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Eight-electron Pt/Cu superatom encapsulating three “electron-donating” hydrides

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Hydrides in metal complexes or nanoclusters are typically viewed as electron-withdrawing. Several recent reports have demonstrated the emergence of “electron-donating” hydrides in tailoring the structure, electronic structure, and reactivity of metal nanoclusters. However, the number of such hydrides included in each cluster kernel is limited to one or two. There is even no structure model, neither theoretical nor experimental, for encapsulating a third electron-donating hydride into one cluster entity. Here, we present a structurally precise superatomic nanocluster, PtH₃Cu₂₃(iso-propyl-PhS)₁₈(PPh₃)₄(PtH₃Cu₂₃), which contains three interstitial electron-donating hydrides. The molecular structure of PtH₃Cu₂₃ describes the encapsulation of a PtCu₁₂ core that contains three interstitial hydrides in a distorted anticuboctahedral architecture, in an outer sphere consisting of copper atoms and thiolate and phosphine ligands. Density functional theory calculations reveal that the three hydrides in PtH₃Cu₂₃ contribute their valence electrons to the cluster superatomic electron count of eight. In this regard, the cluster represents a rare Pt-included copper-hydride superatom with eight free electrons.

INTRODUCTION

The pursuit of atomically precise metal nanoclusters relies on the knowledge that not only can their size, composition, structure, and properties be precisely tailored but also substantial atomistic insight into structure-property relationships can be gained (1, 2). Over the past few decades, various gold and silver nanoclusters have been reported, benefiting from their high stability. The correlations between their molecular structures (geometric, electronic, and surface) and physicochemical properties (stability, catalytic activity, luminescence, etc.) have been extensively studied (3, 4). Many of them, being viewed as superatoms (5–7), i.e., species whose electronic structure mimics that of atoms, (5–7) have a “magic” number of “free” electrons (2, 8, 18, 20, 34...) providing them with closed-shell stability like noble gases. Conversely, only a handful of superatomic copper clusters have been structurally determined (8–12), probably due to stability issues introduced by copper hydride nanoclusters (13, 14). Moreover, the application scope of copper nanoclusters is rather limited, mainly being applied in electrocatalysis and reduction reactions (15–17). It even remains a great challenge for modern synthetic chemists to stabilize high-nuclearity copper-hydride superatoms using the “wet-chemistry” strategy (8, 18). Therefore, more research on copper-hydride nanoclusters (CHNCs) is needed, especially those with distinct compositions, structures, and properties (19).

Incorporating a precise number of heteroatoms into the structure is one of the most efficient strategies for tuning the optical, electronic, and catalytic properties of metal nanoclusters (20, 21). Heteroatoms

such as Pd and Pt have frequently been introduced into gold- or silver-based nanoclusters to enhance their stability and catalytic activity (22, 23). Well-known examples include Pt-alloyed PtAu₂₄(SR)₁₈, which displays higher electrocatalytic activity in hydrogen production compared to the homometallic counterpart, and Pd-alloyed [PdAg₂₀{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₁₂], which exhibits enhanced stability against degradation (24, 25). However, studies on the alloying chemistry of CHNCs are quite limited. Very recently, Liu and coworkers (26) isolated three hydride-containing heteroatom alloyed CHNCs, including two Cu(I) species ([PtH₂Cu₁₄{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₆(CCPh)₆] and [PtH₂Cu₁₁{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₆(CCPh)₃]) and one two-electron superatom ([PtHCu₁₁{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₆(CCPh)₄]). To the best of our knowledge, no other Pt-alloyed CHNCs have been reported so far, although a few related Pd alloys are known (27, 28).

It is generally assumed that when hydrogen acts as a ligand in a metal complex or metal cluster, it is a hydride (H⁻), meaning that it has formally withdrawn one electron from the metal(s) (16, 29–32). However, in certain specific cases, when encapsulated within superatoms, the hydrogen behaves as a heterometal, i.e., meaning it is a full constituent of the superatomic core and donates its electron to the cluster instead of withdrawing it. These “hydrides” can be considered as “electron-donating” hydrides, as they behave somewhat similarly to the metal atoms that constitute the cluster core (33). So far, only a limited number of superatoms containing hydrides, in which the hydrogen electron contributes to the magic electron count, have been identified (27, 33–40). Tsukuda and coworkers synthesized the earliest example, the eight-electron [PdHAu₁₀(PMe₃)₈Cl₂]⁺ complex (38). Subsequently, Liu and coworkers (26, 27, 36) reported several bimetallic Pd/Pt-Cu or Pd/Pt-Ag clusters with two or eight electrons, which contained one or two encapsulated hydrogens, including [PdHCu₁₁{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₆(C≡CPh)₄], [PtH₂Cu₁₄{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₆(CCPh)₆], and [PtHAg₁₉(dtp/dsep)₁₂] [where dtp is S₂P(OⁱPr)₂ and dsep is Se₂P(OⁱPr)₂]. Yi *et al.* (35) recently demonstrated the possibility to encapsulate more than one electron-donating hydride in alloyed silver superatoms in their study of [M@Ag₂₄(SPhMe₂)₁₈]²⁻ (M = RhH, IrH, RuH₂, and OsH₂) clusters. Similarly, Chiu *et al.* (41) explored the encapsulation of electron-donating hydrides in [RhH_x@Ag_{21-x}{S₂P(OⁱPr)₂}₁₂]

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($x = 0$ to 2) clusters. These findings strongly encourage further exploration of the limitations on the number of electron-donating hydrides that can be accommodated within a metal cluster cage.

We hereby report an unprecedented Pt-centered, eight-electron superatomic copper nanocluster, $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ (abbreviated as $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ hereafter), that encapsulates three electron-donating hydrides. The synthesis of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ is rather simple, involving a one-step reduction of Pt and Cu salts in the presence of thiolate ligands. The molecular structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ is determined by x-ray single-crystal diffraction (SCXRD), and its composition is confirmed by high-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (HR-ESI-MS). The overall structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ adopts a quasi-tetrahedral architecture, with the PtH_3 heterostructure confined in the center of an anticuboctahedral Cu_{12} kernel. Such an arrangement exhibits noticeable differences from previously reported mono- or dihydride containing icosahedral M_{12} kernel (34–36). Density functional theory (DFT) calculations reveal that the three hydrides contribute their valence electrons to the cluster's superatomic electron count, which totals eight, making it a superatom which contains three interstitial electron-donating hydrides.

RESULTS

Synthesis and characterization of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$

The synthesis of a cluster entity that can encapsulate more than two electron-donating hydrides has proven to be challenging. Previous reports have shown that the metal core used for encapsulating such hydrides is typically based on an M_{12} icosahedron (M is Au or Ag; fig. S1) (27, 28, 34–36, 38, 41). As predicted by Hu *et al.* (33), the adsorption energies of the third hydrogen atom on the icosahedral core would be much weaker, which somehow prevents the formation of stable cluster kernel with three (and more) electron-donating hydrides encapsulation. It thus occurs to us that the key to incorporate more electron-donating hydrides into the M_{12} entity is to introduce other architectures that have a larger volume (such as the anticuboctahedron) (1). To create an anticuboctahedral core with sufficient space for incorporating more electron-donating hydrides, we turned our attention to CHNCs. The core structure of CHNCs often differs from that of Au and Ag counterparts (16). On the other hand, Pt is introduced in the synthesis to induce the formation of electron-donating hydrides in CHNCs. It is important to note that the proton nuclear magnetic resonance (^1H NMR) of Pt-H units, which often display an unresolved resonance flanked with platinum satellites, allows for the detection of PtH-alloyed CHNCs in the synthesis (*vide infra*) (36).

To obtain Pt-alloyed CHNCs including more electron-donating hydrides, we have carefully sieved the precursors. Here, H_2PtCl_6 was used as the Pt source, and we tested 26 representative copper salts for the synthesis. The raw products synthesized through the coreduction of H_2PtCl_6 and copper salts in the presence of ligands were characterized using ^1H NMR. As shown in figs. S2 and S3 and table S1, certain amino acid copper salts [such as $\text{Cu}(\text{L-valine})_2$ and $\text{Cu}(\text{L-isoleucine})_2$] can afford the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ cluster, characterized by a triple satellite peak at -4.05 parts per million (ppm). Moreover, not all copper salts can yield the cluster, as evidenced by the absence of the characteristic peaks in the products synthesized from $\text{Cu}(\text{L-alanine})_2$ and $\text{Cu}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2$. Notably, a more complex sextet is observed in the product prepared from $\text{Cu}(\text{MeCN})_4\text{BF}_4$ and $\text{Cu}(\text{CF}_3\text{COO})_2$, which strongly indicating the presence of more complex coordination

structures between hydrides and metal atoms. These discoveries not only demonstrate the coordination diversity of electron-donating hydrides in metal nanoclusters but also cultivate a fertile soil for studying the coordination chemistry of electron-donating hydrides in metal nanostructures.

The synthesis of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ typically involves the $\text{Cu}(\text{PPh}_3)_2\text{BH}_4$ -mediated direct reduction of H_2PtCl_6 and $\text{Cu}(\text{L-valine})_2$ in the presence of appropriate amounts of thiolate ligands (see Materials and Methods and fig. S4 for details). In contrast to previously reported strategies for obtaining Pd-containing CHNCs where syntheses are carried out under an inert atmosphere, $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ is prepared in air (27, 28). In a typical synthesis, H_2PtCl_6 is added to a suspension of $\text{Cu}(\text{L-valine})_2$ in a mixed solvent of methanol and dichloromethane. After adding 4-isopropylphenanthiol, a turbid solution is obtained, which turns from gray green to reddish brown upon the addition of $\text{Cu}(\text{PPh}_3)_2\text{BH}_4$. After aging the reaction for 3 hours, a red solution along with some insoluble by-products is obtained. The final product is crystallized from the diffusion of ether into the reddish raw solution over a period of 2 weeks (fig. S5). After a series of purification steps, the resulting clean crystals were used for all subsequent experimental studies.

Copper nanoclusters often include hydrides in their structures (14, 42). To determine the exact number of hydrides in the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ cluster and confirm its molecular formula, we prepared $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ and $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ and characterized them using HR-ESI-MS. The samples, dissolved in dichloromethane, were analyzed in the positive ion mode. For $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$, the peak with the highest abundance at mass/charge ratio (m/z) = 2778.8210 corresponds to the molecular ion of $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{25}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4]^{2+}$ (calcd m/z = 2778.8; Fig. 1, top). The perfect match between experimental and simulated isotopic patterns suggests the rationality of the molecular identification (Fig. 1, inset). Notably, two Cu^+ ions are added to the parent $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ cluster to form the positive species under the ionization condition. Corresponding to the ESI-MS of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$, the ESI-MS of $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ shows peaks that are exactly shifted. For example, the prominent peak at m/z 2780.3303 (assigning to $[\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{25}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4]^{2+}$, calcd m/z = 2780.3) was increased by exactly 1.5 m/z in comparison to $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{25}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4]^{2+}$ (Fig. 1, bottom inset). We have also carefully assigned the molecular formulae of all other prominent peaks in the mass spectra. As shown in fig. S6, all peaks are derived from the parent clusters, although the number of Cu^+ adducts and PPh_3 ligands is tunable.

The presence and coordination chemistry of three hydride atoms in the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ cluster have been further investigated using ^1H NMR spectroscopy at 600 MHz. We have carefully compared ^1H NMR spectra of $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ and $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ in CD_2Cl_2 , which allows us to isolate signals from the hydride atoms in the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ sample. As shown in fig. S7, a peak at -4.05 ppm, which shows an unresolved resonance flanked by platinum satellites ($^1J_{\text{H-195Pt}} = 540$ Hz), is observed. This suggests that the cluster contains hydride atoms that are tightly coordinated to the Pt center (36, 43). We note that the chemical shift for electron-donating hydrides is highly dependent on cluster structures, as evidenced by the wide range in reported clusters (table S2). Moreover, we have recorded the ^2H NMR spectrum of $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ in CH_2Cl_2 (fig. S8). A signal centered at -4.02 ppm was observed in the ^2H NMR spectrum of $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$, corresponding to the peak at -4.05 ppm in the ^1H NMR spectrum of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$. To gain deeper insights into the bonding of the three

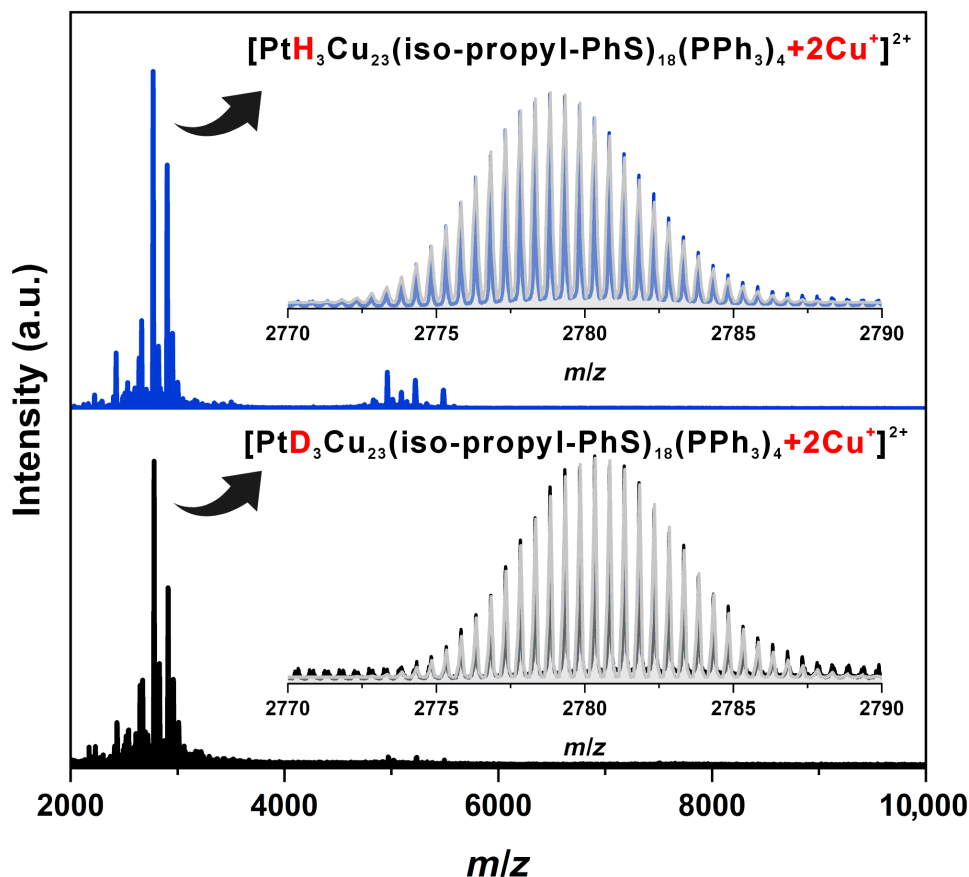


Fig. 1. ESI-MS spectra of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ and $\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ NCs dissolved in dichloromethane solution and measured in the positive mode. Inset: Experimental (black and dark green) and simulated (red) isotopic distributions of $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4+2\text{Cu}^+]^{2+}$ (top) and $[\text{PtD}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4+2\text{Cu}^+]^{2+}$ (bottom). a.u., arbitrary units.

hydride atoms with the Pt center, we have used variable-temperature (VT) ^1H NMR, VT $^{195}\text{Pt}\{^1\text{H}\}$, and $^1\text{H}\{^{195}\text{Pt}\}$ decoupling experiment. As shown in fig. S9 (left), the VT ^1H NMR spectrum of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ keeps almost unchanged, suggesting that no isomerization occurs for the cluster (36). The $^{195}\text{Pt}\{^1\text{H}\}$ NMR spectrum of the cluster exhibits distinct peak at low temperatures (-7931.89 ppm at -20°C and -7610.03 ppm at -40°C), further confirming the presence of Pt atom in the structure (fig. S9, right). The Pt satellites in the $^1\text{H}\{^{195}\text{Pt}\}$ NMR spectrum of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ vanished when the decoupling range is adjusted to -6500 ppm, providing strong evidence for the coordination of hydrides with the Pt atom in the cluster (fig. S10). The observation of a singlet broad peak in proton-decoupled ^{31}P NMR of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ suggests the rapid exchange of phosphine ligands on the cluster (fig. S11). Furthermore, VT NMR data indicate that the signal becomes broad at low temperature. At room temperature, the exchange rate is much faster than the NMR timescale, and we observed the process approaching a comparable exchanging rate.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) studies have been used to evaluate the oxidation states of Pt and Cu. The binding energy of Pt $4f_{7/2}$ is 71.8 eV, suggesting the zero-oxidation state of Pt (fig. S12A) (44). The Cu $2p_{3/2}$ peak at 932.7 eV indicates the mixed $\text{Cu}^{0/+1}$ states of Cu atoms in $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ (fig. S12B). In particular, two peaks at 916.02 and 919.00 eV with the area ratio of $1:0.48$

were present in the Cu Auger electron spectra (fig. S12C). It shows that for the total 23 Cu atoms, ~ 8 remain Cu^0 state, while ~ 15 remain Cu^+ state, suggesting a cluster free electron count of eight. This electron count and charge state are further confirmed by subsequent DFT calculations (vide infra). The characterization of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ solutions in toluene was performed using ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) spectroscopy. Within the wavelength range of 300 to 800 nm, a distinct shoulder peak was observed only at 495 nm (fig. S13).

Molecular structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ and its electron-donating hydrides

A single-crystal x-ray diffraction (SCXRD) analysis has been performed on $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ to determine its molecular structure (fig. S14). It reveals that the cluster consists of 1 Pt atom, 3 hydride atoms, 23 Cu atoms, 18 4-isopropylmercaptan ligands, and 4 PPh_3 ligands (Fig. 2), forming a cluster of ~ 2.1 nm in size (fig. S15). The unit cell comprises eight clusters, which crystallize in the cubic $Pa\bar{3}$ space group (fig. S16 and table S3). These hydrides were located on the basis of the residual density peaks in the Fourier difference map, and their precise positions were subsequently refined using the least squares method. Moreover, the predicted positions of the hydrides by this method align well with the previously characterized NMR data, demonstrating good correspondence (45).

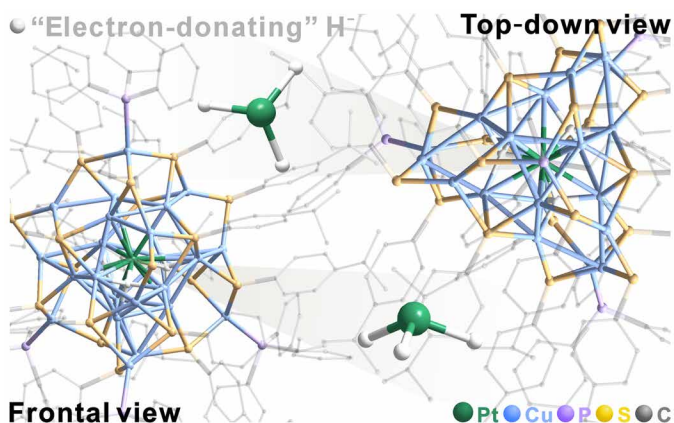


Fig. 2. Total molecular structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$. The bottom left corner represents a frontal view, while the top right corner represents a top-down view. To enhance clarity, all hydrogen atoms, except for the electron-donating hydrides, have been omitted.

The overall structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ is in a quasi-tetrahedral arrangement (Fig. 3A). The structure of the cluster is described as the stabilization of a $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}]^{7+}$ core by a $\text{Cu}_{11}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ outer shell. The metal kernel consists of a PtH₃-centered Cu₁₂ cage (Fig. 3B). The $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}$ kernel adopts an intermediate geometry between a centered icosahedral and an anticuboctahedral structure (Fig. 3C and fig. S17) (46, 47). This geometry is far from that of the pseudo-icosahedral M@Ag_{12} core found in the previously reported monohydride $[\text{PtHAg}_{19}\{\text{S}_2\text{P}(\text{O}^i\text{Pr})_2\}_{12}]$ and dihydride $[\text{MH}_2\text{@Ag}_{24}(\text{SPhMe}_2)_{18}]^{2-}$ ($\text{M} = \text{Ru}$ or Os) clusters, indicating that the icosahedral M_{13} architecture is too small to accommodate more than two hydrides (35, 36). The average Cu–Cu and Pt–Cu bond lengths in the PtCu_{12} core are 2.6252 and 2.7093 Å, respectively, which are comparable to those observed in other nanoclusters (8, 44). It is noteworthy that the Cu_{12} anticuboctahedron is heavily distorted away from the ideal D_{3h} symmetry. Detailed analysis reveals that only a C_3 symmetry axis is present in the PtCu_{12} kernel (Fig. 3C). The amplitude of the distortion of the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}$ kernel away from the ideal M_{13} polyhedra was quantitatively analyzed using the continuous symmetry measure (CSM) approach (48). By

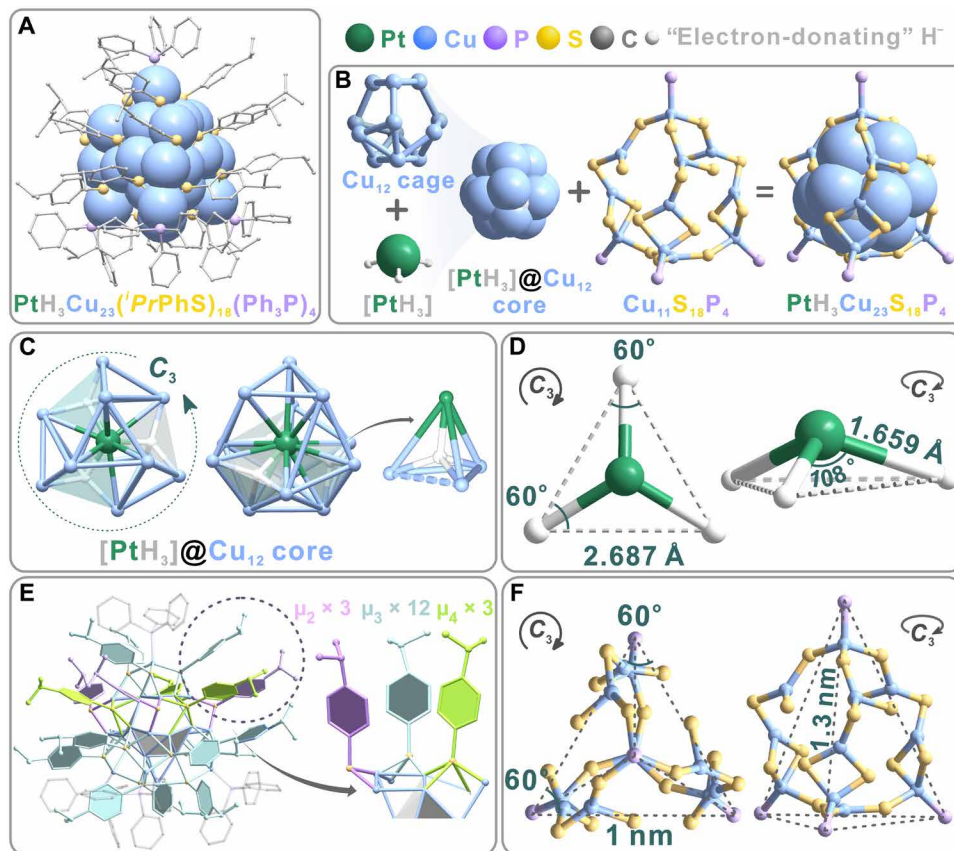


Fig. 3. Structure anatomy of the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ nanocluster. (A) The overall structure of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ with a quasi-tetrahedral structure. (B) The structural anatomy of the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ cluster, with the benzene rings on the ligands omitted for clarity. (C) The structural diagram of the distorted anticuboctahedral metal core in $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}]^{7+}$. The core has only a C_3 symmetry axis, with each electron-donating hydride encapsulated within a PtCu_3 tetrahedral unit. (D) The $[\text{PtH}_3]$ unit presents a flattened tetrahedral configuration with a base formed by an equilateral triangle. (E) Three coordination modes of the sulfate ligands. (F) The distorted tetrahedral protective shell of $\text{Cu}_{11}(\text{isopropyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$.

comparing the CSM values obtained for the icosahedron (8.1), cuboctahedron (5.2), and anticuboctahedron (4.7), the structure of this PtCu_{12} kernel was found to be closer to an anticuboctahedron (table S4). The large distortion of the Pt-centered Cu_{12} anticuboctahedron is likely due to the presence of the three interstitial hydride atoms within the framework. They are symmetrically distributed around the C_3 symmetry axis (Fig. 3D). Each hydride atom is encapsulated within a PtCu_3 tetrahedron, with same values for the Pt-H (1.6594 Å) and Cu-H distances (average, 1.658 Å) (table S5). The three H atoms and the Pt atom form a squashed tetrahedron, with an H-Pt-H angle of 108° (Fig. 3D and table S5). The volume of the PtCu_3 unit changes slightly, whether or not it is encapsulated with electron-donating hydrides. As shown in fig. S18, the unit volume with hydride atom encapsulation is 2.27 \AA^3 , while the unit volume without hydride atom encapsulation is 2.28 \AA^3 . Both types of PtCu_3 units (pink and blue) are arranged in an axisymmetric manner along the C_3 axis.

The 18 thiolates belonging to the $\text{Cu}_{11}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ outer shell can be categorized into three different bridging modes, μ_2 , μ_3 , and μ_4 , respectively (Fig. 3E). The Cu-S bond lengths range from 2.202 to 2.567 Å, giving an average value of 2.224 Å. The entire shell of $\text{Cu}_{11}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$ also adopts a tetrahedral structure. If the P atoms in the shell are interconnected, then a tetrahedral structure with a base edge length of 1 nm, forming an equilateral triangle, is obtained (Fig. 3F). In addition, clear intermolecular and intramolecular interactions between $^i\text{PrPhSH}$ and PPh_3 ligands are observed, such as C-H... π (with centroid distances ranging from 2.77 to 4.01 Å) and π - π interactions (at 3.92 Å). These weak interactions are believed to facilitate the stabilization of the cluster structure (fig. S19).

It is worth noting that the two-electron cuboctahedral superatomic M@Cu_x kernel ($\text{M} = \text{Cu, Pd, Pt}$ with $x = 11$ and 12 , respectively) exists (26, 46, 47), and the eight-electron icosahedral Cu@Cu_{12} kernel (9) has also been reported very recently. The centered anticuboctahedron reported here is unveiled, suggesting that introducing several interstitial hydrides substantially affects the structure of copper nanoclusters.

Theoretical analysis of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$

The geometric and electronic structures of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}$ were further investigated by DFT calculations at the BP86/STO-TZ2P level (see the ‘‘Computational details’’ section in Materials and Methods). This level of theory has been validated many times in ground-state investigations of noble metals (49–52). For the sake of computational limits, the iso-propyl-PhS and PPh_3 ligands were simplified by the simple SCH_3 (SMe) and $\text{P}(\text{CH}_3)_3$ (PMe₃) alternatives, respectively. This kind of simplification has been proven reasonable in many previous investigations (41, 53, 54). The optimized geometry confirms the SCXRD positions of the interstitial hydrides. The calculated metal-metal distances are comparable to those of the distances measured from the x-ray crystal structure, and the distorted $[\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}]^{7+}$ inner core with the three tetrahedrally coordinated interstitial hydrides is well reproduced (table S4). The optimized structure of the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{SMe})_{18}(\text{PMe}_3)_4$ model was found to be of C_3 symmetry, with a computed highest occupied molecular orbital–lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (HOMO–LUMO) gap of 1.21 eV, which is of similar magnitude to that of previously reported copper or silver hydride nanoclusters (27, 34–38). Owing to the encapsulation of the three μ_4 -H atoms, the Cu_{12} cage of the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{12}$ core is largely distorted (rotated) along the C_3 axis, resulting in the Pt@Cu_{12} kernel

having a geometry intermediate between the icosahedral and anti-cuboctahedral. Detailed analysis of its molecular orbital (MO) diagram (Fig. 4 and fig. S20) indicates that the $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{SMe})_{18}(\text{PMe}_3)_4$ cluster is an eight-electron superatom within the superatom concept (5–7). From their shape and composition, the three highest occupied MOs, mainly made of 6s(Pt), 4s(Cu), and 1s(H) atomic orbitals (AOs), can be identified as the superatomic 1P orbitals, with some 3d(Cu) admixture. The five vacant lowest unoccupied MOs are of superatomic 1D characters. The superatomic 1S orbital, mainly made of the 6s(Pt), 4s(Cu), and 1s(H) ($\sim 30\%$) AOs, is fully occupied and situated lower in energy (Fig. 4). This electronic configuration is in agreement with the XPS characterized 1 to 0.48 ratio of Cu^+ to Cu^0 (fig. S12C), indicating that hydrides donating their electrons to the cluster which decrease the charge states of Cu. The computed natural AO (NAO) charges of the 11 periphery Cu_{cap} ($\sim +0.6$) indicate a +I oxidation state, which is in agreement with the trigonal-planar coordination of the surface $\text{Cu}(\text{SR})_3$ (16-electrons) motif or the linear coordination of the surface $\text{Cu}(\text{SR})_2$ (14-electrons) motifs (table S6). The relatively smaller NAO charges of the 12 $\text{Cu}_{\text{anticubo}}$ ($\sim +0.4$) in the Pt@Cu_{12} kernel confirmed their mixed-valence nature (table S7). The hydrides NAO charge (-0.4) is notably lower than that found usually for the regular electron-withdrawing hydrides (-0.45 to -0.71 ; tables S7 and S8), which is owing to the strong bonding between H and the Pt dopant, whose electronegativity values are larger than that of H (55–60). In other words, doping such M-H_x unit into a cluster cage may facilitate the electron-sharing behavior of the interstitial hydrides. The subsequent quantum theory of atoms in molecules (QTAIM) analysis further confirmed a charge

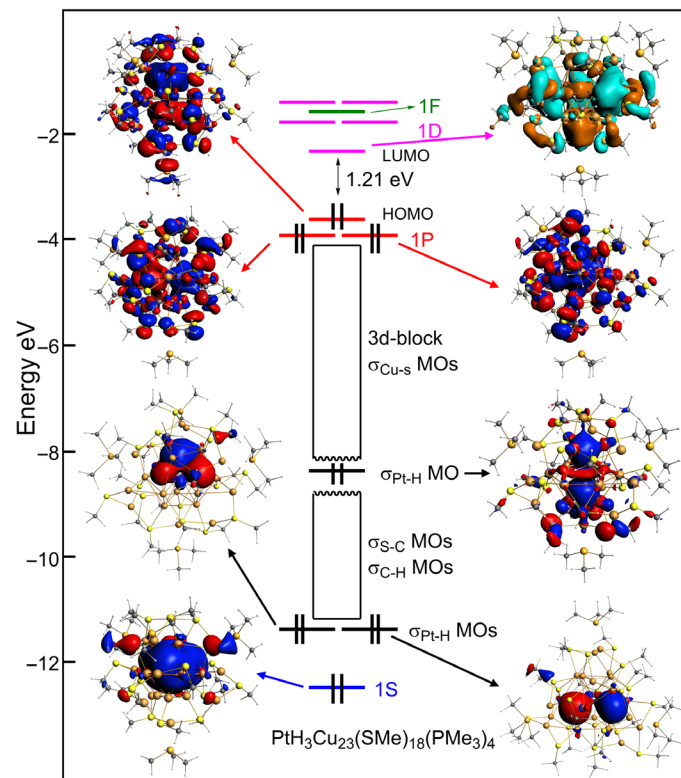


Fig. 4. Kohn-Sham MO diagram of $\text{PtH}_3\text{Cu}_{23}(\text{SMe})_{18}(\text{PMe}_3)_4$. The blue, red, pink, and green sticks represent superatomic 1S, 1P, 1D, and 1F orbitals, respectively.

transfer from the periphery Cu cage to the centered Pt atom (fig. S21). The calculated Bader charge of the hydrides (-0.18) exhibits also a similar trend as found for the NAO analysis (tables S9 and S10). These charge distributions, in combination with the Pt—Cu_{anticubo} (0.072) and Cu_{anticubo}—Cu_{anticubo} (0.057) Wiberg bond indices [larger than that of the mainly cuprophilic Cu_{anticubo}—Cu_{cap} (0.041) bonds], suggest the description of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ made by an eight-electron superatomic [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ kernel protected by 18 iso-propyl-PhS, 4 PPh₃, and 11 Cu⁺ centers, respectively (table S6). In addition, the natural electronic configuration of Pt ($5d^{9.65}6s^{0.76}6p^{0.10}$) indicates a substantial participation of 6s(Pt) AOs into the occupied 1S and 1P superatomic orbitals, whereas the 5d(Pt) population shows a nonnegligible contribution to the unoccupied 1D levels. However, this involvement is not enough to consider PtH₃Cu₂₃ as an 18-electron superatom (35, 52, 61).

The role of the hydrides in the bonding of the superatomic [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ core can be understood from the simplified qualitative MO diagram sketched in Fig. 5. It describes the interaction between the [PtCu₁₂]⁷⁺ cage and the encapsulated triangular [H]₃ motif. The five-electron [PtCu₁₂]⁷⁺ fragment is an unstable open-shell superatom, whereas it achieves the eight-electron closed-shell stability after interaction with the encapsulated [H]₃ fragment. The α_1 ([H]₃) combination interacts with the 5d_{z²}(Pt) AO, and the e ([H]₃) combinations interact with the 5d_{xy}(Pt) and 5d_{x²-y²}(Pt) AOs, generating three occupied bonding σ_{Pt-H} MOs and three vacant antibonding σ^*_{Pt-H} MOs, thus provoking the complete filling of the superatomic 1P shell in the [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ core. Therefore, [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ can be viewed as an eight-electron superatom. The three electron pairs associated with the three σ_{Pt-H} bonds are somewhat delocalized over the whole cluster cage, resulting in a moderate contribution of the 1s(H) AOs to the superatomic orbitals (10 and 4% in total in the 1P and 1D levels, respectively) and a minor

but nonnegligible participation of 5d(Pt) (5d_{z²}, 5d_{xy}, and 5d_{x²-y²}) orbitals. These values are slightly larger than those calculated in related species with electron-donating hydrides (36, 41). Thus, the 1s(H) electrons of three interstitial hydrogen atoms contribute to the cluster total electron count of eight in a similar way as the 4s(Cu) electrons. From this point of view, they can be qualified as electron-donating hydrides (27, 34–38). In addition, the H-Pt-H angles of 108° allow us also to look at Pt as a sp³-hybridized metal, as it is in typical 18-electron organometallic complexes. Such extreme limit view describing the PtH₃Cu₂₃ as made of a hypothetical 18-electron [PtH₃]⁵⁻ complex stabilized in a [Cu₁₂]¹²⁺ cage. This would locate the eight electrons only on the PtH₃ backbone, two of them corresponding to a Pt(sp³) lone pair (fig. S22). However, calculations on the [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ kernel indicate a nonnegligible localization of the jellium orbitals containing the eight electrons on the Cu₁₂ cage (fig. S23), suggesting that these eight electrons behave more like delocalized free electrons in superatoms rather than the valence electrons in common organometallic complexes.

Considering the fact that the electrons of the encapsulated hydrides participate to the superatom electron count, contributing three supplementary free electrons to PtH₃Cu₂₃(SMe)₁₈(PMe₃)₄, it is easy to predict an isoelectronic cluster model, [PtCu₂₃(SMe)₁₈(PMe₃)₄]³⁻, by replacing the hydrides with three additional electrons. The optimized structure of the resulting cluster [PtCu₂₃(SMe)₁₈(PMe₃)₄]³⁻ exhibits a slightly distorted cuboctahedral Pt@Cu₁₂ kernel with a decreased average Pt-Cu distances, which is more compact than the anticuboctahedral kernel in PtH₃Cu₂₃ (fig. S23). Further analysis of the MO diagram of the [PtCu₂₃(SMe)₁₈(PMe₃)₄]³⁻ model indicates a regular eight-electron superatom, with the low-lying (this time) fully occupied 5d (Pt) combinations keeping their nonbonding nature (fig. S24). To the best of our knowledge, a noble metal superatom containing three interstitial electron-donating hydrides has never been reported (27, 34–38). The previous computational study reported by Hu *et al.* (33) on the well-known [MAu₂₄(SR)₁₈]^q (M = CuH, AgH, AuH, AuH₂, PdH₂, and PtH₂; q = 0 and 1) model shows that the third hydrogen cannot be encapsulated within the icosahedral MAu₁₂ kernel. The current work on PtH₃Cu₂₃ with anticuboctahedral PtCu₁₂ kernel however suggests that the key to hydrogen encapsulation may be the structural fluxionality of the cluster kernel structure (33). Furthermore, the quasi-tetrahedral architecture of PtH₃Cu₂₃ indicates that there is a possible room to include the fourth μ_4 -H along the C₃ axis, resulting in hypothetical tetrahydrides containing the eight-electron [MH₄Cu₂₃(SR)₁₈(PR₃)₄] (M = Rh for example) structure. This hypothesis pointed the way for the synthesis of copper clusters containing more electron-donating hydrides, strongly encouraging further explorations of the limitation of the number of interstitial electron-donating hydrides encapsulated within an M₁₃ architecture, which enriches the structural chemistry of the hydride-containing metal nanoclusters with distinct bonding and electronic properties.

The simulated UV-vis spectrum of PtH₃Cu₂₃ was obtained from time-dependent (TD) DFT calculations at the B3LYP/Def2SVP level (see the “Computational details” section in Materials and Methods). It is in good agreement with the experimental spectrum (fig. S25), with an experimentally non-observed HOMO → LUMO transition calculated at 881 nm (α) and two major absorption bands at 481 nm (β) and 360 nm (γ), respectively (fig. S26). The electron-hole analysis based on the natural transition orbitals (NTOs) method was conducted to investigate the nature of these dominant excitation

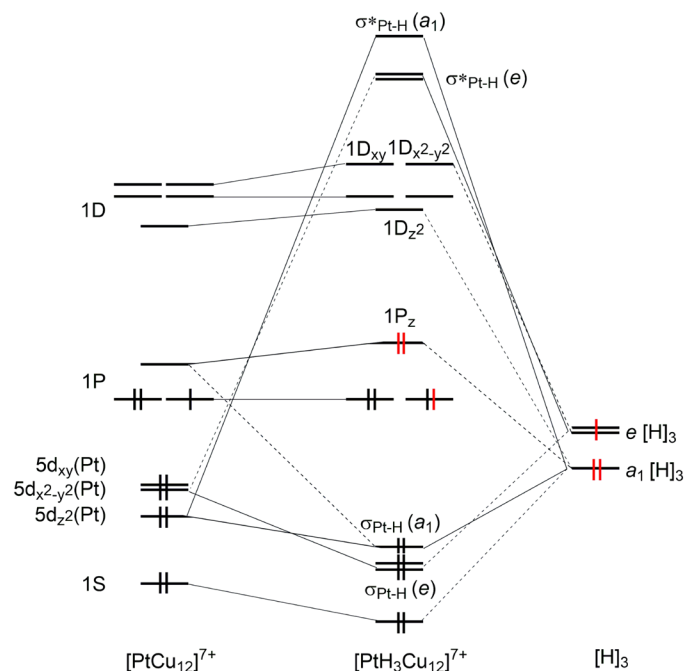


Fig. 5. Simplified interaction MO diagram between the [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ and [H]₃ fragments in the eight-electron superatomic [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ core in C₃ symmetry.

processes (fig. S26). The lowest transition α , with a very weak oscillator strength, is of metal-to-metal charge transfer (MMCT) from the superatomic 1P type HOMO to the 1D LUMO (fig. S26). The β band is mainly of 5d(Pt)/3d(Cu) \rightarrow 1D (MMCT) nature, whereas the highest energy band γ is of mixed MMCT and ligand-to-metal charge transfer nature, involving transitions from 3d(Cu)/ π (ligands)-type orbitals to the 1D/1F-type orbitals (fig. S24).

Stability of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ cluster

The stability of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ cluster is highly dependent on the conditions. The TD powder x-ray diffraction of PtH₃Cu₂₃ crystals in air is shown in fig. S27. The results indicate that the spectral characteristics of the clusters remained unchanged for at least 12 hours, providing evidence of their high stability in an air environment. As shown in figs. S28 and S29, the TD UV-vis and ¹H NMR spectra of PtH₃Cu₂₃ remain consistent for 6 days when stored in solution form in air. In addition, the UV-vis spectra of the cluster remained unchanged for 6 days when treated with strong reductants (200 eq. triisopropylsilane), acids (200 eq. acetic acid), and bases (200 eq. Et₃N), confirming the cluster's high robustness, as shown in fig. S30. The high stability of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ nanocluster is probably attributed to multiple factors, including strong interactions between Pt and Cu atoms, the rigidity of its outermost protective shell, and its closed-shell superatomic nature. However, it should be noted that the cluster exhibits reduced stability when subjected to light irradiation (wavelength, 490 to 500 nm), exposure to oxygen, and heating (at a specific temperature of 60°C). Further endeavors are required to improve the stability of copper superatom NCs in diverse conditions.

DISCUSSION

In summary, we report the synthesis, total structure, and electronic structure analysis of an unprecedented trihydride complex containing an eight-electron Pt/Cu superatomic cluster, PtH₃Cu₂₃(isopropyl-PhS)₁₈(PPh₃)₄. Its molecular structure features a [PtH₃Cu₁₂]⁷⁺ superatomic core, protected by an outer sphere of [Cu₁₁(isopropyl-PhS)₁₈(PPh₃)₄]⁷⁻. The three hydride atoms are encapsulated within a distorted Pt-centered Cu₁₂ anticuboctahedral kernel, each located within a PtCu₃ tetrahedron and exhibiting a strong Pt-H interaction. DFT calculations indicate that the three interstitial hydrogens act as donor atoms and provide their 1s(H) electrons to the total superatomic electron count of eight, resulting in a closed-shell eight-electron superatom with a 1S²1P⁶ electron configurations. In other words, the 1s(H) orbitals interact moderately with the superatomic orbitals but more substantially with the 5d(Pt) AOs to form three $\sigma_{\text{Pt-H}}$ bonding orbitals, thus inducing the complete filling of the superatomic 1P shell. In comparison to the previously reported electron-donating hydrides encapsulated in coinage metal superatoms containing icosahedral M₁₂ (M = Au and Ag) cluster kernels (33–36, 41), the isolation of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ with an anticuboctahedral Cu₁₂ kernel indicates that the encapsulation of more than two electron-donating hydrides will lead to a substantial structural variation of the cluster kernel. This also reveals the key to the structural evolution from the dihydride containing the icosahedral M₁₂ cage to the trihydride containing the anticuboctahedral M₁₂ cage, which points the way for constructing high-nuclearity coinage metal clusters that contain more electron-donating hydrides and higher magic electron numbers. This work not only provides a fresh insight into

how to encapsulate more electron-donating hydrides within a cluster unit but also enriches the synthetic and structural chemistry of the family of electron-donating hydrides encapsulated metal superatoms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

4-Isopropylthiophenol (C₉H₁₂S, 97%), chloroplatinic acid (H₂PtCl₆, 99%), bis-(triphenylphosphino)-cuprous borohydride [Cu(PPh₃)₂BH₄, 98%], copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO₄•5H₂O, 99%), copper (II) acetate (C₄H₆CuO₄, 98%), copper (II) trifluoroacetate (C₄H₂CuF₆O₅, 95%), copper(II) dinitrate (CuN₂O₆, 95%), copper (II) acetylacetonate (C₁₀H₁₄CuO₄, 97%), copper (II) bromide (CuBr₂, 95%), copper (II) gluconate (C₁₂H₂₂CuO₁₄, 95%), bis(8-quinolinolato) copper (II) (C₁₈H₁₂CuN₂O₂, 97%), copper (II) dibutylthiocarbamate (C₁₈H₃₆CuN₂S₄, 99%), copper (II) citrate (C₆H₅Cu₂O₇, 99.5%), copper (I) thiocyanate (CuSCN, 98%), copper (II) pyrithione (C₁₀H₁₀CuN₂O₂S₂, 95%), copper (II) trifluoromethanesulfonate (C₂CuF₆O₆S₂, 98%), copper (I) chloride (CuCl, 99%), and copper (II) sulfate, anhydrous (CuSO₄, 98%) were purchased from Bidepharm (Shanghai, China). Copper (II) tartrate hydrate (C₄H₆CuO₇, 98%) was purchased from Acme Biochemical (Shanghai, China). Copper (II) phosphate (Cu₃P₂O₈, 99%) was purchased from Leyan (Shanghai, China). Dichloromethane-d₂ (CD₂Cl₂, D, 99.8%), chloroform-d (CDCl₃, D, 99.8%), toluene (C₇H₈, Analytical Reagent), dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂, Analytical Reagent), ethanol (C₂H₅OH, Analytical Reagent), methanol (CH₃OH, Analytical Reagent), and ether (C₄H₁₀O, Analytical Reagent) were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). The water used in all experiments was ultrapure (18.25 Mohm). All reagents were used without further purification. Copper (II) diclofenac, Cu(MeCN)₄BF₄, Cu(L-valine)₂, Cu(L-isoleucine)₂, Cu(L-threonine)₂, Cu(L-proline)₂, Cu(L-phenylalanine)₂, and Cu(L-alanine)₂ were prepared according to the methods described in the literature (62–64).

Characterization of PtH₃Cu₂₃ nanoclusters

Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy

The UV-vis absorption spectroscopy of the PtH₃Cu₂₃ cluster was collected by a UV-650 spectrophotometer, using a 1-mm optical path length quartz cuvette at a scanning speed of 400 nm/min.

High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry

The crystals of PtH₃Cu₂₃ were dissolved in CH₂Cl₂ [high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade] and configured into a solution with an appropriate concentration. A trace amount of formic acid (HPLC grade) was added to promote efficient ionization. The solution was injected directly with an injection pump at a flow rate of 1.2 ml/hour. The positive ion ESI-MS was recorded by an Agilent 6546 Liquid Chromatography/Quadrupole Time-of-Flight LMS spectrometer.

Powder x-ray diffraction

Powder x-ray diffraction data of the samples were collected on a Bruker D8 advanced diffractometer with Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) at a scan rate of 0.038° s⁻¹.

X-ray single-crystal diffraction

The molecular structure of PtH₃Cu₂₃ was determined on the x-ray single crystal diffractometer of the Agilent Technologies SuperNova system. The temperature during measurement was 100 K, and the incident light source used was Cu-K α ray ($\lambda = 1.54184 \text{ \AA}$). The absorption correction was carried out using the CrysAlis^{PRO} program.

For structure analysis and refinement, the software Olex2 (65), ShelXT (66), and ShelXL (67) were used. All nonhydrogen atoms were identified on the basis of full-matrix least-squares refinement on F^2 . The SHELXTL restraint instructions DFIX, DANG, ISOR, SADI, and RIGU were applied to these disordered groups to keep their geometries and atomic displacement parameters reasonably. All host framework nonhydrogen atoms were refined anisotropically (68). All hydrogen atoms on organic ligands were produced symmetrically ($C-H = 0.96 \text{ \AA}$). The thermal ellipsoids of the Oak Ridge thermal ellipsoid plot diagram were done at 50% probability. Detailed crystal data and structure refinements for the compound can be found in table S11.

Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy

NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker AV-600 MHz NMR spectrometer. The chemical shift is reported in parts per million with the solvent residue peak as an internal standard. All NMR data were processed on MestReNova software.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

The XPS data of PtH_3Cu_{23} were performed on the ESCALABXI+ System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, UK). The C 1s peak of adventitious carbon (284.8 eV) was used for position correction in all cases.

Computational details

DFT calculations were performed using the ADF2020 program (69), incorporating scalar relativistic corrections via the zeroth-order regular approximation Hamiltonian (70). Geometry optimizations were carried out using a triple- ξ Slater basis set, plus two polarization functions (STO-TZ2P) (71), under the generalized gradient approximation level of theory together with the Becke-Perdew exchange and correlation functional (BP86) (72). Grimme's DFT-D3-BJ empirical corrections (73) were used to take into account the dispersion effect. The optimized structures were confirmed as the true minima on their potential surface by analytical vibrational frequency calculations. To reduce computational efforts, the Gaussian16 package (74) was used to calculate the UV-vis optical transitions by TD-DFT (75) calculations, using the Def2SVP (76) basis set (which includes effective core potentials accounting for scalar relativistic effects of Pt) and B3LYP (77) functional. The UV-vis spectrum were simulated from the computed transition energies and their oscillator strengths, with each transition being associated with a Gaussian function of half-height width equal to 2400 cm^{-1} , a value that best reproduces the experimental spectrum. NTOs were generated by using Multiwfn (78) software with an isosurface value of ± 0.02 (e/bohr^3) $1/2$.

Synthesis of $PtH_3Cu_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$

Thirty milligrams of $Cu(\text{L-valine})_2$ (0.1 mmol) was suspended in 1 ml of methanol and 2 ml of dichloromethane. To this mixture, 1 mg of H_2PtCl_6 (0.002 mmol) was added. The resulting mixture was stirred for 5 min, followed by the addition of 8.4 μl of 4-isopropylphenthioil (0.56 mmol) once. The mixture was then stirred at room temperature for an additional 5 min before the dropwise addition of a dichloromethane solution of $Cu(\text{PPh}_3)_2\text{BH}_4$ (40 mg, 0.06 mmol, 1 ml). During the stirring process, the solution gradually changed from gray-green to reddish-brown, and the stirring was continued for 3 hours. Subsequently, the mixture was centrifuged at a speed of 10,000 rpm/min for

2 min. The supernatant was carefully collected and transferred to a crystallization tube, ensuring that no precipitation was present in the supernatant. The red solution was subjected to diffusion of ether in the dark. After a period of 2 weeks, clean red crystals were obtained and stored in the refrigerator for future use (yield: 71.7%, based on Cu).

Synthesis of $PtD_3Cu_{23}(\text{iso-propyl-PhS})_{18}(\text{PPh}_3)_4$

The PtD_3Cu_{23} cluster was synthesized using a comparable procedure to PtH_3Cu_{23} , with the only variation being the substitution of $Cu(\text{PPh}_3)_2\text{BD}_4$ for $Cu(\text{PPh}_3)_2\text{BH}_4$ as the reducing agent in the synthesis.

Stability tests

Air stability studies

The stock solution of PtH_3Cu_{23} was placed in a refrigerator at 2°C and then characterized within 6 days using UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution) and ^1H NMR spectroscopy (CD_2Cl_2 solution).

pH stability studies

The toluene stock solution of PtH_3Cu_{23} was treated with 200 eq. of CH_3COOH or 200 eq. of Et_3N . The mixed solution was stored in a refrigerator at 2°C and then characterized within 6 days using UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution).

Reductant stability studies

The toluene stock solution of PtH_3Cu_{23} was treated with 200 eq. $^i\text{Pr}_3\text{SiH}$. The mixed solution was stored in a refrigerator at 2°C and measured and then characterized within 6 days using UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution).

Photostability studies

The stock solution of PtH_3Cu_{23} was placed under light irradiation with a wavelength range of 490 to 500 nm and maintained in an ice bath. The sample was continuously characterized by UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution) for a period of 12 hours.

Oxygen stability studies

First, the Schlenk tube was evacuated, and then the PtH_3Cu_{23} stock solution was injected. Oxygen gas was introduced into the tube at room temperature. The sample was continuously characterized by UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution) for a period of 12 hours.

Thermal stability studies

The PtH_3Cu_{23} stock solution was heated in an oil bath at 60°C . The sample was continuously characterized by UV-vis spectroscopy (toluene solution) for a period of 12 hours.

Supplementary Materials

This PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S30
Tables S1 to S11

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