C5H6O4-
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 Au 13.792518
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 Au 6.506664
 23.179989 5.137698

Au 6.436777	Au 17.156422
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Au 7.273768	Au 18.529888
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Au 8.946502	Au 18.544666
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Au 8.882578	Au 20.895267
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Au 11.335977	Au 19.521307
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Au 9.888236	Au 21.775137
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Au 6.412105	Au 6.435420
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Au 8.096696	Au 6.461795
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Au 6.910687	Au 8.859732
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Au 16.140753	Au 10.548059
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Au 8.941679	Au 20.913609
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Au 9.702950	Au 18.564756
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Au 12.176676	Au 6.624801
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Au 12.400716	Au 9.035862
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Au 14.828768	C 10.526082
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Au 13.065144	C 10.417639
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Au 15.420133	C 10.281040
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Au 15.394433	C 11.421355
13.576095 9.881056	14.869097 14.179048
Au 17.773823	C 11.575018
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Au 17.063536	H 11.522467
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Au 17.195864	H 9.805530
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Au 19.544594	H 11.225850
11.906914 7.459946	15.803386 14.724143
Au 17.804752	H 12.378853
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Au 20.153481	H 10.127201
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Au 15.455496	H 9.350902
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**Au111-C5H6O4-
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Au 14.617944	Au 15.391980
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Au 12.943096	Au 17.801989
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Au 6.830677	Au 17.045086
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Au 6.889603	Au 17.227154
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Au 9.589952	Au 19.562845
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Au 10.521976	Au 15.461475
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Au 12.965224	Au 6.518560
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Au 16.159796	Au 9.962962
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Au 14.589052	Au 8.181859
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Au 8.946557	Au 20.907139
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Au 11.357665	Au 23.236614
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Au 9.680716	Au 18.563400
9.312105 7.211926	10.782506 5.015642
Au 12.142275	Au 6.623755
10.742357 7.404631	3.924180 5.142901
Au 12.379792	Au 9.040590
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Au 14.832853	C 14.018529
8.942280 7.537599	14.345989 13.879321

C	14.098516	Au	-4.072000
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C	12.630427	Au	0.000000
14.863407	14.291501	0.000000	-4.072000
C	12.408913	Au	4.072000
16.369665	14.044282	0.000000	-4.072000
C	12.138709	Au	-8.144000
16.739668	12.579596	4.072000	-4.072000
H	14.742449	Au	-4.072000
15.167930	13.782069	4.072000	-4.072000
H	14.432303	Au	0.000000
13.676113	14.650292	4.072000	-4.072000
H	11.517675	Au	-4.072000 -
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H	13.268333	Au	0.000000 -
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H	12.487432	Au	4.072000 -
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H	11.856862	Au	-8.144000
14.287068	13.765219	0.000000	0.000000
O	13.033769	Au	-4.072000
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O	15.256883	Au	0.000000
13.537336	12.029468	0.000000	0.000000
O	13.005867	Au	-4.072000
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O	11.077797	Au	0.000000 -
16.260614	12.080981	4.072000	4.072000
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---		0.000000	4.072000
		Au	0.000000 -
Appendix 3. XYZ		2.036000	-6.108000
coordinates for		Au	-4.072000
adsorbed acetates on		2.036000	-6.108000
small fixed Au		Au	0.000000
nanoclusters <i>in vacuo</i>		2.036000	-6.108000
(ADF)		Au	-4.072000 -
Fixed-Au111-1 acetate		2.036000	-2.036000
[bond energy:		Au	0.000000 -
-7.81027219 Ha]		2.036000	-2.036000
Au	0.000000	Au	4.072000 -
0.000000	-8.144000	2.036000	-2.036000
Au	-4.072000	Au	-8.144000
4.072000	-8.144000	2.036000	-2.036000
Au	0.000000 -	Au	-4.072000
4.072000	-4.072000	2.036000	-2.036000

Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au -6.108000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
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 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
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 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au -6.108000
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 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -8.144000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 -4.072000

Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -6.108000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 4.072000
 O 1.489431
 1.391929 1.080202
 C 2.614259
 1.713532 0.584657
 O 3.138692
 1.353676 -0.514120
 C 3.433375
 2.701756 1.413924
 H 3.208539
 2.586636 2.479644
 H 4.503320
 2.570916 1.218890
 H 3.143273
 3.716155 1.103298

 -
Fixed-Au111-2
acetates

[bond energy:
 -9.45941763 Ha]
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 -8.144000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 -8.144000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 -4.072000

Au 4.072000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au -8.144000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 4.072000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au -8.144000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 4.072000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au -4.072000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -8.144000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000 -
 2.036000 2.036000

Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au -6.108000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -8.144000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000

Au -6.108000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 4.072000
 O 1.538609
 1.492708 0.979948
 C 2.651070
 1.810247 0.465888
 O 3.192468
 1.392446 -0.605580
 C 3.468678
 2.867067 1.215669
 H 2.978976
 3.148978 2.154033
 H 4.476198
 2.476571 1.409425
 H 3.568814
 3.750269 0.570103
 O 1.041942 -
 0.548855 3.476952
 C 0.572777
 0.602252 3.728857
 O -0.546507
 1.104442 3.405440
 C 1.496875
 1.512875 4.537652
 H 0.939158
 2.351743 4.965432
 H 2.001936
 0.934958 5.320930
 H 2.258858
 1.900260 3.848641

-
Fixed-Au111-4
acetates

[bond energy:
 -12.56919286 Ha]

Au 0.000000
 0.000000 -8.144000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 -8.144000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au -8.144000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au -4.072000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 4.072000 -
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au -8.144000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au -4.072000
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000 -
 4.072000 4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 0.000000 4.072000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -6.108000
 Au -4.072000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000

Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -8.144000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -6.108000
 Au -6.108000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -6.108000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au -6.108000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -8.144000

Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au -6.108000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -6.108000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000 -
 2.036000 4.072000
 O 1.489735
 1.440830 1.063987
 C 2.636986
 1.718127 0.606002
 O 3.194146
 1.343001 -0.469010
 C 3.455750
 2.678520 1.480745
 H 3.222448
 2.507084 2.538471
 H 4.527746
 2.558324 1.284008
 H 3.161133
 3.705600 1.221476
 O 0.680104 -
 0.382812 3.912132
 C 0.095304 -
 0.174637 5.001241
 O -0.869016 -
 0.837378 5.539139
 C 0.509455
 1.060455 5.806120
 H -0.257293
 1.828797 5.619437

H 0.510443	Au 0.000000
0.840770 6.881898	2.036000 2.036000
H 1.487746	Au 4.072000
1.426057 5.474311	2.036000 2.036000
O 1.710419	Au 2.036000
5.554404 -4.101648	0.000000 2.036000
C 2.914340	Au 2.036000
5.142429 -4.124923	4.072000 2.036000
C 3.977385	Au 2.036000
6.249029 -4.057310	2.036000 0.000000
H 4.204142	Au 2.036000
6.435407 -2.997199	2.036000 4.072000
H 3.599757	Au 0.000000
7.178913 -4.500144	2.036000 -2.036000
H 4.898559	Au 2.036000
5.922542 -4.554578	0.000000 -2.036000
O 3.361543	Au 0.000000
3.961469 -4.165825	4.072000 -4.072000
O -2.854198	Au -2.036000
2.551106 5.475755	4.072000 -2.036000
C -3.516439	Au 2.036000
1.898694 6.293196	4.072000 -2.036000
C -3.527952	Au 2.036000
2.319096 7.777741	2.036000 -4.072000
H -4.538505	Au 4.072000
2.654226 8.056503	0.000000 -4.072000
H -3.276164	Au 4.072000 -
1.455673 8.408960	2.036000 -2.036000
H -2.811044	Au 4.072000
3.131559 7.945839	2.036000 -2.036000
O -4.256363	Au 4.072000 -
0.852377 6.078627	2.036000 2.036000
-----	Au -2.036000
-	4.072000 2.036000
Fixed-Au110-1 acetate	Au 6.108000
[bond energy:	0.000000 -2.036000
-7.21841372 Ha]	Au 6.108000
Au 4.072000	0.000000 2.036000
0.000000 0.000000	Au 6.108000 -
Au 0.000000	2.036000 0.000000
4.072000 0.000000	Au 6.108000 -
Au 4.072000	4.072000 -2.036000
0.000000 4.072000	Au 6.108000 -
Au 0.000000	2.036000 -4.072000
4.072000 4.072000	Au 6.108000 -
	4.072000 2.036000

Au 6.108000 -
 2.036000 4.072000
 Au 8.144000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 8.144000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 6.108000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 6.108000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 6.108000 0.000000
 Au -2.036000
 8.144000 -2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 6.108000 -4.072000
 Au -2.036000
 8.144000 2.036000
 Au -2.036000
 6.108000 4.072000
 Au -4.072000
 6.108000 -2.036000
 Au -4.072000
 6.108000 2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 8.144000
 Au -2.036000
 4.072000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 4.072000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 8.144000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 8.144000
 Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 4.072000
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 6.108000
 0.000000 6.108000
 Au 6.108000 -
 4.072000 6.108000

Au 6.108000 -
 2.036000 8.144000
 Au 8.144000 -
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 6.108000 6.108000
 Au -2.036000
 8.144000 6.108000
 Au -2.036000
 6.108000 8.144000
 Au -4.072000
 6.108000 6.108000
 O 5.420317
 3.807856 2.028037
 C 4.999441
 5.006595 1.983586
 O 3.800739
 5.427977 1.989013
 C 6.080073
 6.074747 1.880212
 H 6.393923
 6.133900 0.828523
 H 5.690108
 7.049652 2.189888
 H 6.950505
 5.788052 2.480599

 -
Fixed-Au100-1 acetate

[bond energy:
 -7.06739334 Ha]
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 4.072000
 4.072000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 4.072000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 4.072000

Au 4.072000
 4.072000 4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 4.072000
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 4.072000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 4.072000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 0.000000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000
 4.072000 -2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 4.072000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 -4.072000
 Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 4.072000
 2.036000 -2.036000
 Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 2.036000
 Au 4.072000
 4.072000 -4.072000

Au 0.000000
 6.108000 -2.036000
 Au 0.000000
 6.108000 2.036000
 Au 2.036000
 6.108000 0.000000
 Au 2.036000
 6.108000 -4.072000
 Au 2.036000
 6.108000 4.072000
 Au 4.072000
 6.108000 -2.036000
 Au 4.072000
 6.108000 2.036000
 Au 0.000000 -
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 0.000000 6.108000
 Au 0.000000
 0.000000 8.144000
 Au 2.036000 -
 2.036000 8.144000
 Au 0.000000
 4.072000 8.144000
 Au 2.036000
 4.072000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 2.036000 8.144000
 Au 4.072000
 0.000000 8.144000
 Au 4.072000 -
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 4.072000
 2.036000 6.108000
 Au 4.072000
 4.072000 8.144000
 Au 0.000000
 6.108000 6.108000
 Au 2.036000
 6.108000 8.144000
 Au 4.072000
 6.108000 6.108000
 O 6.323852
 2.412761 2.125476

C 6.863333
 3.293622 2.863198
 O 6.317048
 4.076157 3.702557
 C 8.373234
 3.443286 2.694657
 H 8.794377
 4.072532 3.484972
 H 8.842580
 2.452444 2.694186
 H 8.564875
 3.904289 1.716010

Appendix 4. XYZ
 coordinates for small
 molecules *in vacuo*
 (ADF)

H-optimized
CH₃COAuP(CH₃)₃
 [bond energy:
 -4.09590766 Ha]

O 11.141190
 0.697630 5.527980
 C 11.140660
 1.679300 7.587900
 H 11.337793 -
 3.119181 2.003603
 Au 11.983170 -
 0.238940 3.867980
 C 11.821480
 0.981680 6.493570
 C 12.427950 -
 2.989340 1.998230
 P 12.841260 -
 1.228230 2.084060
 O 12.950770
 0.680580 6.729600
 H 12.848407 -
 3.455209 1.093682
 H 12.835777 -
 3.490011 2.887200
 C 14.583930 -
 1.197550 1.925810

C 12.259220 -
 0.477200 0.563260
 H 14.904932 -
 1.716632 1.008882
 H 14.946440 -
 0.159989 1.891315
 H 15.057852 -
 1.680982 2.792225
 H 10.801213
 0.924544 8.314795
 H 11.840598
 2.338308 8.114179
 H 10.250986
 2.251115 7.283235
 H 12.672375 -
 0.978688 -0.327120
 H 11.161256 -
 0.512478 0.521605
 H 12.562758
 0.579808 0.554301

-
Fully optimized
CH₃COAuP(CH₃)₃
 (reference against
 $1\kappa^2O^{1,3}$ model)
 [bond energy:
 -4.12006997 Ha]

O 10.944084
 0.519557 5.570273
 C 11.069228
 1.541666 7.704516
 H 11.407210 -
 3.214858 1.861862
 Au 11.868414 -
 0.315465 3.934978
 C 11.785125
 0.960238 6.491336
 C 12.487424 -
 3.025895 1.928167
 P 12.774461 -
 1.225596 2.123841
 O 13.014873
 0.913168 6.416983

H 12.985930 -
 3.401465 1.022814
 H 12.877776 -
 3.551031 2.810260
 C 14.596660 -
 1.059793 2.068126
 C 12.216561 -
 0.522021 0.524816
 H 15.003904 -
 1.530423 1.161099
 H 14.862675
 0.005643 2.085395
 H 15.028831 -
 1.534742 2.959210
 H 10.537221
 0.736531 8.231533
 H 11.793742
 2.005491 8.381499
 H 10.315235
 2.275589 7.389424
 H 12.733821 -
 1.010737 -0.313914
 H 11.132261 -
 0.666258 0.423235
 H 12.426578
 0.555926 0.510948

 -
 $1\kappa^2O^{1,3}$
CH₃COOAuP(CH₃)₃
model
 (reference against
 above)

[bond energy:
 -4.10897347 Ha]

H 11.380831 -
 3.163815 1.917164
 Au 12.026776 -
 0.288000 3.781024
 C 12.471556 -
 3.038400 1.911274
 P 12.884866 -
 1.277291 1.997104
 H 12.891929 -
 3.510075 1.009051

H 12.876721 -
 3.537458 2.802208
 C 14.627536 -
 1.246610 1.838854
 C 12.302826 -
 0.526260 0.476304
 H 14.964879 -
 1.755384 0.920590
 H 14.985929 -
 0.207432 1.817498
 H 15.096713 -
 1.735305 2.704630
 H 12.745568 -
 1.005194 -0.411749
 H 11.207814 -
 0.595885 0.419130
 H 12.572843
 0.539033 0.481858
 C 10.912339
 0.930751 5.902425
 O 10.157899
 0.328484 5.072751
 O 12.175842
 0.974950 5.748628
 C 10.293263
 1.586016 7.121772
 H 10.919817
 2.409726 7.480368
 H 9.279459
 1.936525 6.898319
 H 10.223960
 0.834367 7.921435

 -
**Fully optimized
 acetate**

[bond energy:
 -1.61575422 Ha]

O 10.579237
 0.519015 5.623248
 C 11.149092
 1.545185 7.706688
 C 11.556396
 0.878154 6.340979

O 12.796774
 0.772237 6.124594
 H 10.617869
 0.803024 8.324732
 H 12.023756
 1.918768 8.260274
 H 10.444386
 2.371299 7.520037

Appendix 5. Crystal
 structure data for
 periodic systems with
 Au-O motifs, after H-
 atom optimization in
 CASTEP

**Sodium Acetate
 Trihydrate
 (CCDC refcode:
 NAACT01)**

[energy: -31808.38232
 eV]

$C2/c$, $a = 12.353 \text{ \AA}$, $b =$
 10.466 \AA , $c = 10.401 \text{ \AA}$,
 $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$, $\beta =$
 111.69° , $V = 1249.5 \text{ \AA}^3$,
 $Z = 8$
 coordinates in a, b, c
 crystal frame

Na 0.088030 0.428700
 0.421310
 C 0.325900 0.561520
 0.421500
 C 0.394230 0.566980
 0.574910
 O 0.262250 0.466410
 0.372890
 O 0.336460 0.653490
 0.349290
 O 0.350840 0.211120
 0.384280
 O 0.880050 0.417280
 0.404260

O 0.000000 0.597620
 0.250000
 O 0.000000 0.262580
 0.250000
 H 0.486377 0.586554
 0.595835
 H 0.362160 0.647036
 0.619406
 H 0.384870 0.479047
 0.626646
 H 0.042284 0.653616
 0.208236
 H 0.048150 0.206989
 0.216148
 H 0.330961 0.300705
 0.395844
 H 0.281228 0.181949
 0.303698
 H 0.867726 0.324126
 0.406097
 H 0.825008 0.442811
 0.310900

 -
**Bis(trisodium citrate)
 undecahydrate
 (CCDC refcode:
 FATTID)**

[energy:
 -85121.372937 eV]
 $Pnma$, $a = 16.459 \text{ \AA}$, $b =$
 26.426 \AA , $c = 6.435$
 \AA , $\alpha = \gamma = \beta = 90^\circ$, $V =$
 2798.9 \AA^3 , $Z = 8$
 coordinates in a, b, c
 crystal frame

H 0.340125 0.135405
 0.262411
 H 0.365320 0.092648
 0.458835
 H 0.245456 0.078966
 0.091447
 H 0.283000 0.034106
 0.268304

H	0.254893	0.053555	0.640693	O	0.118010	0.152840	0.489700
H	0.264320	0.220551	0.181186	O	0.187920	0.169130	0.201000
H	0.109785	0.220241	0.240690	O	0.213590	0.080020	0.610100
H	0.161199	0.250000	0.739427	O	0.299500	0.250000	0.153300
H	0.096663	0.250000	0.927746	O	0.074500	0.250000	0.216900
H	0.394700	0.059671	0.834123	O	0.103600	0.250000	0.774000
H	0.418765	0.055967	0.066568	O	0.424090	0.078180	0.944000
H	0.415077	0.012977	0.417493	O	0.440400	0.006710	0.281300
H	0.496389	0.021375	0.287142	O	0.455800	0.187600	0.024500
H	0.435707	0.153497	0.994325	O	0.044900	0.132710	0.934200
H	0.515241	0.184082	0.014845	Na	0.433870		
H	-0.006455				0.250000	0.295100	
	0.153235	0.945193		Na	0.374130		
H	0.049837	0.115331	0.067645		0.250000	0.823800	
C	0.341300	0.167130	0.564500	Na	0.066080		
C	0.322900	0.123370	0.419700		0.075060	0.628700	
C	0.236100	0.101890	0.414600	Na	0.168240		
C	0.233400	0.061200	0.243300		0.167700	0.834900	
C	0.154400	0.031820	0.223500	-----			
C	0.175100	0.144750	0.366300		-		
O	0.411520	0.186510	0.548100	[Au(O₂CCH₃)P(Ph)₃]			
O	0.289550	0.182630	0.690500	(CCDC refcode:			
O	0.088460	0.053300	0.265200	CILYAX)			
O	0.158880	0.986980	0.158200	[energy: -33005.83098			
				eV]			
				<i>P</i> 2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁ , <i>a</i> = 11.088 Å,			
				<i>b</i> = 12.050 Å, <i>c</i> =			
				13.839 Å, $\alpha = \beta = \gamma =$			
				90°, <i>V</i> = 1849.03 Å ³ , <i>Z</i>			
				= 4			
				coordinates in <i>a, b, c</i>			
				crystal frame			
				H	0.372285	-0.066035	0.166734

H 0.238526 -0.220210 0.212931	C 0.241900 -0.083100 0.423400
H 0.158151 -0.231229 0.375863	C 0.317300 0.006400 0.399500
H 0.205770 -0.089068 0.496502	C 0.484700 0.211300 0.371200
H 0.338019 0.069906 0.452949	C 0.407800 0.295600 0.397400
H 0.331219 0.316592 0.351480	C 0.425100 0.355400 0.480300
H 0.359991 0.419530 0.499280	C 0.520900 0.333600 0.540600
H 0.531813 0.379034 0.608031	C 0.601100 0.251600 0.512300
H 0.678698 0.232391 0.557516	C 0.582900 0.190000 0.429200
H 0.647524 0.125382 0.409690	C 0.368600 0.209100 0.186800
H 0.523629 0.276865 0.111658	C 0.425900 0.276600 0.119700
H 0.395866 0.404438 0.011576	C 0.353200 0.349300 0.063800
H 0.175280 0.400877 0.024602	C 0.228100 0.346600 0.071400
H 0.076374 0.280498 0.144849	C 0.174200 0.282100 0.136700
H 0.199134 0.156922 0.247167	C 0.244300 0.209900 0.194600
H -0.578520 0.970241 0.672145	O 0.791000 -0.000600 0.152300
H -0.494952 1.052862 0.587456	O 0.883900 0.093300 0.264300
H -0.515989 1.099209 0.707455	P 0.460500 0.125600 0.266000
C 0.884700 0.031000 0.197100	Au 0.632200 0.064100 0.205700
C 1.001000 -0.025300 0.162600	----- -
C 0.361800 0.013000 0.305500	[Au(O₂CCF₃)P(CH₃)₃]
C 0.335000 -0.069900 0.239700	(CCDC refcode:
C 0.261300 -0.155700 0.265000	FOBXID)
C 0.215800 -0.161400 0.356500	[energy: -93129.35323 eV]
	$P2_1/n$, $a = 9.759 \text{ \AA}$, $b =$ 11.362 \AA , $c = 27.183 \text{ \AA}$, $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 99.35^\circ$,

$V = 2974.05 \text{ \AA}^3$, $Z = 12$,
 $Z' = 3$

coordinates in a, b, c
 crystal frame

C 0.909600 -
 0.178400 0.074600
 C 0.853300 -
 0.300800 0.079000
 C 0.580200
 0.265700 0.090300
 C 0.540700
 0.386600 0.072200
 C 0.320900
 1.086400 0.242100
 C 0.269600
 1.147800 0.282900
 C 1.002900
 0.334700 0.156300
 C 0.938300
 0.324100 0.050400
 C 1.207600
 0.267700 0.102100
 C 0.652100 -
 0.156000 0.219000
 C 0.771000
 0.017600 0.290200
 C 0.938100 -
 0.099000 0.228200
 C 0.526900
 0.894600 0.071800
 C 0.307200
 0.736900 0.074500
 C 0.265700
 0.958000 0.021000
 O 0.894000 -
 0.108100 0.109600
 O 0.958500 -
 0.156300 0.038100
 O 0.651200
 0.264800 0.132700
 O 0.536200
 0.184400 0.064400
 O 0.234900
 1.061400 0.206100

O 0.440600
 1.059900 0.250900
 F 0.793100 -
 0.316300 0.117200
 F 0.773000 -
 0.329300 0.041000
 F 0.960900 -
 0.375900 0.084600
 F 0.450000
 0.392400 0.033100
 F 0.478000
 0.449700 0.104800
 F 0.649400
 0.454300 0.069200
 F 0.354500
 1.189300 0.319500
 F 0.149500
 1.179100 0.277300
 F 0.222200
 1.062100 0.312600
 P 1.030700
 0.246900 0.103800
 P 0.771600 -
 0.032100 0.227400
 P 0.351000
 0.891900 0.077700
 Au 0.965260
 0.061670 0.106580
 Au 0.713870
 0.111240 0.172540
 Au 0.293170
 0.978970 0.144210
 H 1.043413
 0.424070 0.153183
 H 0.891578
 0.339566 0.157671
 H 1.055157
 0.294721 0.191039
 H 0.968494
 0.417241 0.051465
 H 0.962566
 0.282526 0.016384
 H 0.826651
 0.318039 0.050531
 H 1.231959
 0.362124 0.101752

H 1.270435
0.228373 0.135149
H 1.238002
0.226517 0.068997
H 0.682225 -
0.220189 0.249099
H 0.546510 -
0.124294 0.219904
H 0.656889 -
0.198156 0.183095
H 0.792564 -
0.056893 0.316016
H 0.853130
0.083200 0.300102
H 0.669965
0.056527 0.293103
H 0.955736 -
0.164453 0.258364
H 0.940665 -
0.142283 0.192392
H 1.020663 -
0.032704 0.234136
H 0.540749
0.850289 0.036956
H 0.562398
0.986091 0.070848
H 0.591270
0.850510 0.103194
H 0.338595
0.698029 0.041016
H 0.362151
0.691350 0.107488
H 0.195528
0.724440 0.073260
H 0.295070
0.912192 -0.011337
H 0.152739
0.954535 0.019199
H 0.297950
1.050314 0.02021

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