

## Noble-Metal Based Random Alloy and Intermetallic Nanocrystals: Syntheses and Applications

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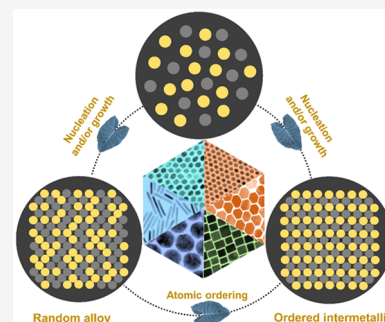


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**ABSTRACT:** Precise control over the size, shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals has been intensively explored in technologically important applications in recent years. Different from the monometallic nanocrystals and other types of structural nanocrystals such as core–shell and heterostructured nanocrystals, well-defined multimetallic random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals exhibit unique and intriguing physicochemical properties, serving as ideal models for benefiting the structure-to-property studies. As such, random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals have attracted extensive attention and interest in scientific research and shown huge potential in various fields. In this review, we focus specifically on summarizing the synthetic principles and strategies developed to form random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals with enhanced performance. Some representative examples are purposely selected for emphasizing basic concepts and mechanistic understanding. We then highlight the fascinating properties and widespread applications of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals in electrocatalysis, heterogeneous catalysis, optical and photocatalysis, as well as magnetism and conclude the review by addressing the prospects and current challenges for the controlled synthesis of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals.



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Metals, covering more than 75% of the elements in the periodic table, have received wide recognition due to their extensive applications in photonics, catalysis, energy storage and conversion, electronics, and medicine.<sup>1–17</sup> Especially, the metals in a finely divided state known as nanocrystals generally exhibit fascinating properties that are radically different from the bulk materials. It has been widely demonstrated that the intriguing properties of metal nanocrystals mainly stem from the surface effect and quantum size effect that can be manipulated in terms of size, shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase.<sup>18–32</sup> A notable example can be found in Au, where Au nanocrystals showed remarkable catalytic activity for low-temperature carbon monoxide (CO) oxidation even though bulk Au is inactive for this reaction.<sup>33,34</sup> Inspired by this incredible discovery, tremendous efforts have been devoted to developing a wide variety of synthetic approaches to controllably synthesize metal nanocrystals for greatly enhancing their performance over the past two decades.<sup>35–49</sup>

Despite the great success, it is well-documented that monometallic nanocrystals generally cannot meet all the requirements in practical applications, where metal nanocrystals are anticipated to simultaneously possess high activity, high chemical and structural stability, high selectivity, and low cost. To potentially meet all of these requirements, in recent years it has drawn increasing attention in the development of well-defined multimetallic nanocrystals with fascinating performance. Multimetallic nanocrystals composed of distinct metal elements exhibit unique physicochemical properties that are superior to monometallic nanocrystals for a given application due to synergetic effects associated with different metals.<sup>50–59</sup> Typically, the incorporation of a second metal for the formation of bimetallic nanocrystals can dramatically alter their electronic structures and spatial arrangement modes, further benefiting the unprecedented improvement in performance.<sup>60–66</sup> For example, the electrochemical activity toward oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) can be markedly intensified with the incorporation of a 3d transition metal M (M = Ni, Co, Fe, or Cu, etc.) into Pt nanocrystals for the formation of Pt–M bimetallic nanocrystals.<sup>67–76</sup> By incorporating heterometals together, the Pt–M bimetallic nanocrystals could be used not only to endow a bifunctionality but also to greatly reduce the overall cost by decreasing the use of Pt. Additional example further showed that the localized surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) properties of Au nanocrystals can be further improved through alloying with Ag.<sup>73</sup> This strategy has been easily expanded to syntheses of other multimetallic nanocrystals with desirable properties: for example, the synthesis of hexoctahedral Au<sub>89</sub>Pd<sub>11</sub> nanocrystals with enhanced electrocatalytic performance toward formic acid oxidation reaction (FAOR), the preparation of pentacle Au<sub>86</sub>Cu<sub>14</sub> nanocrystals with enhanced LSPR property and catalytic activity toward the

reduction of p-nitrophenol, and the fabrication of rhombic dodecahedral Ir<sub>38</sub>Ni<sub>28</sub>Cu<sub>34</sub> nanoframes (NFs) with enhanced electrocatalytic activity toward oxygen evolution reaction (OER).<sup>21,53,77–91</sup> Aiming at further optimization of their properties, it is of critical importance to rationally manipulate the experimental parameters to synthesize the multimetallic nanocrystals with well-defined size, shape, composition, structure and crystal phase, as their expressed properties strongly depend on these structural parameters.<sup>18,92–104</sup>

The physical structures of multimetallic nanocrystals are known to be multitudinous and complicated.<sup>105–107</sup> In some cases, these multimetallic nanocrystals might present entirely different properties, even though they have the same composition and stoichiometry.<sup>105,108–110</sup> It has been proven that these performance differences can be ascribed to the variation in atomic-scale features (e.g., atomic ordering, spatial element distribution, and surface structure). For example, Cui and co-workers recently demonstrated that ordered intermetallic Pd<sub>3</sub>Mn nanocrystals exhibit superior electrocatalytic activity toward ORR as compared with their counterparts in a disordered phase.<sup>111</sup> Sun and co-workers also confirmed that the chemical stability and electrocatalytic activity of FePt nanocrystals toward ORR and hydrogen evolution reaction (HER) could be greatly improved by changing their crystal phase from the atomically disordered phase to the ordered phase.<sup>112</sup> Therefore, it is inappropriate to simply use “composition” to define multimetallic nanocrystals, and thus increasingly attention have been turned to the development of new synthetic protocols to purposefully modulate the atomic-scale features of multimetallic nanocrystals.<sup>113–119</sup>

An alloy generally refers to a single-phase solid solution consisting of mixed metallic components, while part of which could also be a nonmetallic element(s) (e.g., steel). When the atoms of alloy constituents are randomly distributed across the lattice, it can be designed as a random alloy. When the atoms of the components form a structurally ordered solid-state alloy and occupy the lattice with a specific atom stoichiometry, it is conventionally called an intermetallic compound. The ordered atomic arrangements in an intermetallic structure could be isotropic or in a specific crystallographic direction, depending on the stoichiometry and the formation conditions,<sup>10,12,105</sup> but intermetallics always have a long-range atomic ordering. As such, these features endow the intermetallic compounds with unique properties and applications, which is considerably different from other structured nanocrystals such as core–shell and heterostructured nanocrystals.<sup>120–126</sup> It has been well-established that the interconversion between random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals can be readily achieved when the specific condition (e.g., temperature, stoichiometry, and atom binding environment) is met, significantly facilitating structure-to-property studies.<sup>31,112,127–132</sup> Among them, noble-metal based multimetallic nanocrystals have received comprehensive concern by the many researchers around the world, due to their excellent activities and stabilities. In recent years, it has become a field of active research related to the synthesis of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals by rationally manipulating the atomic ordering, due to their remarkable properties toward a broad range of applications.<sup>30,133–143</sup> A large number of such studies have not only deepened our understanding of their fascinating nanoscale properties but also showed the great potential of these noble–metal-based multimetallic nanocrystals in various fields.<sup>92,141,144–148</sup>



Table 1. Some Typical Noble Metal-Based Intermetallic Nanocrystals Reported Previously<sup>a</sup>

intermetallic formula	crystal structure	preparation conditions	ICDD PDF card	literature
Pt <sub>3</sub> Ti	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt <sub>3</sub> Ti random alloy annealed at 600 °C, 12 h	03-065-3259	ref 165
Pt <sub>3</sub> V	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt <sub>3</sub> V random alloy annealed at 650–700 °C, 24 h	01-072-3016	ref 166
Pt <sub>3</sub> Cr	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt <sub>3</sub> Cr random alloy annealed at 700 °C, 24 h	01-071-7609	ref 135
Pt <sub>3</sub> Mn	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub> + Mn(acac) <sub>2</sub> OAm/OA at 200 °C, 0.5 h	01-071-9674	ref 167
Pt <sub>3</sub> Co	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt <sub>3</sub> Co random alloy annealed at 700 °C, 2 h	01-071-7410	ref 168
Pt <sub>3</sub> Fe	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt <sub>3</sub> Fe random alloy annealed at 600 °C, 12 h	JCPDS: 29-0716	ref 169
PtFe	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	Pt–Fe random alloy annealed at 700 °C	JCPDS: 65-1051	refs 128, 157, and 161
PtNi	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub> + Ni(acac) <sub>2</sub> KBH(Et) <sub>3</sub> in THF, RT	01-072-2524	ref 170
PtFe <sub>3</sub>	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	PtFe <sub>3</sub> random alloy annealed at 600 °C, 12 h	01-071-8365	ref 136
PtCu <sub>3</sub>	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	PtCu <sub>3</sub> random alloy annealed at 1000 °C, 10 h	03-065-3247	ref 171
Pt <sub>3</sub> Zn	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub> + Zn(acac) <sub>2</sub> PVP in DMF at 180 °C, 9 h	01-072-3028	ref 172
Pt <sub>3</sub> Zn	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub> + Zn(acac) <sub>2</sub> OAm/OA at 350 °C, 1 h	01-072-3028	ref 173
PtZn	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	Pt/C + Zn chips, heated at 500 °C, 8 h	01-072-3027	ref 174
Pt <sub>3</sub> Sn	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	H <sub>2</sub> PtCl <sub>6</sub> + SnCl <sub>2</sub> , DDA + HDD, at 300 °C, 0.5 h	01-072-2977	ref 175
PdFe	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	PdFe random alloy annealed at 500 °C, 2 h	01-089-2051	ref 176
Au <sub>10</sub> Pd <sub>40</sub> Co <sub>50</sub>	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	Au <sub>10</sub> Pd <sub>40</sub> Co <sub>50</sub> random alloy annealed at 800 °C, 0.5 h	01-071-7394 (for PdCo)	ref 177
PdCu	CsCl, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	PdCu random alloy annealed at 400 °C	01-080-4575	ref 138
PdCu	CsCl, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	PdCu random alloy annealed at 375 °C, 1h	01-080-4575	ref 129
PdZn	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	Pd <sub>2</sub> (dba) <sub>3</sub> + Et <sub>2</sub> Zn OAm at 250 °C, 1 h	01-072-2936	ref 178
Pd <sub>3</sub> Pb	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pd/C + Pb(Ac) <sub>2</sub> , EG, microwave 300W, 0.1 h	01-089-2062	ref 179
Pd <sub>3</sub> Fe	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Pd <sub>3</sub> Fe random alloy annealed at 600 °C, 24 h	JCPDS: 65-7280	ref 110
Cu <sub>3</sub> Au	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	Cu(Ac) <sub>2</sub> + Au nanoparticles OAm/OA at 300 °C	01-088-1731	ref 180
AuCu	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	HAuCl <sub>4</sub> + CuCl <sub>2</sub> , glycerol at 300 °C, 5 h	01-089-2037	ref 181
AuCu	AuCu, P4/ <i>mmm</i>	AuCu random alloy annealed at 500 °C, 12 h	01-089-2037	ref 182
RhBi	NiAs, P6 <sub>3</sub> / <i>mmc</i>	Bi(Ac) <sub>3</sub> + Rh <sub>2</sub> (Ac) <sub>4</sub> , EG, microwave 1.6 kW, 240 °C, 1 h		ref 183
Au <sub>3</sub> Fe	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	HAuCl <sub>4</sub> + Fe(acac) <sub>3</sub> , reduced by <i>n</i> -butyllithium in OAm and octyl ether at 250 °C		ref 184
Au <sub>3</sub> Co	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	HAuCl <sub>4</sub> + Co(acac) <sub>2</sub> , reduced by <i>n</i> -butyllithium in OAm and octyl ether at 250 °C		ref 184
Au <sub>3</sub> Ni	Cu <sub>3</sub> Au, Pm $\bar{3}$ m	HAuCl <sub>4</sub> + Ni(acac) <sub>2</sub> , reduced by <i>n</i> -butyllithium in OAm and octyl ether at 250 °C		ref 184
PtBi/Pt	NiAs, P6 <sub>3</sub> / <i>mmc</i> (PtBi core)	Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub> + Bi(Ac) <sub>3</sub> in NH <sub>4</sub> Br/OAm/1-octadecene, 160 °C, 5 h		ref 122

<sup>a</sup>Adapted with permission from ref 130, and modified. Copyright 2019 National Academy of Sciences, USA. Note: the related abbreviations: Bi(Ac)<sub>3</sub>: bismuth(III) acetate; DDA: dodecylamine; DMF: N,N-dimethylformamide; EG: ethylene glycol; Et<sub>2</sub>Zn: diethylzinc; HDD: 1,2-hexadecandiol; Co(acac)<sub>2</sub>: cobalt(II) acetylacetonate; Fe(acac)<sub>3</sub>: iron(III) acetylacetonate; Mn(acac)<sub>2</sub>: manganese(II) acetylacetonate; Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub>: nickel(II) acetylacetonate; OA: oleic acid; OAm: oleylamine; Pb(Ac)<sub>2</sub>: lead(II) acetate; Pd<sub>2</sub>(dba)<sub>3</sub>: tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0); PVP: poly(vinylpyrrolidone); Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>: platinum(II) acetylacetonate; Rh<sub>2</sub>(Ac)<sub>4</sub>: rhodium acetate dimer; THF: tetrahydrofuran; Zn(acac)<sub>2</sub>: zinc(II) acetylacetonate.

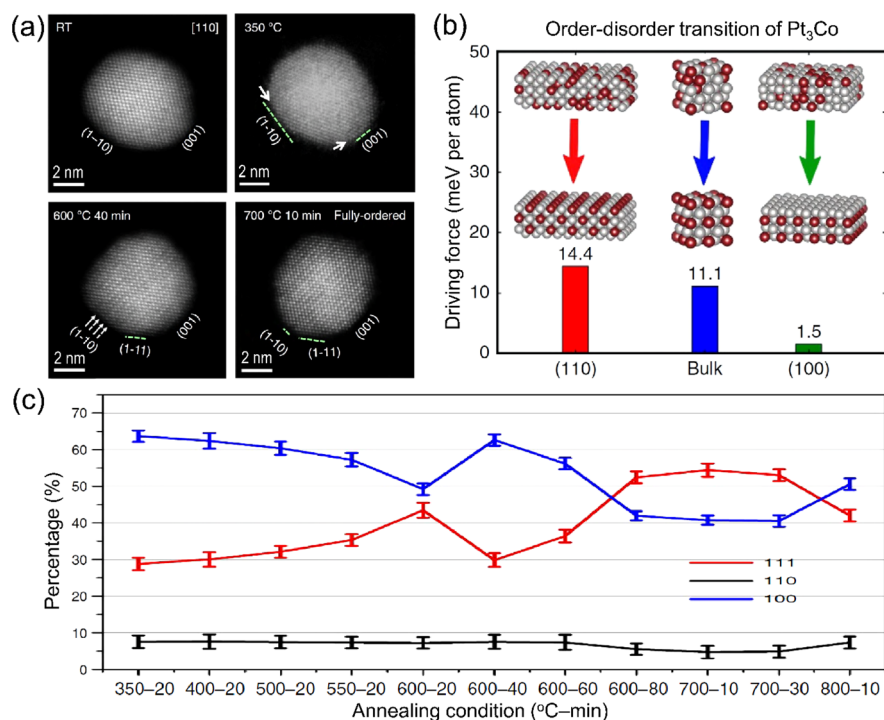
Although there have been several review articles focusing on random alloy nanocrystals or ordered intermetallic nanocrystals of some specific metals in recent years,<sup>1,5,32,92,93,99,123</sup> a comprehensive outline on noble–metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals simultaneously covering their synthetic approaches and applications is still intriguing. It should be worth noting that some of the representative articles are carefully selected to highlight the latest advances as much as possible. The goal of this review is to summarize recent advances related to the syntheses and applications of noble-metal based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals. In particular, we highlight the formation mechanisms and the most commonly practiced approaches for syntheses capable of preparing random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals with tunable and well-controlled properties. After that, we further place a special emphasis on their fascinating properties and widespread applications, including electrocatalysis, heterogeneous catalysis, photocatalysis, as well as optics and magnetism. Finally, we address some of the current challenges and

developing trends associated with the controllable synthesis of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals based on the previous summary.

## 2. GENERAL PRINCIPLES FOR THE FORMATION OF RANDOM ALLOY AND INTERMETALLIC NANOCRYSTALS

### 2.1. Atomic Ordering

As mentioned above, the nanocrystals can be broadly classified into random alloys and atomic-ordered intermetallic compounds.<sup>1,10,12</sup> An intermetallic compound is reserved for alloys that have strict stoichiometry, atomically ordered arrangement, and a well-defined atom binding environment. It should be pointed out that the atomic-scale features including spatial arrangement, atomic ordering, and faceting are critically important parameters to determine their expressed physicochemical properties. Especially, random alloys and intermetallic compounds typically exhibit markedly different properties even if they possess the same atomic ratio and elemental



**Figure 1.** (a) Atomic-resolution HAADF-STEM images of a single Pt<sub>3</sub>Co nanoparticle obtained at different temperatures and annealing times. (b) A comparison of the driving force for forming ordered structures at different crystallographic facets and in the bulk derived from DFT calculations. (c) Changes in the percentages of the surface facets, for example, {111}, {110}, and {100}, as a function of annealing condition. Adapted with permission from ref 131 and modified. Copyright 2015 Nature Publishing Group under [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License] [<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>].

composition. Thermodynamically, the favorable positions for atoms in the lattice are largely associated with atomic radii, atomic interactions, and lattice parameters.<sup>12</sup> Note that the formation of thermodynamically stable alloys will be favorable during the synthesis when both metallic compositions meet the Hume–Rothery rules: (i) an atomic radii discrepancy of less than 15%; (ii) the similar crystal lattices and electronegativities; (iii) the same valence state.<sup>149</sup> In some cases, the assistance of extra heating is also required to facilitate the interdiffusion of atoms and to avail of an alloy formation, especially for the systems with relatively low reaction temperature that cannot effectively ensure the atoms to reach their favorable positions via a diffusion process.<sup>150,151</sup>

In theory, the generation of ordered intermetallic compounds is energetically more favorable than disordered alloys at low temperatures due to the low entropy associated with the ordered arrangement of atoms and the negative value of the change in enthalpy derived from the higher bonding energy in intermetallics.<sup>152</sup> Some typical noble metal-based intermetallic nanocrystals with information such as crystal structure and preparation conditions that were reported previously are given in Table 1. However, the formation of alloys with disordered atomic arrangements seems to be prevalent instead of ordered intermetallic compounds in most of the practical syntheses, since their synthetic temperatures that are usually below the critical phase-transition temperature can not greatly facilitate the interdiffusion with the high-activation-energy barrier and equilibration. In recent years, ordered intermetallic compounds have gained increasing interest due to their remarkable performance and highly controllable compositions and surface structures.<sup>66,129,153–164</sup> Consequently, an in-depth understanding of the effects governed by the thermodynamic and kinetic

parameters and the achievement in the synthesis of high-quality ordered intermetallic nanocrystals are essential.

## 2.2. Thermodynamic and Kinetic Perspective on Random Alloy and Intermetallic Nanocrystals

**2.2.1. Thermodynamic Analysis.** For simplicity, here we mainly focus on the ideal bimetallic system. In a bulk system, the excess Gibbs free energy upon mixing can be defined by the changes in enthalpy ( $\Delta H_{\text{mix}}$ ) and entropy ( $\Delta S_{\text{mix}}$ ) during the formation of a random alloy or intermetallic compound:<sup>1,12,185–187</sup>

$$\Delta G_{\text{mix}} = \Delta H_{\text{mix}} - T\Delta S_{\text{mix}} \quad (1)$$

where  $T$  is the absolute temperature. Typically, when  $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}$  is negative, a random alloy or intermetallic compound should form spontaneously under a given set of experimental conditions, resulting in dramatically lowering the overall free energy. It should be mentioned that the change in entropy is generally believed to be always positive upon mixing different metals, and thus the generation of a random alloy or intermetallic compound is entropically favorable. According to eq 1, it is not difficult to find that  $\Delta H_{\text{mix}}$  value played a major role in facilitating the formation of a random alloy or intermetallic compound because  $T\Delta S_{\text{mix}}$  is constantly positive. If the bond formation between different atoms is exothermic,  $\Delta H_{\text{mix}}$  should be negative. As a result,  $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}$  will be negative under these conditions, thereby benefiting the spontaneous formation of a random alloy or intermetallic compound.

If the mixing between different atoms is endothermic ( $\Delta H_{\text{mix}} > 0$ ), the formation of the resultant product should be temperature-dependent. At relatively high temperatures, the contribution from entropy normally becomes much larger than that from enthalpy, the formation of a random alloy or

intermetallic compound will be favorably derived from a negative  $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}$ . In contrast,  $\Delta G_{\text{mix}}$  should be positive at relatively low temperatures, resulting in the segregation between different components.

In addition, eq 1 can also be applied to interpret the transition process from random alloy to ordered intermetallic. In this case, the change in entropy is usually negative due to the disorder-to-order transition, and the change in enthalpy is also negative derived from the higher bonding energy in intermetallics. As a result, low temperatures will be beneficial to the disorder-to-order transition while high temperatures will lead to a favorable transition to the disordered phase. It should be also emphasized that the critical phase-transition temperature is defined by the temperature, at which the changes in total Gibbs free energy are equal to zero.

However, the surface free energies in real systems might lead to completely different scenarios as compared to those cases predicted by the simplified and idealized model. For nanocrystals, the surface free energy has a major influence on the total free energy of the system.<sup>8,101,185</sup> As a result, the surface free energy should also be involved to precisely predict the changes in Gibbs free energy,<sup>185</sup> as given by

$$\Delta G_{\text{mix}} = \Delta H_{\text{mix}} - T\Delta S_{\text{mix}} + \Delta\gamma A \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta\gamma$  is the changes in specific surface free energy and  $A$  is the surface area of the nanocrystal. During the disorder-to-order transition,  $A$  remains constant by assuming that no shape change is observed. Note that  $\Delta\gamma$  is generally positive because the ordered surface has much higher bond energy than a disordered one. To further explain the shifting of disorder-to-order phase transition temperature in nanocrystals as compared with that of the bulk, eq 3 can be established based on eq 2, where  $T_{\text{nano}}$  and  $T_{\text{bulk}}$  are the critical phase transition temperatures in nanocrystals and the bulk, respectively.<sup>12</sup>

$$T_{\text{nano}}/T_{\text{bulk}} = 1 + (A/V)\Delta\gamma/\Delta H_V \quad (3)$$

As is known to all, the change in volume-specific bulk enthalpy ( $\Delta H_V$ ) is negative and the specific surface area ( $A/V$ ) is inversely proportional to the nanocrystal size.<sup>8,15,39,188–190</sup> Hence, according to eq 3, it suggests that smaller nanocrystals should possess lower disorder-to-order phase transition temperatures. A typical example was demonstrated by Alloyeau and co-workers,<sup>153</sup> who found that PtCo nanocrystals with an average size of 2.4–3 nm had phase-transition temperatures between 175–325 °C. It was well documented that these phase-transition temperatures were significantly lower than that of the bulk PtCo. In addition to the size effect, the shape of a nanocrystal could also dramatically affect the changes in Gibbs free energy,<sup>131</sup> since the facets exposed on a nanocrystal have a strong correlation with the shape and different facets generally possess diverse specific surface free energies. As such, it is concluded that the nanocrystal shape has a non-negligible impact on the disorder-to-order transition temperature associated with the total change in Gibbs' free energy. Obvious changes to the ratio of {100} facets during the *in situ* heating of an individual Pt<sub>3</sub>Co nanocrystal together with the formation of the ordered intermetallic phase were observed, and the {111} facets became dominant (Figure 1). Moreover, surface segregation is often observed during the disorder-to-order transition, when the stoichiometric composition of a given nanocrystal deviates slightly from the favored ratio.<sup>181,191–195</sup> Overall, the size, shape, and composition of nanocrystals all

have a major influence on their surface free energies and thus the disorder-to-order transition.

**2.2.2. Kinetic Analysis.** In contrast to thermodynamics, kinetics is affected by a variety of dynamic factors during the formation of a random alloy or intermetallic compound, where the nucleation, growth, and diffusion processes are typically involved. It is important to note that these processes are largely related to bond breaking and formation, as well as atom diffusion. Here, we mainly focus on the key factors to affect the kinetics of the disorder-to-order transition at a given temperature. According to the Johnson-Mehl-Avrami-Kolmogorov (JMAK) theory,<sup>196–198</sup> the kinetics of transformation during the disorder-to-order transition are given by

$$f = 1 - \exp(-\pi/3Nv^3t^n) \quad (4)$$

where  $f$  is fraction transformed,  $N$  is the rate of nucleation,  $v$  is the growth rate,  $t$  is reaction time, and  $n$  is held to have an integer value between 1 and 4. Note that the transformations follow a characteristic s-shaped profile, where the transformation rates are slow at the beginning and the end of the transformation but fast in between. Specifically, many nuclei of the ordered phase form at a slow rate during the initial period, as the formation of the ordered phase is generally required to overcome the larger kinetic energy barriers to reach the thermodynamic minimum. Subsequently, the nuclei grow into nanocrystals at a fast rate and consume the disordered phase while nuclei continue to form in the remaining parent phase. The reaction rate begins to slow when the transformation approaches completion. It should be noted that many significant assumptions and simplifications are made in this equation. First, the nuclei are believed to be distributed randomly in space. Second, the growth rate is independent of the extent of transformation and also keeps at the same rate in all directions. These assumptions do not affect the qualitative trends during the kinetic analyses, so the general conclusions remain valid.

During the disorder-to-order transition, atom diffusion is found to be a kinetically controlled process that involves the motion of atoms through a jumping or hopping mechanism, facilitating atom arrangement. It should be pointed out that jumping or hopping is conceptually the most basic mechanism for adatoms diffusion, and in this model, motion occurs through successive jumps to adjacent sites, the number of which depends on the nature of the surface lattice. The rate of atom migration within a lattice ( $D$ ) can be defined by considering random atomic jumping:<sup>199,200</sup>

$$D = D_0 \exp(-E_{\text{diff}}/RT) \quad (5)$$

where  $D_0$  is the diffusion pre-exponential factor,  $E_{\text{diff}}$  is the energy barrier for an atom to jump from one site to another,  $T$  is the absolute temperature, and  $R$  is the ideal gas constant. It should be emphasized that  $D_0$  is largely associated with the bonding strength and the type and effective mass of the atom.<sup>199</sup> In principle, weakly bonded atoms typically possess a lower defect formation energy and jumping barrier in the atom diffusion process. For example, the disorder-to-order transition in the Au–Cu system is much easier as compared to those in Pt-based systems that have relatively stronger bonding atoms.<sup>150,180,201–204</sup> Note that the atom diffusion process is mainly dominated by vacancy diffusion with a much lower energy barrier as compared to the atom-exchange for metals. To greatly accelerate the atom diffusion process during the disorder-to-order transition, a viable mean is to raise the



reaction temperature to facilitate the generation of vacancies or defects and atom migration in the crystal lattice. In addition to thermal activation, another effective strategy is to artificially introduce the vacancies or defects into the parent phase to speed up the diffusion process. For example, introducing Au atoms to the Pt–Fe system is employed to generate vacancies and thus achieve the phase transition.<sup>205</sup> This is most likely because Au atoms with low surface energy are immiscible to FePt and tend to segregate onto the FePt nanocrystal surface at 600 °C, resulting in a formation of vacancies within the nanocrystal. Furthermore, it has been well demonstrated that the size, shape, and composition of nanocrystals have a major impact on the transition kinetics due to their distinctive surface and/or interface free energies and atom diffusion rates.<sup>154,164,177,206–216</sup>

### 3. SYNTHETIC APPROACHES TO RANDOM ALLOY NANOCRYSTALS

Many efforts have been devoted to the synthesis of a rich variety of random alloy nanocrystals with well-defined size, shape, composition, and structure in the past decades.<sup>50,54,104,120,167,217–231</sup> Typically, the random alloy nanocrystals exhibit unique physicochemical properties, which are superior to nanocrystals consisting of individual metals. Aiming at acquiring the desired random alloy nanocrystals, it is very essential to master over the synthetic approaches. In this chapter, we mainly focus on the common approaches for the synthesis of random alloy nanocrystals and highlight their recent progress. Table 2 summarizes some representative examples related to the synthesis of random alloy nanocrystals using different approaches.

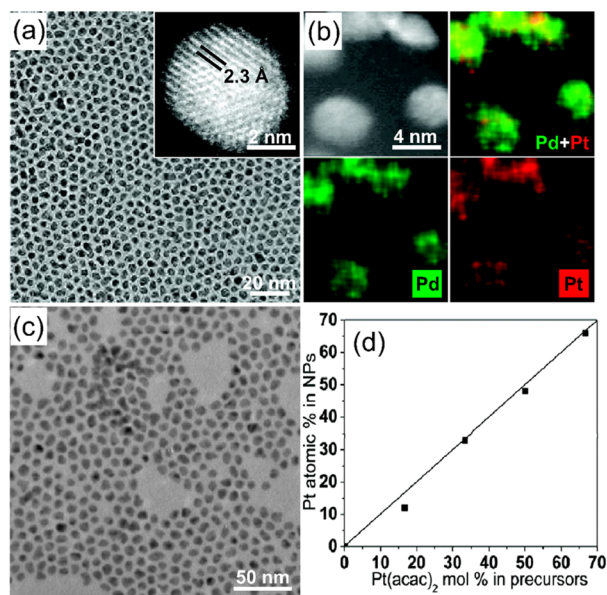
**Table 2. Summary of Some Representative Random Alloy Nanocrystals with Corresponding Synthetic Approaches**

synthetic approach	metal composition	morphology	reference
co-reduction	PdPt	nanosphere	refs 232 and 233
	Ag@AgAu	core–frame nanocube	ref 234
	Pt <sub>3</sub> Ni	nanocube, nano-octahedron	ref 76
	PtCu	nanorod	ref 231
seed-mediated synthesis	AuAg, AuSn, AuPt	nanosphere	ref 235
	AuPd, AuPt, AuCu	nanowire	ref 236
	Pd@PdCu	nanocube	ref 237
	AgPt-tipped Au	nanorod	ref 238
thermal decomposition	PtFe	nanosphere, nanocube, nanowire	refs 239 and 240
galvanic replacement	AuAg	nanocage	refs 241 and 242
	PdPt	hollow nanocube	ref 243
	PdAg	triangular nanoframe	ref 244
Kirkendall effect	PtFe	hollow nanosphere	ref 103
	AuAg, AuPdAg, PdAg	double-walled nanobox	ref 245
oxidative etching	PtNi	nano-octahedron	ref 246
	Pt <sub>3</sub> Ni	rhombic dodecahedral and tetrahedral nanoframe	refs 68 and 220

#### 3.1. Co-Reduction

Co-reduction is a straightforward and versatile approach for the facile synthesis of random alloy nanocrystals, where rational choice of reducing agent, capping agent, coordination ligand, and reaction temperature all have big effects on the size, shape, composition, and structure of the final product. This approach typically involves the simultaneous reduction of two or more metal-containing precursors to charge neutral atoms, which then undergoes the nucleation and growth.<sup>232,247–251</sup> According to the classic nucleation theory, as proposed by LaMer and co-workers,<sup>252</sup> it is of critical importance to effectively separate the nucleation and growth into two distinct processes to enable tuning the size and dispersity of the resultant alloy nanocrystals in a synthetic system. It should be pointed out that the nucleation and growth processes of nanocrystals are largely related to the reduction rate of the metal precursors in solution. Therefore, the key to the successful synthesis of well-defined random alloy nanocrystals in the co-reduction process is capable of rationally modulating the reduction rate of the metal precursors.

Normally, metal ions possess intrinsic differences in reduction potential. The metal ions with higher reduction potentials are quickly reduced as compared to those with low reduction potentials under the same conditions. To enable forming alloyed nanocrystals via co-reduction, a viable means is to strategically select the metal combinations with pertinent redox potentials and possible alloy phase to ensure their matched reduction rates and the stable product. For example, Pd–Pt random alloy nanocrystals can be readily synthesized through co-reduction, due to their minor differences in reduction potentials (+0.9 V for Pd<sup>2+</sup>/Pd, +1.18 V for Pt<sup>2+</sup>/Pt).<sup>232,253–257</sup> Specifically, Sun and co-workers reported their synthesis of Pd–Pt random alloy nanocrystals by simultaneously reducing Pd(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> with morpholine borane as a reducing agent in the presence of OAm as both the solvent and stabilizer (Figure 2).<sup>232</sup> It was revealed that the use of morpholine borane with strong reducing power and the appropriate temperature were the keys to the success of the synthesis. By simply manipulating the feeding ratio of the two precursors and reaction temperature, the composition and size of the resultant nanocrystals could be precisely controlled. They found that the atomic ratio between Pd and Pt in the final product was nearly proportional to the feeding ratio between Pd(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>. Subsequent studies have also demonstrated this notion.<sup>27,257,258</sup> Therefore, controlling the feeding ratio of precursors has become a simple and viable route to manipulate the composition of the final product. However, the small difference in reduction potentials of the precursors involved is not always essential since it might also enable the opportunity to generate core–shell nanocrystals via a one-pot approach. Skrabalak and co-workers reported that Pd–Pt core–shell nanodendrites could be formed in the presence of Pd(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> (as the precursors) and OAm (as both reducing agent and solvent) at 160 °C.<sup>233</sup> In comparison with the work reported by Sun and co-workers,<sup>232</sup> it is not difficult to conclude that structures of the final product could be determined by the reducing agents (OAm vs morpholine borane/OAm) and probably the reaction temperatures (160 °C vs 60/90/180 °C) in each case, even though Pd(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> that have similar reduction potentials were used as the precursors in both reports. Explicitly, to achieve a co-reduction, one needs to comprehensively design various synthetic conditions and reaction parameters such as



**Figure 2.** (a) TEM image of the 5 nm Pd<sub>67</sub>Pt<sub>33</sub> random alloy nanocrystals via one-pot synthesis. The inset is the HRTEM image of a typical 5 nm Pd<sub>67</sub>Pt<sub>33</sub> random alloy nanocrystals. (b) HAADF-STEM image and the corresponding EDX elemental mapping of Pd (green) and Pt (red) for several typical Pd<sub>67</sub>Pt<sub>33</sub> random alloy nanocrystals. (c) TEM image of 6.5 nm Pd<sub>67</sub>Pt<sub>31</sub> random alloy nanocrystals synthesized by injecting morpholine borane at 40 °C. (d) Correlation between the adding amount of Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and the amount of Pt in the final product. Adapted from ref 232 and modified. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society.

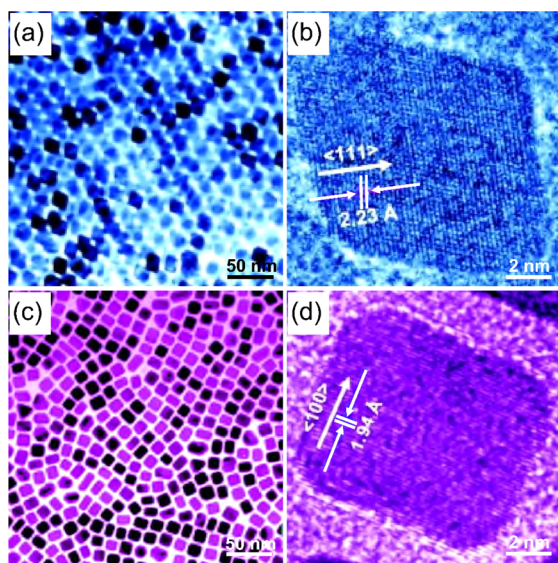
the solvent, reducing agent(s), capping agent(s), and reducing temperature, including the comparable precursors but not just a consideration on the closeness of their reduction potentials.

When the two metal precursors have relatively large differences in reduction potential, the core-shell nanocrystals might be favorably generated with great probability due to the sequential reduction in solution. To synchronize the reduction rate of the two precursors to generate random alloy nanocrystals rather than core-shell nanocrystals, a viable route is to tune the molar ratio of the two precursors because the reduction potential of metal ions depends strongly on the concentration of ions. For example, Sun and co-workers demonstrated the one-pot synthesis of uniform Au<sub>x</sub>Ag<sub>100-x</sub> random alloy nanocrystals by core-reducing HAuCl<sub>4</sub> and AgNO<sub>3</sub> with OAm as the reducing agent and surfactant in the presence of octadecene (ODE) at 120 °C.<sup>259</sup> It was observed that when the feeding amount of Ag precursor is relatively higher than that of the Au precursor in the reaction stock solution, the difference of the reduction rates between both precursors can be significantly reduced, thus promoting their co-reduction. Specifically, Au<sub>60</sub>Ag<sub>40</sub> random alloy nanocrystals could be easily obtained when the molar feeding ratio for AgNO<sub>3</sub> and HAuCl<sub>4</sub> attained 10. Using a series of characterization methods, such as high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM), energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS), and UV-Vis spectra, they further confirmed the formation of random alloy nanocrystals. Furthermore, they concluded that the reaction temperature played an important role in the formation of random alloy nanocrystals, while a low temperature (65 °C) or high temperature (180 °C) would promote phase segregation. It was uncovered that the phase segregation mainly resulted from a large gap of the reduction

rates between the Au and Ag precursors under similar conditions. For instance, the Au precursor can be generally reduced at 65 °C, whereas the reduction of the Ag precursor occurs at a temperature as high as 180 °C. Meanwhile, the chloride ions from the Au precursor could also alter the relative reduction rates, likely due to the significant difference in reduction potential between AuCl<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> and Au<sup>3+</sup>. In addition to the above-mentioned route, it is also viable to alter the relative concentrations of metal precursors by adding the solutions dropwise with the assistance of a syringe pump. A typical example was demonstrated by Qin and co-workers,<sup>234</sup> who synthesized Ag-(Ag-Au) core-frame nanocubes (NCBs) by adding AgNO<sub>3</sub> and HAuCl<sub>4</sub> dropwise into a solution containing Ag seeds, ascorbic acid (AA), and PVP. It was also demonstrated that this approach could precisely control the relative amounts of Ag and Au atoms in solution. Altogether, altering the relative concentrations of metal precursors is an effective approach for generating the random alloy nanocrystals with precise control over the composition.

It is not always possible to well match the reduction rates by varying the relative concentrations of metal precursors. To solve this problem, it might be often required to introduce appropriate reducing agents, solvents, coordination ligands, capping agents, surfactants, or foreign ions and tune other synthetic parameters to achieve the co-reduction of different metal precursors in the solution system. It should be pointed out that the coordination ligands could strongly coordinate with the metal ions (reactants), profoundly improve their stability, reduction potential, and reduction kinetics, whereas the capping agents could selectively bind to a specific class of facets on the nanocrystals (products), effectively alter the surface energy and anisotropy as well as subsequent adsorption behavior. For example, Wang and co-workers demonstrated the synthesis of Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn random alloy nanocrystals by core-reducing PtCl<sub>4</sub> and SnCl<sub>2</sub> in a mixed solution of OAm and OA, with the use of borane tertbutylamine as a reducing agent.<sup>260</sup> Because Pt and Sn precursors have a larger difference in reduction rate, the addition of borane tertbutylamine with strong reducing power was confirmed to be more advantageous for simultaneous reduction of the Pt and Sn precursors to prepare alloyed nanocrystals. This co-reduction approach, with an appropriate selection of the reducing agent and precursors, could also be adopted for preparing random alloy nanocrystals in other metal systems. Previously, Fang and co-workers developed a new strategy for the synthesis of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni octahedra and NCbs (Figure 3) by simultaneously reducing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub> in the presence of W(CO)<sub>6</sub>.<sup>76</sup> For the synthesis of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni nano-octahedra, W(CO)<sub>6</sub> was added into a mixed solution containing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>, Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub>, OAm, and oleic acid (OA) under Ar atmosphere at 130 °C and then the reaction temperature was increased to 230 °C under vigorous agitation. It was revealed that the introduction of W(CO)<sub>6</sub> was the key to facilitating the formation of random alloy nanocrystals, since the low reduction potential of W decomposed from W(CO)<sub>6</sub> could dramatically facilitate the reduction of Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> in the early stage, leading to a fast Pt nucleation, whereas the generated W cations would decelerate the subsequent nanocrystal growth (to match the reduction of Ni). Furthermore, they believed that the use of OAm could stabilize {111} facets of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni nanocrystals via selective adsorption and thus lower the surface free energy on Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni {111} facets. More importantly, it was revealed that the introduction of W(CO)<sub>6</sub> was the key to controlling the shape





**Figure 3.** TEM images of (a) Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni octahedra and (c) nanocubes synthesized via co-reduction. HRTEM images of (b) a typical Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni octahedron and (d) nanocube. Reproduced from ref 262. Copyright 2010 American Chemical Society.

of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni nanocrystals. For the synthesis of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni NCbs, Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>, OAm, and OA were first mixed under the Ar atmosphere and then heated to 130 °C, followed by adding W(CO)<sub>6</sub> into the reaction solution. After that, a solution containing NiCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O, OAm, and OA was added dropwise while the reaction temperature was raised to 200 °C. They ultimately concluded that the formation of {100} facets was due to slowly injecting the NiCl<sub>2</sub> solution. In both cases, as discussed above, a slower rate of injecting the Ni precursor favored the formation of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni{100}-bounded NCbs, whereas a faster rate of injecting the Ni precursor resulted in a formation of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni{111}-terminated octahedral nanocrystals. As such, it was demonstrated that the injecting rate of the Ni precursor in the early stage played an important role in adjusting the CO adsorption energy on different facets. Shortly, Yang and co-workers reported the synthesis of truncated octahedral Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni nanocrystals by coreducing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Ni(acac)<sub>2</sub> with tert-butylamine-borane (TBAB) and hexadecanediol as the reducing agents in the presence of diphenyl ether, long-alkane-chain amines, and adamantanecarboxylic acid.<sup>261</sup> They demonstrated that the simultaneous use of TBAB and hexadecanediol with strong reducing powers was very necessary to precisely synchronize the reduction rates of both precursors and thus to facilitate the formation of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni random alloy nanocrystals while preserving good dispersion and well-defined shape. In another example demonstrated by Schaak and co-workers, PtCu nanorods could be formed by coreducing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub> in a solution containing OA, OAm, ODE and hexadecanediol.<sup>231</sup> On the basis of UV-visible spectroscopic measurement, it was determined that the initial formation of a Cu–Pt complex through coordination in a mixed solvent and the sequential decomposition of this complex led to the formation of CuPt random alloy nanorods. The length of the nanorods could be precisely controlled by altering the concentrations and types of solvents. Importantly, they demonstrated that OAm could selectively absorb on the {100} facets of the PtCu nanorods, resulting in the preferential growth along the [111] direction. In short, some highly

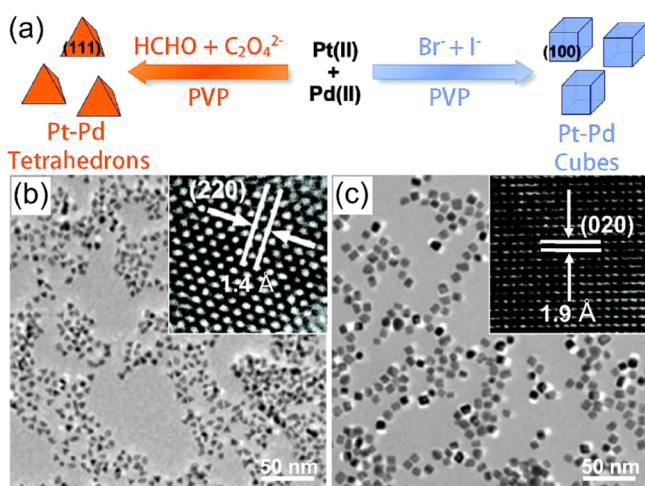
complex interactions could generate in the presence of appropriate reducing agents, solvents, coordination ligands, capping agents, surfactants, or foreign ions, and these interactions can potentially be utilized to precisely control the reduction rates of different precursors during a synthesis.

The use of chemical additives (e.g., reducing agents, solvents, coordination ligands, capping agents, surfactants, and foreign ions) in the reaction system generally can markedly alter the reduction potential and stability of metal ions through coordination and thus their reaction kinetics.<sup>56,60,83,263–274</sup>

One successful example was demonstrated by Xia and co-workers. They discovered that the introduction of 63 mM KBr in EG solution consisting of Na<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub> and K<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>4</sub> could immediately cause the ligand exchange between chloride and bromide ions, resulting in a significant decrease of the difference in reduction rate between the Pd and Pt precursors and thus facilitating the formation of random alloy nanocubes.<sup>254</sup> The addition of KBr not only promotes the formation of PdBr<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> and PtBr<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> via coordination but also selectively catches and stabilizes the {100} facets. They further observed a core–shell structure on Pd–Pt octahedral nanocrystals in the absence of KBr, due to the significant difference between the initial reduction rates of PdCl<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> and PtCl<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>. Similarly, the addition of halide ions (e.g., Cl<sup>–</sup>, Br<sup>–</sup>, and I<sup>–</sup>) into a precursor solution containing Au<sup>3+</sup> and Pd<sup>2+</sup> can also quickly form the Au–halide and Pd–halide complexes.<sup>275</sup> They identified monodisperse Au–Pd random alloy and core–shell icosahedral nanocrystals by simply tuning the concentration ratio between Br<sup>–</sup> and Cl<sup>–</sup>. Specifically, the reduction potential and reduction rate decreased in the order of [AuCl<sub>4</sub>]<sup>–</sup> > [AuBr<sub>4</sub>]<sup>–</sup> > [AuI<sub>4</sub>]<sup>–</sup> and [PdCl<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2–</sup> > [PdBr<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2–</sup> > [PdI<sub>4</sub>]<sup>2–</sup>. As a result of their dual functions, it can be concluded that the use of some chemical additives in a reaction solution played an critical role in forming random alloy structure and regulating the morphology of the as-obtained nanocrystals. In another report, Fang and co-workers demonstrated the one-pot synthesis of PtCu random alloy NCbs by coreducing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and Cu(acac)<sub>2</sub> in the presence of 1,2-tetradecanediol, ODE, OAm, tetraoctylammonium bromide, and 1-dodecanethiol (DDT).<sup>276</sup> Importantly, DDT was found to enable promoting the co-reduction of Pt<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> ions via coordination. Specifically, the composition of the final product could be readily tuned by varying the amount of DDT. It is worth noting that these chemical additives can also absorb preferentially to specific facets on the nanocrystal and thus affect the subsequent growth process. Yan and co-workers reported the synthesis of sub-10 nm Pd–Pt nanotetrahedra and NCbs by simultaneously reducing K<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>4</sub> and Na<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub> (Figure 4).<sup>277</sup> When HCHO served as the reducing agent in the presence of sodium oxalate (Na<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>), the tetrahedral nanocrystals enclosed by {111} facets were obtained. They found that the addition of C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> could stabilize the {111} facets. Furthermore, by replacing the Na<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with high concentrations of Br<sup>–</sup> and low concentrations of I<sup>–</sup>, the final product would become NCbs enclosed by {100} facets, due to the selective absorption of the halides on the {100} facets. In summary, the presence of chemical additives in a reaction solution can dramatically affect the reduction rate by complex interactions, and these interactions should be further explored to controllably tune the size, shape, and composition of resultant nanocrystals.

Besides, sonication-assisted reduction, microwave-assisted reduction, or photoassisted reduction can be adopted to





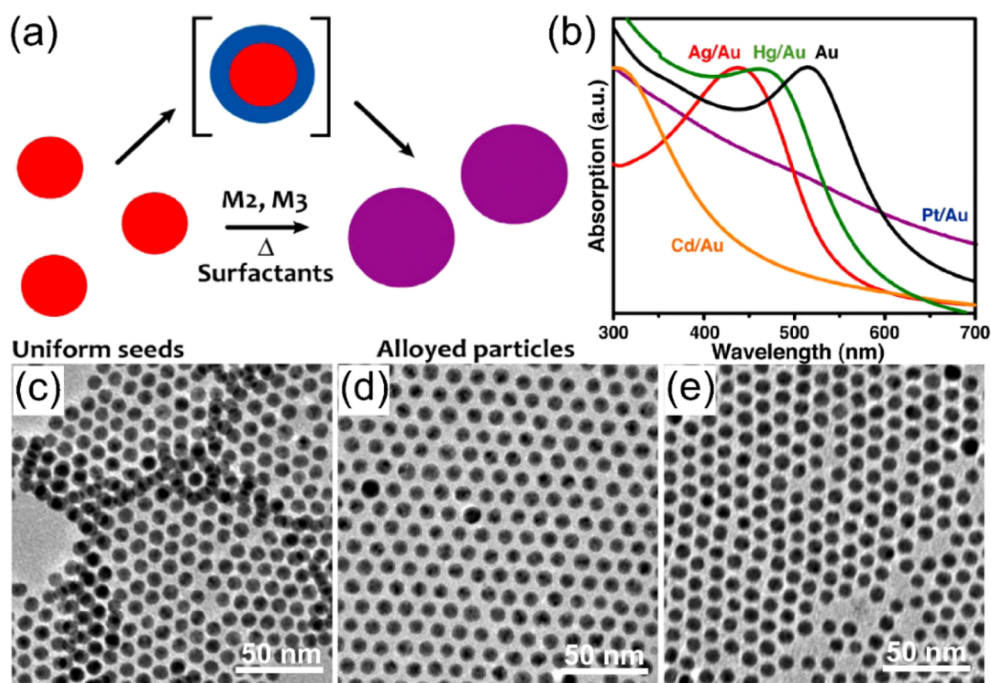
**Figure 4.** (a) Schematic illustration showing the shape-controlled synthesis of Pt–Pd tetrahedra and nanocubes synthesized via co-reduction. TEM images of (b) Pt–Pd tetrahedra and (c) nanocubes. The insets in panels (b) and (c) are HRTEM images of a single Pt–Pd tetrahedron and nanocube, respectively. Adapted from ref 277 and modified. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society.

prepare a variety of alloy nanocrystals in the absence of chemical reducing agents.<sup>44,278–286</sup> These approaches can be performed at a relatively low reaction temperature or even room temperature. For example, Grieser and co-workers reported on the synthesis of Pt–Ru random alloy nanocrystals by sonication-assisted co-reduction of K<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>4</sub> and RuCl<sub>3</sub>.<sup>283</sup> El-Shall and co-workers utilized a microwave-assisted co-reduction approach to synthesize various random alloy nanocrystals (e.g., CuPd, CuRh, AuPd, AuRh, PtRh, PdRh, and AuPt) in well-controlled size and shape.<sup>284</sup> It should be pointed out that these approaches can also be applied to the

preparation of some special random alloy nanocrystals that cannot be obtained by using the chemical reducing agent in the co-reduction synthesis. A typical example was demonstrated by Nenoff and co-workers, who synthesized the stable Ag–Ni random alloy nanocrystals by simultaneously reducing the Ag and Ni precursors via  $\gamma$ -irradiation.<sup>285</sup> Note that the Ag–Ni random alloy nanocrystals are generally believed to be thermodynamically unstable due to low immiscibility and large lattice mismatch between Ag and Ni. In this case, the introduction of  $\gamma$ -irradiation can quickly reduce Ag and Ni ions to atoms and then quench them in the lattice, facilitating the formation of a stable Ag–Ni random alloy.

### 3.2. Seed-Mediated Synthesis

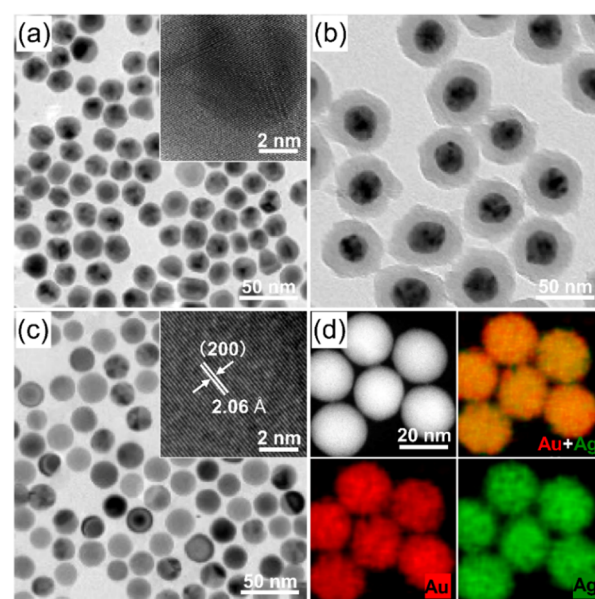
A well-known, seed-mediated growth approach offers a very effective synthetic route for preparing well-controlled bimetallic nanocrystals, especially for the synthesis of core–shell and heterostructured bimetallic nanocrystals.<sup>1,7,199,287–294</sup> It is worth mentioning that generally the key synthetic challenge for making core–shell nanocrystals is to keep the precursor concentration of the second shell metal always below the critical value on the LaMer plot to prevent homogeneous nucleation. However, it is not very common to adopt the seed-mediated growth approach to synthesize alloy nanocrystals because it can effectively separate the reduction of different precursors as compared to the co-reduction approach. In some cases, by elaborately designing the reaction system, alloyed nanocrystals can also be obtained.<sup>295–303</sup> A common strategy is to utilize a seed-based diffusion route in the synthesis of random alloy nanocrystals. Very recently, Murray and co-workers used this approach to generate a series of Au–L (L = Ag, Pt, Hg, Sn, and Cd) random alloy nanocrystals with tunable compositions at relatively high temperatures (Figure 5).<sup>235</sup> In a typical synthesis of Au–Ag random alloy nanocrystals, a solution containing 5.5 nm Au seeds, AgBF<sub>4</sub>



**Figure 5.** (a) Schematically illustrating the proposed formation mechanism for generating uniform alloyed bimetallic nanocrystals through a possible core–shell structure during a seed-mediated synthesis. TEM images of (c) Au nanocrystal seeds, (d) Au–Ag random alloy nanocrystals, and (e) Au–Sn random alloy nanocrystals. Adapted from ref 235 and modified. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society.

as a precursor, 1,2-hexadecanediol, and oleyl alcohol as reducing agents, OA, OAm, and ODE as the solvent and stabilizer was heated to 150–180 °C in a flask under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. By simply manipulating the amount of Ag precursor added, the final metal ratio in Au–Ag random alloy nanocrystals could be tunable. They found that the choice of reaction temperature was predominantly dictated by the nature of the doping metal. For the easily reducible metals, such as Ag and Hg, completion of the reaction requires temperatures as low as 150 or 180 °C, whereas for metals like Pt, Sn, Cd, relatively higher temperatures up to 200, 210, and 300 °C, respectively, were necessary. It is worth mentioning that the condition of the high reaction temperature is of critical importance to promote the reduction and subsequent alloying. High temperatures can also effectively remove the defects determined in the as-synthesized Au nanocrystals. Furthermore, this approach has also been successfully applied to the synthesis of other bimetallic and trimetallic nanoalloys. Ravishankar and co-workers demonstrated this approach in 2018.<sup>236</sup> They synthesized a series of uniform and mono-dispersed Au-based random alloy (AuPd, AuPt, and AuCu) nanowires with a controllable composition by employing ultrathin Au nanowires as the seeds in the presence of the second metal precursor and EG. Similarly, the composition of the resultant random alloy nanowires also depended strongly on the second metal precursor concentration.

Another viable strategy for the synthesis of random alloy nanocrystals through a seed-mediated route is to directly convert a core–shell structure to an alloy by controlling the heating process in solution or gas-phase. This approach typically involves an interdiffusion and mixing between two metallic components through a thermal activation process commonly referred to as alloying. Especially, this process became favorable when both metallic compositions meet the Hume–Rothery rules,<sup>149</sup> as discussed in section 2.1. A typical example was demonstrated by Tracy and co-workers, who utilized 8 nm Au as the seeds to successfully synthesize Au–Ag core–shell nanocrystals, followed by dispersing them in OAm and subsequent heating to 250 °C for 2 h.<sup>304</sup> They realized that the heating process could facilitate the interdiffusion of Au and Ag, resulting in a production of Au–Ag random alloy nanocrystals. The key to the successful conversion from a core–shell structure to an alloy is mainly due to satisfying the Hume–Rothery rules for Au and Ag. To further facilitate the interdiffusion process for the formation of atomically homogeneous alloys, a higher reaction temperature is often required. However, because of the limitation of solvent boiling point, it is impossible to complete the reaction in solution at an extremely high temperature. This obstacle can be overcome by carrying out the reaction via annealing in a gas atmosphere. In a recent report, Yin and co-workers synthesized fully alloyed Au–Ag nanospheres by annealing the Au–Ag core–shell nanospheres at elevated temperatures in a nitrogen atmosphere (Figure 6).<sup>305</sup> To avoid the aggregation of nanocrystals during the annealing process, a layer of silica with a thickness of ~15 nm was required to be uniformly coated on the Au–Ag core–shell nanospheres before the annealing. It was believed that the use of such an elevated temperature could dramatically increase the mobility of the metal atoms, favoring homogeneous distribution for both Ag and Au elements and removing crystallographic defects in the nanosphere. This approach has also been extended to other systems, such as Pt–Ru and Pt–Cu random alloy nanocrystals.<sup>306–308</sup>



**Figure 6.** TEM images of (a) Au–Ag core–shell nanocrystals, (b) Au–Ag–SiO<sub>2</sub> onion nanocrystals, and (c) Ag–Au random alloy nanospheres synthesized through a seed-mediated route. (d) HAADF-STEM image of several representative Ag–Au random alloy nanospheres and the corresponding EDX elemental mapping of Au (red) and Ag (green). The insets in panels (a) and (c) are HRTEM images of a single Au–Ag core–shell nanocrystal and Ag–Au random alloy nanosphere, respectively. Adapted from ref 305 and modified. Copyright 2014 American Chemical Society.

In addition to the aforementioned approach, the seed-mediated co-reduction (SMCR) method is also powerful in the synthesis of nanocrystals with alloyed shells with well-defined shapes and compositions.<sup>309</sup> This approach involves a simultaneous reduction of two metal precursors to deposit bimetallic nanocrystals onto well-controlled seeds. Note that the shape of the seeds can be well transferred to the alloyed shells. This method was initially developed by Skrabalak and co-workers to prepare octahedral nanocrystals with alloyed Au–Pd shells.<sup>296</sup> In a typical synthesis, AA as a reducing agent was added into a solution containing Au seeds, H<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub>, HAuCl<sub>4</sub>, and cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), followed by keeping the system undisturbed at 25 °C for 0.5 h. In this specific case, it seems that the small lattice mismatch between Au and Pd (~4%), the high stability of Au seeds to prevent galvanic replacement, and easy co-reduction of Au and Pd precursors are the key parameters of SMCR. Importantly, they found that the size and shape of the final products could be well-controlled by tuning the size and shape of the seeds, the pH of the solution, and the metal precursor ratios. However, for those compositions with a larger lattice mismatch, it is still a great challenge to yield alloyed nanostructures in SMCR as generally the large lattice mismatch could result in a phase-separation and island growth rather than conformal deposition during a seed-mediated synthesis. A recent study conducted by the same group demonstrated that random alloy formation and conformal overgrowth are possible in such a system with high lattice mismatch.<sup>237</sup> Specifically, the codeposition of Pd and Cu elements (7% mismatch for Pd–Cu) onto Pd NCbs was achieved in SMCR, where H<sub>2</sub>PdCl<sub>4</sub> and CuCl<sub>2</sub> were coreduced by AA in a solution containing Pd seeds and CTAB. Similarly, the morphology and element distribution of the resultant



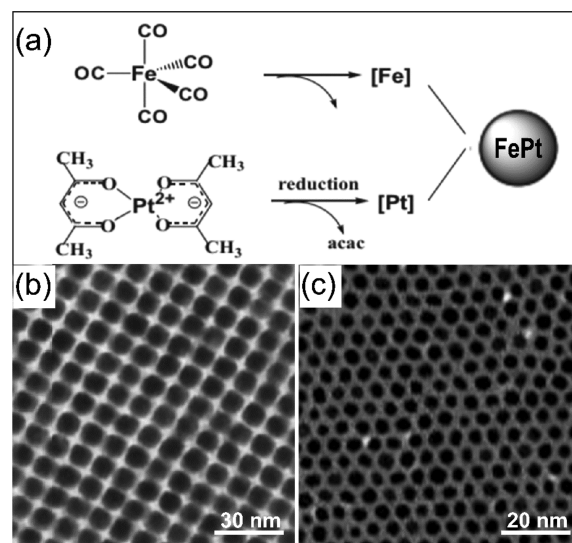
nanocrystals can be readily tuned by adjusting the reaction kinetics of two metal precursors. This study further deepens our understanding of SMCR as a general strategy to synthesize multicomponent nanocrystals with structurally defined nanocrystals.

One more impressive development in seed-mediated synthesis is the construction of heteronanostructured nanocrystals via a site-selective codeposition of binary or ternary metallic random alloy onto the well-defined seeds. In this approach, it is of critical importance to purposely select the growth or control growth rates on different facets of metal seeds, depicted previously.<sup>238,310–313</sup> Chen and co-workers have demonstrated this site-selective seeded growth approach in two steps:<sup>310</sup> (1) synthesizing the well-defined Cu seeds; (2) site-selectively depositing PdCu or PtCu random alloy onto the Cu seeds, yielding bimetallic heterodimer nanocrystals. The key to the successful synthesis mainly relies on judiciously adjusting the reduction kinetics of Cu. More importantly, this approach can also be applied to other systems that utilize CdS nanorods as the seeds for selectively depositing PtNi or PtCo random alloy onto the tips of nanorods.<sup>311</sup> However, it is not always effective to achieve site-selective growth by merely tuning the reduction rate of different precursors. It is often necessary to precoat a protecting shell on specific crystal facets to suppress subsequent deposition on these facets, thereby significantly benefiting an anisotropic growth. A typical example was demonstrated by Wang and co-workers,<sup>238</sup> who preferentially coated a silver layer on the side surface of Au nanobipyramids, followed by codepositing Ag and Pd at their tips. Interestingly, Au nanorods can also be used as the seeds for overgrowth of AgPd or AgPt random alloy at their tips, further demonstrating the generality of this approach.<sup>238</sup>

### 3.3. Thermal Decomposition

The thermal decomposition of organometallic compounds is a powerful and versatile approach to prepare a variety of highly monodisperse random alloy nanocrystals.<sup>57,314–325</sup> It has been proven that this approach is especially suitable for metal precursors that are difficult to be reduced through a wet-chemical reduction approach with relatively low reduction potentials (e.g., Ni-, Fe-, and Co-precursors). Generally, this approach combines reduction and decomposition processes and chooses some common organometallic compounds, such as including carbonyls, acetylacetonates, and cupferronates, as the precursors that can readily decompose under heating. Similar to the co-reduction approach, all the synthetic factors including solvent, capping agents, surfactants, the molar ratio of the metal precursors, as well as reaction time and temperature, play a critical role in tuning the size, shape, and composition of the resultant random alloy nanocrystals. One successful example was demonstrated by Sun and co-workers, where PtFe random alloy nanocrystals with tunable composition were synthesized by simultaneous reduction of Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> and thermal decomposition of Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> with a long-chain 1,2-hexadecanediol as a reducing agent in the presence of OA and OAm as both the solvent and stabilizer.<sup>323</sup> In this case, Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> is reduced to zerovalent Pt atoms while Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> is synergetically decomposed to zerovalent Fe atoms at an appropriately high temperature. It was observed that the composition of the as-prepared random alloy nanocrystals could be readily controlled by manipulating the molar ratio between Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>. It was reported that the

feeding ratio between Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> and Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub> was not the same as the Fe/Pt composition ratio in the resultant PtFe random alloy nanocrystals as Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> was hard to completely decompose due to its low decomposition rate. For a given composition in an alloy product, an appropriate tuning of the input precursor ratio is necessary. Later, the same group further optimized this approach to achieve the synthesis of size-, shape-, and composition-controlled PtFe nanocrystals (Figure 7).<sup>239</sup> They found that the overall size of resultant

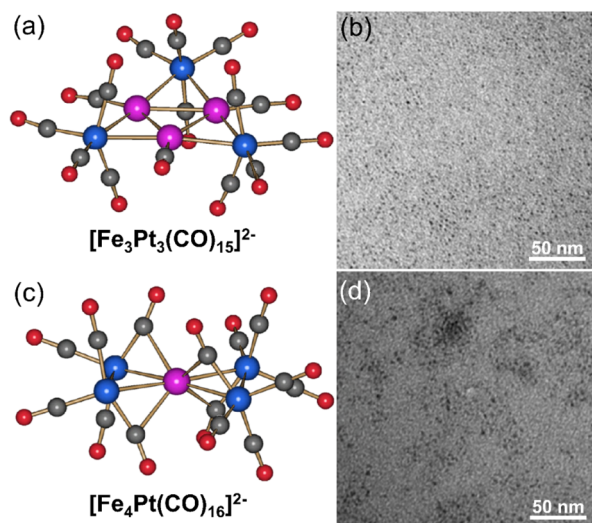


**Figure 7.** (a) Schematically illustrating the formation of FePt random alloy nanocrystals via thermal decomposition. TEM images of (b) typical 6 nm Fe<sub>50</sub>Pt<sub>50</sub> random alloy nanocubes and (c) FePt spherical nanocrystals. (a,b) Adapted with permission from ref 239 and modified. Copyright 2006 WILEY-VCH. (c) Adapted from ref 324 and modified. Copyright 2004 American Chemical Society.

nanocrystals could be greatly affected by the nucleation rate. A faster nucleation rate generates nanocrystals in smaller sizes, whereas a slower nucleation rate yields larger nanocrystals. As a result, the synthesis without the use of an additional reducing agent led to the formation of larger PtFe nanocrystals. Furthermore, they demonstrated that the morphology of resultant nanocrystals could be tuned by adjusting the synthetic parameters, including the feeding molar ratio of stabilizer to the precursor, addition sequence of the precursors and stabilizers, heating temperature, and heating ramp rate.<sup>240</sup> In this synthesis, PtFe NCbs could be synthesized by altering the addition sequence of OA and OAm and the molar ratio of Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub> to Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>. Once the OA was first introduced into the reaction solution, the cubic Pt-rich nuclei were quickly formed derived from the strong tendency of OA to bind to Fe. Subsequently, preferentially depositing the Fe-rich species on the {100} planes led to the formation of cubic PtFe nanocrystals. In comparison, the PtFe nanowires in an average length of >200 nm could be prepared when only OAm was introduced, since OAm could form an elongated reverse-micelle to limit the radial growth under the synthetic conditions. By further replacing the OAm with a mixed solvent containing of OAm and ODE, the shorter PtFe nanowires could be produced. In short, a great deal of similar thermal decomposition approaches have been widely used for the controlled synthesis of well-defined random alloy nanocrystals.



In some cases, when the reduction rates or thermal decomposition rate of the two metal precursors involved in one reaction system could not be well matched, it is possible to form separate monometallic phases instead of the random alloy phase. However, these problems can be easily overcome by using single-source molecular precursors containing two kinds of metals that possess stable metal–metal bonds within the precursor molecules. The composition of the final product is largely associated with the composition of the bimetallic precursors. For example, as demonstrated by Lukehart and co-workers, FePt random alloy nanocrystals in size of 5.8 nm were synthesized by thermally decomposing presynthesized  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{15}$  in toluene as the solvent in the presence of OAm and OA as the surfactants.<sup>326</sup> Specifically,  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Fe}_3(\text{CO})_{15}$  as a bimetallic precursor could be easily prepared by reacting  $\text{Fe}(\text{CO})_5$  with tris(norbornylene)-platinum(0). In another report, Thanh and co-workers synthesized a series of random alloy nanocrystals through the thermal decomposition of different types of molecular bimetallic carbonyl clusters anions, such as  $[\text{Fe}_3\text{Pt}_3(\text{CO})_{15}]^{2-}$ ,  $[\text{Fe}_4\text{Pt}(\text{CO})_{16}]^{2-}$ ,  $[\text{FeCo}_3(\text{CO})_{12}]^{1-}$ , and  $[\text{FeNi}_5(\text{CO})_{13}]^{2-}$ , instead of neutral bimetallic carbonyl clusters (Figure 8).<sup>327</sup> They ultimately



**Figure 8.** Atomic models of bimetallic carbonyl complexes, for example, (a)  $[\text{Fe}_3\text{Pt}_3(\text{CO})_{15}]^{2-}$  and (c)  $[\text{Fe}_4\text{Pt}(\text{CO})_{16}]^{2-}$ , that have been used as precursors for preparing bimetallic nanocrystals (red = O, gray = C, blue = Fe, and purple = Pt). TEM images of the corresponding (b) bimetallic FePt nanocrystals and (d)  $\text{Fe}_4\text{Pt}$  nanocrystals derived from the above-mentioned precursors. Adapted from ref 327 and modified. Copyright 2009 American Chemical Society.

concluded that the composition of the resultant random alloy nanocrystals (e.g., FePt,  $\text{Fe}_4\text{Pt}$ ,  $\text{FeCo}_3$ , and  $\text{FeNi}_5$ ) mainly depended on a metal fraction in the precursor. It is worth noting that, as precursors, molecular bimetallic carbonyl clusters are much easier to decompose as compared with molecular bimetallic carbonyl clusters anions in the context of the practical synthesis, due to the absence of extra ligands in the former. As a result, the size of the resultant random alloy nanocrystals is generally much smaller when the former is used in the synthesis. In brief, the thermal decomposition approach provides a simple but effective route for generating random alloy nanocrystals with precise control over the composition.

### 3.4. Galvanic Replacement

Galvanic replacement provides a particularly facile and versatile approach to prepare a wide variety of hollow random alloy nanocrystals with precisely controlled sizes, shapes, and elemental compositions. Galvanic replacement reaction is an electrochemical process that typically involves the oxidation of one metal (often referred to as a sacrificial template) by the ions of another metal with a more positive reduction potential.<sup>51,230,243,328–344</sup> In this process, the metal ions will be rapidly reduced by capturing the electrons from the template and then deposited onto the exterior of the template, while the pristine template will be oxidized to metal ions from special sites and dissolved into the solution due to the favorable difference in the reduction potentials of the two metals. As a result, the final product typically inherits the shape of the original template, except for a slight increment in dimensions. It should be emphasized that the addition of the secondary metal ion and subsequent galvanic replacement process must be carefully manipulated to ensure that the developed shape of the preprepared metal template will not be destroyed.

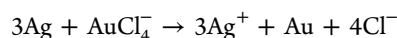
As mentioned above, the driving force for galvanic replacement reaction originates from the difference in the reduction potentials from both metals involved. The potential difference ( $\Delta E$ ) can be derived using the Nernst equation:

$$\Delta E = \Delta E^0 + (RT/nF)\ln Q \quad (6)$$

where  $\Delta E^0$  is the difference of standard potentials between both metals involved at 25 °C,  $R$  is the ideal gas constant,  $T$  is the Kelvin temperature,  $n$  is the molar number of electrons transferred in the redox reaction,  $F$  is Faraday's constant, and  $Q$  is the reaction quotient based on the concentrations of the reactants and products at a given time. According to equation 6, the actual potential difference of the reduction potentials ( $\Delta E$ ) is strongly determined by the concentrations of relevant ions and temperature, as well as the involvement of other nonstandard conditions. Additionally,  $\Delta E$  can also be evaluated by the associated change in Gibbs free energy ( $\Delta G$ ):

$$\Delta G = -nF\Delta E \quad (7)$$

A spontaneous galvanic replacement reaction will easily occur once a system has a positive  $\Delta E$ , leading to a negative  $\Delta G$ . A notable example is the galvanic replacement reaction between Ag NCbs and  $\text{HAuCl}_4$  as reported in previous work.<sup>241</sup> Note that Ag has a relatively low reduction potential as compared with  $\text{Au}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Pd}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Pt}^{2+}$ . The  $\text{Au}^{3+}$ -involved overall reaction in this process can be summarized as follows:

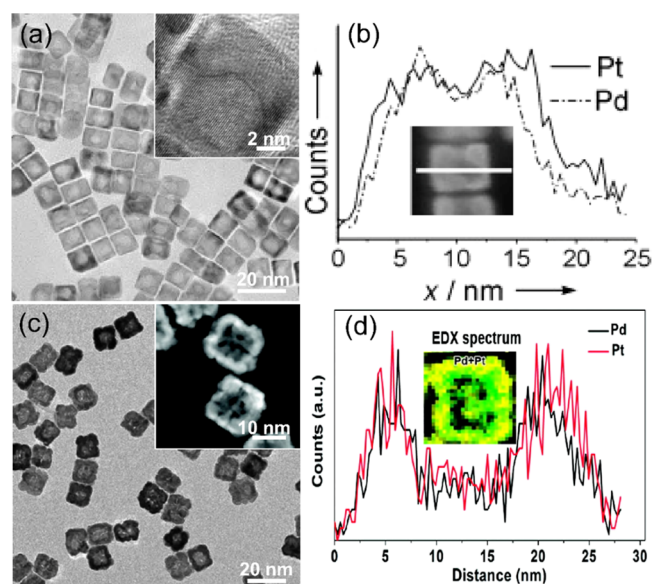


Typically, the galvanic replacement will immediately occur once an aqueous  $\text{HAuCl}_4$  solution is introduced to a suspension of Ag NCbs. It was observed that the reaction generally initiated at those sites of the Ag NCbs with defects, stacking faults, or steps that possess the highest surface energy. In this galvanic replacement reaction, Ag atoms are gradually oxidized to  $\text{Ag}^+$  ions and dissolved into solution, while the generated electrons are quickly captured by  $\text{Au}^{3+}$  ions to produce Au atoms through a reduction process. The newly yielded Au atoms tend to deposit epitaxially on the surface of the Ag template while the lattice mismatch between Ag and Au is small (4.086 vs 4.078 Å for Ag and Au, respectively). It is believed that the formation of a thin and incomplete layer of

Au on the Ag template in the early stages can effectively prevent the underneath Ag from being oxidized. Meanwhile, some formed pits on the surface, accompanying the successive Au deposition, can serve as the reaction channel for the continuous dissolution of Ag, resulting in the formation of a hollow structure. As a result, the formation of the Au–Ag random alloy as the final product is theoretically possible because Ag and Au have similar lattice parameters and the resultant random alloy structure should be more thermodynamically stable as compared with the phase-segregated structure. Inspired by this work, a large variety of shapes (e.g., spheres, rods, and wires) and other templates (e.g., Co, Ni, and Cu) have also been involved in the syntheses of random alloy nanocrystals using this galvanic replacement approach.

Recently, Huang and co-workers reported a one-pot synthesis of rhombic dodecahedral PtCu random alloy NFs with an average size of 17 nm by reducing a mixture of  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$  and  $\text{CuCl}_2$  with glucose as the reducing agent in the presence of OAm and OA as both the solvent and stabilizer.<sup>345</sup> They carried out a systematic study by screening the appropriate precursors, reducing agents, and optimizing the volume ratio between OAm and OA under the same conditions. They found that the generation of rhombic dodecahedral PtCu random alloy NFs was mainly attributed to the initial formation of Cu nanocrystals and subsequent galvanic replacement between Cu nanocrystals and  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$  at elevated temperatures. To better control the degree of galvanic replacement, moreover, a relatively low concentration of metal precursors is generally required to be added to partially react with the templates, triggering the selective deposition on the surface of the templates, thereby generating nanocrystals with different structures. This strategy was demonstrated by Xue and co-workers, who prepared triangular PdAg random alloy NFs by utilizing Ag nanoprisms as the templates.<sup>244</sup> By altering the adding amount of the  $\text{H}_2\text{PdCl}_4$  solution, the ridge thickness of the resultant PdAg random alloy NFs could be readily tuned from 4.0 to 9.2 nm, due to the preferential deposition on the prism edges with high-energy {100} facets. It is noteworthy that introducing a template-selective etchant is also necessary for this approach to completely remove the template and promote the formation of alloy.

Another effective route for facilitating a galvanic replacement reaction is to introduce coordination ligands into a reaction system to accelerate the reaction kinetics, since the use of coordination ligands can dramatically alter the reduction potentials of the metal ions and thus move the equilibrium toward the direction of galvanic replacement. It is believed that the driving force in the galvanic replacement reaction is the potential difference between metal ions and the template. Due to the strong coordination effect, the metal ions will quickly transform into more stable species once the coordination ligands are added. Therefore, the potential difference between the as-formed species and the template will be enhanced, thereby promoting an occurrence of the galvanic replacement at a faster rate. A successful example was demonstrated by Zheng and co-workers who synthesized hollow PdPt random alloy NCs using iodide ions in a one-step one-pot synthesis to achieve the temporal separation of template formation and galvanic replacement reaction (Figure 9a,b).<sup>243</sup> In a typical synthesis, a mixture of  $\text{Pd}(\text{acac})_2$ ,  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$ , NaI, PVP, and DMF was transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel



**Figure 9.** TEM image of (a) Pd–Pt hollow nanocubes and (b) the corresponding line-scanning profile across a hollow Pd–Pt nanocube. The insets in panels (a) and (b) are HRTEM and HAADF-STEM images of a single hollow Pd–Pt nanocube, respectively. TEM image of (c) the Pd–Pt random alloy nanocages prepared via galvanic replacement and (d) the corresponding line-scanning profile across a Pd–Pt random alloy nanocage. The insets in panels (c) and (d) are HAADF-STEM image and the EDX elemental mapping of a single Pd–Pt random alloy nanocage, respectively. (a,b) Adapted with permission from ref 243 and modified. Copyright 2009 WILEY-VCH. (c,d) Adapted from ref 330 and modified. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society.

autoclave. The system was then heated to 150 °C and maintained for 8 h. Importantly, the addition of iodide ions to the reaction solution led to a generation of  $[\text{PdI}_4]^{2-}$  as the dominating precursor that could be easily reduced in DMF as compared to  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$ . Combined with transmission electron microscopy (TEM), energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), and inductively coupled plasma (ICP) analyses, they identified that Pd NCs formed first, followed by a galvanic replacement reaction with  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$  to generate 12.5 nm hollow PdPt random alloy NCs during the synthesis. Furthermore, they demonstrated the types of precursors and the reducing agent, and reaction temperature could significantly affect the reduction process of the Pd and Pt precursors, effectively preventing their co-reduction from occurring. Therefore, they believed that the simultaneous use of iodide ions and acetylacetonate precursors played an essential role in effectively separating the formation of the template and subsequent galvanic replacement reaction, resulting in the successful synthesis of hollow random alloy nanocrystals. Most recently, Xia and co-workers further demonstrated that instead of iodide ions, bromide ions could also be used to play the same role.<sup>331,334</sup> It was found that the bromide ions could be strongly complexed with  $\text{Pt}^{2+}$  ions and markedly facilitate the galvanic replacement while at the same time preserving the shape of the template through selective adsorption.

Besides, the random alloy nanocrystals can also be synthesized by combining the galvanic replacement with co-reduction. This approach involves simply introducing a reducing agent into a reaction solution. Aiming at preparing alloy nanocrystals with desired nanostructures, it is of critical



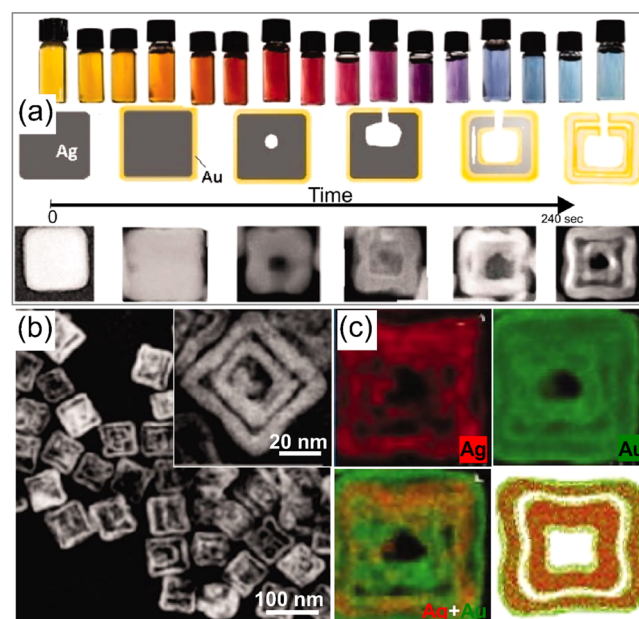
importance to rationally manipulate both the rates of co-reduction and galvanic replacement reactions. Xia and co-workers established an approach to synthesize the hollow Pd–Pt random alloy nanocages by introducing citric acid (CA) as the reducing agent into a mixture containing Pd NCbs,  $\text{K}_2\text{PtCl}_4$ , KBr, and PVP (Figure 9c,d).<sup>330</sup> Because of the selective adsorption of bromide ions on the {100} facets of the Pd NCbs, the galvanic replacement reaction was initiated at the side faces of the Pd NCbs, promoting the generation of Pd concave nanocubes (CNCs) in the early stage. After this step, both the  $\text{Pt}^{2+}$  and the generating  $\text{Pd}^{2+}$  ions were reduced to atoms by CA and the newly formed Pt and Pd atoms were then codeposited on the CNC as a Pd–Pt random alloy shell. With the reaction proceeded, the interior of Pd CNCs was gradually dissolved through the galvanic replacement reaction, eventually yielding hollow Pd–Pt random alloy nanocages. Meanwhile, if CA was replaced by AA that has a stronger reducing power during the synthesis, the morphology of the final product would switch from nanocages to nanodendrites as the reduction of Pt precursor was accelerated and the reaction rate of galvanic replacement was thus decreased. As such, the morphology of the resultant nanocrystals was confirmed to be sensitive to both the rates of co-reduction and galvanic replacement reactions. This general approach has also been extended to the Au–Ag and Pt–Ag systems.<sup>339,346–348</sup> In a recent report, Qin and co-workers reported their synthesis of Au–Ag random alloy nanocages with Ag-enriched walls by utilizing AA as a reducing agent in the presence of NaOH.<sup>242</sup> Note that the reducing power of AA could be observably increased with the pH of a solution. As a result, the released  $\text{Ag}^+$  ions, that were formed through the galvanic replacement reaction between Ag NCbs and  $\text{HAuCl}_4$ , were immediately reduced to Ag atoms and redeposited onto the surface of the Ag NCbs, resulting in a formation of hollow Au–Ag random alloy nanostructures with >80% of Ag in the original template being preserved in the walls.

### 3.5. Kirkendall Effect

It has garnered increasing attention that hollow random alloy nanocrystals with tunable structures and compositions can now be prepared uniquely using a nanoscale Kirkendall effect. The nanoscale Kirkendall effect is a common phenomenon involving an unequal mutual diffusion rate at the interface of coupled materials.<sup>349–354</sup> Usually, when the inward diffusion rate of metal is significantly lower than the outward diffusion rate of another metal, the lattice vacancies would be continuously generated at the boundaries, resulting in a hollow structure. The synthesis of hollow random alloy nanocrystals via Kirkendall effect is a two-step process: (i) synthesizing the well-defined solid metal nanocrystals and (ii) adding second metal-containing precursors into the solution to trigger the reaction with the presynthesized nanocrystals. It should be noted that, since these two metals have relatively large differences in diffusion rate, the unequal atom flow could lead to the continuous generation of vacancies at the interface between these two metals and subsequent condensation of excess vacancies to form void or gap. For example, Wei and co-workers reported their synthesis of hollow PtFe random alloy nanocrystals with a Pt-skin surface via space-confined pyrolysis and the nanoscale Kirkendall effect. They found that, in the presence of the Fe precursor, the solid Pt nanocrystals, covering by a polydopamine layer onto the surface, could be completely transformed into hollow PtFe random alloy

nanocrystals with a nitrogen-doped carbon-shell upon heating. It was identified that the formation of hollow alloy nanocrystals was mainly due to the faster outward diffusion rate of Pt as compared with the inward diffusion rate of Fe during the  $\text{H}_2$ -assisted high-temperature annealing. It is worth noting that the presence of the polydopamine layer could strongly adsorb the Fe ions via chelating effect and be employed to create a confined space for alleviating nanocrystal sintering.<sup>103</sup>

The nanoscale Kirkendall effect can also be applied to precise control of the random alloy nanocrystals in their morphology and composition. Puentes and co-workers developed a synthetic approach to prepare polymetallic hollow nanocrystals with various morphologies and compositions by the simultaneous or sequential action of galvanic replacement with the Kirkendall effect at room temperature (Figure 10).<sup>245</sup>



**Figure 10.** (a) Optical and morphological changes and the corresponding HAADF-STEM images of AuAg double-walled nanoboxes. (b) HAADF-STEM image of AuAg double-walled nanoboxes. The inset in panel (b) is HAADF-STEM image of a single AuAg double-walled nanobox. (c) EDX elemental mapping of Ag (red) and Au (green) for bimetallic AuAg nanoboxes. Reproduced with permission from ref 245. Copyright 2011 AAAS.

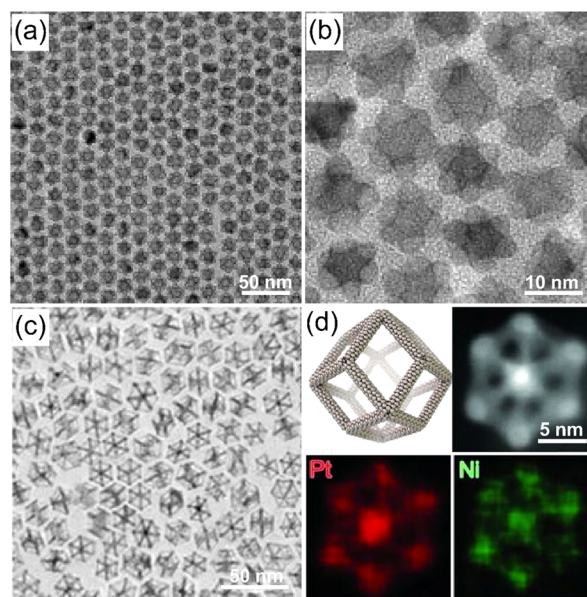
In this case, Ag nanocrystals were used as templates in the presence of CTAB as the surfactant and complexing agent and AA as the reducing agent. A series of nanocrystals with different levels of the hierarchical structure was readily formed at room temperature when Au, Pd, or Pt as the oxidizing agents were introduced into the reaction solution. They concluded that the use of CTAB could significantly decrease the reducing ability of AA and drive the Kirkendall effect to take place. Specifically, it was demonstrated that the formation of the cavity via galvanic replacement and subsequent Au deposition on the surface would benefit the generation of a unique nanostructure composed of a thin film of silver between two layers of gold as a diffusion intermetallic couple. This unique nanostructure could result in void formation beneath the surface since the diffusion rate of Ag in Au is faster than that of Au in Ag. Subsequently, the coalescence of excess voids promoted the formation of a continuous cavity parallel to the surface of the template, allowing the inner wall to be coated



with gold. This method can be further extended to a preparation of trimetallic structures of the Pd–Au–Ag double-walled nano box with an Ag core, coated with a PdAu random alloy layer. Despite the success of the hollow interior formation via the nanoscale Kirkendall effect in these syntheses, it might still require more evidence to strongly support this hypothesis. To this end, Mirsaidov and co-workers later experimentally verified the mechanism of the Kirkendall effect by using a liquid cell TEM to directly observe the structural transformation of Ag NCs in the presence of Au ions.<sup>355</sup> They uncovered the structural evolution from Ag NCs to hollow structure mainly stemming from the nucleation and growth of voids at the interface between Ag and Au via the coupled action of galvanic replacement and the Kirkendall effect. They further manifested that the Au ion concentration, the oxidation state of Au, and the reaction temperature played an essential role in controllably achieving the structural transition. In summary, approaches based on the nanoscale Kirkendall effect show many advantages in the preparation of hollow nanocrystals with well-defined size and shape as compared to other methods.

### 3.6. Oxidative Etching

Oxidative etching approach provides access to a large number of random alloy nanocrystals that are unattainable through simple co-reduction, seed-mediated growth, thermal decomposition, or galvanic replacement. This approach typically involves oxidation of zerovalent species, such as atoms, clusters, and seeds, to ionic forms by oxidative etchant (e.g.,  $O_2$ ,  $CO$ ,  $H_2O_2$ ,  $Fe(III)$  species), together with corrosive species and/or coordination ligands for the metal ions.<sup>71,246,356–362</sup> As a result, the oxidative etching approach is essential to achieve the precise control over the nucleation and growth of nanocrystals based on the synergetic effect of oxidation and reduction reactions involved. For instance, Li and co-workers synthesized concave Pt–Ni random alloy nanocrystals using dimethylglyoxime as a selective coordination ligand for Ni in solution (Figure 11a,b).<sup>246</sup> In this work, the as-synthesized PtNi octahedra nanocrystals were completely converted to concave Pt–Ni random alloy nanocrystals by selective coordination of dimethylglyoxime to Ni and subsequent chemical etching using dilute acetic acid. The chemical etching time plays a crucial role in controlling the concavity degree of the resultant random alloy nanocrystals precisely. Similarly, Yang and co-workers prepared hollow  $Pt_3Ni$  rhombic dodecahedra NFs by employing oxidative etching with the assistance of OAm as the coordination ligand in an organic solution containing hexane and chloroform (Figure 11c,d).<sup>220</sup> They first synthesized  $PtNi_3$  rhombic dodecahedra nanocrystals in size of 20 nm using an OAm-mediated approach and then stored them in hexane and chloroform for 2 weeks in ambient conditions. The presence of dissolved  $O_2$  could promote the oxidation of Ni surface, yielding soluble metal complexes through the coordination of OAm. Using a series of characterization techniques, including HRTEM, EDX, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), they demonstrated that the as-obtained  $PtNi_3$  rhombic dodecahedra nanocrystals underwent both structural and compositional transformation into hollow  $Pt_3Ni$  NFs with the same shape, revealing that the dissolution of Ni initially proceeded in the interior of the polyhedra, rather than on the edges, due to an inhomogeneous elemental distribution in the parent structure.



**Figure 11.** (a) TEM and (b) magnified TEM images of the  $PtNi_2$  random alloy nanocrystals synthesized via oxidative etching. (c) TEM image of hollow  $Pt_3Ni$  nanoframes. (d) Structural model, HAADF-STEM image, and the corresponding EDX elemental mapping of Pt (red) and Ni (green) for a single hollow  $Pt_3Ni$  nanoframe. (a,b) Reproduced with permission from ref 246. Copyright 2012 WILEY-VCH. (c,d) Adapted with permission from ref 220 and modified. Copyright 2014 AAAS.

Except for the solution phase, the oxidative etching approach could also be carried out via annealing in the gas atmosphere. Fang and co-workers demonstrated that  $Pt_3Ni$  tetrahedral nanoframes (THH NFs) in the average size of  $\sim 22$  nm could be harvested by annealing the as-prepared carbon-supported  $PtNi_4$  THH nanocrystals in the presence of  $CO$  as a gaseous etchant.<sup>68</sup> They reported that the selective removal of Ni from the  $PtNi_4$  THH precursors was mainly attributed to the formation of the volatile  $Ni(CO)_4$  complexes under  $CO$  atmosphere at elevated temperatures. By carrying out a series of control experiments with different annealing times, they concluded that the surface Ni atoms were preferentially etched along the  $\langle 100 \rangle$  direction, driving the continuous segregation of Ni on the outermost layer, thereby forming the stable hollow THH NFs with a distribution of Pt component at specific positions.

## 4. SYNTHETIC APPROACHES TO INTERMETALLIC NANOCRYSTALS

Benefiting from the great efforts by many research groups, we extensively searched literature that describes synthetic protocols of intermetallic nanocrystal preparation with well-tunable properties. As discussed in section 2.1, noble metal-based random alloy nanocrystals, such as  $Pt-M'$  ( $M' = Fe, Co, Ni, Mn$ , etc.), are usually yielded at a synthesis temperature, whereas their ordered intermetallic counterparts are normally generated through relatively high-temperature annealing, despite some exceptions such as the  $Pt_3Sn$  system (*vide infra*). In terms of the phase of the converted nanocrystals, as shown in Table 1,  $Pt_3M'$  intermetallics typically possess a cubic structure ( $Cu_3Au$ -type,  $Pm\bar{3}m$ ) but  $PtM'$  intermetallics generally have a tetragonal structure ( $AuCu$ -type,  $P4/mmm$ ). In this chapter, we mainly focus on

the most commonly practiced synthetic approaches and discuss the recent progress of these intermetallic conversion strategies. It should be worth noting that parts of these methods would generate analogous products derived from homophyly reaction routes or basic mechanisms. It is also very common to synthesize nanocrystals with complex structures by a combination of two or more different synthetic strategies. Table 3 summarizes some representative examples concerning the synthesis of intermetallic nanocrystals using various approaches.

**Table 3. Summary of Some Representative Intermetallic Nanocrystals Obtained from Various Synthetic Approaches**

synthetic approach	metal composition	morphology	reference
thermal annealing	Pt <sub>3</sub> Co, Pt <sub>3</sub> Ti	nanosphere	refs 131 and 165
	PtFe loaded on carbon	nanosphere	ref 363
	Pt <sub>5</sub> Ce	nanosphere	ref 364
	PtFe, PtSn, PtZn	nanosphere	refs 365–367
liquid-phase-based method	PtPb@Pt	nanoplate	ref 120
	PtPb	nanorod	ref 368
	PdCu	nanocube	ref 369
	AuPtFe, AuCu	nanosphere	refs 98 and 370
	PdSn, PtSn, AuSn	hollow nanosphere and nanorod	refs 371 and 372
	PtCu <sub>3</sub>	nanocage	ref 373
	Pt <sub>3</sub> Sn	nanocube, concave nanocube	ref 374
	PtNi	excavated nanomultipod	ref 375
other synthetic methods	PtFe, PtPb, PtGa	nanosphere	refs 213, 376, and 377

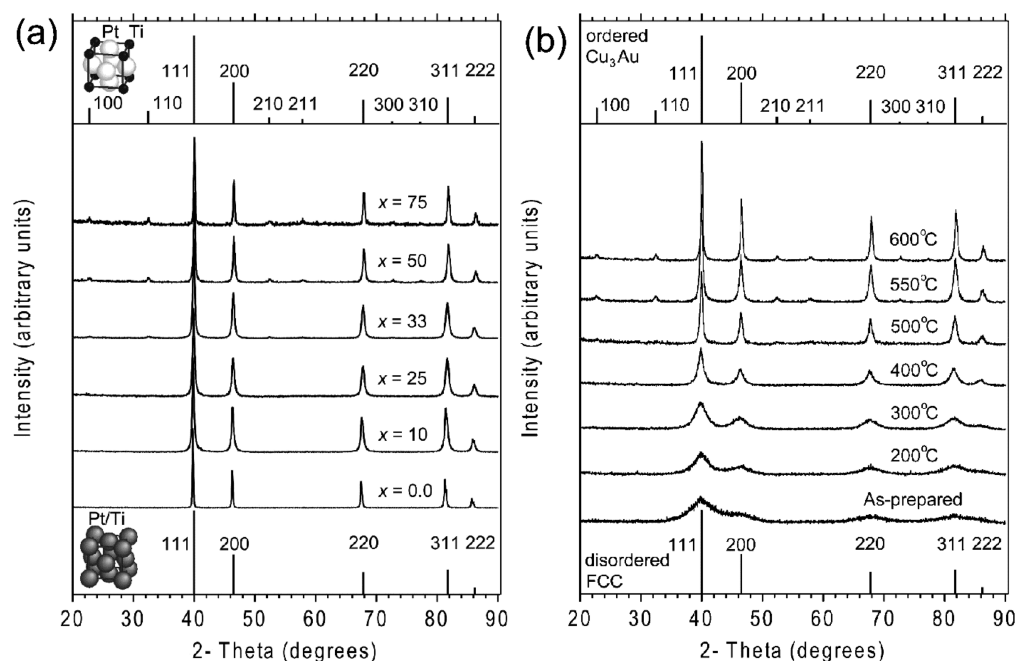
#### 4.1. Thermal Annealing

In the overview of thermodynamic and kinetic analyses, a random alloyed structure is more prevalent than the intermetallic variants when a synthesis is maintained below the disorder-to-order transition temperature. At elevated temperature, thermal annealing for a sufficient period is arguably the most straightforward and powerful strategy for generating the intermetallic nanocrystals by facilitating the arrangement of metal atoms and d-d orbital interactions. This method has proven effective for the formation of a variety of both bi- or trimetallic intermetallic nanocrystals, as well as intermetallic semiconductor and superconducting nanocrystals.<sup>128,165,378–384</sup> Overall, thermal annealing can lead to a large number of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals, where the atom ordering degree can be easily tailored by varying experimental parameters such as the annealing temperature, annealing time, and the nature of support and protecting template.

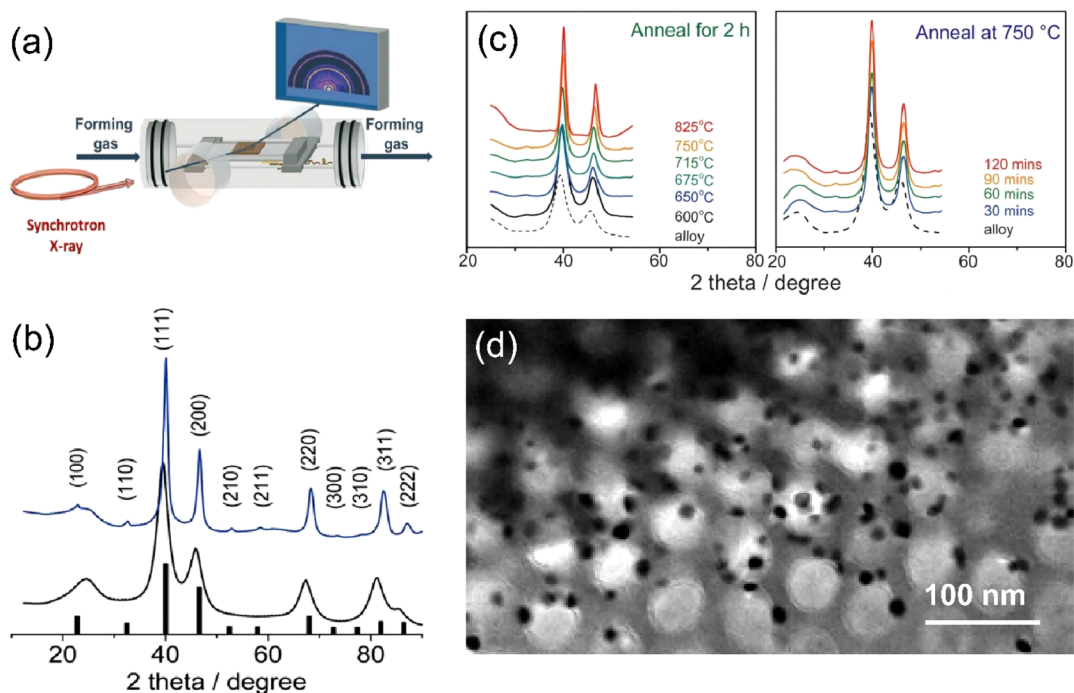
**4.1.1. Direct Annealing.** Direct annealing is the most widely adopted protocol by far to the generation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals.<sup>385–399</sup> In this process, as-prepared nanocrystals with random characteristics serve as primary intermediates for the conversion into intermetallic nanocrystals with ordered atomic arrangement via thermal treatment in an atmosphere or vacuum. It is often required to have annealing at high temperatures and/or long times due to the relatively high kinetic barriers involved in the atomic ordering. Such a process may cause a nanocrystal aggregation and/or sintering through

Oswald ripening, leading to physical structure changes and thus impacting the critical disorder-to-order transition temperature. For example, Abruña, DiSalvo, and co-workers demonstrated that the as-synthesized atomically disordered Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti nanocrystals were converted into atomically ordered Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti nanocrystals via thermal treatment in vacuum at temperature starting at 500 °C (Figure 12).<sup>165</sup> Note that when the annealing temperature exceeds 550 °C, additional peaks assigned to the 100, 110, 210, 211, 300, and 310 ordering reflections of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti begin to be visible in the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern. Further increase of the annealing temperature to 600 °C could increase the intensity of the above-mentioned superlattice peaks compared with the fundamental peaks, demonstrating that the annealing temperature is an important parameter to tune the ordering degree of the as-obtained nanocrystals. Therefore, to completely convert Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti nanocrystals from a disordered phase to the ordered structure with a Pm $\bar{3}$ m space group, referred to as Cu<sub>3</sub>Au-type structure, an annealing temperature between 550 and 600 °C is required to promote both Pt and Ti atoms interdiffusion. However, the annealing process at or above the disorder-to-order transition temperature inevitably leads to a dramatic increase of particle size, as well as a formation of a thermodynamically stable polyhedral shape to minimize the total surface energy. As evidenced by TEM analysis, the as-synthesized Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti nanocrystals in the disordered phase are in the average size of 3 nm, whereas the nanocrystals could grow to 37 nm after annealing at 600 °C with an ordered intermetallic crystal phase. It is hard to control the nanocrystal size in this approach. Particularly, the polydispersity of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti nanocrystals with an atomically ordered structure would make it difficult to extract structure–function relationships for the practical electrocatalytic application. Therefore, it is critical to achieving the disorder-to-order transition, while maintaining the size and shape of the as-developed intermetallic nanocrystals simultaneously.

By regulating *in situ* annealing conditions in a scanning transmission electron microscope (Figure 1), Chi and co-workers synthesized and directly revealed a series of Pt<sub>3</sub>Co structures with different atom arrangements during thermal annealing, including face-centered cubic (*fcc*) and disordered Pt-rich shell on the randomly alloyed core, nucleation of structurally ordered domains, fully ordered L1<sub>2</sub> phase, and initiation of amorphization phase.<sup>131</sup> They found that structurally ordered domains of Pt<sub>3</sub>Co nanocrystals enclosed by predominant {100} facets could be formed by annealing at 600 °C for 20 min. By simply prolonging the annealing time at the same temperature, the formation of a fully ordered phase with a similar morphology became favorable. Furthermore, it was determined that an annealing temperature at as high as 800 °C was critically important in facilitating the formation of the amorphous phase with a rounded shape. It was also observed that the annealing environment in different gases could further tune the surface reshaping and atom diffusion of the Pt–Co nanocrystals. These results suggest that the evolution of surface area on each type of nanocrystal facets, such as {100}, {111}, and {110}, and diffusion behaviors are strongly correlated with the annealing conditions. In all, a broad range of similar approaches has been employed for the synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals, where a careful selection of annealing temperature, annealing time, and annealing atmosphere plays a crucial role in facilitating the degree of the ordering, size, and shape of the final product.



**Figure 12.** (a) XRD patterns of the Pt–Ti nanocrystals with different compositions that are annealed at 600 °C. Simulated XRD peaks for the disordered *fcc*-type and the ordered Cu<sub>3</sub>Au-type structures are indicated by solid markers at the bottom and the top of the figure, respectively, together with the corresponding structural models. (b) XRD patterns of the Pt–Ti nanocrystals annealed in vacuum at different temperatures. Simulated XRD peaks for the disordered *fcc*-type and the ordered Cu<sub>3</sub>Au-type structures are indicated by solid markers at the bottom and the top of the figure, respectively. Reproduced from ref 165. Copyright 2008 American Chemical Society.



**Figure 13.** (a) Schematic illustration of the homemade device for the *in situ* annealing and synchrotron-based XRD characterization. (b) XRD patterns of the annealed Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C (700 °C in a conventional tube furnace, the top) and the as-synthesized Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C (the middle) recorded using the homemade device. The lines on the bottom show standard XRD pattern of intermetallic Pt<sub>3</sub>Co (ICDD PDF card 01-071-7410). (c) *In situ* XRD patterns of Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C heated in the homemade device under forming gas as a function of the temperatures (left panel) and annealing time-dependent *in situ* XRD patterns heated at 750 °C in the homemade device under forming gas (right panel). Both dashed lines represent the as-synthesized Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C random alloy. (d) TEM image of ordered intermetallic FePt nanocrystals encapsulated in ordered mesopores. (a–c) Adapted with permission from ref 130 and modified. Copyright 2019 National Academy of Sciences, USA. (d) Adapted from ref 363 and modified. Copyright 2011 American Chemical Society.

**4.1.2. Support-Assisted Annealing.** Unlike direct annealing, in the support-assisted annealing approach, one is

generally required to deposit the nanocrystals on more stable supports with larger surface areas (e.g., porous carbon, porous

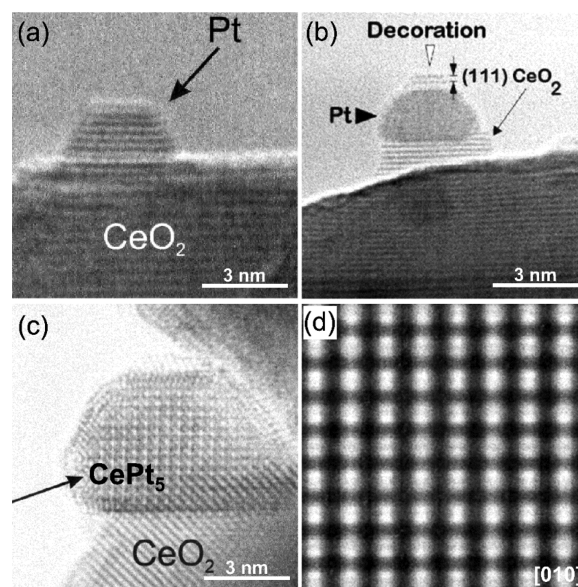


oxide/carbon composite, graphene, and carbon nanotubes) before the annealing is carried out to effectively mitigate nanocrystal aggregation/sintering during this thermal process.<sup>138,152,157,159,166,179,363,400–418</sup> It was found that the supports could well immobilize the nanocrystals and prevent them from migration at high temperatures, as their strong anchoring effects could greatly alleviate interparticle diffusion. Meanwhile, the presence of these supports can dramatically improve the electronic density of the nanocrystals and thus accelerate the electrocatalytic process. To avoid uncontrolled nanocrystal aggregation, however, a load of metal on the supports is generally required to be carefully considered before annealing. Carbon black is one of the most common supports extensively used in fuel cells and batteries. Abruña and co-workers demonstrated a successful example in monitoring the conversion of intermetallic phase Pt<sub>3</sub>Co loaded on a carbon support and also observed its intermetallic conversion behavior.<sup>130</sup> Carbon-supported Pt<sub>3</sub>Co (Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C) random alloy nanocrystals were prepared by a coreducing slurry of H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub> and CoCl<sub>2</sub> in the presence of Vulcan XC-72 carbon in a tube furnace at 300 °C under forming gas (5% H<sub>2</sub>/95% N<sub>2</sub>) for 2 h. The random alloy Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C was converted to its intermetallic phase through annealing at 700 °C in a conventional tube furnace. Their XRD patterns recorded using a synchrotron source in a homemade device (Figure 13a) are presented in Figure 13b, in which the intermetallic pattern (the top panel of Figure 13b) exhibited multiple superlattice ordering peaks with a distinguished “new peak” (the 110-peak) compared with the random alloy pattern (the middle panel of Figure 13b), and matches the standard XRD card of the ordered Pt<sub>3</sub>Co (PDF 01-071-7410, the bottom panel of Figure 13b) perfectly. The authors further heated the random alloy Pt<sub>3</sub>Co/C using the homemade device (Figure 13a) under forming gas for 2 h and collected its *in situ* synchrotron XRD patterns as a function of the annealing temperatures (the left panel of Figure 13c), identifying its critical phase-transition temperature ( $T_c = 750$  °C) under this condition. An increase of both fractions of the ordered phase and the average crystal domain sizes with increasing the annealing temperatures between 600 and 750 °C was also observed, which is similar to the behavior of the bulk Cu<sub>3</sub>Au and PtCo nanocrystals. At 750 °C (the optimal annealing temperature), heating time-dependent investigation indicated that 2 h was a sufficient time to achieve the conversion equilibrium with an average crystal domain size of 6 nm (the right panel of Figure 13c). Lee and co-workers also reported their synthesis of well-dispersed ordered intermetallic FePt nanocrystals inside ordered mesostructured silica/carbon composites through thermal annealing under mixed Ar/H<sub>2</sub> (5 wt %) (Figure 13d).<sup>363</sup> In the first step, the ordered mesostructured composites were formed via self-assembly of polyisoprene-blockpoly (ethylene oxide) (PI-b-PEO) block copolymers with aluminosilicate sols in the presence of a hydrophobic iron precursor (dimethylaminomethylferrocene) and a hydrophobic platinum precursor [dimethyl (1,5-cyclooctadiene) platinum(II)]. Next, the as-prepared composites were heated at 800 °C for 2 h, generating ordered intermetallic FePt nanocrystals encapsulated in the ordered mesopores. Interestingly, they found that the particle size of the resultant ordered intermetallic FePt nanocrystals could be readily tuned from 2.4 to 10 nm by varying the quantities of the Pt and Fe precursors in the solution. On the other side, one should keep in mind that an extremely high loading of the metals on the support could result in

uncontrolled nanocrystal aggregation toward larger nanocrystals eventually.

Nevertheless, support-assisted thermal activation is not always compelling to facilitate the disorder-to-order transition, as it might also create an opportunity to benefit the order-to-disorder conversion during the process. A notable example was recently reported by Tilley and co-workers.<sup>419</sup> They synthesized partially disordered Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn NCBs through low-temperature thermal annealing of ordered intermetallic Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn NCBs in air. In particular, the size and shape of the Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn nanocrystals could be well-preserved after thermal treatment at 200–250 °C. It should be mentioned that these temperatures seem to be around the critical phase-transition temperature of Pt<sub>3</sub>Sn nanocrystals. Therefore, they believed that a choice of the right temperature played a critical role in achieving the order-to-disorder transition. Such a phenomenon might also be observed in other bimetallic combinations with the development of synthetic techniques.

In the aforementioned studies, it seems that the simultaneous use of two or more metal precursors (except for the support) in a reaction system is crucial for the preparation of the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. However, it should be mentioned that, in some cases, strong metal–support interactions can be employed to synthesize ordered intermetallic nanocrystals on the interface between the nanocrystals and support under high-temperature annealing conditions, since some supports such as transition metal oxides, hydroxides, and carbides can act as the precursors of the metals under a reducing atmosphere.<sup>148,162,420–427</sup> This concept was demonstrated by Pérez-Omil and co-workers. They produced ordered intermetallic CePt<sub>5</sub> nanocrystals by reducing the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst at elevated temperatures in a reductive H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere (Figure 14).<sup>364</sup> Using the HRTEM technique combined with simulation, they carried out a systematic study and uncovered the structure evolution process



**Figure 14.** (a,b) HRTEM images recorded on the 4% Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals annealing at 773 K. (c) HRTEM image recorded on the 4% Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals annealing at 1173 K. (d) Image simulation of the CePt<sub>5</sub> phase along the [010] zone axis. Adapted with permission from ref 364 and modified. Copyright 1997 Academic Press.

of the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst at temperatures ranging from 200 to 950 °C. Particularly, when the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst was annealing at a temperature up to 700 °C, it was observed that a thin, subnanometric ceria decoration layer preferentially orientates with the Pt nanocrystals where they have grown. It was further validated that CePt<sub>3</sub> was the only ordered intermetallic phase in the catalyst and the alloying phenomena could only be detected at high reduction temperatures (800–950 °C) that accelerate the interdiffusion of atoms. Recently, Wu and co-workers extended the support-assisted annealing approach to other ordered intermetallic systems, demonstrating that two-dimensional (2D) early transition metal carbides (MXenes), especially Ti<sub>3</sub>AlC<sub>2</sub>, could serve as supports for the *in situ* formation of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ti intermetallic nanocrystals by a thermal reduction under an H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere at 550 °C.<sup>162</sup> Altogether, the support-assisted annealing strategy offers a unique and effective route for the controllable synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with uniform dispersity on support.

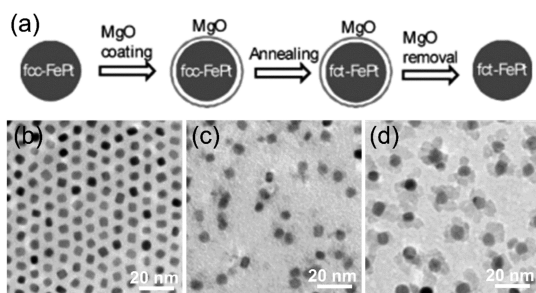
**4.1.3. Protective Shell-Assisted Annealing.** The use of oxides (such as MgO, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and SiO<sub>2</sub>) and polymers as protective coating layers is another simple yet versatile approach for preventing the aggregation and regrowth of nanocrystals during the subsequent heat treatment, leading to precise control on the size of the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals as a result of the complete elimination of interparticle diffusion.<sup>366,367,428–439</sup> As compared with the support-assisted annealing approach, this coating confinement method is more efficient in stabilizing the nanocrystals against sintering and in precisely controlling the size of the final products. However, this protective layer must be removable to expose the nanocrystal surface in the post-treatment for further applications. It is worth mentioning that, in most cases, it is difficult to complete the structural transition from the random alloy to the ordered intermetallic phases with the confinement of the coating layer since the coating shell dramatically limits the atomic mobility/diffusion and increases the kinetic energy barrier in the atom ordering process. For the formation of fully ordered intermetallic nanocrystals rather than partially ordered phases, elevated annealing temperatures are required in this approach. As an example, Sun and co-workers successfully demonstrated this approach by employing a thin layer of MgO as the protecting shell to prepare ordered intermetallic PtFe nanocrystals at high annealing temperatures (Figure 15).<sup>365</sup> In a typical synthesis, a mixture of Pt(acac)<sub>3</sub>, Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub>, OAm,

OA, and octadec-1-ene was heated to 240 °C for 1 h, and then MgO was coated on the as-obtained PtFe nanocrystals with a chemical disorder structure by decomposing a mixture of Mg(acac)<sub>3</sub>, 1,2-tetradecanediol, OAm, OA, and benzyl ether. By carrying out a thermal treatment under Ar + 5% H<sub>2</sub> at 750 °C for over 6 h and subsequent removal of MgO via acid leaching, the as-prepared PtFe nanocrystals could be converted into ordered intermetallic phase while a good dispersibility was preserved. More importantly, this approach has also been extended to the synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with different structures and components, for instance, PtCo, PtSn, and PtZn nanocrystals.<sup>13,105,366,367</sup>

As the second example, Hyeon and co-workers further expanded the protective shell-assisted annealing method to other systems, showing that N-doped carbon with a porous structure could serve as a protective shell for the formation of atomically ordered intermetallic PtFe nanocrystals with an average size of 6.5 nm during the annealing treatment process.<sup>157</sup> In this case, by simply impregnating the as-prepared carbon-supported PtFe nanocrystals in a dopamine hydrochloride aqueous solution followed by polymerization at 700 °C, the polydopamine-coated *fcc* PtFe nanocrystals were readily converted into N-doped carbon-coated PtFe nanocrystals with an ordered phase. It is noteworthy to point out that the *in situ* formed carbon shell plays a significant role in preventing the nanocrystals from the emergence of agglomeration/sintering during the thermal annealing process. Furthermore, they revealed that the thickness of the N-doped carbon shell could be precisely controlled within a range from subnanometer to 3.5 nm by tuning the impregnating time of polydopamine. In summary, from the aforementioned examples, the major advantage of the protective shell-assisted annealing strategy is the ability to effectively stabilize the nanocrystals against sintering and thus potentially improve the dispersion of resultant ordered intermetallic nanocrystals.

**4.1.4. Defects/Vacancies-Assisted Annealing.** To achieve the disorder-to-order transition, defects/vacancies are generally introduced to decrease the diffusion barrier and thereby promote the ordering process of metal atoms under high-temperature annealing conditions. Unlike other annealing approaches, this method is mainly used for tuning the composition of nanocrystals by introducing other metals to generate defects/vacancies, significantly benefiting the structure transition upon heating and performance improvement. Taking ordered intermetallic PtFeL' (L' = Au, Cu, Ag, Mn, and Sb) nanocrystals as representative examples, it is believed that doping other metals to the disordered PtFe nanocrystals could help facilitate the atomic ordering process, generating the ordered intermetallic PtFe nanocrystals at a relatively lower temperature as compared to the case without doping.<sup>195,207,209,215,394,440</sup>

Depending on the alloying power of the L' atoms with either Pt or Fe atoms, it was determined that the strong interaction between Pt and Fe atoms would squeeze the L' atoms out to the nanocrystal surface upon high-temperature annealing since the above-mentioned L' atoms possess weaker interaction with either Pt or Fe atoms. Along with L' atoms segregating onto the nanocrystal surface, defects would be created within each nanocrystal to promote metal atom diffusion and structural conversion from disorder to order. For example, as demonstrated by Sun and co-workers, monodisperse 4 nm *fcc* FePtAu nanocrystals with tunable compositions were converted to ordered intermetallic FePtAu nanocrystals by annealing at 600 °C, with Au segregating on



**Figure 15.** (a) Schematically illustrating the synthesis of *fct* FePt nanocrystals from *fcc* FePt/MgO nanocrystals via a protective shell-assisted annealing approach. TEM images of (b) 7 nm *fcc* FePt nanocrystals, (c) as-synthesized *fcc* FePt/MgO nanocrystals, and (d) *fct* FePt/MgO nanocrystals synthesized via thermal annealing of *fcc* FePt/MgO nanocrystals at 750 °C for 6 h. Adapted with permission from ref 365 and modified. Copyright 2009 Wiley-VCH.



the FePt nanocrystal surface derived from the lower intersolubility between Au and PtFe.<sup>205</sup> In this process, the disorder-to-order transition could be strongly affected by the doping content of 20 at % Au, generating optimal atomic ordering in the FePt structure. They ultimately concluded that the doped Au atoms were able to enhance the mobility of the host matrix atoms by creating defects/vacancies, thus promoting the kinetics of the ordering process. Later on, the same group reported that the ordered intermetallic PtFe nanocrystals could also be prepared by annealing dumbbell structured PtFe–Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals or core–shell structured PtFe–Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals in a reducing H<sub>2</sub>/Ar gas, where atomic ordering was promoted by creating vacancies upon the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> reduction to Fe.<sup>112,161</sup> Similarly, this approach was also extended to other ordered intermetallic fabrication, such as PdFe, PdCo, and PtCo.<sup>10,177,394,420</sup>

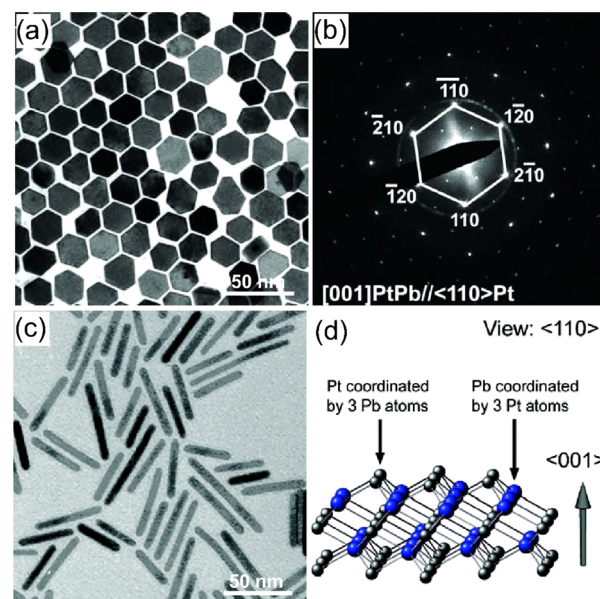
**4.1.5. Other Thermal Annealing Approaches.** Apart from the above-mentioned strategies, several other methods have been developed to suppress the sintering/aggregation during the disorder-to-order transition process at elevated temperatures. These approaches involved the usages of a surfactant-free KCl matrix, linker molecules, mixed salt powders, and pulsed-laser annealing.<sup>169,380,441–444</sup> For example, DiSalvo and co-workers reported their synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with various components through a surfactant-free KCl matrix method.<sup>169</sup> In this approach, an insoluble KCl byproduct would be formed *in situ* upon the fast reduction of chloride-based precursors in the presence of a strong reducing agent (e.g., KEt<sub>3</sub>BH) and served as a protective matrix to stabilize the nanocrystals in a subsequent thermal annealing treatment. By simply tuning the annealing conditions or the content of KCl in the precursors, the size of the resultant products can be readily controlled. Before this work, Liu and co-workers also disseminated that the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals could be prepared by direct high-temperature annealing in the presence of NaCl powders.<sup>443</sup> It is important to note that these inorganic salts used in the nanocrystal sintering may not be very efficient in assisting the phase conversion, as they can only act as a physical barrier rather than a microstructural shell around each nanocrystal. Additionally, Inoue and co-workers released an approach for yielding ordered intermetallic nanocrystals by employing linker molecules to stabilize the nanocrystals as well as to suppress the nanocrystal coalescence upon annealing.<sup>444</sup> Overall, the growing interest in developing new synthesis strategies for the conversion of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals is stimulated by their enhanced properties and promising applications as compared to those from the random alloy nanocrystals.

## 4.2. Liquid-Phase-Based Synthesis Approaches

Liquid-phase-based synthesis is the foremost and effective approach to generate a variety of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with well-defined sizes, shapes, compositions, and structures, including bimetallic nanocrystals and multi-metallic nanocrystals.<sup>47,120,172,184,369,375,445–456</sup> As compared with the solid-state annealing in the gas atmosphere, the liquid-phase synthesis usually carries out at a relatively low temperature (typically, < 350 °C) mainly due to the limitation of the solvent boiling point, which is lower than the required structure transition temperature. To overcome this obstacle, it is of critical importance to significantly lower the kinetics energy barrier in the disorder-to-order transition by simply adjusting the experimental conditions, including the addition

of various reducing agents and/or capping agents in the reaction solution, introduction of a dopant metal, and diffusing of a second metal into the as-synthesized seeds.

**4.2.1. One-Pot Synthesis.** One-pot synthesis is arguably the most straightforward and powerful approach for synthesizing ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with well-defined size, shape, dispersity, and composition at relatively mild conditions.<sup>374,457–467</sup> This approach involves the simultaneous addition of all reactants, such as precursors, solvents, reducing agents, stabilizers, and capping ligands, in just one reactor, where the reactions can proceed at a given temperature until the reactions reach equilibrium, effectively avoiding a lengthy separation of the intermediates while dramatically increasing the product yield. Traditionally, the simultaneous reduction of different metal-containing precursors with a strong reducing agent, such as AA, TBAB, NaBH<sub>4</sub>, or n-butyllithium, has turned out to be an effective strategy for generating the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals in one-pot synthesis, especially for metals with a relatively large difference in reduction potential, high binding energy, low electronegativity, or immiscibility in the bulk state.<sup>120,144,184,368,457,468–470</sup> For example, Huang and co-workers adopted this approach to synthesize nanoplates consisting of intermetallic PtPb core and Pt shell of ~1 nm in thickness by using AA as the reducing agent in the presence of OAm/1-octadecene as mixed solvent (Figure 16a,b).<sup>120</sup> They reported that the use of AA was



**Figure 16.** (a) TEM image of core–shell PtPb–Pt nanoplates with *hcp* PtPb cores and Pt shells acquired in a one-pot synthesis and (b) the corresponding SAED pattern of a single hexagonal nanoplate. (c) TEM image of the *hcp* PtPb nanorods acquired in a one-pot synthesis. (d) The growing surfaces of the *hcp* PtPb nanorods viewed along <110> direction. (a,b) Reproduced with permission from ref 120. Copyright 2016 AAAS. (c,d) Adapted from ref 368 and modified. Copyright 2007 American Chemical Society.

critical for the formation of PtPb/Pt nanoplate as AA can act as a weak acid to remove the Pb atoms during the synthetic process, facilitating the Pt atoms to diffuse inward and rearrange. By simply reducing the amount of AA, the formation of ordered intermetallic PtPb phase became favorable. As an additional example, Yang and co-workers demonstrated the



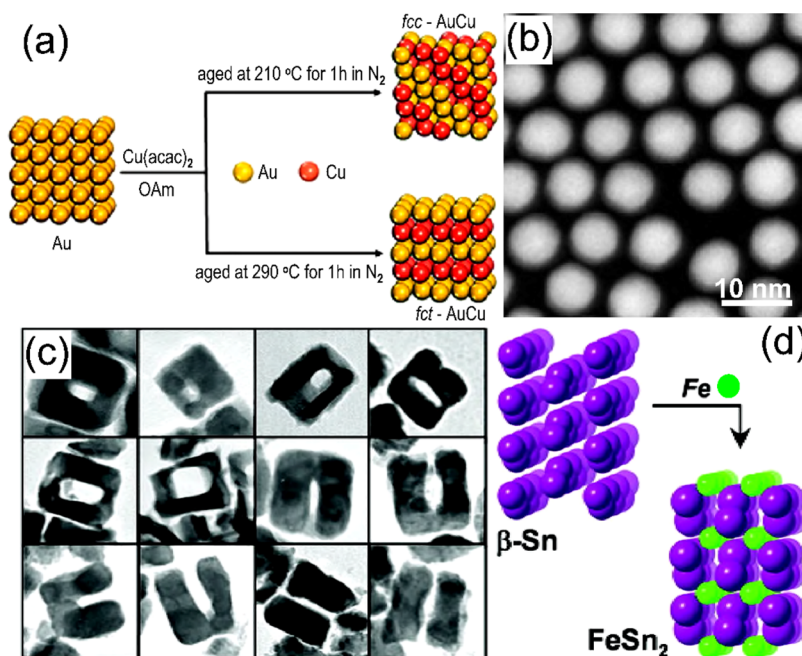
synthesis of ordered intermetallic PtPb nanorods. They used TBAB as the reducing agent to simultaneously reduce Pt and Pb precursors in the presence of diphenyl ether, adamantane-carboxylic acid (ACA), hexadecanethiol (HDT), and hexadecylamine (HDA) at 180 °C under an argon atmosphere (Figure 16c,d).<sup>368</sup> The shape of PtPb products could be precisely controlled by varying the amount of TBAB and HDT, the molar ratio of ACA to HDT, and the reaction time. Interestingly, they claimed that the formation of nanorods could be attributed to the difference in coordination numbers along with low-indexed facets of the PtPb nanocrystals with their hexagonal crystal structure, where adatom preferably incorporates into the top and bottom facets with relatively high-binding numbers, benefiting the growth along the  $\langle 001 \rangle$  direction. Around the same time, Schaak and Cable reported their synthesis of R–Sn, (R = Ag, Au, Co, Cu, Fe, and Ni) and Pb–R' (R' = Bi, Pb, Sn, and Sb) binary intermetallic nanocrystal systems with ordered phases using NaBH<sub>4</sub> as a strong reducing agent in polyol systems at relatively low temperatures.<sup>445</sup> To promote the formation of the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals, this work indicates that a strong reducing agent is essential to achieve the co-reduction of different precursors with relatively large differences in reduction potential.

It was found that certain capping agents (e.g., halide ions, organic phosphine, or organic amines) in the reaction solution can selectively bind to specific crystal facets of the nanocrystal through surface chemisorption, effectively redefining the anisotropy in surface free energy and thus driving the disorder-to-order phase transition in the one-pot synthesis.<sup>59,173,452,471,472</sup> To this end, Hou and co-workers synthesized ordered intermetallic PtBi nanoplates using NH<sub>4</sub>Br as the capping agent to simultaneously reduce the Pt- and Bi-precursors in the presence of OAm at 200 °C under a nitrogen stream.<sup>452</sup> They further carried out a systematic study and explored the function of other halide ions (e.g., F<sup>–</sup>, Cl<sup>–</sup>, or I<sup>–</sup>) and different types of bromide-containing reagents while other synthetic parameters were kept the same. They concluded that bromide ions played a significant role in the formation of nanoplates with predominant exposed  $\{101\}$  facets via selective absorption. In a later report, the same group demonstrated that the crystal phase of FePt nanocrystals could be tuned to an ordered structure by the addition of different halide ions (e.g., Cl<sup>–</sup>, Br<sup>–</sup>, or I<sup>–</sup>) in the solution containing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>, Fe(acac)<sub>3</sub>, and OAm at 350 °C under nitrogen.<sup>113</sup> For a synthesis without the addition of halide ions, disordered FePt nanocrystals in the mean size of ~5 nm were obtained. Another typical example of ordered intermetallic nanocrystal synthesis in cubic shape has been given by Yu and co-workers. They prepared ordered intermetallic PdCu NCbs by simultaneously reducing Pd- and Cu-precursors using trioctylphosphine (TOP) as a capping agent and stabilizer in the presence of OAm as both a solvent and a reducing agent at 250 °C under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere.<sup>369</sup> The shape of the PdCu nanocrystals could be readily controlled by tuning the amount of TOP, reaction temperature, and the molar ratio of Pd/Cu. Interestingly, they found that the P atom derived from TOP could selectively cap the  $\{100\}$  facets of the PdCu nanocrystals, resulting in a dramatic decrease in total surface energy on the  $\{100\}$  facets and thereby producing PdCu NCbs in the average size of 12 nm. In summary, the presence of desirable capping agents in the reaction solution is of critical importance to simultaneously control the shape and the crystal phase of

the resultant products in the one-pot synthesis since the capping agent can decrease the surface energy of specific crystal facets via selective adsorption and thus facilitate the atomic ordering process.

In addition to using the reducing agents and capping agents in the reaction solution, the introduction of a dopant metal in one-pot synthesis has also been demonstrated to be viable for the preparation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. This is suggested to be largely associated with defects and lattice strain introduced by the doping atoms, as discussed previously in section 4.1.4 about the annealing approach. In general, doping metals that are immiscible to the parent metals might be squeezed out of the parent metal lattice at a relatively high synthesis temperature, leading to lattice vacancies and inducing the mobility of parent metals to a rearrangement. As demonstrated by Kinge and co-workers, the addition of the Au precursor to a solution containing Pt(acac)<sub>2</sub>, Fe(CO)<sub>5</sub>, 1,2-hexadecanediol, octyl ether, HDA, OAm, and OA led to a formation of ordered intermetallic FePtAu nanocrystals in the size of ~6 nm.<sup>370</sup> The group systematically investigated the effect of the reaction temperature on the crystallographic phase of the as-prepared products, revealing that the onset of reaction temperature for generating the ordered face-centered tetragonal (*ftc*, e.g., L1<sub>0</sub>) phase was as low as 150 °C. Meanwhile, the composition of the ordered intermetallic FePtAu nanocrystals could also be readily tuned by varying the reaction temperature. Furthermore, by prolonging the reaction time to 3 h, the domination of the highly ordered phase in FePtAu nanocrystals could be observed due to the kinetic development. Several years later, Wang and co-workers further studied the FePt system using this approach with other dopants, showing that Ag and Cu could be incorporated into the lattice of FePt nanocrystals in one-pot synthesis, thereby forming ordered intermetallic FePtAg and FePtCu nanocrystals.<sup>195,473</sup> Altogether, introducing a dopant metal in one-pot synthesis provides exquisite control over both the composition and crystal phase of final products via adjusting the synthetic parameters, such as the concentration of doping metal precursor, reaction temperature, and duration of the reaction. More importantly, this concept and strategy could be potentially extendable to other systems.<sup>160,209,215,394</sup>

**4.2.2. Seed-Mediated Synthesis.** Seed-mediated synthesis is the most viable approach to control the size, shape, and composition of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals by effectively separating the complicated nucleation from the subsequent growth processes.<sup>174,175,178,371,474–480</sup> Typically, this approach involves two steps: (i) synthesizing seeds with well-defined size, shape, composition, and structure and (ii) diffusing a second metal into the as-prepared seeds. This approach was initially adopted in 2007 by Schaak and Cable, who used a series of single-component metal nanocrystals including Pd, Cu, and Au as the seeds for the entire synthesis of ordered intermetallic L''–Zn (L'' = Pd, Cu, and Au) nanocrystals.<sup>178</sup> In the first step, different types of metal-containing precursors dissolved in 1-octylamine were added into a hot solution of HDA, respectively, in which the metal-containing precursors were completely reduced to generate zerovalent metal nanocrystals. A 1-octylamine solution of Et<sub>2</sub>Zn was then quickly injected in the system, forming ordered intermetallic Zn-based nanocrystals via seed-mediated diffusion growth at relatively high temperatures. Recently, Zhu and co-workers utilized the seed-mediated diffusion approach to prepare ordered intermetallic AuCu nanocrystals in the average



**Figure 17.** (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of *fcc* and *fct* AuCu alloy nanocrystals by utilizing the Au nanocrystals as seeds. (b) HAADF-STEM image of as-synthesized AuCu alloy nanocrystals with the *fct* structure. (c) TEM images of ordered intermetallic FeSn<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals with different types of hollow structures (scale on each: ~50 nm). (d) formation scheme of ordered intermetallic FeSn<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals via a seed-mediated growth. (a,b) Adapted from ref 98 and modified. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society. (c,d) Adapted from ref 371 and modified. Copyright 2007 American Chemical Society.

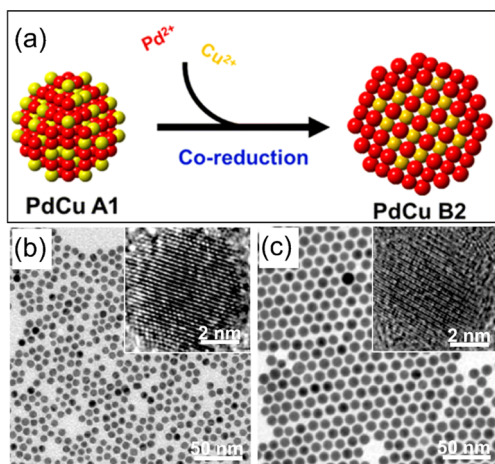
size of 8 nm by employing Au nanocrystals as the seeds in the presence of OAm (Figure 17a,b).<sup>98</sup> In this example, the reduced Cu atoms by OAm could rapidly diffuse into Au seeds, resulting in the formation of ordered intermetallic AuCu nanocrystals at 290 °C and disordered AuCu nanocrystals at 210 °C, while preserving the product in the similar size, shape, and composition. They found that the composition of AuCu nanocrystals could be readily controlled by simply tuning the mass ratio of Au seed and  $\text{Cu}(\text{acac})_2$ . These results indicate that the formation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals might require high reaction temperatures in the presence of single-component metal nanocrystals as the seeds due to the involvement of the relatively higher diffusion barriers and the longer diffusion distances. Skrabalak and co-workers recently demonstrated a paradigm in achieving core-shell ORR nanocatalysts, containing randomly alloyed PtCu shells and PdCu cores that could be either the atomically random *fcc* phase (A1,  $\text{Fm}\bar{3}\text{m}$ ) or the intermetallic CsCl-like phase (B2,  $\text{Pm}\bar{3}\text{m}$ ).<sup>464</sup> Similarly, the authors deposited randomly alloyed Pt-M (M = Ni, Co, Cu, or Fe) shells on intermetallic PdCu B2 cores with a variation of the shell thickness and composition (Pt:M ratios), showing a 230% and 270% ORR activity increment on PtCu- and PtNi-shells, respectively, in comparison with the Pt reference.<sup>481</sup> These studies show that both the surface structure and the core nature could impact the ORR performance in acidic media.

In some cases, the large difference in diffusion rate between different metals enables an opportunity of harvesting ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with hollow structures during the seed-mediated synthesis. This phenomenon is commonly referred to as the nanoscale Kirkendall effect. Typically, when the inward diffusion rate of metal is significantly lower than the outward diffusion rate of another metal, the lattice vacancies would be continuously generated at the boundaries,

resulting in the emergence of a hollow structure. One typical example was given by Schaak and co-worker, where a series of ordered intermetallic  $\text{M}^*\text{-Sn}$  ( $\text{M}^* = \text{Pd}, \text{Fe}, \text{Co}, \text{and Ni}$ ) nanocrystals with hollow structures were formed by using shape- and size-controlled Sn nanocrystals as the seeds in the presence of tetraethylene glycol (TTGE) (Figure 17c,d).<sup>371</sup> Taking the synthesis of ordered intermetallic FeSn<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals as a demonstration, they found that unequal diffusion rates between the Sn and Fe atoms led to the void formation through the Kirkendall effect, driving the conversion of the cubic Sn nanocrystals into ordered intermetallic FeSn<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals with various shapes containing hollow squares, U-shaped structures, and nanorod dimers. The shape variation was attributed to the anisotropic nanostructure of the tetragonal Sn seeds, where the top and bottom faces are possible to be more reactive sites as compared with the four side faces with a higher atomic density of Sn atoms, triggering an anisotropic Kirkendall effect. Importantly, it was further confirmed that the transition from the cubic structure of Sn seeds to ordered intermetallic FeSn<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals largely associated with the size and shape of seeds. Shortly, the same group further extended this approach to their synthesis of various ordered intermetallic  $\text{L}'''\text{-Sn}$  ( $\text{L}''' = \text{Au}, \text{Ag}, \text{Pt}, \text{and Ru}$ ) nanorods with hollow structures using Sn nanorods as the seeds.<sup>372</sup>

In addition to the use of single-component metal nanocrystals as seeds for ordered intermetallic nanocrystal preparation, random alloy structure of bimetallic or multi-metallic nanocrystals is accessible to convert into the intermetallic structure during the seed-mediated synthesis. For example, Skrabalak and co-workers adopted the seed-mediated co-reduction route and synthesized ordered intermetallic PdCu nanocrystals with a high monodispersity using disordered PdCu nanocrystals as the seeds in a solution

containing  $\text{PdBr}_2$ ,  $\text{Cu}(\text{ac})_2$ , OAm, and TOP at 270 °C (Figure 18).<sup>208</sup> The morphology and crystal structure of the ordered



**Figure 18.** (a) Schematic illustration of the synthesis of ordered intermetallic PdCu alloy nanocrystals by utilizing the disordered PdCu alloy nanocrystals as seeds. (b) TEM images of (b) disordered PdCu nanocrystals and (c) ordered intermetallic PdCu nanocrystals. The insets in panels (b) and (c) are HRTEM images of a typical PdCu nanocrystal with a disordered structure and PdCu nanocrystal with an ordered structure, respectively. Adapted from ref 208 and modified. Copyright 2016 American Chemical Society.

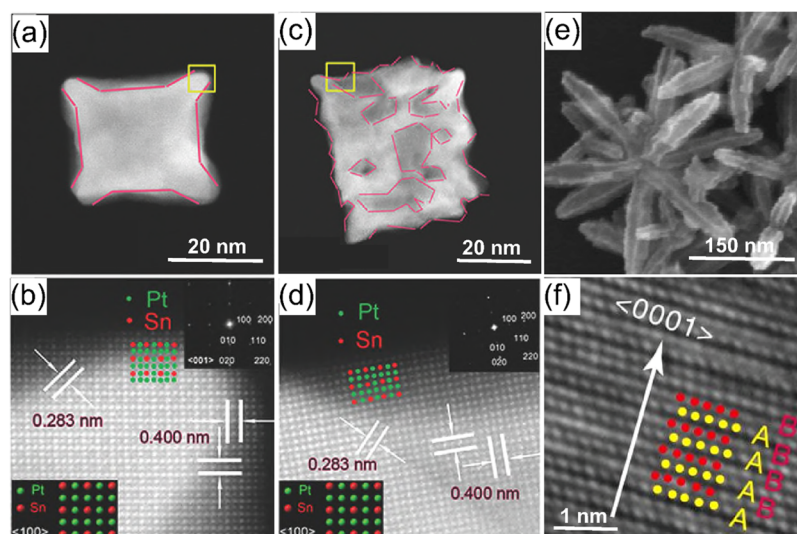
intermetallic PdCu nanocrystals were confirmed by HRTEM and XRD. HRTEM images showed that the nanocrystals were comprised of atomically ordered PdCu cores and segregated thin Pd shells. The team also found that the use of bromide ions could destabilize the interaction between TOP and nanocrystal surfaces during the seed-mediated co-reduction process, which promotes the deposition of the monomers on PdCu seeds via heterogeneous nucleation instead of homogeneous nucleation. Moreover, carrying out a time-evolution study by quenching the reactions at different periods revealed that the atomic ordering process associated with intraparticle diffusion of atoms in the seed-mediated co-reduction synthesis was expected to be size-dependent, most likely due to the activation barrier originating from the size-dependent surface free energetics. In contrast, they proposed that the thermal annealing process was strongly related to interparticle diffusion with relatively longer diffusion length and higher diffusion barrier, resulting in the particles sintering/aggregation after annealing. Subsequent studies by the same group expanded this methodology to simultaneously overgrow Au and Cu atoms on random alloy AuCu nanocrystals for the synthesis of monodisperse ordered intermetallic AuCu nanocrystals in solution.<sup>154</sup> They first prepared random alloy AuCu nanocrystals in size of 6.5 nm by injecting a precursor solution, consisting of  $\text{Au}(\text{ac})_3$ ,  $\text{Cu}(\text{ac})_2$ , and OAm, into a preheated solution containing ODE, OA, and 1,2-dodecanediol at 185 °C under Ar. The random alloy AuCu seeds were then added to a solution of  $\text{Au}(\text{ac})_3$ , CuBr, ODE, 1,2-dodecanediol, and OAm at 280 °C, leading to the formation of monodisperse ordered intermetallic AuCu nanocrystals in size of 9.7 nm via a size refocusing mechanism. Using TEM and XRD characterization, they verified the proposed size refocusing mechanism, where smaller nanocrystals with a larger surface-to-volume ratio were constantly dissolved and redeposited onto energetically more stable larger nanocrystals along with the disorder-to-order

transformation. Significantly, this concept related to the use of size refocusing to achieve the disorder-to-order conversion is anticipated to be potentially expandable to other systems in the seed-mediated co-reduction synthesis.

**4.2.3. Hydrothermal/Solvothermal Approach.** Hydrothermal and solvothermal approaches, which are typically carried out at an elevated temperature and pressure in water (hydrothermal) or organic solvent (solvothermal) media in a sealed Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave, are considered to be good choices for the scalable production of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with controlled size and shape.<sup>373–375,482–485</sup> In general, water and nonaqueous media at a reaction temperature beyond their boiling point or high-pressure display an obvious variation in their physicochemical properties, such as viscosity, solubility, and dissociation constant, resulting in a remarkable enhancement in the reactivity of reactants and an input of external energy. As a result, hydrothermal and solvothermal approaches offer a potential platform for achieving the disorder-to-order transformation by overcoming the high energy barriers. However, in the context of practical synthesis, the structural types of the final product are strongly dependent on specific synthetic parameters, including temperature, pressure, metal combination, composition, types of capping agent and reducing agent, and so on. For example, Chen and co-workers utilized the hydrothermal method and prepared ordered intermetallic PtPb nanodendrites with controllable compositions by coreducing the Pt and Pb inorganic precursors in an aqueous solution consisting of formic acid as the reducing agent.<sup>484</sup> It was uncovered that the use of formic acid, specific metal combination and composition, had an important influence on the formation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. This strategy can also be expanded to a series of ordered intermetallic Pt–Q (Q = Bi, Au, Pd, and Ru) and PdRu nanodendrite syntheses by simply altering the types of precursors involved. Furthermore, the compositions of these ordered intermetallic nanodendrites could also be tuned by varying the molar ratio of different precursors.<sup>484</sup> Shortly, Peter and co-workers reported that the ordered intermetallic  $\text{Pd}_3\text{Pb}$  nanocrystals in different shapes could be prepared via the hydrothermal method using  $\text{NaBH}_4$  as the reducing agent in the presence of PVP as the surfactant at 240 °C for 24 h.<sup>483</sup> They identified that the addition of  $\text{NaBH}_4$  and PVP might be crucial in determining the formation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. Importantly, this approach can also be extended for the formation of other Pd and group IV metal-based ordered intermetallic nanocrystals by carefully choosing appropriate precursor salts.<sup>483</sup>

Besides the hydrothermal approach, the solvothermal approach has also been widely adopted for the generation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals by simply replacing water with organic solvents, such as OAm, TTEG, and DMF. Specifically, the boiling point of these organic solvents decreased in the order of OAm > TTEG > DMF, and their polarity increased in the order of OAm < DMF < TTEG. Realizing that these mentioned solvents can also act as reducing agents during the synthesis and their reducing powers could be increased with the temperature and pH. Therefore, in the context of practical synthesis, it is critically important to correctly choose appropriate solvents based on their respective characteristics. For example, Lou and co-workers employed the solvothermal approach to synthesize the ordered intermetallic  $\text{PtCu}_3$  nanocages by utilizing OAm as both the reducing agent





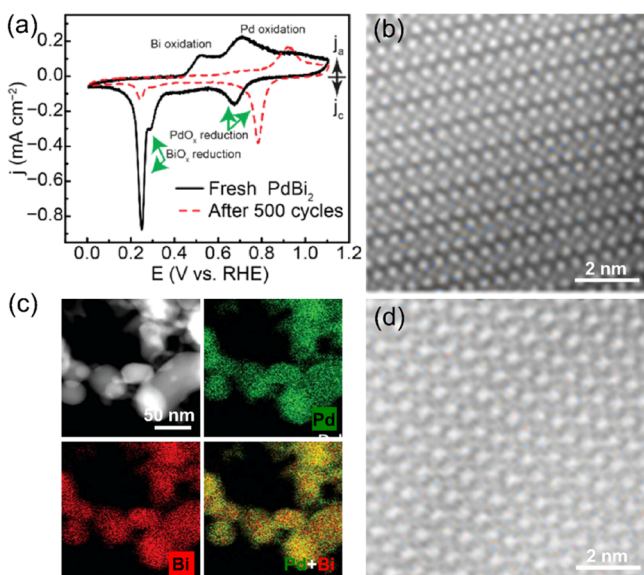
**Figure 19.** HAADF-STEM images of (a) a single concave cubic and (c) defect-rich cubic intermetallic  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}$  nanocrystal and (b, d) the corresponding atomic-resolution HAADF-STEM images taken from the yellow regions in HAADF-STEM images. (e) SEM image of *hcp* Pt–Ni excavated nanomultipods. (f) HRTEM image taken from a single branch of a representative *hcp* Pt–Ni excavated nanomultipod. (a–d) Adapted with permission from ref 374 and modified. Copyright 2016 Wiley-VCH. (e,f) Adapted with permission from ref 375 and modified. Copyright 2017 Springer Nature.

and solvent in the presence of CTAB as both the capping agent and surfactant.<sup>373</sup> On the basis of a series of control experiments, they ultimately concluded that the formation of intermetallic  $\text{PtCu}_3$  nanocages was mainly due to the galvanic replacement between preformed Cu nanocrystals and Pt species. In a later report, Li and co-workers successfully synthesized cubic, concave cubic, and defect-rich cubic intermetallic  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Sn}$  nanocrystals by simply tuning the concentrations of the Pt- and Sn-precursors under the solvothermal conditions (Figure 19a–d).<sup>374</sup> In a typical synthesis, a solution of  $\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2$ ,  $\text{SnCl}_2$ , and DMF was added to an autoclave and then the system was heated to 180 °C for 12 h. They believed that the high reaction temperature and high pressure in the solvothermal synthesis process provided extra energy for achieving the atomic ordering and thus generating the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with surface defects. Specifically, the formation of surface defects was derived from the oxidative etching caused by  $\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  from the Sn precursor. Moreover, this approach can also be applied to the synthesis of Pt–Mn nanocrystals with an atomically ordered structure. Later, Xie and co-workers also reported a solvothermal synthesis of hexagonal close-packed Pt–Ni excavated nanomultipods, in which the mean diameter and length of the branches were around 35 and 145 nm (Figure 19e,f).<sup>375</sup> They determined that the use of formaldehyde might be of critical importance for the successful generation of the unique hexagonal closest packed (*hcp*) structure. Meanwhile, it was believed that CO molecules generated by decomposing formaldehyde would induce the diffusion of Pt to the edge of nanomultipods, followed by diffusion of Ni to the edge to form excavated branches.

**4.2.4. Electrochemical Approach.** The electrochemical approach has been used as an efficient and convenient strategy for the synthesis of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with controllable compositions and high yields due to its simple setup and facile operation.<sup>171,486–497</sup> Generally, the extra electric current is required to drive the transfer of electrons by supplying the energy to the system and thus stimulate the

chemical reactions that do not occur spontaneously. For instance, Hall and co-workers developed the electrochemical deposition approach to synthesize the metastable ordered intermetallic  $\text{Pd}_{31}\text{Bi}_{12}$  nanocrystals in an aqueous electrolyte at room temperature.<sup>498</sup> In this process, a potential of  $-0.1$  V was constantly applied for 1000 s in an aqueous solution containing  $\text{Na}_2\text{PdCl}_4$ ,  $\text{Bi}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_3$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ , and  $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{N}_2\text{O}_8$  (EDTA). Using a series of characterization methods including XRD, HRTEM, XPS, and selected area electron diffraction (SAED), the group demonstrated that the as-synthesized  $\text{Pd}_{31}\text{Bi}_{12}$  nanocrystals in the average diameter of 35 nm possessed an atomically ordered crystal structure. Shortly, they reported an electrochemical dealloying approach to directly convert colloiddally synthesized ordered intermetallic  $\text{PdBi}_2$  nanocrystals to ordered intermetallic  $\text{Pd}_3\text{Bi}$  nanocrystals under ambient conditions (Figure 20).<sup>488</sup> Briefly, the ordered intermetallic  $\text{PdBi}_2$  nanocrystals were first synthesized via a reduction of  $\text{Pd}(\text{acac})_2$  and  $\text{Bi}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2)_3$  in OAm at 300 °C, yielding ordered intermetallic  $\text{PdBi}_2$  nanocrystals. The as-prepared colloidal products were further electrochemically cycling under  $\text{O}_2$  at 1600 rpm in 0.1 M KOH repeatedly, generating ordered intermetallic  $\text{Pd}_3\text{Bi}$  nanocrystals. They reported that the facile removal of Bi from  $\text{PdBi}_2$  by the controlled electrochemical corrosion and subsequent atomic restructuring played an important role in generating the ordered intermetallic  $\text{Pd}_3\text{Bi}$  nanocrystals under the experimental conditions.

**4.2.5. Microwave-Assisted Reduction Approach.** The microwave-assisted reduction approach is an emerging strategy for the preparation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with greater precision as compared with those methods using the conventionally heating process.<sup>499–503</sup> Typically, microwave treatment can rapidly and uniformly heat the reagents including solvents, intermediates, and products, accelerating the fast reduction of metal-containing precursors and favoring instantaneous nucleation in the solution. For example, as demonstrated by Armbrüster and co-workers, Rh–Bi nanoplates with *hcp* structure could be formed by simultaneously



**Figure 20.** (a) Cyclic voltammograms of the PdBi<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals in Ar-saturated 0.1 M KOH before and after the electrochemical dealloying. (b) HAADF-STEM image shows the ordered atomic arrangement of as-prepared PdBi<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals. (c) HAADF-STEM image and the corresponding EDX elemental mapping of Pt (green) and Bi (red) for as-prepared PdBi<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals. (d) HAADF-STEM image of a typical Pd<sub>3</sub>Bi nanocrystal with the ordered atomic arrangement after 10,000 cycles of accelerated durability testing. Adapted from ref 488 and modified. Copyright 2019 American Chemical Society.

reducing Rh<sub>2</sub>(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>4</sub> and Bi(C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub> in EG (as both the reducing agent and solvent) in the absence of surfactants under rapid microwave heating.<sup>183</sup> These as-synthesized nanoplates possessed an average diameter of about 60 nm and thickness of less than 20 nm. According to quantum chemical LMTO-ASA calculations, it was reported that the chemical bonding in RhBi comprised heteropolar covalent Rh–Bi bonding via three-center bonds and homoatomic covalent Rh–Rh bonding, benefiting the electron transfer from bismuth to rhodium. In a recent report, Ruck and co-workers utilized the microwave-assisted reduction route and obtained a series of ordered intermetallic Pd–Bi nanocrystals by simply varying the molar ratio of different precursors, reaction temperature, heating time, solvent, and the addition of auxiliaries like OAm, OA, and KOH at relatively low temperatures in minutes.<sup>504</sup> It was determined that the optimal reaction temperatures and heating times were between 170 and 240 °C and a few minutes up to 1 h, respectively.

#### 4.3. Other Synthetic Approaches

In addition to the aforementioned synthetic approaches, there are also some unique methods used for the preparation of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals, such as biological templates, w/o microemulsion media, and sonication-assisted reduction.<sup>213,376,377</sup> For example, Belcher and co-workers used a biological template to directly synthesize ordered intermetallic FePt nanocrystals with the desired composition under ambient conditions.<sup>376</sup> They realized that a selective addition of specific peptides could promote the formation of FePt nanocrystals and their crystallization with a chemically ordered structure. As an additional example, Magno and co-workers utilized w/o microemulsions as reaction media to prepare PtPb nanocrystals with precise size-control in the range of 3–6 nm.<sup>213</sup> According to the authors, the PtPb

product was ordered intermetallic, having the same crystal structure as Pt. By altering the reaction temperature and the microemulsion compositions including the metal-precursors and reducing agent, the size of the droplets could be readily tuned, resulting in a precise size-control in the resultant nanocrystals with ordered structure. Furthermore, Gedanken and co-workers showed that the ordered intermetallic Ga–Pt nanocrystals embedded on graphene could be successfully formed by sonicating an aqueous solution containing H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub> and molten gallium.<sup>377</sup> The aforementioned examples showcase that many alternative pathways are capable of being developed for the fabrication of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals.

### 5. APPLICATIONS OF RANDOM ALLOY AND INTERMETALLIC NANOCRYSTALS

The noble metal-based nanocrystals have been widely used in various fields, including electrochemical reactions [e.g., ORR, hydrogen oxidation, small carbohydrate molecular oxidation and CO<sub>2</sub> electrochemical reduction reaction (eCO<sub>2</sub>RR)<sup>505,506</sup>], other reactions related to photochemical reactions,<sup>507,508</sup> and heterogeneous catalysis in the petroleum industry, as well as magnetism. These applications are strongly dependent on their sizes, shapes, compositions, structures, and crystal phases. In this chapter, we mainly outline the applications of noble-metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals in catalytic, optical and photocatalytic, and magnetic aspects, with an extended discussion of property and catalysis on other associated systems such as core–shell structured and surface index-dependent catalysts if necessary.

#### 5.1. Electrochemical Applications

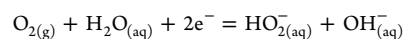
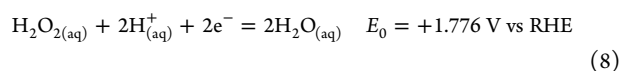
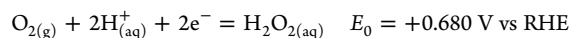
Electrocatalytic reactions generally involve a series of complex pathways, including the adsorption of reactants, the reaction of the adsorbed species, and desorption of reaction products.<sup>509–511</sup> It is intensively demonstrated that the catalytic performance (e.g., activity, selectivity, and durability) of the electrocatalysts is largely associated with their sizes, shapes, compositions, structures, and crystal phases over the past few decades.<sup>267,512,513</sup> Aiming to develop efficient catalysts, these parameters are required to be elaborately controlled during the synthesis. According to the general Sabatier principle raised by Paul Sabatier,<sup>514</sup> the optimal catalytic performance can be readily achieved for a given reaction when the interactions between the catalyst surface and the reactants/intermediates/product are “just right”, that is, neither too strong nor too weak. Note that the principle can be described by plotting the reaction rate as a function of the heat of adsorption, and such a plot is generally shown as a volcano plot with a clear trend, where the highest activity corresponds to be the appropriate value of the binding energy.<sup>515</sup> As such, the volcano plot has been extensively applied to the design of advanced catalysts for varieties of chemical reactions.<sup>510,516–518</sup> Later, Nørskov and co-workers further demonstrated that, in fact, the binding energy is strongly correlated to the position of the *d*-band center of a catalyst defined by the surface electronic structure of the transition metal alloys.<sup>519</sup> Variations in the width of the *d*-band could inevitably cause alternations in the position of the *d*-band center, as *d*-filling would not change for any transition metals, and thus keeps the *d*-band at the Fermi level. To compensate for variations in the width of the *d*-band derived from changes in metal coordination number, it is required to accordingly shift the *d*-states up or down, totally

depending on the nature of the change. Normally, the catalyst with a higher *d*-band center can strongly bind to the adsorbed species as compared to that with a lower *d*-band center. By taking advantage of density functional theory (DFT) calculations, the in-depth understanding of molecule interactions on catalyst surfaces paves a way for knowing the effects of different factors and thus facilitates the development of efficient catalysts through less of a trial and error practice.<sup>520–522</sup> Moreover, with the emergence and development of a series of characterization techniques in recent years, more invaluable evidence in enhancing the overall catalytic performance is correlated with atomic-scale features of the catalysts.<sup>523,524</sup>

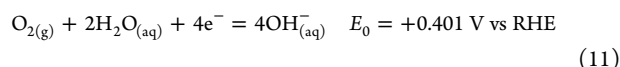
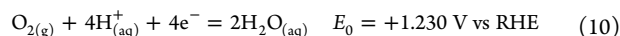
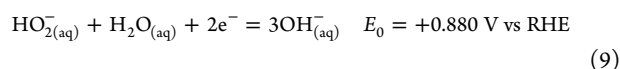
Relative to monometallic nanocrystals, random alloy and intermetallic bimetallic nanocrystals have served as modeling systems for investigating the ligand (electronic), geometric (surface strain), and ensemble (coordination) effects on the overall electrocatalytic performance.<sup>14,90,525</sup> Ligand effect associates with binding strength of adsorbates by surface electronic structures of nanocrystals with the electron interaction between metals, which is much more obvious when a second or third metal introduced into the nanocrystal. As demonstrated by Strasser and co-workers,<sup>526</sup> these fundamental effects are typically derived from the introduction of a second metal and have also been confirmed to significantly alter the *d*-band center position with regard to the Fermi-level of a bimetallic catalyst, thus enhancing the catalytic performance. Geometric effect, normally caused by a lattice mismatch, twined structure, or structure defectiveness, can also alter the characteristics of nanocrystals when their surface atoms are restructured. The strain due to a lattice mismatch can also be classified as an expansive (tensile) or compressive strain compared with the bulk counterpart materials. Specifically, the compressive strain causes the *d*-band center downward, dramatically leading to a decrease of the bonding strength of the adsorbed species on the catalyst surface. In contrast, the *d*-band center upshifts in the presence of the tensile strain, increasing the bonding strength. Ensemble effect or synergistic effect resulting from more than one reactive site often enhances the catalytic performance including catalytic activity and selectivity. Take the Pd–Ag alloy system as an example, Stevenson and co-workers found that by introducing Pd into a Ag particle surface, the single Pd sites surrounded by Ag are favorable to the steps of oxygen bond breaking and desorption for the ORR due to the ensemble effect.<sup>91</sup> However, it should be emphasized that these effects are difficult to be fully identified and isolated due to the coexistence of geometric and ligand effects, and, in some cases, all three effects.<sup>527–530</sup> These aforementioned effects all have been exploited to develop advanced catalysts with a significantly enhanced electrocatalytic performance for a broad range of catalytic reactions. In this section, we mainly concentrate on electrocatalytic applications of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals by exquisitely presenting plenty of representative examples.

**5.1.1. Oxygen Reduction Reaction (ORR).** Being a cathode half-reaction of fuel cell and metal–air (such as Li–air and Zn–air) batteries, the electrochemical ORR has a high overpotential and is sluggish mainly due to the strong interaction between oxygen-based intermediates generated in the electrochemical reaction and the catalytic surface (i.e., Pt atoms). In acid or alkaline media, ORR occurs mainly through two pathways: the indirect two-electron pathway to generate  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (eqs 8 and 9) as an intermediate and the direct four-

electron pathway to produce  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (eqs 10 and 11).<sup>531,532</sup> For fuel cell performance, normally a four-electron ORR pathway is preferred.



$$E_0 = +0.080 \text{ V vs RHE}$$



This section will outline the strategies of recently designed and developed noble metal (especially Pt- and Pd-based) random alloy and intermetallic nanocatalysts, and will also discuss how to promote their catalytic performance such as activity and durability toward ORR.

**5.1.1.1. Pt-Based Random Alloy Catalysts.** Pt is the most promising metal as the cathode catalyst in the proton-exchange membrane fuel cell (PEMFC). However, it is a low-abundance element in the Earth's crust and notoriously expensive. To minimize the use of Pt and boost its ORR performance simultaneously, researchers have developed several synthetic approaches to explore the solution. The first strategy is to synthesize core–shell nanocrystals in which Pt<sup>533,534</sup> or Pt-based random alloy<sup>140,535,536</sup> is designed as the shell to maximize the utilization of Pt. Meanwhile, the electronic and structural behaviors of the Pt-based shell can be easily tailored by carefully tuning the shell thickness, core–shell composition, particle size, and shape to improve the ORR activity and durability over state-of-the-art pure Pt nanocatalysts. The tensile or compressive strain effect possibly existing in such a structure could be an additional contribution to the enhancement of the ORR performance. The design, synthesis, and performance of these core–shell ORR catalysts have been extensively outlined in recent years.<sup>533,535,537</sup> It is worth mentioning that shape-controlled cores have also been introduced into this strategy to induce the shell lattice with the preferred facet such as {111} and to enhance the ORR activity. Examples include a Pd nano-octahedral core with an ultrathin Pt–Ni shell,<sup>67</sup> Pd nanicosahedral core,<sup>538</sup> and nano-octahedral core<sup>42,254</sup> with an ultrathin Pt shell, respectively.

The second strategy is to incorporate the 3d transition metals (Fe, Co, Cu, especially Ni) into Pt lattice with shape and composition control. The use of a 3d transition metal could decrease the fraction of Pt in the cathode catalyst.<sup>19,38,69,104,115,219,227,318,539–545</sup> Most importantly, the randomly alloyed transition metal could adjust the Pt *d*-band center<sup>546–549</sup> to optimize the ORR activity and selectivity together with the ligand effect, geometric effect, and strain effect. The *d*-band center theory could be used to explain/predict the ORR reaction behavior via the electronic structure.<sup>550,551</sup> For example, if the Pt *d*-band center position shifts downward after alloying a 3d transition metal, the catalyst surface would show not only a reduced binding affinity to oxygen and weakened O–O bond breaking but also an enhanced bonding formation between adsorbed reactants. This

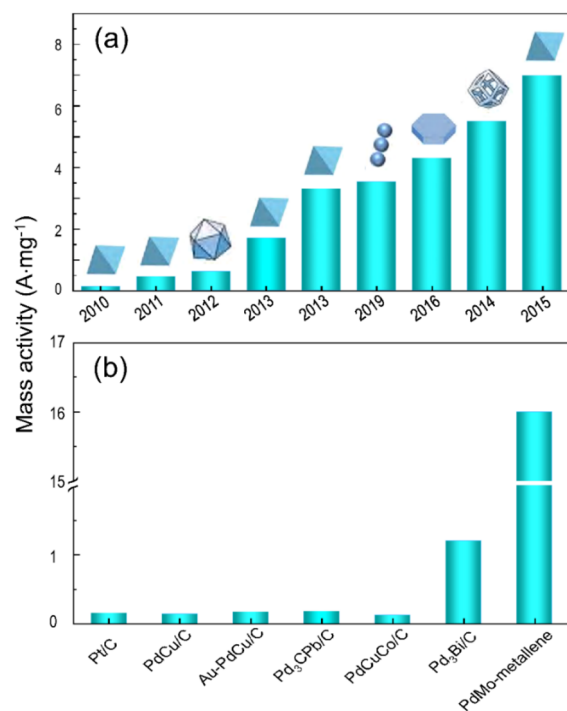


would increase the selectivity of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . In contrast, if the d-band center position shifts upward, it could lead to stronger binding between oxygen and active sites, facilitating O–O bond breaking and generating  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as the final product.<sup>550</sup> Stamenkovic and co-workers uncovered a fundamental relationship in electrocatalytic trends on  $\text{Pt}_3\text{M}'^*$  ( $\text{M}'^* = \text{Co}, \text{Ni}, \text{Fe}, \text{Ti}, \text{V}$ ) surface between the surface electronic structure and their ORR catalytic activity, providing a strategy to optimize the composition and crystallographic facets of Pt-based bimetallic random alloy toward ORR.<sup>547,549</sup> They further demonstrated an ORR catalytic activity order of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111) \gg \text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(110) > \text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(100)$  using extended single-crystal surfaces and showed the surface on  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111)$  exhibits an enhanced ORR activity that is 10-fold higher than  $\text{Pt}(111)$  and 90-fold higher than the current state-of-the-art Pt/C catalysts.<sup>547</sup> This performance enhancement is attributed to the surface-sensitive adsorption of  $\text{OH}_{\text{ad}}$  on  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(hkl)$  and its inhibiting effect on  $\text{O}_2$  adsorption. The  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111)$  surface contains an unusual electronic structure (downshift of d-band center position) and surface atoms rearrangement in the near-surface region, exhibiting the highest ORR kinetics in comparison with  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(110)$  and  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(100)$ .

The third strategy is to “transfer” the crystal facet-defined advantages from bulk catalysts and single-crystal surfaces to the nanoscale realm through a particle shape-controlled synthetic approach, which is more practical for the next development of fuel cell nanocatalysts. Since the  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111)$  that has its unique position of d-band center and weak interaction between its surface atoms and nonreactive oxygenated species exhibits the highest ORR kinetics in an acidic environment, nanocatalysts containing the exclusive  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111)$  facets have drawn growing attention. By sharing the insight of outstanding ORR performance on the  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}(111)$  surface,<sup>547</sup> as the first “nano-transferring” example, Fang and co-workers created a novel synthesis route in which  $\text{W}(\text{CO})_6$  was used as a special reducing agent and demonstrated their shape-controlled preparation of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}$  nano-octahedra exclusively terminated by  $\{111\}$  facets,<sup>262</sup> exhibiting much improved ORR activity. Shortly, Xia and co-workers refined this synthesis and modified the post-treatment process, reporting an ORR mass activity of the harvested Pt–Ni nano-octahedra as high as 3.3  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>73</sup> Yang and co-workers also disseminated their shape-controlled synthesis of  $\{111\}$ -bound  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}$  nano-octahedra<sup>258</sup> and nanoicosahedra,<sup>272</sup> reporting 0.44  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$  and 0.62  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$  as their ORR mass activities in 0.1 M  $\text{HClO}_4$ , respectively. After this work, Strasser and co-workers reported their synthesis of octahedral  $\text{Pt}_x\text{Ni}_{1-x}$  random alloy nanocrystals with an ORR mass activity of  $\sim 1.7$   $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>115</sup> Subsequently,  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}$  NFs with a Pt-skin structure evolved from  $\text{PtNi}_3$  rhombic dodecahedra were reported by Chen and co-workers, exhibiting an enhanced ORR mass activity of 5.7  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>220</sup> In the next year, Huang and co-workers revealed their synthetic work of Mo-doped  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}$  nano-octahedra, showing ORR mass activity as high as 6.98  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>72</sup> It is believed that element Mo prefers staying at subsurface positions near the particle edges in vacuum and surface vertex/edge sites in oxidizing conditions, enhancing the ORR performance and stability.<sup>103,116</sup> Shortly, this group also synthesized a class of 2D  $\text{PtPb}$ –Pt core–shell nanoplate catalysts with large biaxial strains that help to optimize the Pt–O bond strength, exhibiting an ORR mass activity of 4.30  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>120</sup> Recently, Tian and co-workers developed Pt–Ni random alloy nanocages with an ORR mass activity of 3.52  $\text{A}/\text{mg}_{\text{Pt}}$ .<sup>71</sup> Remarkably, the existence of fewer

strongly bonded platinum–oxygen (Pt–O) sites in the as-synthesized nanocatalysts induced by the strain and ligand effects was attributed to the high stability with negligible activity decay after 50,000 potential cycles.

Although other shape-controlled Pt-based random alloy nanocatalysts, such as Pt–Cu,<sup>276,552</sup> Pt–Fe,<sup>323,553</sup> and Pt–Co,<sup>76,249,317</sup> have also been well-developed in recent years, an excellent paradigm of the facet-dependent Pt–Ni random alloy nanocatalyst synthesis with precise size- and composition-control demonstrate a novel way in the ORR activity improvement potentially used in PEMFCs. Such progress is outlined in Figure 21a.



**Figure 21.** (a) Mass activity comparison of various crystal facet-dependent Pt–Ni nanocatalysts toward ORR in the acidic electrolyte, reported by the following groups: Fang,<sup>262</sup> Yang,<sup>258,272</sup> Strasser,<sup>115</sup> Xia,<sup>73</sup> Huang,<sup>72,120</sup> Tian,<sup>71</sup> and Chen.<sup>220</sup> (b) Mass activity comparison of various types of Pd-based catalysts toward ORR in  $\text{O}_2$ -saturated 0.1 M KOH solution, reported by the following groups: Myers,<sup>450</sup> Adzic,<sup>177</sup> DiSalvo,<sup>382</sup> Huang,<sup>129</sup> Hall,<sup>488</sup> and Guo.<sup>554</sup> Data are adapted from the mentioned publications.

**5.1.1.2. Pt-Based Intermetallic Nanocatalysts.** As mentioned above, the  $\{111\}$  facets of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}$  possess the most active ORR sites in the acidic electrolyte. However, this is limited by possible leaching of the Ni-composition due to the potentially unstable nature of the 3d metals.<sup>10,92</sup> To stabilize the Pt-based nanocatalysts against chemical oxidation and dealloying during the electrochemical process, researchers have dedicated to the fabrication of atomically ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. Compared with the random alloy phase as a counterpart, the atomically ordered structures of Pt-based intermetallics, including Pt–Fe,<sup>112,136,157,161,555</sup> Pt–Ni,<sup>108</sup> Pt–Co,<sup>118,168,385,387,393,396,400,431</sup> Pt–Ga,<sup>377</sup> Pt–Cu,<sup>127,144,171,402,413,486</sup> Pt–Bi,<sup>122,397,457</sup> and Pt–Pb,<sup>120,446</sup> have a strong d–d orbital interaction between Pt and transition metal  $\text{M}''$  ( $\text{M}'' = \text{Fe}, \text{Co}, \text{Ni}, \text{Cu}, \text{Bi}, \text{Pb}$ , etc.) and can be more efficient to stabilize the component  $\text{M}''$  from non-noble metal leaching. In other words, the electronic and geometric effects

in Pt–M'' could substantially be strengthened once the random alloys are transformed into intermetallic compounds. For instance, Sun and co-workers compared the ORR performance between 8 nm *fcc*-structured PtFe random alloy nanocrystals and their corresponding L1<sub>0</sub> PtFe–Pt core–shell intermetallic nanocatalysts in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> solution,<sup>161</sup> demonstrating that Fe can be stabilized more efficiently than the intermetallic structure with a 5 Å Pt shell. The fully ordered L1<sub>0</sub> PtFe nanocatalysts were fabricated by annealing the MgO-coated dumbbell-like Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>–FePt nanocrystals under the Ar/H<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. By etching Fe atoms on the surface of L1<sub>0</sub> PtFe nanocatalysts followed by a further heat-treatment at 400 °C, a compressive Pt-shell consisting of about 2 atomic layers could be generated, leading to the formation of L1<sub>0</sub> PtFe–Pt core–shell nanocatalysts. This core–shell intermetallic structure exhibits superior mass activity (0.7 A/mg<sub>Pt</sub> at 0.9 V) and excellent durability with no obvious dropping down of the ORR activity after 30,000 potential cycles between 0.6 and 0.95 V in oxygen-saturated 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> at 80 °C, meeting the DOE 2020 target (<40% loss in mass activity). In a later report, they further improved the ORR performance by replacing Fe in the L1<sub>0</sub> PtFe–Pt ordered intermetallic structure with Co.<sup>114</sup> To effectively stabilize Co in the corrosive fuel cell environment, ordered L1<sub>0</sub> PtCo–Pt core–shell nanocatalysts with 2–3 atomic layers of strained Pt shell were synthesized. The Pt layers possess a shorter Pt–Pt distance on the surface of core–shell nanocatalysts, leading to more evident biaxial compressive strains that can further weaken the bonding of oxygen species (such as O<sub>2</sub><sup>\*</sup>) to the Pt surface and thus lower the overpotential kinetically.

The same method of stabilizing the transition metal M'' in the intermetallic Pt–M'' structure by coating a layer of Pt skin or a thin-shell of Pt-based alloy has successfully been applied to other systems, such as Pt-skinned intermetallic L1<sub>2</sub> PtCu<sub>3</sub> (with an ORR specific activity of 8.4-time higher than that of Pt/C in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>).<sup>556</sup> As another example, *fcc* Pt–Cu random alloy as the shells were deposited on PdCu B2 intermetallic seeds in a facet-dependent manner, generating PdCu–PtCu core–shell nanocatalysts with highly strained surfaces. These compressively strained PdCu–PtCu nanocatalysts demonstrated high ORR mass activities (2.55 A/mg<sub>Pt</sub> at 0.9 V versus RHE) and enhanced durability with no apparent structural changes after 10,000 potential cycles in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>. This strategy can also be extended to other metal nanoparticle systems. Huang and co-workers reported their synthesis of intermetallic PtPb–PtNi octahedra as a new class of catalysts.<sup>446</sup> These nano-octahedra with an ordered PtPb core and active Pt–Ni surface showed superior ORR specific (5.16 A/cm<sup>2</sup>) and mass activities (5.16 A/mg<sub>Pt</sub>) in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> solution. They can also endure over 15,000 potential cycles with negligible activity decay. Similarly, Guo and co-workers developed a class of 2D nanoplates comprising an intermetallic *hcp*-PtBi core and ultrathin Pt shell, showing little loss in ORR activity during the accelerated durability test (ADT) in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> solution.<sup>122</sup>

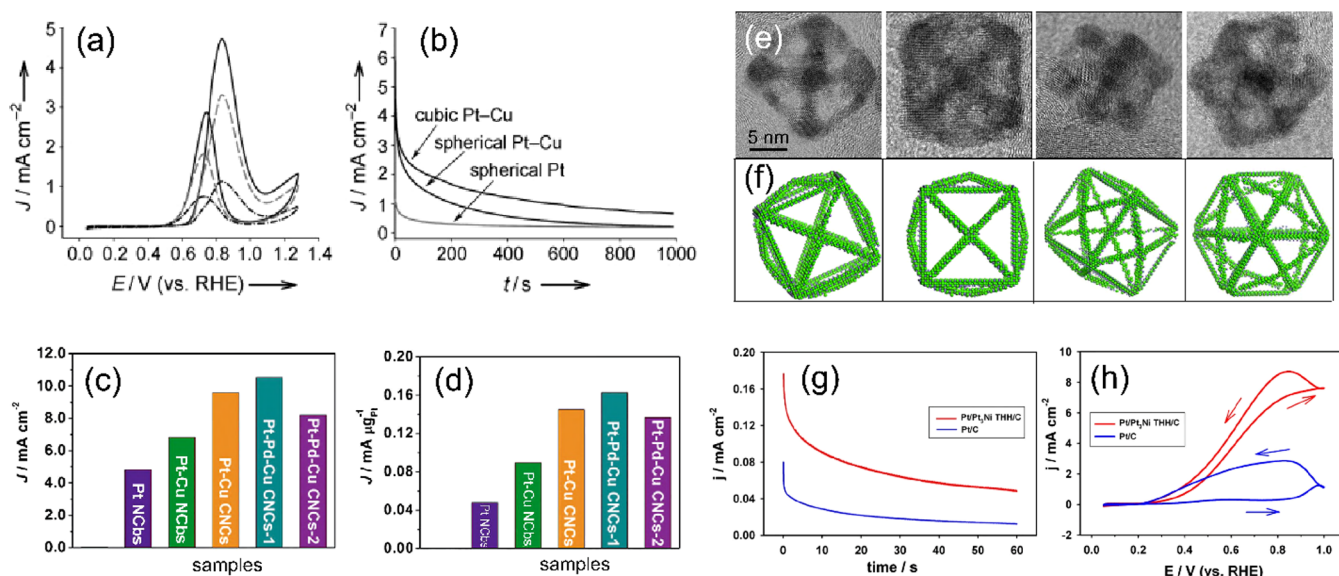
**5.1.1.3. Pd-Based Catalysts.** As a class of Pt-free catalysts, Pd-based nanocatalysts are efficient toward ORR, not only in acidic solutions<sup>557</sup> but also in alkaline media. In recent years, extensive efforts have been dedicated to the improvement of ORR activities in alkaline media.<sup>177,208,369,415,450,554,558</sup> Unlike acidic solutions, the alkaline media confer many beneficial features to ORR, such as the reduced adsorption energies of anions,<sup>559</sup> the surface-independent outer-sphere electron

transfer processes in its initial stage which enables the utilization of a wide range of non-Pt catalysts,<sup>560</sup> less corrosive environment to the catalysts, and more importantly, much faster kinetics.<sup>561</sup> Just like the case in acidic media, alloying a transition metal M'' into Pd will result in electronic structure modifications (e.g., the d-band shift) that will directly affect the catalyst-adsorbate bond strength.<sup>562,563</sup> Reports from previous studies already suggest that many Pd,<sup>564</sup> Pd-based random alloys (such as Pd–Ag,<sup>565</sup> Pd–Ir,<sup>566</sup> and Pd–Cu<sup>567</sup>) and Pd-based intermetallic (such as Pd–Cu,<sup>129,487</sup> Pd–Pb,<sup>59,382,456,568</sup> Pd–Bi,<sup>488</sup> Pd–Fe,<sup>434</sup> Pd–Cu–Co,<sup>129</sup> Pd–Cu–Fe,<sup>569</sup> Au–O–PdZn,<sup>570</sup> and Pd–Cu–Au<sup>194</sup>) nanocatalysts exhibit superior alkaline ORR performance than Pt. Some particular results in this aspect are recounted as follows.

Adzic and co-workers reported their synthesis of Au decorated ordered PdCu nanocatalysts, exhibiting comparable activity to Pt in acid and alkaline media.<sup>177</sup> The superior stability, after 10,000 potential cycles, was also attributed to the ordered structure as well as the protective effect of the Au clusters from the catalyst surface. DiSalvo and co-workers developed a high-performance ordered Pd<sub>3</sub>Pb intermetallic catalyst with a significant increase in mass activity in O<sub>2</sub>-saturated 0.1 M KOH media.<sup>382</sup> Shortly, intermetallic PdCuCo as a trimetallic ORR nanocatalyst was demonstrated.<sup>129</sup> Under the dual tuning on the composition and intermetallic phase, the ordered catalysts exhibited preponderant activity enhanced stability over those from a disordered PdCuCo counterpart and those of the commercial Pt/C catalysts. This could arise from the ligand effect and the compressive strain effect from the Pd surface due to the smaller atomic size of Cu and Co. Remarkably, Hall and co-workers reported an electrochemical dealloying process to convert the as-synthesized PdBi<sub>2</sub> to Pd<sub>3</sub>Bi nanocrystals under ambient conditions by removal of the Bi from the surface with simultaneously enabling interdiffusion of the constituent atoms via vacancy diffusion.<sup>488</sup> Both the PdBi<sub>2</sub> to Pd<sub>3</sub>Bi are ordered intermetallic phases. However, the converted Pd<sub>3</sub>Bi exhibited 11-time higher ORR mass activity (1.2 A/mg<sub>Pd</sub>) than that of Pt/C in 0.1 M KOH. Recently, it was also demonstrated that intermetallic Pd<sub>3</sub>Pb nanoflowers show 11.4-fold higher ORR mass activity (1.14 A/mg<sub>Pd</sub>) than that of commercial Pt/C and high stability toward ORR in 0.1 M KOH solution (23.7% loss vs 35% Pt/C loss in mass activity after 10,000 potential cycles). These features were attributed to the contribution from various ultrathin nanoplates terminated by {200} facets on both the planar surfaces of these Pd<sub>3</sub>Pb nanoflowers.<sup>571</sup> Besides, Guo and co-workers demonstrated that the PdMo random alloy in the form of a highly curved and subnanometer-thick metal nanosheet (metallene) is an efficient and stable electrocatalyst toward ORR in alkaline electrolytes.<sup>554</sup> The high atomic utilization, as well as the large electrochemically active surface area, of this thin-sheet-structure results in a mass activity as high as 16.37 A/mg<sub>Pd</sub>, which is 78-times higher than those of commercial Pt/C and Pd/C catalysts. ORR mass activities of the above-mentioned achievements are illustrated in Figure 21b.

### 5.1.2. Small Molecule Oxidation (MOR/EOR/FAOR).

Since the electrochemical oxidation of small molecules, such as hydrogen oxidation reaction (HOR), FAOR, methanol oxidation reaction (MOR), and ethanol oxidation reaction (EOR), is a class of typical anode reactions in fuel cells, development of highly efficient electrocatalysts for these reactions is the key to achieve high power density fuel cells. Pt-based nanocatalysts are still favorable candidates due to



**Figure 22.** (a) Cyclic voltammograms of MOR on Pt–Cu on Pt–Cu nanocubes (—), Pt–Cu nanospheres (— —), and Pt nanospheres (— · —) in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>/1 M CH<sub>3</sub>OH solution (scan rate: 0.02 V s<sup>−1</sup>). (b) Chronoamperometric results of MOR at 0.8 V on the same samples in the same solution. (c) Specific activity and (d) mass activity for MOR on Pt–Pd–Cu concave nanocubes (CNCs), Pt–Cu CNCs, Pt–Cu nanocubes (NCBs), and Pt NCBs with similar sizes in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>/1 M CH<sub>3</sub>OH solution. For (d), the current density was normalized in reference to the unit weight of total metal and Pt loaded on the working electrode, respectively. (e) HRTEM images of THH NFs in different zone axes as illustrated in models of (f). For (f), the pewter and green colors represent Pt and Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni (not to the atomic ratio), respectively. (g) Current density–time curves of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni THH NFs/C and Pt/C (40 wt % Pt) recorded in (0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> + 0.5 M HCOOH) solution 0.30 V (vs RHE). (h) Cyclic voltammograms of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni THH NFs/C and Pt/C (40 wt % Pt) in the same solution for (g) at a scan rate of 0.1 V s<sup>−1</sup>. (a,b) Reproduced with permission from ref 552. Copyright 2009 WILEY-VCH. (c,d) Adapted with permission from ref 572 and modified. Copyright 2012 WILEY-VCH. (e–h) Reproduced from ref 68. Copyright 2017 American Chemical Society.

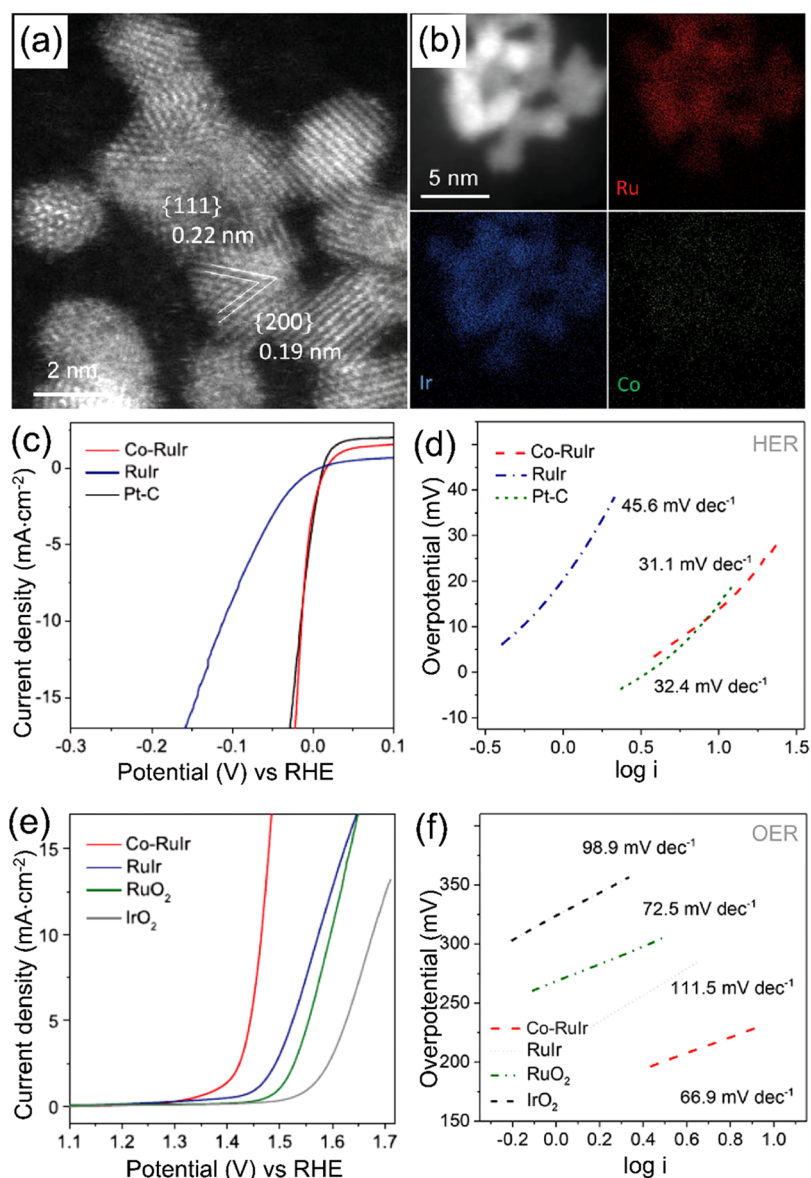
their superb catalytic nature. As recounted above, Pt is a scarce element. In addition to increasing the surface area-to-volume ratio of Pt nanocrystals by appropriately reducing the particle size, strategies for improving the anode catalytic performance include alloying with other metal(s) and modulating the atom arrangement on the surface (crystal facet) of the random alloy nanocrystals. Fang and co-workers synthesized cubic Pt–Cu random nanoalloys using a co-reduction approach and applied them as MOR catalysts<sup>552</sup> in 2009. These Pt–Cu NCBs demonstrated the highest MOR electrocatalytic activity (Figure 22a) in comparison with their counterparts (spherical Pt–Cu and monometallic Pt nanocrystals in similar sizes) as shown in the cyclic voltammograms (CVs), which was further confirmed by the chronoamperometric measurements performed at 0.8 V (Figure 22b). This superior performance was attributed to both the composition and shape (crystal facet) effects. Yan and co-workers reported their in-depth investigations of both effects on MOR three-years later.<sup>572</sup> They comparatively evaluated the MOR catalytic activities of high-indexed bimetallic Pt–Cu CNCs, high-indexed trimetallic Pt–Pd–Cu CNCs, {100}-terminated bimetallic Pt–Cu NCBs, and {100}-terminated monometallic Pt NCBs in similar sizes. As shown in Figure 22c,d, high-index random alloy samples were identified as the more promising MOR catalysts than both the low-indexed random alloy and monometallic Pt NCBs in terms of both Pt-based mass activity and specific activity toward MOR. Between both high-indexed samples, it seems that the presence of the third element Pd could also alter the activity. This study validates that high-index facets of Pt-based random alloy nanostructures possess a high density of low-coordinated atoms<sup>14</sup> possibly with lattice strain and could serve as

promising catalytic promoters for MOR with cleaving C–H and C–O bonds.

The synthesis and application of high-indexed Pt-based nanopolyhedra as advanced electrocatalysts have drawn growing attention in recent years.<sup>192,403,459,540,573–575</sup> Since it has been reported that high-indexed crystal planes of Pt can also effectively promote the activity of FAOR,<sup>576,577</sup> Fang and co-workers developed a series of Pt-based nanocrystals exposed with high-indexed planes using a co-reduction approach in a high-temperature organic solution system, including Pt<sub>3</sub>Co CNCs,<sup>40</sup> Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe CNCs,<sup>578</sup> PtNi<sub>4</sub> THH nanocrystals, and Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni THH NFs.<sup>68</sup> The PtNi<sub>4</sub> THH nanocrystals prepared via a colloidal method as catalytic precursors are terminated with well-defined (730)-facets and enriched Pt component was segregated on the edges. Mond process was further applied to the THH precursors through thermal annealing in the presence of CO by extracting most of the Ni component, leading to a generation of Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni THH NFs that possess a 3D open-structure comprising ridges as thin as a few nanometers (Figure 22e,f). The temperature-controlled post-thermal treatment further promotes an alloying between the segregated Pt and the remaining Ni atoms through surface restructuring, which is different from the traditional vacancy defect-involved and ill-defined acid etching.<sup>220</sup> In comparison with the state-of-the-art Pt/C (40 wt % Pt), the resultant Pt<sub>3</sub>Ni THH NFs exhibit high FAOR activity as shown in Figure 22g (e.g., 4 times at 60 s) and low cathodic-to-anodic-scan current ratio as indicated in Figure 22h (1.7 vs 9.1), suggesting that they are much less vulnerable to surface poisoning.

The dealloy process and oxidation behavior of the anode nanocatalysts in fuel cells are much more severe than that of the cathode counterparts. To tackle this problem, intermetallic





**Figure 23.** (a) High-resolution HAADF-STEM image of Co-doped (Co-RuIr) nanocrystals. (b) STEM-EDX mappings of Co-RuIr nanocrystals. (c,d) LSV curves and Tafel plots of Co-RuIr, RuIr, and commercial Pt-C electrocatalysts for HER in H<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub> solution (0.1 M), respectively. (e,f) LSV curves and Tafel plots of Co-RuIr, RuIr, as well as state-of-the-art (commercial) RuO<sub>2</sub> and IrO<sub>2</sub> electrocatalysts for OER in H<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub> solution (0.1 M), respectively. Adapted with permission from ref 603 and modified. Copyright 2019 Wiley-VCH.

catalysts demonstrated superior activity and durability toward the electrochemical oxidation against the component leaching and chemical oxidation.<sup>107,129,163,166,205,367,373,475,579</sup> For example, Li and co-workers reported that intermetallic Pt<sub>3</sub>Ga coupled with an atomic-layer Pt through the engineering of the surface strain and showed apparent high specific activity (7.195 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) and mass activity (1.094 mA/ug<sub>Pt</sub>) for MOR compared with its unstrained counterpart and commercial Pt/C catalysts. This study implied that the strained Pt<sub>3</sub>Ga surface was more energetically favorable for MOR and the stronger binding to OH\* on the stretched atomic-layer-Pt-sites enabled an easier removal of CO\*.<sup>463</sup> Wang and co-workers also prepared ordered PtFe<sub>x</sub>Cu<sub>1-x</sub> ternary intermetallic nanocatalysts,<sup>107</sup> in which facilitates the phase formation from a disordered *fcc* structure to an ordered body-centered tetragonal (*bct*) PtFe phase at the low annealing temperature. These ternary nanocatalysts exhibit significantly enhanced activity

and stability due to the ordered intermetallic *bct*-PtFe structure and the relatively inert Cu that partially replaced Fe and mitigated the dissolution, respectively. Most recently, L1<sub>0</sub>-PtZn intermetallic nanocatalysts were prepared through a Pt<sup>2+</sup>-exchanged zeolitic imidazolate framework-8 (ZIF-8) NCbs by Kwon et al. The L1<sub>0</sub>-PtZn intermetallics were embedded in a hollow, N-doped carbon nanocage via one-step calcination and demonstrated an excellent MOR specific activity in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> (3-times higher than that of Pt/C).<sup>580</sup>

In alkaline media, the oxidation reactions such as HOR are sluggish compared with the cases in acidic solutions, requiring new anode catalysts that can further improve the HOR kinetics in alkaline fuel cells.<sup>581</sup> Abruña and co-worker recently developed a series of Rh- and Rh-based random alloy nanocatalysts, including Pt<sub>7</sub>Rh<sub>3</sub>/C, Ir<sub>9</sub>Rh<sub>1</sub>/C, Rh<sub>9</sub>Ru<sub>1</sub>/C, and Rh<sub>9</sub>Pd<sub>1</sub>/C, that outperformed Ir/C and Pt/C toward HOR in alkaline media.<sup>581</sup> In this work, Ir<sub>9</sub>Rh<sub>1</sub>/C was identified as the

most effective anode catalyst among all the studied analogs in terms of its specific activity. Zhang and co-workers reported multimetallic core-shell nanoplates using selective element segregation and the etching approach.<sup>582</sup> The obtained PtCuPd–Ru possesses a unique yolk-cage nanostructure, exhibiting superior electrocatalytic activity and stability toward MOR compared with the PtCu nanoplates and commercial Pt/C catalysts. Recently, one-pot synthesis of PdZn nanosheets with an unconventional *fcc* structure and thickness of less than 5 nm was also demonstrated.<sup>583</sup> Compared to the Pd counterpart catalysts, the PdZn nanosheets show a much enhanced PdO reduction peak in the 1.0 M NaOH aqueous solution, which indicates large electrochemical surface area of the Pd exposure. Consequently, much improved EOR mass activity and stability in alkaline media were reported.

**5.1.3. Water Electrolysis.** The water-splitting as an efficient and environmentally benign process is promising for sustainable hydrogen production.<sup>584</sup> The design of the water electrolysis, first reported in 1789,<sup>585</sup> is related to two half-cell reactions: the HER and OER. Both reactions require efficient electrocatalysts such as platinum-group metals, 3d transition metals, their corresponding metal random alloys, and 3d transition metal-based materials such as carbides,<sup>586,587</sup> nitrides,<sup>588–590</sup> phosphides,<sup>591</sup> sulfides,<sup>592,593</sup> and hydroxides.<sup>594–596</sup> In this section, we focus on the discussion of recent progress in noble-based metal electrocatalysts for HER and OER.

**5.1.3.1. Hydrogen Evolution Reaction (HER).** Although the conversion of water to hydrogen in both acid and alkaline media has been extensively studied, there are still many challenges in this technique, especially, the sluggish kinetics in alkaline electrolytes.<sup>61,375,597–599</sup> Among various electrocatalysts, platinum group metals (PGMs), especially Pt and Ir, possess superior hydrogen adsorption characteristics and are still promising catalysts for HER.<sup>82,264,600–603</sup> Markovic and co-workers found that Ir and Pt<sub>0.1</sub>Ru<sub>0.9</sub> exhibit enhanced activity toward HOR/HER in alkaline solution, and they proposed that the more oxophilic sites on active sites (Ru atoms of Pt–Ru and Ir atoms) promoted the adsorption of OH<sub>ad</sub> species, which reached an optimal balance between the adsorption/dissociation of H<sub>2</sub> and the adsorption of hydroxyl species (OH<sub>ad</sub>).<sup>604</sup> On the other hand, coupling PGMs with water-dissociation promoters is commonly used to boost HER activity in alkaline media. For example, Gao and co-workers introduced a sulfite while synthesizing Pt–M''' (M''' = Ni, Co, Fe) random alloy nanowires, leading to the formation of M'''–S bonds on the surfaces.<sup>602</sup> Thus, atomic level Pt/M'''–S(OH) interfaces promote hydrogen generation in alkaline media. Similarly, Wang and co-workers developed nitrogen-modified Pt–Ni nanowires to resolve the kinetic issue successfully.<sup>61</sup> The in-depth analysis suggested that the introduced nitrogen could modulate the electron structure around Ni sites, generating empty d<sub>z</sub><sup>2</sup> orbitals for water adsorption and activation. This strategy could be extended to other bimetallic systems such as Pt–Co, Pt–Ni, and Pt–Cu for boosting the performance toward HER.

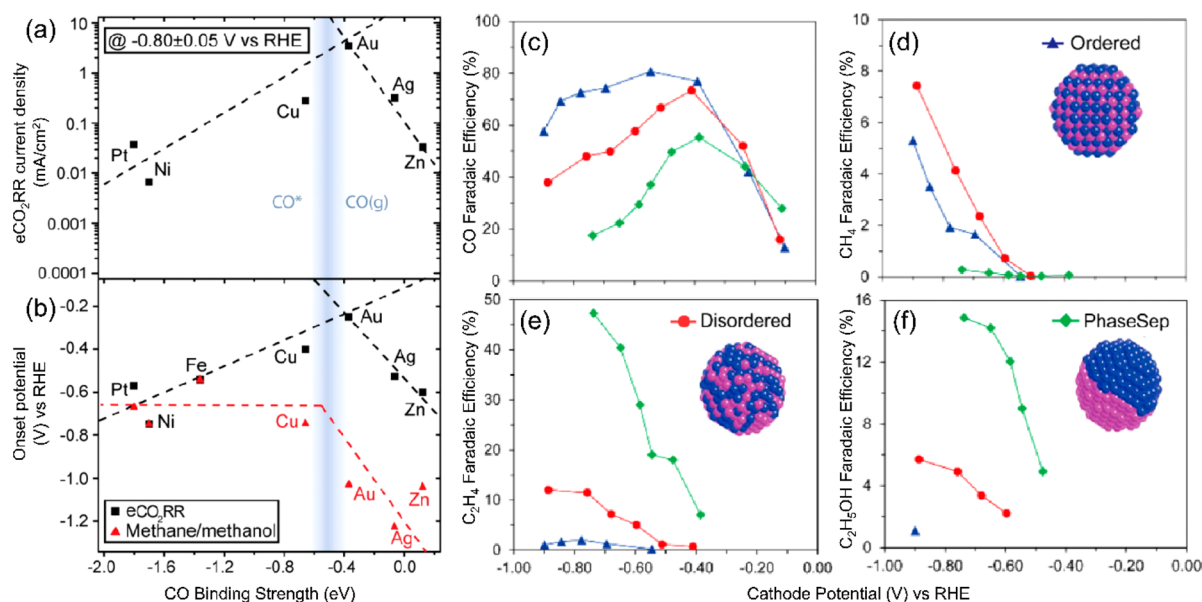
Another strategy to boost HER activity of the PGM-based catalysts is the improvement of the intrinsic activity on every single site. One of the examples is to alloy the PGMs with a transition metal, not only reducing the PGM loading but also improving the electrochemical performance on an atomic scale. As a case study, Qiao and co-workers designed and synthesized Co-doped RuIr random alloy (Co–RuIr) nanocrystals as the

strengthened electrocatalysts to promote HER using the engineered electronic structure.<sup>603</sup> The high-resolution HAADF-STEM image indicates that the Co dopants do not change the intrinsic lattice distances in the RuIr nanocrystals (Figure 23a), whereas EDX elemental maps (Figure 23b) suggest that Co atoms are distributed randomly at a low concentration. These characterizations conclude that the Co dopant only modified the surfaces of the nanocatalysts, which was validated by its electrochemical performance compared with its counterparts. Figure 23c,d presents linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) curves and Tafel plots as HER performance evaluated in H<sub>2</sub>-saturated HClO<sub>4</sub> solution (0.1 M), showing that Co–RuIr with an overpotential of 14 mV only (Figure 23c) and low Tafel slope of 31.1 mV dec<sup>–1</sup> at 10 mA cm<sup>–2</sup> (Figure 23d) exhibits a significant enhancement compared with the undoped RuIr counterpart (with an overpotential and Tafel slope of as high as 110 mV and 45.6 mV dec<sup>–1</sup>, respectively) and is comparable with the state-of-the-art Pt/C toward HER.<sup>603</sup>

**5.1.3.2. Oxygen Evolution Reaction (OER).** As an anode half-cell reaction in both acidic polymer electrolyte water electrolyzers (PEWEs) and alkaline water electrolyzers (AWEs), the OER has been widely studied for decades to improve its kinetics that is hindered by the significant overpotential.<sup>605</sup> The catalysts used for OER are mainly metal oxides with high activity, stability, and electronic conductivity, such as PtO<sub>2</sub>, RuO<sub>2</sub>, and IrO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>606</sup> although nanostructured metal sulfide (CuCo<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>) was recently reported as well.<sup>607</sup> Despite the limited reports on the metal random alloy nanocatalysts toward OER, the following examples are insightful and prospective.<sup>271,595,596</sup> Lee and co-workers reported a rational synthetic strategy of yielding robust, multimetallic, Ir-based, double-layered NFs.<sup>85</sup> In this work, core-shell alloy nanostructures could be fabricated in a one-pot synthesis by leveraging the different kinetics of dual Ir precursors and transition metal (Ni and Cu) precursors, followed by transforming into a multimetallic IrNiCu dual NFs–NFs rhombic dodecahedral structure via selective etching. Such IrNiCu nanocatalysts provided a high specific surface area and demonstrated excellent activity and durability toward OER in acidic media.

In the above-discussed Co–RuIr system (section 4.1.4),<sup>603</sup> transition metal Co modified the surface characteristic of the RuIr catalysts. To deliver a current density of 10 mA cm<sup>–2</sup>, as shown in Figure 23e,f, the Co–RuIr required an overpotential and Tafel slope of as low as 235 mV and 66.9 mV dec<sup>–1</sup> in comparison with 344 mV and 111.5 mV dec<sup>–1</sup> from the undoped RuIr counterpart, respectively, indicating fast OER kinetics. The improved OER (as well as the discussed HER) performance of Co–RuIr is attributed to a dual effect that modifies the concentration of O-based species and Ru sites valence states.<sup>603</sup> Additional exploration for the dopant elements by Qiao and co-workers suggests that Co outperforms Fe and Ni toward the water-splitting reaction among their studied systems.<sup>603</sup>

**5.1.4. CO<sub>2</sub> Reduction Reaction (eCO<sub>2</sub>RR).** Despite the extensive efforts on exploring sustainable energy resources, today's majority of global energy consumption is still derived from unsustainable fossil fuels, including petroleum, coal, and natural gas. Plentiful use of these flammable resources is causing the rapid concentration-increase of the emitted carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) in the atmosphere as well as the subsequent environmental concerns (e.g., greenhouse effects, sea level rise,



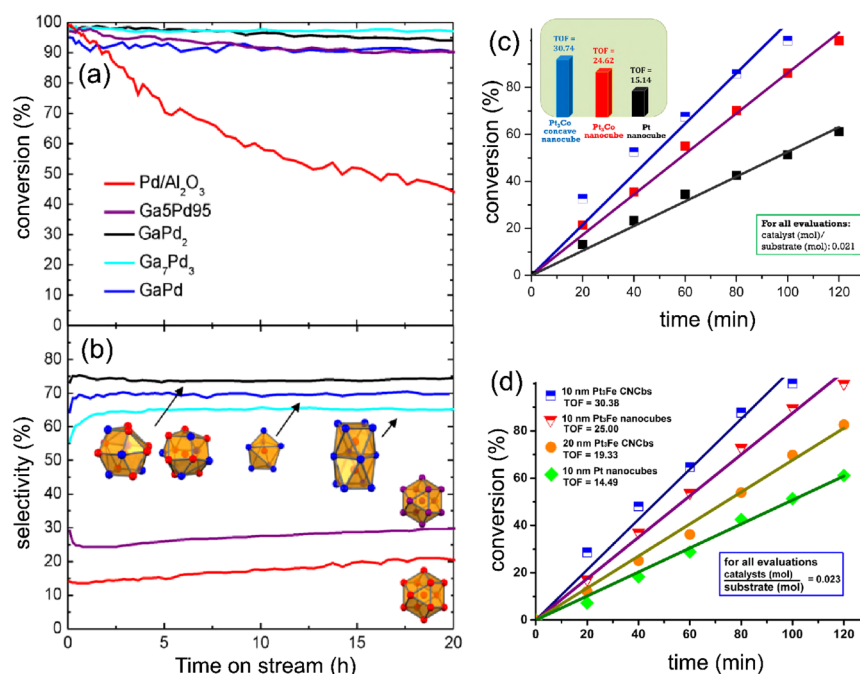
**Figure 24.** (a, b) Volcano plots: (a) partial current density for eCO<sub>2</sub>RR at  $-0.8$  V as a function of CO binding strength; (b) distinct onset potentials as a function of CO binding energy: the overall eCO<sub>2</sub>RR, and methane or methanol. (c–f): Faradaic efficiencies of eCO<sub>2</sub>RR as a function of cathode potential for each of the major products using three types of different Pd–Cu nanocatalysts (insets in d–f): (c) for product CO; (d) for product CH<sub>4</sub>; (e) for product C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>; (f) for product C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH. Adapted with permission from refs.<sup>142,627</sup> and modified. Copyright © 2014, 2017 American Chemical Society.

and ocean acidification). To tackle this problem, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction is one of the most promising pathways to achieve a carbon-neutral chemical synthesis due to its dual potentials in environmental protection and storage of intermittent renewable energy. The CO<sub>2</sub> reduction could be realized through a wide range of possible methodologies, such as the Fischer–Tropsch process,<sup>608,609</sup> photochemical reductions,<sup>508,610,611</sup> hydrogenation,<sup>523,608</sup> and eCO<sub>2</sub>RR.<sup>612–615</sup> Among these conversion approaches, eCO<sub>2</sub>RR is one of the most attractive and promising routes that have been recognized by far.<sup>505,613,616</sup>

Although some single noble (as well as transition) metals, such as platinum (Pt),<sup>617,618</sup> palladium (Pd),<sup>437,619</sup> gold (Au),<sup>620</sup> copper (Cu),<sup>621–623</sup> cobalt (Co),<sup>624</sup> indium (In),<sup>625</sup> and silver (Ag)-based metals,<sup>626,627</sup> show remarkable performance as superior eCO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts, it has been reported that their random alloys such as indium(In)-based,<sup>628</sup> Pd-based,<sup>64,142,629,630</sup> Ag-based,<sup>91</sup> especially Cu-based<sup>631</sup> (such as bimetallic Cu–Au,<sup>66,109</sup> Cu–Pt,<sup>97</sup> Cu–In,<sup>632,633</sup> and Cu–Pd<sup>142,629,630</sup>) random alloys are also promising eCO<sub>2</sub>RR catalysts with a tunable control. In addition to durable stability, catalytic activity, and catalyst selectivity are critical challenges for catalyst development in eCO<sub>2</sub>RR. It was reported that some noble/post-transition metals generally exhibit satisfactory catalytic selectivity (for example, Ag and Au for CO and tin (Sn) and lead (Pb) for formic acid) but with relatively high onset overpotentials on their surfaces,<sup>505,626</sup> whereas Cu-based catalysts are the only known metallic electrocatalysts with an appreciable activity to directly produce hydrocarbons,<sup>634–636</sup> such as methane,<sup>635,637</sup> ethylene,<sup>636</sup> and ethanol with acceptable efficiencies,<sup>638</sup> although its selectivity in bulk form still needs to improve.<sup>634,639,640</sup> In a remark, the partial current densities for eCO<sub>2</sub>RR and distinct onset potentials (vs CO binding strength) of some metals are presented in Figure 24a,b.

It has been reported that the eCO<sub>2</sub>RR performance is greatly dependent on the catalyst particle size, shape, composition, and phase structure. In the case of Cu eCO<sub>2</sub>RR, for example, previous investigations indicate that nanometer-sized Cu could enhance the current densities of methanation compared with a high-purity Cu foil.<sup>635</sup> Experimental results also suggest that selectivity is dependent on the adsorption strength of eCO<sub>2</sub>RR intermediates on the catalyst surfaces. For instance, the study on single crystal Cu electrodes shows that the formation of ethylene is favored on Cu(100),<sup>641</sup> formation of methane is dominant on Cu(111),<sup>642,643</sup> and formation of a primary alcohol is preferred on Cu(110).<sup>642</sup> Due to various reaction mechanisms, eCO<sub>2</sub>RR usually occurs via two pathways. That is, a C<sub>1</sub> pathway yielding methane or methanol and a C<sub>2</sub> pathway leading to ethylene or ethanol. Koper and co-workers reported that for the C<sub>1</sub> pathway the CHO<sub>ads</sub> is the key intermediate of the C–O bond breaking toward the formation of methane, whereas for the C<sub>2</sub> pathway, a CO dimer is first generated, followed by the formation of a surface-bonded enediol, enediolate, or an oxametallacycle that are in relation to the formation of ethylene.<sup>627</sup> Further study showed that the reduction of ethylene oxide to ethylene is significantly faster on Cu(100) terraces compared with Cu (111) at low overpotentials.<sup>629</sup> Literature further indicates that different shapes of Cu nanocrystals exhibit distinct selectivity of eCO<sub>2</sub>RR.<sup>644–647</sup> Coincidentally, Cu NCs with the Cu(100) surface favors the formation of C<sub>2</sub> products, especially ethylene at a low overpotential compared with methane,<sup>648,649</sup> whereas Cu nano-octahedra with exclusive Cu(111) facets facilitate the generation of methane and other C<sub>1</sub> products.<sup>640,642,650</sup> Bimetallic catalysts exhibit phase- and composition-dependent eCO<sub>2</sub>RR selectivity as well. For example, bimetallic Cu–Pd nanocatalysts with different elemental arrangements (ordered, disordered, phase-separated) demonstrated diverse selectivities (Figure 24c–f).<sup>142</sup> In particular, the random alloy and ordered intermetallic CuPd nanocatalysts exhibit high selectivity for C<sub>1</sub>





**Figure 25.** (a,b) Performance of Pd–Ga bimetallic catalysts as well as commercial 5% Pd/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> toward hydrogenation of acetylene: (a) conversion percentage of acetylene and (b) selectivity to ethylene. (c,d) Conversion percentage of styrene hydrogenation as a function of reaction time (TOF unit: [mol converted styrene]/[mol catalyst × h]) on Pt<sub>3</sub>Co, Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe, and Pt nanocatalysts: (c) Pt<sub>3</sub>Co concave nanocubes, Pt<sub>3</sub>Co nanocubes, and Pt nanocubes (all sizes are ~15 nm) and (d) 10 and 20 nm Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe concave nanocubes, 10 nm Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe nanocubes, and 10 nm Pt nanocubes. (a,b) Adapted with permission from ref 665 and modified. Copyright 2014 IOP Publishing. (c,d) Adapted with permission from refs 40 and 578, and modified. Copyright 2014 and 2015 Wiley-VCH, respectively.

products (CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, >80%), whereas the phase-separated CuPd and Cu<sub>3</sub>Pd (not shown in Figure 24) avail high selectivity for C<sub>2</sub> chemicals (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, >60%).

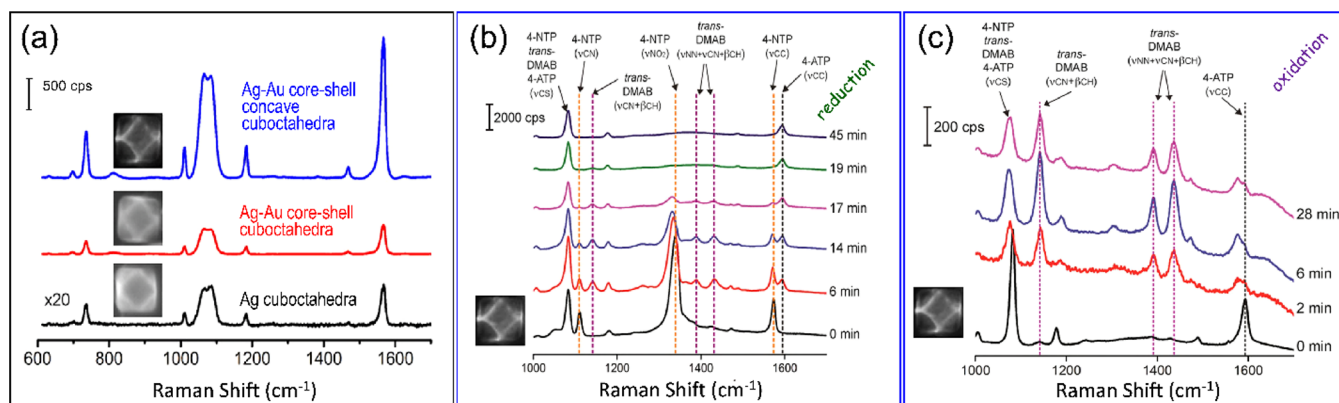
While electrochemical conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> to multicarbon products has remaining challenges in selectivity, Faradaic efficiency, and overpotential, catalytic transform CO<sub>2</sub> to single-carbon products, especially CO, provides more opportunities for electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> valorization.<sup>651</sup> Given the above, another strategy to yield CO<sub>2</sub> to C<sub>2</sub> and larger hydrocarbons is to combine the eCO<sub>2</sub>RR with the synthesis gas (syngas) conversion process associated with a catalyst modification like controlling Cu enrichment of Au surfaces.<sup>652</sup> As an advantage in this strategy, the mechanism in the generation of CO through eCO<sub>2</sub> RR is clearer than the formation of C<sub>2</sub> species and the rate-limiting step for CO is generally understood to proceed through a \*COOH intermediate.<sup>653</sup> Also, syngas made from eCO<sub>2</sub> RR can subsequently be upgraded to high-value chemicals through the Fischer–Tropsch process.<sup>652</sup> Moreover, tailoring the syngas composition with high production rates by designing different electrocatalytic systems makes it particularly attractive and flexible for the downstream process.<sup>651</sup> Since the binding properties of the intermediate from CO<sub>2</sub> to CO are determined by the electronic density of nanocatalysts, Yang and co-workers demonstrated that both the electronic effect and the geometric effect on the surface of Au<sub>x</sub>Cu<sub>1-x</sub> nanoalloys dictate the activity toward eCO<sub>2</sub>RR and thus enable tuning the binding strength between the catalytic surfaces and the intermediates to an optimal value.<sup>66,652</sup> To this end, several bimetallic alloys such as dendritic Cu–In,<sup>121</sup> Pd–Sn nanocrystals,<sup>381</sup> and Ag–Sn based nanostructures<sup>91</sup> are promising electrocatalysts. Interestingly, the ordered intermetallic AuCu nanocrystals promote the Faradaic efficiency of eCO<sub>2</sub> RR to CO as high as 80%, whereas their disordered

counterpart demonstrates a high catalytic activity toward HER.<sup>109</sup>

## 5.2. Other Associated Applications

In addition to their ubiquitous applications as electrocatalysts, noble-metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals have also shown promising potential for applications in heterogeneous catalysis, optics, photocatalysis, and magnetics. In recent years, tremendous efforts have been devoted to optimizing and enhancing their heterogeneous catalytic, optical, photocatalytic, and magnetic properties by precisely engineering their atomic-scale features using a rich variety of synthetic approaches. Here we try to cover these related applications as much as possible in order to comprehensively present the significance of random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals. In this section, the latest progress in random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals is specifically addressed by exclusively listing some typical cases associated with these applications.

**5.2.1. Heterogeneous Catalytic Applications.** Noble-metal-based nanocrystals also exhibit their interesting properties as a class of heterogeneous nanocatalysts, such as hydrogenation, dehydrogenation, and reforming reaction,<sup>6,654</sup> being widely used in petrochemical, pharmaceutical, and fine chemical industries. To yield high-value chemicals with enhanced activity and selectivity in fine chemical engineering, the development of noble metal-based catalysts randomly alloyed with 3d transition metals with a tunable ligand effect, geometric effect, and ensemble effect has attracted increasing interest. For a long time, Pt-based random alloys (Pt–Cu,<sup>655,656</sup> Pt–Fe,<sup>657</sup> Pt–Pd,<sup>257,658</sup> Pt–Co,<sup>40,250,316</sup> Pt–Ni,<sup>246,659</sup> and Pt–Rh<sup>217</sup>), Pd-based random alloys,<sup>248,273,660,661</sup> Au-based random alloys,<sup>662,663</sup> and Ag–



**Figure 26.** SERS spectra at an excitation wavelength of 785 nm. (a) Spectra were collected from 1,4-BDT adsorbed on substrates of Ag cuboctahedra, Ag–Au core–shell cuboctahedra, and Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra, respectively. (b) Spectra were recorded during the reaction of 4-nitrothiophenol to 4-aminothiophenol reduced by NaBH<sub>4</sub> and catalyzed by Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra. (c) Spectra were recorded during the oxidation of 4-aminothiophenol oxidized by NaBH<sub>4</sub> and catalyzed by Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra. Adapted from ref 686 and modified. Copyright 2016 American Chemical Society.

based random alloys<sup>79,664</sup> systems have been extensively investigated. Chaudhari and co-workers developed a series of Pt-based nanocatalysts toward oxidation of glucose, glycerol with enhanced catalytic activity and selectivity,<sup>655,657,658</sup> reporting that the PtPd catalysts displayed significantly enhanced activity [turnover frequency (TOF) = 2404 h<sup>-1</sup>] and improved selectivity of 44% toward glucaric acid from glucose.<sup>625</sup> Their study also indicates an unusual oxidation activity (TOF = 3543 h<sup>-1</sup>) and 46% glucaric acid selectivity on a catalyst of PtCu<sub>3</sub> supported on TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>622</sup>

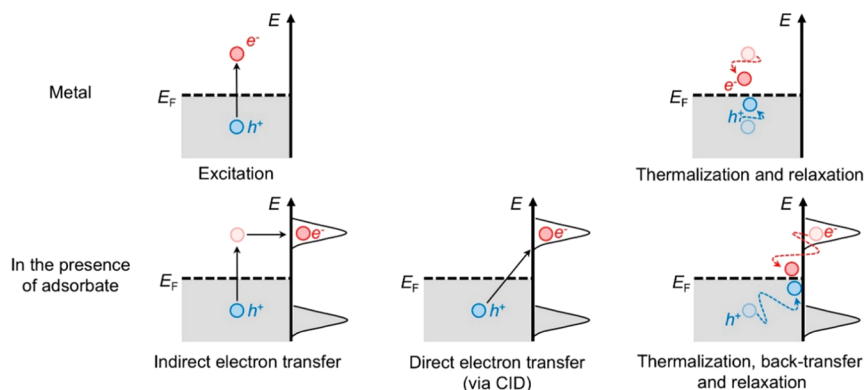
As discussed previously, the disordered–ordered “phase effect” and particle shape effect of the bimetallic catalysts can also be observed in the heterogeneous reactions. As a model reaction of C<sub>3</sub> polyol conversion from biomass feedstocks, for example, a study on oxidation of glycerol to tartronic acid in the aqueous phase indicated that the ordered intermetallic *fcc*-PtFe<sub>4.5</sub> nanocatalysts displayed an activity as high as ~3-times that from the disordered *fcc*-PtFe<sub>4.5</sub> random nanoalloys (TOF in mol mol<sub>Pt</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>: 26,340 vs 8126) at 70 °C under 1 atm O<sub>2</sub>-pressure. It was believed that the surface interfacial strain and appropriate electronic structure modification in the ordered intermetallic *fcc*-PtFe<sub>4.5</sub> were the major driving force of activating the C–H and C–O bonds more efficiently.<sup>657</sup> This “phase effect” from geometric and electronic differences can also be determined from the catalytic performance of Pd–Ga random alloy and intermetallic particles (20–32 μm) toward the gaseous hydrogenation of acetylene.<sup>665</sup> Despite diverse compositions and testing conditions applied, it can be seen that intermetallic Pd–Ga (GaPd, Ga<sub>7</sub>Pd<sub>3</sub>, and GaPd<sub>2</sub>) catalysts showed higher selectivity to ethylene than the random alloy Ga<sub>5</sub>Pd<sub>95</sub> counterpart (Figure 25a,b) as well as the commercial 5% Pd/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, although the conversion rates for all the tested bimetallic catalysts are comparable.

The shape effect of bimetallic catalysts on the hydrogenation of olefins has been extensively studied in recent years.<sup>666</sup> Fang and co-workers systematically prepared Pt<sub>3</sub>Co and Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe nanocatalysts with shape-control and applied them in the hydrogenation of styrene as a model reaction.<sup>40,578</sup> They demonstrated that the TOF of high-indexed Pt<sub>3</sub>Co concave NCbs is ~1.25-fold and ~2-fold of that of {100}-terminated Pt<sub>3</sub>Co and Pt NCbs, respectively, and the turnover rate closely connects to the dissociative adsorption of H<sub>2</sub> and activation of the unsaturated bond in the Pt<sub>3</sub>Co evaluation (Figure 25c).<sup>40</sup>

They shortly showed that the hydrogenation of styrene can also be promoted by high-indexed Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe concave NCbs that possess a superior reactivity of H–H cleavage and C=C bond activation to the {100}-bounded Pt<sub>3</sub>Fe NCbs of similar particle size (Figure 25d).<sup>578</sup>

Another case study is about how to efficiently converse syngas or CO<sub>2</sub> to chemical fuels, which was also mentioned in section 5.1.4. Pd-based catalysts are considered as efficient candidates for hydrogenation, especially CO<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation.<sup>421,667–671</sup> Schlögl and co-workers reported that Pd–Ga intermetallic nanocatalysts with different structures and compositions displayed highly selective semihydrogenation catalytic characteristics for acetylene outperforming, and they believed that the electronic modification and isolation of active sites are the origin of the excellent catalytic improvement.<sup>667</sup> Shortly, the intermetallic Pd<sub>2</sub>Ga supported on SiO<sub>2</sub> was applied for low-pressure CO<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation to methanol, exhibiting higher activity than that of the conventional Cu/ZnO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts.<sup>669</sup> Recently, bimetallic Pd–In nanocrystals also showed superior performance for CO<sub>2</sub> hydrogenation reaction.<sup>670</sup> Williams and co-workers identified that the optimized intermetallic PdIn nanocrystals displayed improved methanol selectivity in the temperature range of 190–270 °C, reaching >80% selectivity at 270 °C compared with 45% selectivity from the conventional heterogeneous Cu/ZnO/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts.<sup>670</sup>

**5.2.2. Optical and Photocatalytic Applications.** Normally, noble metal-based nanocrystals exhibited different colors originating from their strong interactions between the incident light and the confined free electrons of metal nanocrystals under the resonant condition.<sup>672,673</sup> This optical phenomenon is typically known as the LSPR,<sup>674</sup> and the resonance peak position and profile are dependent on the type of metal nanocrystals, with the visible region for Cu, Au, and Ag and the ultraviolet region for Rh, Ru, Pt, and Pd.<sup>1,675</sup> The LSPR peak position and profile could be modulated by forming random alloys, intermetallic compounds, and core–shell structures, such as bimetallic Au–Ag<sup>263,676–681</sup> and Au–Cu<sup>310,678,679,682–684</sup> nanostructures. For example, Chen and co-workers demonstrated that the LSPR peak of the Cu<sub>3</sub>Au random alloyed nanorods could be readily tuned over the spectrum from the visible spectrum to near-infrared.<sup>310</sup> Also, it demonstrated that the LSPR behavior could be determined by



**Figure 27.** Plasmon-induced hot-carrier generation and hot-electron transfer/back-transfer processes in clean metal and metal/adsorbate. In each case, the left component (relative to energy  $y$  axis) displays the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ) of plasmonic metals and the right component (relative to energy  $y$  axis) illustrates the highest occupied molecular orbitals (HOMOs) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals (LUMOs) for adsorbates. The gray parts represent the population of electronic states. CID: chemical interface damping. Adapted from ref 704 and modified. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

the size, shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase of metal nanocrystals.<sup>672,673,685</sup> There are a variety of applications in utilizing the LSRP phenomenon, e.g., the surface-enhanced Raman scattering (SERS), photocatalysis, artificial photosynthesis, solar cell, biomedicine, and sensing. Figure 26a presents the SERS spectra collected from 1,4-benzenedithiol (1,4-BDT) adsorbed on the Ag cuboctahedra, Ag–Au core–shell cuboctahedra, and Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra, which were prepared through a galvanic replacement reaction in solution.<sup>686</sup> SERS enhancement factor (EF) of the Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra outperforms both the regular Ag–Au core–shell cuboctahedra and the Ag cuboctahedra as the counterparts, showing SERS signal of as high as a  $\sim 74$ -fold increment at an excitation wavelength of 785 nm. Besides the structure and shape effect (existing more “hot spots”), in this case, it was reported that the stronger bond between Au–thiolate over that between Ag–thiolate could make an additional contribution to such a SERS signal increase since the composition distribution in the Ag–Au concave cuboctahedra are not homogeneous.<sup>687</sup> By taking advantage of this Ag–Au concave cuboctahedra, the superb SERS performance can be applied to monitor a reaction as an example of the applications using the catalytic feature of their surface Au atoms. Figure 26b,c presents time-dependent SERS spectra during a reduction of 4-nitrothiophenol to 4-aminothiophenol by  $\text{NaBH}_4$  through a 4,4'-dimercaptoazobenzene (trans-DMAB) intermediate and subsequent oxidation of 4-ATP back to trans-DMAB upon the introduction of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , respectively, demonstrating that the Ag–Au core–shell concave cuboctahedra could be a unique SERS probe for monitoring these reactions. These characteristic properties make random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals promising for applications in SERS, photocatalysis, artificial photosynthesis, plasmon-assisted nanocrystal synthesis, photothermal therapy, biomedicine, sensing, and solar cells.<sup>674,688–697</sup> Similarly, it can also be extended to other photocatalytic systems with tunable size, shape, and composition, such as Pt–Au,<sup>698</sup> Pd–Au,<sup>275,301,699</sup> Cu–Au,<sup>268,310</sup> and Ag–Au.<sup>700</sup>

It has also been observed, by integrating a plasmonic metal (e.g., Cu, Au, or Ag) with a highly catalytic nanocrystal (e.g., Rh, Ru, Pd, or Pt) in a system, the catalytic performance of bimetallic nanocrystals is dramatically improved by coupling with light, and some interesting photochemical transformations

become more favorable.<sup>689</sup> In this case, light is absorbed in particularly resonant plasmonic frequencies and then released as the input energy to drive the overall reactions occurring on the surface of bimetallic nanocrystals. Extensive investigations have demonstrated that this concept can be further extended to other polymetallic systems.<sup>309,701,702</sup>

Unlike the phonon-driven chemical reaction triggered by thermal heating of a catalyst, charge-carrier-driven reactions can be activated in a different mechanism, where a stimulus from outside (i.e., light) is provided to excite the hot-carrier.<sup>689</sup> The resonant optical excitation of surface plasmon produces energetic hot-carriers (hot-electron and hot-hole) to allow the photochemical reactions. Figure 27 illustrates the surface-plasmon-driven hot-carrier generation and hot-electron transfer/back-transfer process on a clean metal surface and metal/adsorbates. Although numerous hot electron-driven processes have been reported, few examples that rationalize the hot-holes extracted from metallic nanostructures were released while some interesting work in plasmonic photochemistry demonstrated the use of sacrificial reagents for the hole scavenging reactions.<sup>703–705</sup> For example, Li and co-workers investigated the plasmonic hot-holes on the Au/TiO<sub>2</sub> photocatalyst toward water oxidation.<sup>705</sup> They utilized Kelvin probe force microscopy to image the distribution of holes probed by surface photovoltage and applied photodeposition together with electron microscopic element mapping to position the reaction sites. They reported that most of the plasmonic holes, the active sites, are concentrated near the Au–TiO<sub>2</sub> interface. This interfacial effect on the plasmonic water oxidation reaction can be extended to other Au-based photocatalytic systems, such as Au/SrTiO<sub>3</sub> and Au/BaTiO<sub>3</sub>.

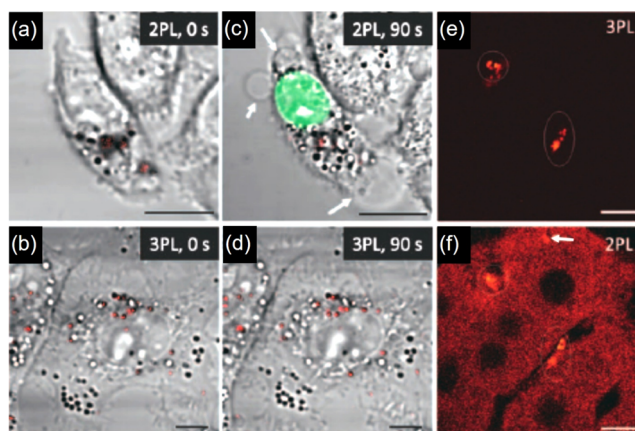
In recent years, there have been wide applications associated with the LSPR optical in artificial photocatalysis.<sup>23,24,706,707</sup> For instance, Neretina and co-workers adapted a vapor phase template-assembly technique and synthesized nanoprism-like AuCu structures with a strong LSPR.<sup>684</sup> With an illumination of 10 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> laser light, the AuCu photocatalysts were evaluated using 4-nitrophenol reduction by  $\text{NaBH}_4$  as a model reaction and showed a 32-fold enhancement in terms of the reaction rate constant. With the incorporation of plasmonic elements like Au, Ag, and Cu with catalytic metals such as Pt, Pd, and Rh, such metal random alloys could exhibit enhanced catalytic activity under light illumination, paving the way for



photocatalysis development as well.<sup>1,700,708,709</sup> For core-shell structures, Huang and co-workers pointed out the LSPR properties of Au-Pd can be maintained by turning the Pd-shell thickness and shape.<sup>699</sup> The LSPR absorption band can be seen when the Pd shell is less than 1 nm for the cubes, cuboctahedra, and truncated octahedra of 35 and 45 nm Au core nanostructures. For smaller Au-Pd core-shell octahedra, the Pd-shell thickness can be extended to 5 nm with an observation of the visible band, while for 74 nm Au-core nanostructure, the LSPR band is more recognizable for all-shaped nanocrystals. The Au-Pd and Au-Pt core-shell systems generally show no plasmon resonance in the visible region if the shell is too thick. It was also demonstrated by Sun and co-workers that the LSPR of Pd<sub>20</sub>Ag<sub>80</sub> random nanoalloys almost damped.<sup>551</sup> Besides, Kuo and co-workers demonstrated a one-step synthesis of core-shell nanoicosahedra containing AuPd random alloy cores and ultrathin Pd-shells (<2 nm). The AuPd-Pd core-shell nanostructures displayed LSPR-enhanced conversion of 4-nitrophenol.<sup>275</sup>

While most researchers focused their work on random alloy-based photocatalysis, there are limited reports involving the intermetallics in terms of their optical and photocatalytic applications. Matsumoto and co-workers synthesized PtPb-ordered intermetallic nanocrystals (NiAs-type structure, *P6<sub>3</sub>/mmc*) on WO<sub>3</sub> using a photodeposition/polyol method and studied the photocatalytic decomposition of acetic acid as well as its reaction mechanism on the as-prepared nanocatalysts.<sup>501</sup> In comparison with pure WO<sub>3</sub> and WO<sub>3</sub>-supported Pt catalysts, enhanced catalytic activities from the synthesized PtPb/WO<sub>3</sub> toward the decomposition of the organic compounds under an oxygen-rich atmosphere and visible light were determined.

Biomedicine and biomedical applications, such as cancer diagnosis and therapy, are additional fields where the optical properties of metal LSPR, including optical sensing and optical imaging, can be used.<sup>16,696,710</sup> For example, Xia and co-workers have extensively manipulated and studied Au-based nanostructures with tunable surface plasmon resonance peak, biocompatible, and a well-established functional surface.<sup>711,712</sup> To sculpture the Au-based nanocages with tunable layer-thickness, they synthesized Ag NCbs first, followed by a galvanic replacement and oxidative etching process.<sup>712</sup> Using a multimodal nonlinear optical microscopic technique,<sup>713</sup> they subsequently found that the Au/Ag nanocages emit a two-photon luminescence (2PL).<sup>712</sup> Although the 2PL process is efficient because of the enhancement of the plasmon resonance, three-photon luminescence (3PL) has more merit for cellular imaging in the aspect of phototoxicity. Figure 28 presents a comparison of 2PL and 3PL imaging of Au/Ag nanocages (49% Ag/51% Au) in KB cells (a carcinoma cell line) and liver tissues. As shown in Figure 28a,b, Au/Ag nanocages in cells could be visualized by both 2PL and 3PL at the same level of intensity. After 90 s scanning using a 760 nm laser, it was determined that a membrane blebbing occurred and the damage was confirmed by ethidium bromide staining, associated with a reduced 2PL intensity from nanocages as shown in Figure 28c. With the same treatment, however, Figure 28d displays a different result in which neither membrane blebbing nor reduced 3PL intensity was observed since no thermal effect was involved in 3PL. By comparing 2PL with 3PL micrographs imaged from the same liver tissue slice (Figure 28e,f), one can discern that fluorescence from the tissue can be completely suppressed at 1290 nm excitation and a

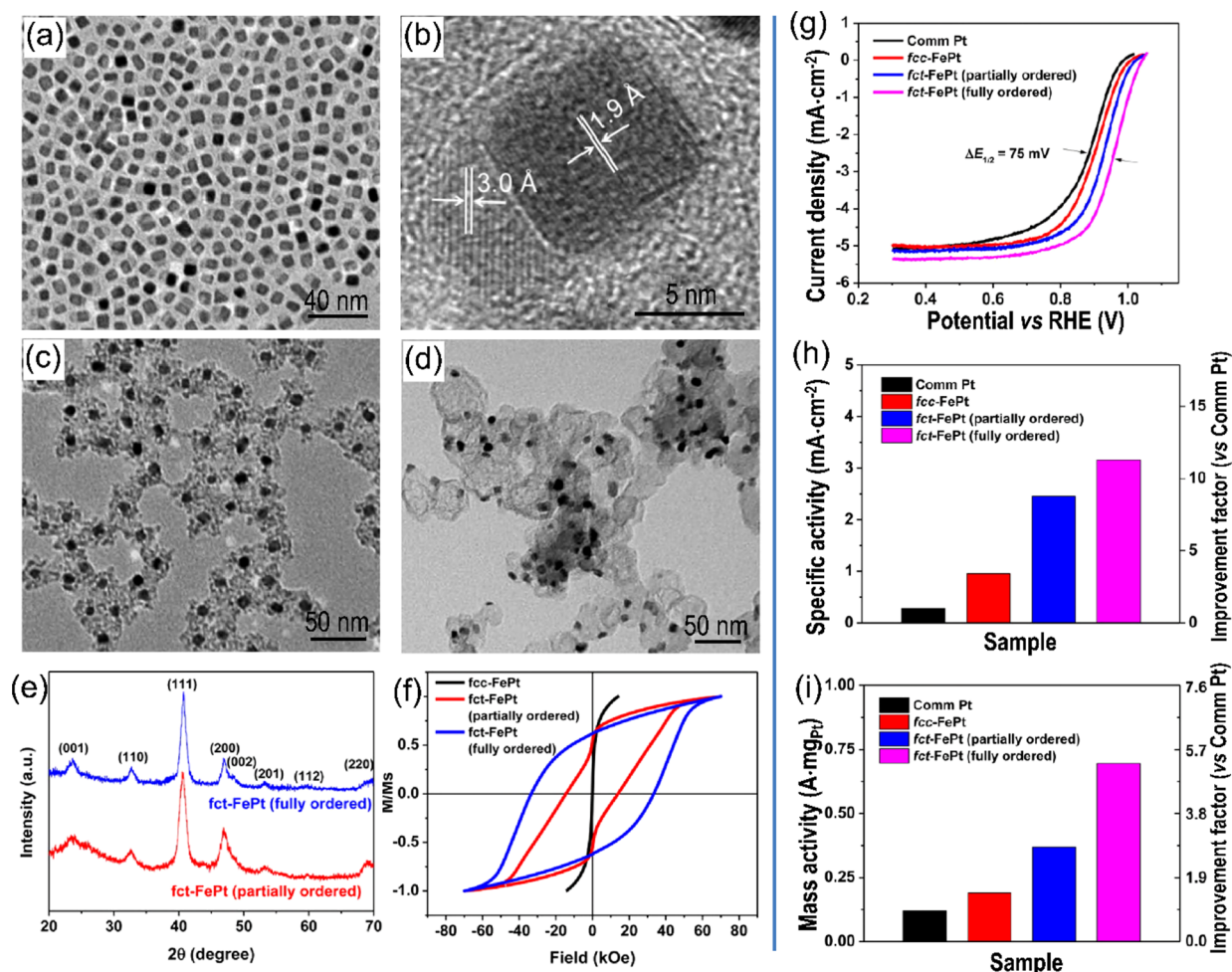


**Figure 28.** Comparison of 2PL and 3PL imaging of Au/Ag nanocages (51% Au/49% Ag) in KB cells (a–d) and liver tissues (e,f). (a) 2PL image and (b) 3PL image of Au/Ag nanocages (red) in KB cells before laser scanning. (c) Image of the same cell as in (a) after scanning with a 760 nm femtosecond laser for 90 s. Laser power after objective: 1.9 mW. After scanning, membrane blebbing (arrowed) and compromised membrane integrity indicated by ethidium bromide labeling (green) were observed. (d) 3PL image of the same cell as in panel (b) after scanning with a 1290 nm femtosecond laser for 90 s. Laser power after objective: 4.0 mW. No morphological change or plasma membrane damage was observed. (e) 3PL imaging of Au/Ag nanocages (white circles) in liver tissue. (f) 2PL imaging in the same area as in panel (e). White arrow: anomalously strong autofluorescence from the tissue. Laser power after objective: 7.0 mW. Scale bars: 10 mm. Adapted with permission from ref 712 and modified. Copyright 2010 Wiley-VCH.

weak background made it much easier to identify the Au/Ag nanocages, which is another benefit for the imaging with 3PL.

**5.2.3. Magnetic and Magnetism-Featured Applications.** Magnetic nanocrystals represent an important class of functional nanomaterials and have attracted increasing interest for their nanoscale magnetism and widespread applications. Over the years, bimetallic magnetic nanocrystals have been widely exploited and applied to a broad range of areas, including biochemistry, medicine, medical therapy, and ultrahigh density information storage et al.<sup>714–720</sup> It has been found that nanocrystals can transform from multidomain to single domain with the apparent increase in coercivity when the size of ferromagnetic nanocrystals reduces down to a critical size.<sup>721–723</sup> As such, tremendous efforts have been devoted to precisely tuning the size of magnetic nanocrystals via different approaches.<sup>724–726</sup> With the blooming development of synthetic approaches, more and more studies seem to turn to magnetic applications related to nanocrystals with well-defined shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase.<sup>727–730</sup> Actually, it has been confirmed that the structural parameters are dependent on their magnetism. More importantly, these investigations deepen our understanding of their magnetic properties and also exhibit the great potential of these nanocrystals in magnetism-related applications.<sup>406,731–733</sup>

Typically, nanomaterials containing Fe-, Co-, Ni-, Cr-, and Mn-based metals, random alloy, oxides may possess ferromagnetic or paramagnetic properties.<sup>395,420,428,447,718,734–736</sup> Since noble-transition-metal-based random alloys and intermetallic compounds for magnetic applications represent a typical topic and have been systematically discussed elsewhere,<sup>13</sup> we focus on the case study of FePt in this section.



**Figure 29.** TEM images and magnetic/electrochemical properties of FePt-based nanocrystals. (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of dumbbell *fcc* FePt–Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals. (c) TEM image of MgO-supported *fcc* FePt–Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals. (d) TEM image of carbon-supported *fct* FePt nanocrystals (fully ordered) after thermal annealing at 700 °C under Ar + 5% H<sub>2</sub> for 6 h followed by acid washing. (e) XRD patterns of the fully and partially ordered *fct* FePt nanocatalysts. (f) Hysteresis loops of the *fcc* FePt, the fully and partially ordered *fct* FePt nanocatalysts. (g) ORR polarization curves of comm Pt (commercial catalysts Pt/C, 20 wt % Pt) and carbon-supported *fcc*-FePt, partially and fully ordered *fct*-FePt nanocatalysts in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub> (rotating speed: 1600 rpm; scan rate, 10 mV/s). (h) and (i) Specific activities and mass activities of all the catalysts mentioned in panel (g) at 0.9 V. Adapted from ref 112 and modified. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society.

FePt random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals could be prepared from a high-temperature organic colloidal system with a postannealing treatment<sup>323</sup> and have been inspired as potential magnetic storage media.<sup>239,737</sup> For a magnetic domain, the energy barrier required to reverse the magnetization, from one to another, generally needs to be >60 times higher than the thermal energy. It was reported that the L1<sub>0</sub>-FePt nanocrystal was one of the most promising candidates for heat-assisted magnetic recording because of its large  $K$  ( $7 \times 10^6 \text{ J m}^{-3}$ ),  $T_c$  (750 K), and robust stability.<sup>13</sup> Also, the magnetic properties of the FePt nanocrystals are very sensitive to their size, size distribution, composition, and crystal structure. It is therefore essential to control the quality of as-prepared magnetic nanocrystals.<sup>1,13</sup> The mentioned colloidal synthesis approach has demonstrated the possibility of size-, composition-, and particle shape-control.<sup>240</sup> However, a post-treatment of thermal annealing may be necessary to convert the disordered *fcc*-type FePt nanocrystals to ordered L1<sub>0</sub>-FePt nanocrystals.<sup>738</sup> Sun and co-workers facilitated fully ordered L1<sub>0</sub>-FePt nanocrystals with strong ferromagnetism using a developed annealing strategy (Figure 15) from MgO-coated

dumbbell-like *fcc*-FePt–Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanocrystals as the starting point (Figure 29a–c).<sup>112,161,438</sup> The success in the ordered phase conversion is ascribed to the MgO-coated shell and conjugated Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. MgO functions as a tentative particle protection layer, preventing particle aggregation and sintering during the annealing stage, whereas the Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> attached on the FePt nanocrystals helps to create defects upon reduction and such a dumbbell structure facilitates Fe/Pt diffusion to generate fully ordered *fct*-phase (Figure 29d,e). This *fcc*-to-*fct* phase transition was further monitored by the determined hysteresis loops that describe the change of the magnetic moment as a function of the applied magnetic field strength. Different from the superparamagnetic behavior from the *fcc*-FePt nanocrystals at room temperature (the black loop in Figure 29f), the annealed FePt nanocrystals (for 1 and 6 h) showed a two-phase (superparamagnetic and ferromagnetic, the red loop in Figure 29f) and a single-phase (ferromagnetic, the blue loop in Figure 29f) hysteresis characteristics, respectively. The structure-based magnetic behaviors of these FePt nanocrystals coincide with their electrocatalytic performance very well. As shown in Figure 29g–i, the fully ordered,



ferromagnetic *fcc*-FePt intermetallic nanocrystals exhibit the much higher ORR activity than the disordered, superparamagnetic *fcc*-FePt random alloy nanocrystals.

The *fcc*-FePt random alloy nanocrystals with a relatively small  $K_u$  are regarded as “soft” magnetic materials (small coercivity), while the fully ordered *fcc*-FePt intermetallic nanocrystals show a larger  $K_u$  and are treated as “hard” (large coercivity) magnetic media.<sup>239</sup> A similar phenomenon was observed when Fe was replaced by Co to achieve fully ordered hard-magnet  $L1_0$ -CoPt intermetallic nanocrystals.<sup>114,406</sup> It was also found that the  $L1_0$ -CoPt nanocrystals obtained from 6 h annealing are strongly ferromagnetic, whereas the *fcc* CoPt nanocrystals received directly from the synthesis process without annealing are superparamagnetic.<sup>114</sup> Those magnetic nanocrystals possessing superparamagnetic properties have the potential of being applied to biomedicine study. They could serve as sensitive magnetic probes in magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), efficient separation of biomolecules, and targeted drug delivery.<sup>51,715,718–720</sup> Among these applications, surface-functionalized bimetallic noble metal magnetic nanocrystals, especially Ag-based nanocrystals, are promising for the isolation and detection of bacteria.<sup>714,719</sup> FePt nanocrystals conjugated with Vancomycin (Van) exhibit high sensitivity to bacteria with a terminal peptide of D-Ala-D-Ala on cell walls.<sup>715</sup>

## 6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Noble metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals pertain to the big family of solid solution structure. They often exhibit different properties and applications from their bulk counterparts. It has been well established that the remarkable properties are closely associated with their size, shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase that can be precisely controlled and optimized. As such, a vast set of noble metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals are currently attainably derived from the tremendous efforts from many research groups and then explored to apply in various fields. Despite the significant achievement, there is still much space to be left in terms of attaining robust and reproducible synthetic approaches that can generate well-controlled noble metal-based random alloy and intermetallic nanocrystals, in parallel with deeply understanding the formation mechanisms involved in the syntheses. It should be emphasized that a large number of unsolved issues need to be addressed jointly combined with experiments, theories, and instruments, further driving the transition from empirical syntheses to theoretically supported syntheses.

During the syntheses, the most common issue is to the reproducibility. Considering that the significant deviation in the quality of chemicals involved in different laboratories might impose a great challenge to reproduce some of the syntheses, it seems to be an urgent task to improve the quality of present chemicals at this stage for enabling reproducing these nanocrystals. For example, Mirkin and co-workers discovered that different batches of CTAB from various manufacturers could lead to the final products with diverse morphologies under the same experimental conditions during the synthesis of Au nanocrystals, due to the different contents of iodide ions as an impurity.<sup>739</sup> Moreover, it is possible to draw ambiguous or incorrect conclusions from experimental observations, as some of the syntheses are highly sensitive to a subtle difference in experimental conditions, leading to misunderstanding the key parameters to the syntheses. Typically, qualitative assessments

are primarily concluded based on controlled experiments by purposely altering one or two parameters in most of the previous reports related to the synthesis of nanocrystals. It is worth pointing out that, in some cases, it is hard to completely distinguish each parameter effects on the outcome in practical syntheses, ultimately resulting in the speculative conclusions for the formation mechanism. As compared to the qualitative assessment, it seems that increasingly interests begin to focus on the more precise and reliable quantitative evaluation to enable gaining deep insights into the synthesis of the nanocrystals. Once the reaction kinetics are acquired, the protocols for these nanocrystals should be easily reproduced by exquisitely controlling the nucleation and growth processes predictably.

Extensive studies have demonstrated that the size, shape, composition, structure, and crystal phase all play an essential role in the properties of resultant nanocrystals. As a result, it is of critical importance to simultaneously achieve control over these parameters during the syntheses, especially for ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with well-defined size, shape, and composition. High-temperature annealing approach is generally believed to be a commonly used approach for generating ordered intermetallic nanocrystals. While this approach allows for precise control over the composition and atomic ordering, it is still a big challenge to manipulate the size and shape of the nanocrystals, as annealing process at high temperature often destroy the original shape of as-synthesized nanocrystals in most cases and lead to severely nanocrystals aggregation/sintering. To solve this issue, a robust coating layer is required to deposit on the surface of the as-synthesized nanocrystals before annealing. Unfortunately, it is demonstrated that the coating layers will dramatically impede nanoscale mass transport, resulting in forming the partially ordered nanocrystals. In comparison, liquid synthesis approaches exhibit great potential for the formation of well-controlled ordered intermetallic nanocrystals under a relatively mild condition. Due to the lack of enough insights for the fundamental parameters involved in the synthesis, the limited availability of ordered intermetallic nanocrystals with well-controlled size and shape is reported up to now, and thus more new synthetic protocols need to be developed.

To meet the demand from future industrial applications, nanocrystals on the kilogram level are typically required. As such, it is very essential to develop new synthetic approaches for achieving scalable production. In general, most current approaches for the synthesis of nanocrystals involves the reaction with volumes in the range of 1–100 mL and the production on the milligram scale in each batch. It is not realistic to raise the yields by simply increasing the volume of the reaction solution while maintaining the same molar ratio of all reagents. To this end, new effective approaches related to continuous flow and droplet-based reaction systems have recently been developed. These approaches hold the potential for realizing automation, significantly decreasing the overall cost, and achieving precise control over the quality of the product as compared to the conventional batch approaches. Further studies associated with rationally manipulating the experimental parameters are still needed to be completed in scalable production.

Compared with the random alloy nanocrystals, it was furthermore determined that the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals possess predictable electronic and lattice structure with high activity in a given application and high stability in harsh



environments. It seems that migration of more components, high active surface defects, and high-indexed facets to those promising intermetallic nanocrystals could be an effective strategy to further enhance their intrinsic activities and stabilities. For example, Yamaguchi and co-workers demonstrated that the incorporation of Cu into ordered intermetallic PtFe nanocrystals to facilitate a formation of PtFeCu nanocrystals with the same crystal phase could dramatically improve their electrocatalytic stability toward ORR.<sup>378</sup> Meanwhile, it is also expected that the ordered intermetallic nanocrystals could serve as templates for the formation of core-shell nanostructures with well-defined surface structures, which could remarkably reduce the use of noble metals and enhance the catalytic properties. For instance, Skrabalak and co-workers have demonstrated that core-shell nanocrystals with random alloy Pt-M (where M = Ni, Co, Cu, or Fe) shells and ordered intermetallic PdCu core exhibited enhanced activity and durability toward ORR.<sup>481</sup> On the basis of these studies, it can be predicted that there is large room to extensively develop intermetallic improved synthetic strategies to further improve the material performance in various practical applications.

Overall, the development of a synthetic approach for shape-controlled random alloy and ordered intermetallic nanocrystals and the exploration of their pivotal applications create prosperous opportunities yet with new challenges. The critical importance in this blossoming field has been highlighted in some paradigms provided by several research groups. It is foreseeable that these efforts will pay off in a great way, as the best is yet to come.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Jiye Fang received his Ph.D. degree in Materials Science from National University of Singapore in 1999. He was a Postdoctoral Associate and subsequently Research Specialist from 1999 to 2002 at Advanced Materials Research Institute. He joined the Chemistry Department at University of New Orleans as an Assistant Professor in 2002 and then moved to State University of New York at Binghamton in 2006. He was an NSF CAREER award recipient. He is now the Professor of Chemistry and MSE at Binghamton. His current research interests are the synthesis of shape-controlled nanocrystals, self-assembly and superstructure, pressure-induced phase transition, lattice strain study on noble metal-based nanocrystals, and advanced catalysts for fuel cell applications in acidic and alkaline media.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

$\Delta G$	Gibbs free energy
$\Delta H$	enthalpy
$\Delta S$	entropy
2D	two-dimensional
3D	three-dimensional
AA	ascorbic acid
ACA	adamantanecarboxylic acid
acac	acetylacetonate
ADT	accelerated durability test
AWEs	alkaline water electrolyzers
bct	body-centered tetragonal
1,4-BDT	1,4-benzenedithiol
Bi(Ac) <sub>3</sub>	bismuth(III) acetate
CA	citric acid
CO	carbon monoxide
CO <sub>2</sub>	carbon dioxide
Co(acac) <sub>2</sub>	cobalt(II) acetylacetonate
CNC	concave nanocube
CTAB	cetyltrimethylammonium bromide
CV	cyclic voltammograms
DDA	dodecylamine
DDT	1-dodecanethiol
DFT	density functional theory
trans-DMAB	4,4'-dimercaptoazobenzene
DMF	N,N-dimethylformamide
DOE	department of energy, U.S.
eCO <sub>2</sub> RR	CO <sub>2</sub> electrochemical reduction reaction
EDS	energy-dispersive spectroscopy
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EDX	energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

EF	enhancement factor
EG	ethylene glycol
EOR	ethanol oxidation reaction
Et <sub>2</sub> Zn	diethylzinc
FAOR	formic acid oxidation reaction
fcc	face-centered cubic
ftc	face-centered tetragonal
Fe(acac) <sub>3</sub>	iron(III) acetylacetonate
HAADF	high-angle annular dark-field
HCHO	formaldehyde
hcp	hexagonal closest packed
HDA	hexadecylamine
HDD	1,2-hexadecandiol
HDT	hexadecanethiol
HER	hydrogen evolution reaction
HOR	hydrogen oxidation reaction
HRTEM	high-resolution transmission electron microscopy
ICP	inductively coupled plasma
JMAK	Johnson-Mehl-Avram-Kolmogorov
LMTO-ASA	linear muffin-tin orbitals in the atomic sphere approximation
LSPR	localized surface plasmon resonance
LSV	linear sweep voltammetry
Mn(acac) <sub>2</sub>	manganese(II) acetylacetonate
MOR	methanol oxidation reaction
MRI	magnetic resonance imaging
MXenes	metal carbides
NCb	nanocube
NFs	nanoframes
Ni(acac) <sub>2</sub>	nickel(II) acetylacetonate
OA	oleic acid
OAm	oleylamine
ODE	octadecene
OER	oxygen evolution reaction
OMC	ordered mesoporous carbon
ORR	oxygen reduction reaction
Pb(Ac) <sub>2</sub>	lead(II) acetate
Pd <sub>2</sub> (dba) <sub>3</sub>	tris(dibenzylideneacetone)dipalladium(0)
PEMFC	proton-exchange membrane fuel cell
PEWEs	polymer electrolyte water electrolyzers
PGMs	platinum group metals
PI-b-PEO	polyisoprene-blockpoly (ethylene oxide)
2PL	two-photon luminescence
3PL	three-photon luminescence
PVP	poly(vinyl pyrrolidone)
Pt(acac) <sub>2</sub>	platinum(II) acetylacetonate
Rh <sub>2</sub> (Ac) <sub>4</sub>	rhodium acetate dimer
SAED	selected area electron diffraction
SEM	scanning electron microscope
SERS	surface-enhanced Raman scattering
SMCR	seed-mediated co-reduction
STEM	scanning transmission electron microscopy
TBAB	tert-butylamine-borane
TEM	transmission electron microscopy
THF	tetrahydrofuran
THH	tetrahexahedral
TOF	turnover frequency
TOP	triethylphosphine
TTGE	tetraethylene glycol
Van	vancomycin
w/o	water-in-oil
XPS	X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

XRD	X-ray diffraction
ZIF-8	zeolitic imidazolate framework-8
Zn(acac) <sub>2</sub>	zinc(II) acetylacetonate

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