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April 26, 2004

SURFACE SCIENCE

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29 April 2004

Submitted to Nature Materials

**Tuning electronic properties of novel metal oxide nanocrystals using interface interactions: MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayers on Au(111)**

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## **Abstract**

Metal oxide nanocrystals deposited on metal surfaces have novel electronic properties due to interface<sup>1,2</sup> and nanoscale<sup>3</sup> effects. Crystals and nanoscale ribbons of MoO<sub>3</sub> are highly effective catalysts<sup>4</sup> and field emitters<sup>3</sup>. This renders MoO<sub>3</sub> an interesting prototype. Whilst MoO<sub>3</sub> exists as bilayers in the bulk crystal<sup>5</sup>, in this work, monolayer MoO<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals were grown epitaxially on Au(111). *Ab initio* calculations reveal that Au stabilizes the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer through electronic charge redistribution at the interface. The Mo-O bonds are able to rotate about one another, allowing the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer to adjust to the Au lattice. As a result, the monolayer is semimetallic, unlike bulk MoO<sub>3</sub> which is semiconducting. This remarkable flexibility of the oxide lattice suggests the possibility of tuning electronic properties of transition metal oxides *via* interface interactions. The overall surface pattern obtained is affected by an interplay between the Au(111) surface reconstruction and the edges of the deposited MoO<sub>3</sub> islands.

## **Main text**

MoO<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals were grown on Au(111) surfaces by both chemical vapour deposition (CVD) and physical vapour deposition (PVD) of Mo, followed by thermal oxidation. High resolution scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) and low energy electron diffraction (LEED) studies indicate that the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands grown by either technique have a  $c(4 \times 2)$  unit cell. STM images further reveal that the islands are one monolayer in height, i.e. half of the bilayer found in bulk MoO<sub>3</sub>. This interesting surface structure has another important ramification: although clean Au(111) reconstructs to

form a herringbone pattern<sup>6</sup>, STM images indicate that the reconstruction is not continued under the islands (**Fig. 1**), a feature we adopt in the theoretical model of the system.

In its optimized structure (**Fig. 2a**), the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer distorts to fit the Au lattice and has distinct symmetry properties from its bulk analogue (**Fig. 2c**). In contrast to the bulk case, the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer has two non-equivalent planes of reflection and glide symmetry. The slab appears to be composed of MoO<sub>3</sub> units tilting alternately forwards and backwards relative to the surface normal, along the axes of reflection (**Fig. 2b**). Using the notation in **Fig. 2**, O<sub>b2</sub> is situated directly above a Au atom, whilst O<sub>b1</sub> is above a Au bridge site. Mo sits in a 3-fold site, off-centered away from the Au atoms below O<sub>b2</sub>.

Using the electronic wavefunctions associated with this structure, we performed simulations of the STM images expected for this system, based on the Tersoff-Hamann theory<sup>7</sup>. The bright spots in the STM images are found to correspond to lateral positions of terminal O. Within the limits of experimental variance, the relative positions of these spots are the same in theory and experiment (**Fig. 3**), thus lending strong evidence to the tilting of MoO<sub>3</sub> units described above.

Phonon frequencies of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer were computed at the Brillouin zone center, using the harmonic approximation. To compare these with frequencies from electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS), selection rules based on both dipole and impact scattering<sup>8</sup> were employed. We found only 6 EELS-active phonon modes out of 24 possible ones. The calculated frequencies, with corresponding experimental values in parentheses, are, in cm<sup>-1</sup>: 1030, 1020 (990), 804 (850), 430 (480), 351 (280) and 160 (-). Noting that instrument resolution is about 80 cm<sup>-1</sup>, and that 160 cm<sup>-1</sup> is out of the

detection range, theoretical and experimental frequencies correspond fairly well, especially given that finite-size effects were neglected in the simulation. This correspondence provides further evidence for the predicted symmetry properties.

The preceding results confirm unequivocally that the optimized structure matches the experimental structure of the interior of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer islands on Au(111), without including defects. It is remarkable that the Mo-O bonds have sufficient freedom to rotate about one another, to allow a distortion of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer from the bulk, so as to adjust to the Au lattice. Geometrical considerations indicate that the  $c(4 \times 2)$  unit cell is in fact the smallest unit cell for which epitaxy can be achieved, if sufficient bonding between Mo atoms through the bridging O bonds is to be preserved. Moreover, the symmetry properties of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer are dictated by the symmetries of the Au substrate – the reflection symmetry in the oxide is matched by a reflection symmetry in the Au lattice, and the glide plane symmetry in the oxide corresponds to a similar symmetry in the top Au layer, if its relation to underlying Au layers is ignored.

Unlike semiconducting bulk MoO<sub>3</sub>, the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer is semimetallic, as deduced from the density of states (DOS) of the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au system, projected onto the oxide slab. The MoO<sub>3</sub> slab alone has a similar, semimetallic DOS. However, if this slab is allowed to relax in the same unit cell without Au, it becomes semiconducting. The relaxed slab resembles an interacting array of trigonal-pyramidal MoO<sub>3</sub> molecules: rows of Mo atoms relax alternately towards rows of O<sub>b1</sub> and O<sub>b2</sub>, thus breaking the glide-plane symmetry. This symmetry-breaking, accompanied by the semimetal-to-insulator transition, suggests that the slab undergoes a Jahn-Teller distortion when allowed to relax as above. Analysis of the DOS of the semimetallic MoO<sub>3</sub> slab reveals that Fermi level

states are localized in the plane of Mo and bridging O. It is therefore likely that a semimetal-to-insulator transition occurs because symmetry-degenerate states at the Fermi level split to form bonding and anti-bonding states, when Mo relaxes towards a pair of bridging O atoms to form stronger bonds.

The above analysis suggests that the semimetallic character of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer on Au is related to the glide plane symmetry in the oxide layer and can be attributed at least in part to the strained Mo-O bridging bonds. The difference in energy between the relaxed MoO<sub>3</sub> slab and the MoO<sub>3</sub> slab strained to fit the Au lattice, was calculated to be 0.15 eV/unit cell. On the other hand, the cohesive energy for the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au system, with respect to a relaxed unreconstructed Au(111) surface and the isolated frozen MoO<sub>3</sub> slab, was calculated to be -0.24 eV/unit cell. The energy cost of straining the MoO<sub>3</sub> slab is therefore overcome by the gain in cohesive energy upon formation of the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au interface. In order to elucidate the nature of the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au interaction, we plot the difference between the charge density of the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au system, and the sum of charge densities of isolated MoO<sub>3</sub> and Au slabs, frozen in configuration from the joint system (**Fig. 4**). This reveals that the MoO<sub>3</sub> slab induces an electronic charge redistribution above the Au surface. The positively-charged Mo ions draw electron density to the region directly underneath them. Each of these electron clouds is in turn attracted by the nearest Au atom, since Au surface atoms are electron-deficient. In this way, Mo is drawn closer to the Au atom nearest to it. On the other hand, the partial negative charges on O<sub>b2</sub> cause them to be attracted to Au atoms directly beneath them. These interactions together cause the Mo-O<sub>b2</sub> bridging bonds to strain resulting in semimetallic character. The electronic charge redistribution satisfies local bonding

requirements, which allows the Au surface to act as the other half of the MoO<sub>3</sub> bilayer. The MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer in turn stabilizes the Au(111) surface, with each Au atom bonded either to an O atom (O<sub>b2</sub>) or a Mo atom, and as a result, the surface reconstruction under the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands is lifted.

*In-situ* STM studies suggest that the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands grow *via* aggregation of MoO<sub>3</sub> molecular species. Earlier theoretical work has shown that induced electrostatic interactions increase the cationic character of Mo, as MoO<sub>3</sub> units build up to form bulk MoO<sub>3</sub><sup>9</sup>. Similarly, in our calculations, the local charge on Mo is larger in the MoO<sub>3</sub> slab on Au than in a single MoO<sub>3</sub> molecule. The increased ionic character upon aggregation of MoO<sub>3</sub> molecular species allows the oxide to polarize the electron gas at the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au interface. Charge redistribution at the interface stabilizes the islands, allowing nucleation and growth. The surface of these islands corresponds to the natural cleavage plane of bulk MoO<sub>3</sub> and has a free energy<sup>10</sup> of only 0.05-0.07 J/m<sup>2</sup>. In contrast, Au has a surface free energy<sup>11</sup> of 1.62 J/m<sup>2</sup>. Growth of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer is thus driven by both a gain in interface energy and a reduction in surface free energy.

Interestingly, the long straight edges of the ensuing islands run along the  $\langle 11-2 \rangle$  directions of Au, parallel to the herringbone pattern, and not the  $\langle -312 \rangle$  directions, diagonal to the  $c(4 \times 2)$  unit cell, along which MoO<sub>3</sub> units are close-packed (**Fig. 2a**). The herringbone pattern is aligned parallel to straight island edges, but tends to form sharp bends at rough island edges (**Fig. 1**). The herringbone pattern has the property of soliton-waves<sup>12</sup>; therefore, absence of Au reconstruction beneath the islands imposes hard-wall boundary conditions on these waves, causing the herringbone pattern to be oriented so that it is locally parallel to the island edges. The distinct correlation between

straight island edges and the herringbone direction suggests that there is an interplay between the herringbone structure and the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands that affects the overall pattern that develops on the surface. Further theoretical and experimental investigation of kinetic effects will substantially clarify this picture.

## **Discussion**

The growth of oxide thin films on metals has attracted considerable attention because enhanced chemical activity has been observed in some of these systems, and additional novel properties are expected to arise from the image potential screening of charge fluctuations in the oxide, and from interface hybridization or charge transfer effects<sup>2</sup>. In this work, we have demonstrated that whilst MoO<sub>3</sub> exists as bilayers in the bulk crystal, MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer nanocrystals can be grown on the Au(111) surface. The Au surface acts as the other half of the MoO<sub>3</sub> bilayer, stabilizing the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer *via* electronic charge redistribution and energetic gains due to interface formation and reduction of the surface energy of Au. We have shown that the Mo-O bonds have sufficient freedom to rotate about one another, allowing the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer to adjust to the Au substrate. The resulting epitaxial strain gives the oxide semimetallic character. We expect that this substantial rotational degree of freedom, of oxide bonds about one another, is common to many transition metal oxides, especially those that have more than one structural phase in the bulk. Thin films of some of these oxides have been successfully grown on metal surfaces<sup>13</sup>. In fact, it is likely that the growth mechanism proposed herein is general enough so that a rich variety of other novel structures of such oxides can be grown on metal surfaces by condensing molecular species, which become increasingly ionic, interacting with the substrate to create a wetting oxide layer. Our

results suggest that the metallic substrate may be used as a handle to tune the electronic properties of these oxide structures, by exploiting the flexibility of the oxide lattice, and the polarizability of the interface electron gas.

## Methods

### Experimental details:

Nanocrystalline MoO<sub>3</sub> islands on Au(111) were prepared in two different ultra-high vacuum systems, and full experimental details are provided in reference [14] and the following submitted paper: M.M.B., J.B., R. Schalek, & C.M.F. Growth of nanocrystalline MoO<sub>3</sub> on Au(111) studied by *in-situ* STM. Briefly, Mo deposited on Au(111) via CVD was oxidized by exposure to NO<sub>2</sub>. Only small amounts of Mo were deposited and oxidized at a time to allow full oxidation. Typically, the surface was exposed to 1 L of Mo(CO)<sub>6</sub> and 10 L NO<sub>2</sub> alternatively at 450 K, followed by annealing to 600 K for 1 min after every four cycles of dosing, for a total of 16 cycles (**Fig. 3a**). Mo deposited via PVD was oxidized by subsequent exposure to NO<sub>2</sub>. For example, 0.3 ML Mo deposited on Au(111) at 600 K were oxidized by exposure to 20 L NO<sub>2</sub> at 600 K (**Fig. 1**). STM images shown in this paper were collected at room temperature.

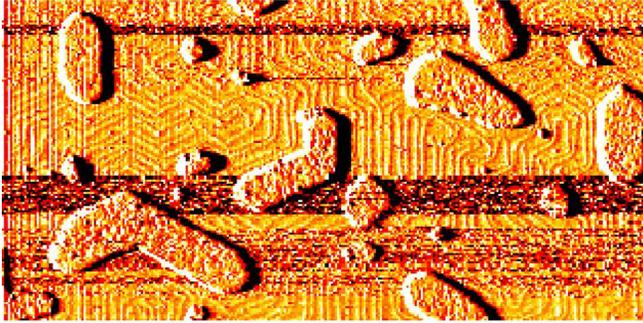
### Details of calculations:

The density functional calculations employed the projected augmented wave method<sup>15,16</sup> and the Perdew-Wang 91 gradient correction<sup>17</sup> for the exchange-correlation functional, as implemented in the VASP<sup>18</sup> code. The optimized structure of bulk MoO<sub>3</sub> obtained with this approach compared well to the known crystal structure, with bond lengths accurate to 1-3%. We model the Au(111) surface by a slab of 6 Au layers,

separated by 16.5 Å of vacuum before the oxide is introduced. The MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer and the top 3 Au layers were allowed to relax until the forces on atoms in these layers were less than 0.01 eV/Å. Geometry optimizations were performed using a plane-wave energy cutoff of 400 eV and a 3 × 3 *k*-point mesh. Increasing the mesh density to 6 × 6 did not change the optimized geometry of the MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer on Au significantly. Energies and charge densities were calculated using a plane-wave cutoff of 500 eV and a 12 × 12 *k*-point mesh. Such a mesh was sufficient for the convergence of the total energy in a bulk-terminated Au(111) surface.

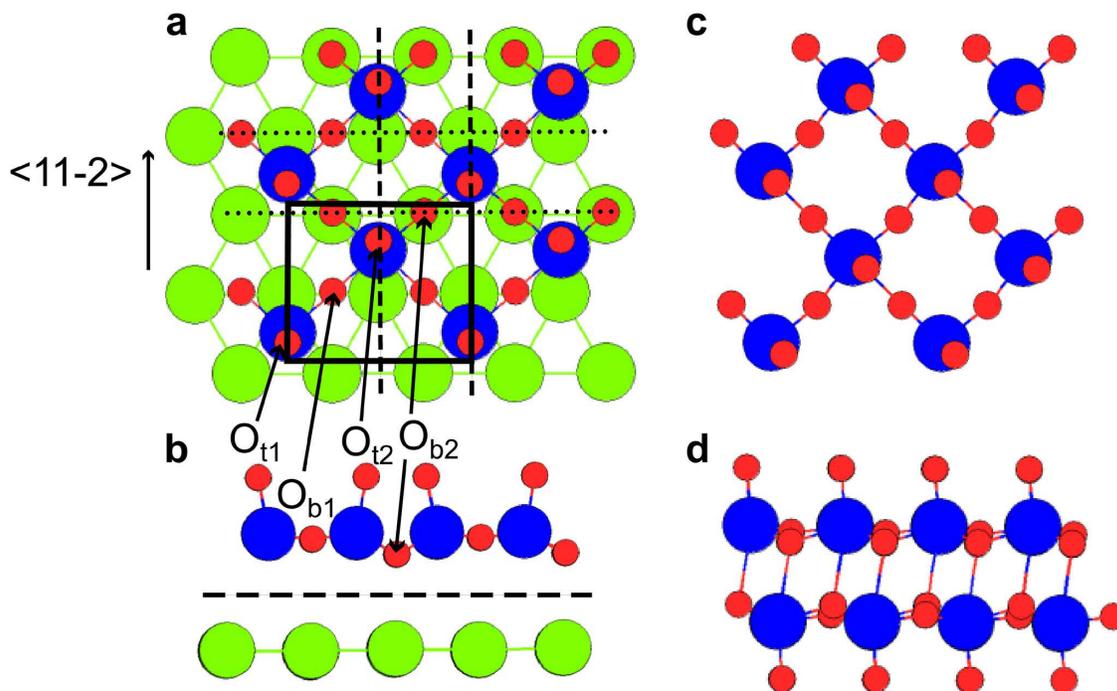
### **Acknowledgements**

The calculations were performed on the National Computational Science Alliance IBM P690, under DMR030044. The experimental work was supported by the National Science Foundation, under the Harvard Nanoscale Science and Engineering Center, PHY-011-7795, and the Harvard Materials Research Science and Engineering Center, DMR-0213805, as well as the Department of Energy, Basic Energy Sciences, under FG02-84-ER13289. J.B. acknowledges current support under the auspices of the U. S. Department of Energy by the University of California, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under Contract No. W-7405-Eng-48. The authors thank D.-H. Kang and X. Deng for work on EELS and XPS respectively. S.-Y.Q. thanks the Singapore Agency for Science, Technology and Research for a graduate fellowship.

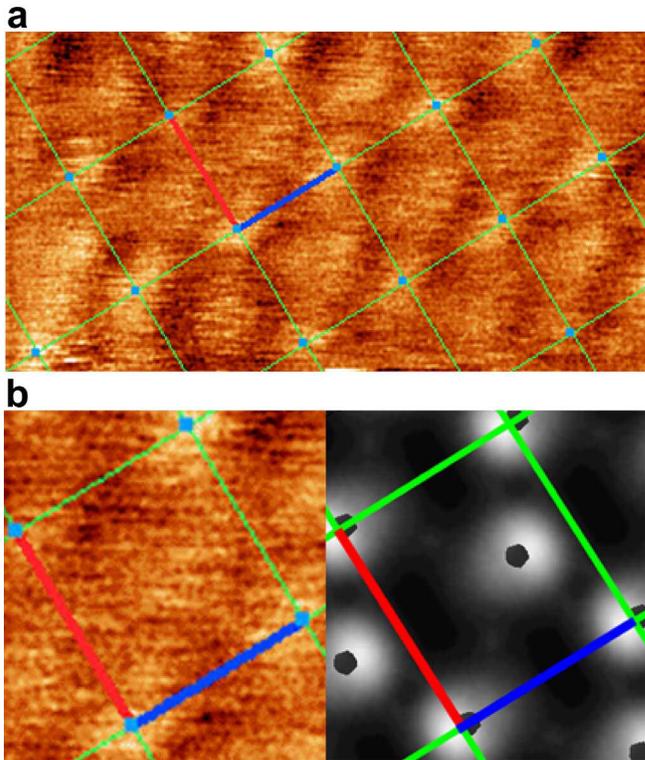


20 nm

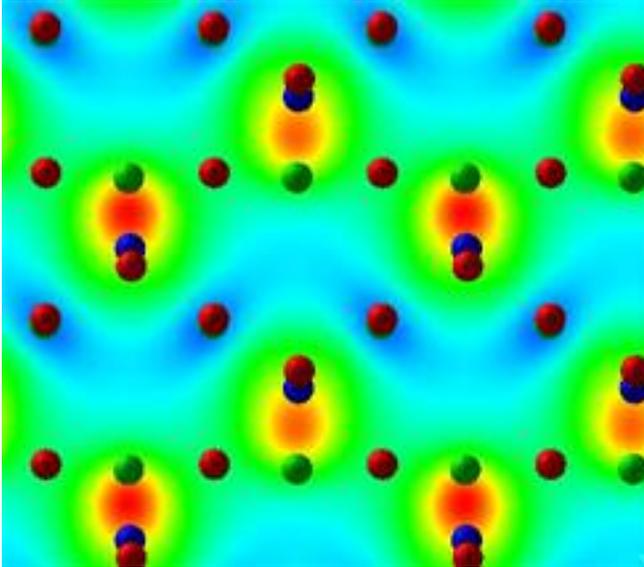
**Figure 1. STM image of MoO<sub>3</sub> islands on Au(111).** The Au herringbone reconstruction runs parallel to the straight island edges, and bends sharply at rough island edges. These bends indicate that the Au(111) reconstruction is lifted under the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands.



**Figure 2. Atomic structure of MoO<sub>3</sub> slabs.** **a**, Top view of MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer on Au. **b**, Side view of MoO<sub>3</sub> monolayer on Au. **c**, Top view showing half a bulk MoO<sub>3</sub> bilayer. **d**, Side view of a bulk MoO<sub>3</sub> bilayer. Blue, red and green circles represent Mo, O and Au atoms respectively. MoO<sub>3</sub> units are close-packed along the diagonal of the  $c(4 \times 2)$  unit cell, indicated by the black box. Dashed and dotted lines in **a** respectively denote planes of reflection and glide symmetry in the oxide monolayer. The view in **b** is that down the glide planes, and shows MoO<sub>3</sub> units tilting backwards and forwards along the axes of reflection. O<sub>b1</sub> and O<sub>b2</sub> denote the two inequivalent bridging O atoms in the unit cell, with O<sub>b2</sub> nearer to the Au surface than O<sub>b1</sub>. The mirror images of O<sub>b1</sub> and O<sub>b2</sub> in the planes of reflection symmetry are not labelled. The terminal O atoms are labelled O<sub>t1</sub> and O<sub>t2</sub>. The  $\langle 11-2 \rangle$  crystallographic direction of Au, parallel to the herringbone reconstruction, is indicated in **a**. The dashed line in **b** denotes the plane relevant for the plot in **Fig. 4**.



**Figure 3. STM images of the interior of the MoO<sub>3</sub> islands. a,** Experimental STM image. **b, Left:** Close-up section of experimental STM image in **a**. **Right:** STM simulation corresponding to a tip-sample separation of 1.4 Å. The sample bias voltages were -0.580 V in both the experiment and the simulation. A brighter color represents a more intense current. The green lines show the c(4 × 2) unit cells. The bright spots in the experimental images are related to lateral positions of terminal O atoms on the surface, which are marked by black pentagons in the simulation. In each cell, there is a bright spot slightly off-center. In polar co-ordinates with respect to the (x, y) axes (denoted as blue and red in the figure), the off-center spot is at  $r = 4.3 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $\theta = 42^\circ$  in the simulation, and  $r = 4.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $\theta = 43 \pm 4^\circ$  in the experiment.



**Figure 4. Charge density difference between the MoO<sub>3</sub>/Au system and the sum of charge densities of isolated MoO<sub>3</sub> and Au slabs, frozen in configuration from the joint system.** The values are those on a plane mid-way between MoO<sub>3</sub> and Au, as indicated by the dashed line in **Fig. 2b**. Blue, red and green spheres denote the lateral positions of Mo, O and Au atoms respectively. Half the Au atoms are hidden directly under O<sub>b2</sub>. Blue regions, corresponding to charge depletion, occur below O<sub>b2</sub>, and red regions, corresponding to charge accumulation, are seen between Mo and the nearest Au atoms. Values of the charge density difference range from  $-0.0093 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^3$  to  $0.0133 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^3$ .

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