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Assessing Pt and Ni dissolution mechanism and kinetics of shape-controlled oxygen reduction nanocatalysts

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ABSTRACT

An electrochemical flow cell combined with inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (FC-ICP-MS) is a powerful tool to understand the mechanisms of metal dissolution and to develop mitigation strategies. Herein, we quantified *in situ* the amount of Pt and Ni atoms dissolved from PtNi/C nanocatalysts employed to electrocatalyze the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) in proton-exchange membrane fuel cell cathode. The nanocatalysts feature similar crystallite size and Pt:Ni atomic ratio but different morphologies (spheres, octahedra, sponges). The FC-ICP-MS results reveal that the nanocatalyst morphology affects the dissolution rate of Pt and Ni but not the dissolution mechanism. We provide analytical evidence that dissolution of Pt atoms is consistently accompanied by the dissolution of Ni atoms exceeding the stoichiometric composition. Furthermore, we demonstrate that *ex situ* acid leaching mitigates, but does not entirely prevent, the electrochemical dissolution of Ni atoms. Stabilized Pt and Ni dissolution rates were achieved after a one hour long accelerated stress test (AST). Characterization cyclic voltammograms show that the Pt dissolution rate remains constant before and after the AST. In contrast, the dissolution rate of Ni decreases by a factor of 10 after the AST. Among various nanoparticle shapes, spherical PtNi/C nanoparticles offer the best solution regarding the Pt and Ni retention compared to other nanoparticle shapes.

Keywords: Shape-controlled PtNi nanocatalysts; Degradation mechanisms; Oxygen reduction reaction; Durability; Electrochemical flow cell combined with inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry;

INTRODUCTION

Understanding and controlling the electrochemical stability of nanocatalyst is crucial for a wide range of applications, including proton-exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs). In these devices, the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) takes place at the cathode and the hydrogen oxidation reaction (HOR) at the anode. The acidic environment of a PEMFC lays constraints on the choice of catalytic materials, and both reactions are catalyzed by platinum (Pt)-based nanoparticles deposited on high-surface area carbon black. As Pt is a scarce and expensive metal, researchers work to reduce its content. Due to the five-order-of-magnitude slower kinetics of ORR on Pt compared to that of HOR, 80-90 % of Pt is placed at the cathode [1]. Reducing the Pt content at the cathode of PEMFCs can thus offer both economic and environmental advantages. The first approach to reduce the Pt content in PEMFCs entails the synthesis of electrocatalytically more active PtM/C nanocatalysts (where M is a transition metal). Combining Pt with early (*e.g.* Sc, Tb, Gd, Pr or Y) or late (*e.g.* Co, Ni, Cu or Cr) transition metals [2-6] is currently considered the best approach to reach high mass activity (MA, the current produced per gram of Pt) values. Indeed, not only do Pt-based alloys contribute to a direct reduction of the Pt mass, but they also substantially enhance the ORR kinetics via strain and ligand effects, both weakening the binding energy to the ORR intermediates [2, 7-9]. Moreover, as the (111) is the most active crystallographic orientation for the ORR, [10, 11] further enhancement of the ORR kinetics is possible on Pt-transition metal alloys exposing exclusively (111) facets. Octahedral or truncated octahedral Pt-alloy/C nanoparticles with between 14 and 21-fold increase of the specific activity (electrocatalytic activity per unit surface area of Pt) for the ORR *vs.* Pt/C in liquid electrolyte have been synthesized [12, 13]. The gain of shape-controlled Pt-alloy nanostructures *vs.* Pt/C is consistently smaller in terms of MA with only 7 to 15-fold increase due to their larger size. Defect-engineered catalysts, such as hollow PtNi/C nanoparticles, porous PtNi/C nanoparticles or self-standing PtNi aerogels, is another class of promising ORR catalysts [13-21]. In contrast to shape-controlled Pt-alloy, where catalytic sites are uniform and synthetically controlled to achieve optimal binding energy of the ORR intermediates, enhanced ORR kinetics of defective Pt-alloy nanocatalysts arises from the wide variety of catalytic sites' configurations present at their surface [13, 22]. On defective Pt-alloy catalysts, each site exhibits distinct structural and electronic

characteristics. Some of these sites demonstrate optimal binding to the ORR intermediates, thereby reaching the apex of the so-called volcano plot correlating ORR activity with the binding energy to key ORR intermediates. A 9.3- and a 5.8-fold enhancement of the ORR specific and mass activity at 0.95 V *vs.* Pt/C were achieved by a porous PtNi/C catalyst. (Sponge PtNi/C) [13, 23]. The record for this class of materials is a 33-fold enhancement of the ORR specific activity at 0.90 V *vs.* Pt/C on jagged Pt nanowires formed by complete dealloying of PtNi nanowires [16].

Now, the durability of the two classes of materials (shape-controlled/structurally-ordered *vs.* structurally-disordered), *i.e.*, their capacity to maintain a constant ORR mass activity in the operating conditions of a PEMFC cathode, remains underexplored. It is well-documented from studies with rotating disk electrode (RDE) set-up [24-29] or in PEMFC devices [30-35] that transition metal atoms are leached out from the outermost 2-3 surface layers during operation, leading to the formation of a so-called 'Pt-skeleton' structure in which a Pt-rich shell covers the mother Pt-alloy core [29, 36]. Further dissolution of the alloying element results in relaxation (expansion) of the lattice parameter of Pt surface atoms, diminishing their ORR activity [30-32, 34]. Besides, shape-controlled Pt-alloy structures tend to return to their thermodynamically stable equilibrium shape during PEMFC operation, gradually losing their catalytic advantage over spherical particles [12, 13]. For example, we reported a 62 % loss of ORR specific activity after 20,000 potential cycles between 0.6 and 1.0 V for an octahedral PtNi/C (note that the loss was already 50 % after 2 consecutive ORR polarization curves), which we ascribed to the combined effects of structural reorganization and Ni leaching [13]. In contrast, on a structurally-disordered catalyst (Sponge PtNi/C), the ORR specific activity dropped by 13 % after 2 consecutive ORR polarization curves and by 34 % after 20 k potential cycles.

Better understanding of the dissolution mechanisms of Pt/C and Pt -alloy/C nanocatalysts was achieved in the last decade using an electrochemical flow cell connected to inductively coupled mass spectrometry (FC-ICP-MS) [37-42]. A FC-ICP-MS setup provides a time- and potential-resolved concentration profile of the metal atoms dissolved in the electrolyte, which can then be correlated with various operational parameters (pH, temperature, nature of the electrolyte) [43-47]. In particular, it has been shown that Pt is dissolved in two distinct phases: the anodic Pt dissolution takes place during the

formation of surface oxides, and the cathodic dissolution during their reduction [43, 44]. These findings are in line with the ‘place-exchange’ process, in which Pt and oxygen atoms swap their place at high electrode potential. The place-exchange concept was first introduced in surface science by Lanyon *et al.* to explain the oxidation kinetics of transition metals in an oxygen atmosphere at 138 °C, [48] and then subsequently adapted to electrochemistry [49, 50]. Using electrochemical quartz crystal microbalance and X-ray scattering, Nagy and Jerkiewicz showed that the place-exchange process occurs at potentials higher than 0.9 V/1.1 V on polycrystalline Pt and Pt(111), respectively [51, 52]. However, this “critical” potential also depends on parameters such as the crystallographic orientation, the crystallite size, the temperature, the pH, and the nature of the anions in the electrolyte [39, 43, 45, 53]. Using *in situ* high-energy surface X-ray diffraction, *in situ* inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry and density functional theory calculations, Fuchs *et al.* [54] recently reported that the rate of Pt dissolution is much higher at Pt(100) than at Pt(111) surfaces. They related these differences to different oxophilicity of the two single crystal surfaces (Pt was shown to be ‘extracted’ (dissolved) above 0.98 V and 1.06 V on Pt(100) and Pt(111), respectively). Recently, the same authors evidenced the formation of two distinct oxide phases on Pt(100): an internal stripe-like oxide and an outer amorphous Pt oxide phase, which initiates its growth once the coverage of the stripe-like oxide reaches saturation [55]. They related these two oxides phases to anodic and cathodic Pt dissolution, respectively. On Pt/C nanoparticles, little to no Pt dissolution was measured using FC-ICP-MS set-up when the electrode potential remains inferior to 0.85 V [39, 40, 43-45, 53] but excursions to higher electrode potentials were shown to promote the cathodic Pt dissolution [44]. Transient conditions were shown to amplify the extent of Pt dissolution when compared to steady-state conditions [43, 56]. The electrolyte temperature also plays a crucial role. Cherevko *et al.* [53] showed that an increase in temperature leads to a higher dissolution of Pt during oxide formation, while the dissolution kinetics of Pt during oxide reduction decreases with rising temperature (a polycrystalline Pt foil was used by the authors). These results were nicely complemented by Đukić *et al.* [57] who showed that the redeposition of Pt cations is facilitated at higher temperature. Hence, changes in size and morphology occurring on fuel cell catalysts are well reproduced when ASTs conducted in laboratories are carried out at 80°C rather than at temperature close to ambient, as first highlighted by Dubau *et al.* [58]. On Pt-alloys, the FC-ICP-MS results from Cherevko *et al.*, Hodnik

et al. and Myers *et al.* suggested that Pt and the alloying element dissolve simultaneously during anodic sweeps, while Pt dissolution consistently precedes the dissolution of the alloying element during cathodic sweeps [40, 57, 59-61]. Đukić *et al.* [57, 61] also reported that the amount of dissolved Pt and alloying element increases with increasing the upper potential limit (UPL). In contrast, decreasing the lower potential limit (LPL) below 0.70 V proved to intensify the dissolution of the alloying element while lowering the Pt concentration in solution due to electrochemical redeposition of Pt^{z+} ($z = 2, 4$) cations. The above studies therefore laid the ground for elucidating the relationship between the chemical composition and the rate of dissolution of both Pt and the alloying element. However, so far, the effect of nanoparticle shape on the resistance to dissolution of both Pt and Ni has not been explored, and it is not clear which family of PtNi/C nanocatalysts (octahedral spongy or spherical nanoparticles) is most durable in the harsh operating conditions of a PEMFC cathode.

To address this important issue, we herein synthesized two in-house PtNi/C catalysts with octahedral and ‘sea sponge’ nanoparticles, which we refer to as Octahedron PtNi/C and Sponge PtNi/C, respectively. For the sake of comparison, a commercial $\text{Pt}_3\text{Ni}/\text{C}$ catalyst (Premetek[®]) and a commercial Pt/C catalyst (Heraeus[®]) with spherical nanoparticles were also used: these are referred to as Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere Pt/C, respectively. Using *in situ* FC-ICP-MS, we monitored the concentrations of the Pt and Ni dissolution signals during a 2-hour electrochemical aging protocol composed of multiple steps: break-in, characterization cyclic voltammograms (CVs) and accelerated stress test (AST). The effect of *ex situ* acid leaching on the extent of dissolution of Pt and Ni is also examined.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Structural and chemical properties of the pristine Pt and PtNi electrocatalysts and description of the electrochemical aging protocol

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the as-synthesized catalysts are presented in **Figure 1a**. Their particle size distributions and chemical composition can be found in **Supplementary Figure 1** and **Supplementary Table 1**, respectively. Sphere PtNi/C is a commercial $\text{Pt}_{3.1}\text{Ni}$ catalyst produced by Premetek[®] with number-averaged mean particle size of 5.0 nm (see **Supporting**

Information). A commercial Pt/C catalyst of monodispersed size distribution (number-averaged diameter of 3.5 nm) produced by Heraeus® was used as a Ni-free reference (Sphere Pt/C). The Sponge PtNi/C catalyst is composed of *ca* 3 nm Pt_{2.2}Ni crystallites aggregated into larger agglomerates *ca* 50 - 100 nm in size. The lattice of Sponge PtNi/C is defective due to its multi-grained structure and the presence of grain boundaries. Octahedral Pt_{2.6}Ni nanoparticles with average length of 5.0 ± 0.7 nm were synthesized in a similar manner as in Ref. [62] (Octahedron PtNi/C). The high-energy X-ray diffractograms recorded on each material are shown in **Supplementary Figure 2**: they display a single alloyed crystalline phase for all PtNi/C materials and a single pure Pt phase for the Pt/C material. Note that all nanocatalysts were supported onto Vulcan XC72, a carbon black with specific surface area of *ca* 250 m² g⁻¹. Moreover, all thin-film electrodes used in FC-ICP-MS experiments featured Pt loading comprised between 20 and 24 μg_{Pt} cm⁻²_{geo}, translating into similar thickness. This is an important point given the influence of this parameter on the amount of Pt^{z+} cations released in the liquid electrolyte [40].

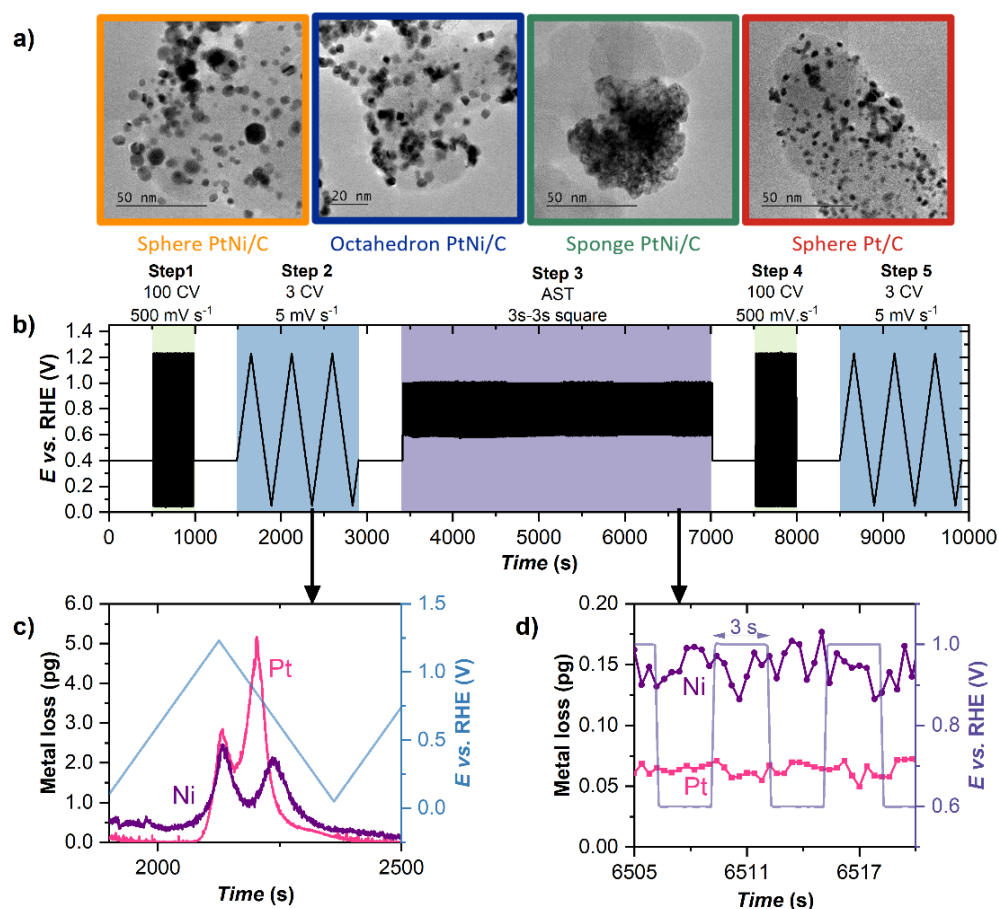


Figure 1. Experimental protocol used to investigate the dissolution of Pt and Ni from the different PtNi/C catalysts. a) TEM images of the various Pt/C and PtNi/C catalysts used in this study, b) electrochemical aging protocol, c) example of time-resolved dissolution of Pt and Ni during slow CV (5 mV s^{-1}) for the Sponge PtNi/C catalyst, d) zoom in on the dissolution of Pt and Ni during the AST for the Sponge PtNi/C catalyst.

Figure 1b illustrates the electrochemical aging protocol used in this study. A break-in procedure composed of 100 potential cycles between 0.05 V and 1.23 V at 500 mV s^{-1} was first conducted (Step 1). In line with our recent study on the conditioning of Pt-alloy catalysts, [63] an UPL of 1.23 V was chosen to achieve a stabilized surface state. It is clear from **Supplementary Figure 3**, the Pt dissolution signal stabilizes much more rapidly than the Ni dissolution signal. On Octahedron PtNi/C, for instance; the Pt dissolution signal attains an optimum after 11 seconds and stabilizes at *ca.* $3.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ ng}_{\text{Pt}} \text{ cm}^{-2}_{\text{Pt}}$ after 80 seconds. In contrast, the Ni dissolution signal reaches its optimum after 60 seconds and remains at a high level ($> 2.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ ng}_{\text{Ni}} \text{ cm}^{-2}_{\text{Pt}}$) during the whole break-in procedure. This outcome is the result of two phenomena: the preferential dissolution of low-coordination Pt and Ni atoms and the facile redeposition of dissolved Pt cations (not of dissolved Ni cations), resulting in the formation of a Pt-skeleton structure. After the break-in, 3 characterization CVs (Step 2) at 5 mV s^{-1} were measured to get potential-resolved dissolution signals for Pt and Ni (**Figure 1c**). Subsequently, a one-hour long AST (Step 3) composed of square-wave potential steps between 0.6 and 1.0 V (3 s at each potential) was conducted in an argon (Ar)-saturated electrolyte, following the recommendations of the Japanese FCCJ [64]. The Pt and Ni concentration signals during the AST are displayed in **Figure 1d**. Despite recording the metal dissolution signal every 0.4 seconds, the hydrodynamic conditions were insufficient to obtain time-resolved Pt and Ni dissolution signals. Finally, the break-in and the characterization CVs were reproduced after the AST (Step 4 and Step 5) to determine whether the Pt and Ni dissolution signals were stabilized. Importantly, the potential of the working electrode was kept constant at 0.4 V for 500 s between the different steps of the electrochemical aging protocol to recover stable Pt and Ni dissolution signals.

2. Qualitative insights on Pt and Ni dissolution mechanism from break-in and characterization cyclic voltammograms

Figure 2b and **Figure 2c** display the characterization CVs recorded on the Pt/C and PtNi/C catalysts during Step 2. Three independent measurements were performed for each catalyst, and the data displayed in **Figure 2b** and **Figure 2c** are representative of the average values. To allow a direct comparison of the dissolution patterns, the amounts of dissolved Pt and Ni were normalized to the intensity of the anodic peak of the third CV of Step 2 (see black arrows in **Figure 2b** and **Figure 2c**). Because the catalysts have different specific surface area, the ECSA-normalized Pt and Ni dissolution signals recorded during the third characterization CV of Step 2 are displayed in **Supplementary Figure 4**.

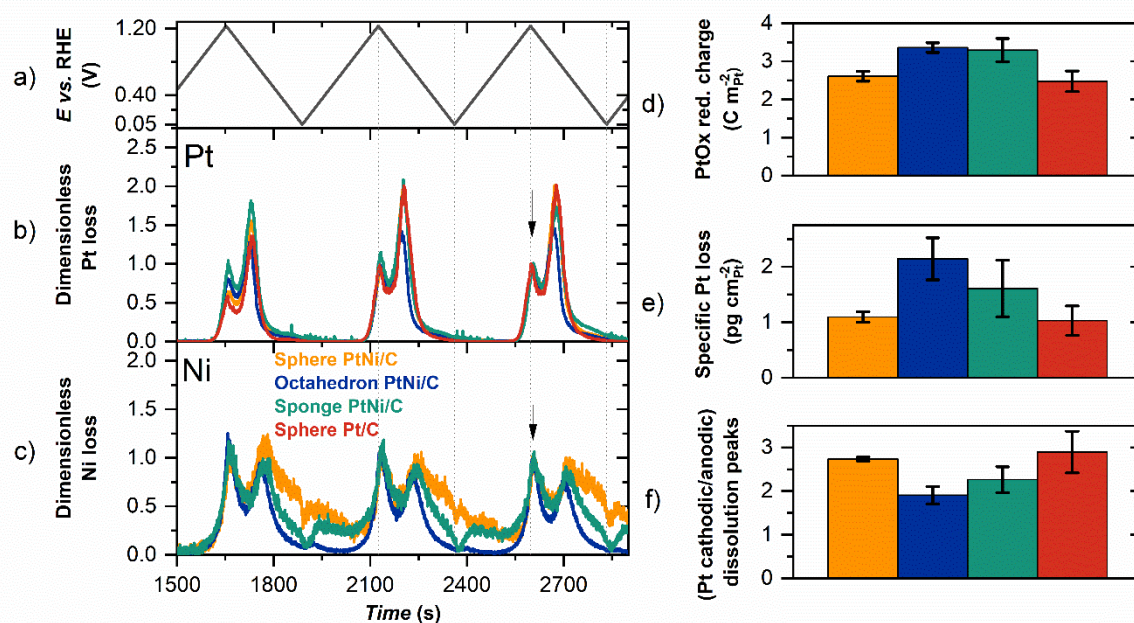


Figure 2. Dissolution of Pt and Ni from PtNi/C nanoparticles during the characterization CVs (Step 2). a) Potential profile applied at the working electrode. b) and c) display the dimensionless Pt and Ni dissolution signals during Step 2. d) Total mass of Pt lost during Step 2 normalized by ECSA. e) Electrical charge for Pt oxide reduction during a 20 mV s⁻¹ CV. The values are normalized by ECSA. f)

Ratio of cathodic and anodic Pt dissolution peaks during the last cycle of Step 2. The error bars correspond to the standard deviations from three independent measurements.

In agreement with former findings, [40, 57, 61] we observed that Pt dissolution initiates at potential > 1.0 V during the anodic potential sweep independently of the presence/absence of Ni in the catalyst and of its morphology (**Figure 2b**). During the cathodic potential sweep, the Pt concentration signal first decreased down to 1.02-1.03 V before sharply increasing, largely exceeding the Pt concentration monitored during the anodic potential sweep. In line with what was discussed in the introduction, the presence of a cathodic dissolution peak is evidence that Pt and O atoms have swapped their place (place-exchange) during the 5 mV s^{-1} characterization CVs (Step 2). Importantly, higher Pt concentration monitored during the cathodic sweep does not indicate that cathodic Pt dissolution is the dominant degradation mechanism at a PEMFC cathode. Indeed, crystallite migration and corrosion of the carbon matrix [34, 65-68] also contribute to the degradation of PEMFC cathode materials, and the relative contributions of the various degradation mechanisms depend on the potential range investigated, but also on the nature of the gas atmosphere and on the temperature [58, 66, 69, 70].

Figure 2b also shows that the intensity of the Pt dissolution signal during the cathodic sweep progressively vanishes after a maximum between 0.81 and 0.86 V. This is evidence that a fraction of the dissolved Pt^{2+} ions redeposited onto the Pt/C or PtNi/C nanoparticles, leading to the formation of a Pt-rich shell covering the mother Pt-alloy core, in line with former literature findings [29, 34]. In contrast, the vast majority of the dissolved Ni cations did not redeposit during the cathodic potential sweep [71] but was progressively flushed away by the electrolyte flow. The marked decrease of the Ni dissolution signal near the LPL ($E < 0.1 \text{ V}$) is ascribed to underpotential-deposition of Ni atoms onto the Pt-rich shell [72, 73]. The formation of a Pt-rich shell onto all PtNi/C catalysts is also supported by the shape, the position and the intensity of the Pt and Ni dissolution peaks displayed in **Figure 2b** and **Figure 2c**. Indeed, Pt and Ni atoms dissolve simultaneously in the anodic potential sweep but the cathodic Pt and Ni dissolution peaks are time and thus potential-shifted (Ni dissolution proceeding after Pt dissolution).

We now seek at identifying which nanoparticle morphology best retains Pt atoms, a critical factor influencing the long-term performance and durability of PEMFC devices. Using the third CV of Step 2 to quantify the Pt specific losses, Octahedron PtNi/C and Sponge PtNi/C appear less durable than Sphere Pt/C and Sphere PtNi/C (**Figure 2d**). Interestingly, the Pt/C and PtNi/C catalysts rank in the same order if the PtO_x reduction charge of the third CV of Step 2 is integrated (**Figure 2e**): this confirms that the place-exchange process predominantly contributes to the Pt losses when $\text{UPL} = 1.23$ V. As can be seen from the ratio between the integrated areas of the cathodic and anodic Pt dissolution peaks, which varies as Octahedron PtNi/C < Sponge PtNi/C < Sphere PtNi/C (**Figure 2f**), the larger quantity of Pt^{2+} ions released in the electrolyte for Octahedron PtNi/C and Sponge PtNi/C positively shifts the Pt/ Pt^{2+} equilibrium potential, and facilitates the redeposition of Pt^{2+} ions (Nernst equation). Accordingly, the Ni dissolution signal in the cathodic sweep vanishes more rapidly for Octahedron PtNi/C compared to Sponge PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C (**Figure 2c**). Because the ability to retain Ni atoms is key to sustainable ORR activity, this result would suggest that Octahedron PtNi/C represents a wiser choice than Sponge PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C. However, as we will see in the next section, drawing conclusions regarding the long-term stability of bimetallic nanocatalysts cannot be derived from a simple CV. It necessitates stabilized Pt and Ni dissolution rates, which are only accessible after a prolonged AST.

3. Quantitative insights on Pt and Ni dissolution rates from square-wave potential step experiments

The Pt and Ni dissolution signals recorded during each step of the electrochemical aging protocol are represented in **Figure 3a** and **Figure 3b**. Note that the metal concentrations were normalized by the ECSA obtained from CO_{ads} stripping measurements (displayed in **Supplementary Figure 5**) or normalized by the initial Pt or Ni mass (**Supplementary Figure 6**). This normalization was performed to account for differences in crystallite/particle size among different PtNi/C catalysts. It is also important to note that a logarithmic scale was employed to encompass the wide range of elemental concentrations monitored throughout various stages of the aging protocol, including break-in, characterization, and

AST. **Figure 3c** and **Figure 3d** display the cumulated masses of Pt and Ni lost during each step and the Pt:Ni atomic ratio of the dissolved metal species is shown in **Figure 3e**.

A striking result from **Figure 3a** and **Figure 3b** is that the Pt and Ni dissolution profiles are similar for all studied PtNi/C catalysts (Sphere, Octahedron, Sponge). This indicates that the Pt and Ni dissolution mechanisms are independent of the morphology of the PtNi/C nanocatalysts. **Figure 3a** also illustrates that the concentration of dissolved Pt and Ni atoms depends on the potential variation mode and on the potential sweep rate. For example, the Pt and Ni concentrations in solution during the AST (square-wave potential sweeps between 0.6 and 1.0 V, 3 s at each potential) are one order of magnitude lower than those measured during the break-in protocol (Step 1, fast linear potential sweeps between 0.05 and 1.23 V). This is no surprise in view of the high UPL/low LPL and the fast potential sweep rate used during the break-in procedure relative to the AST, and their pronounced influence on the Pt and Ni dissolution kinetics [38, 43].

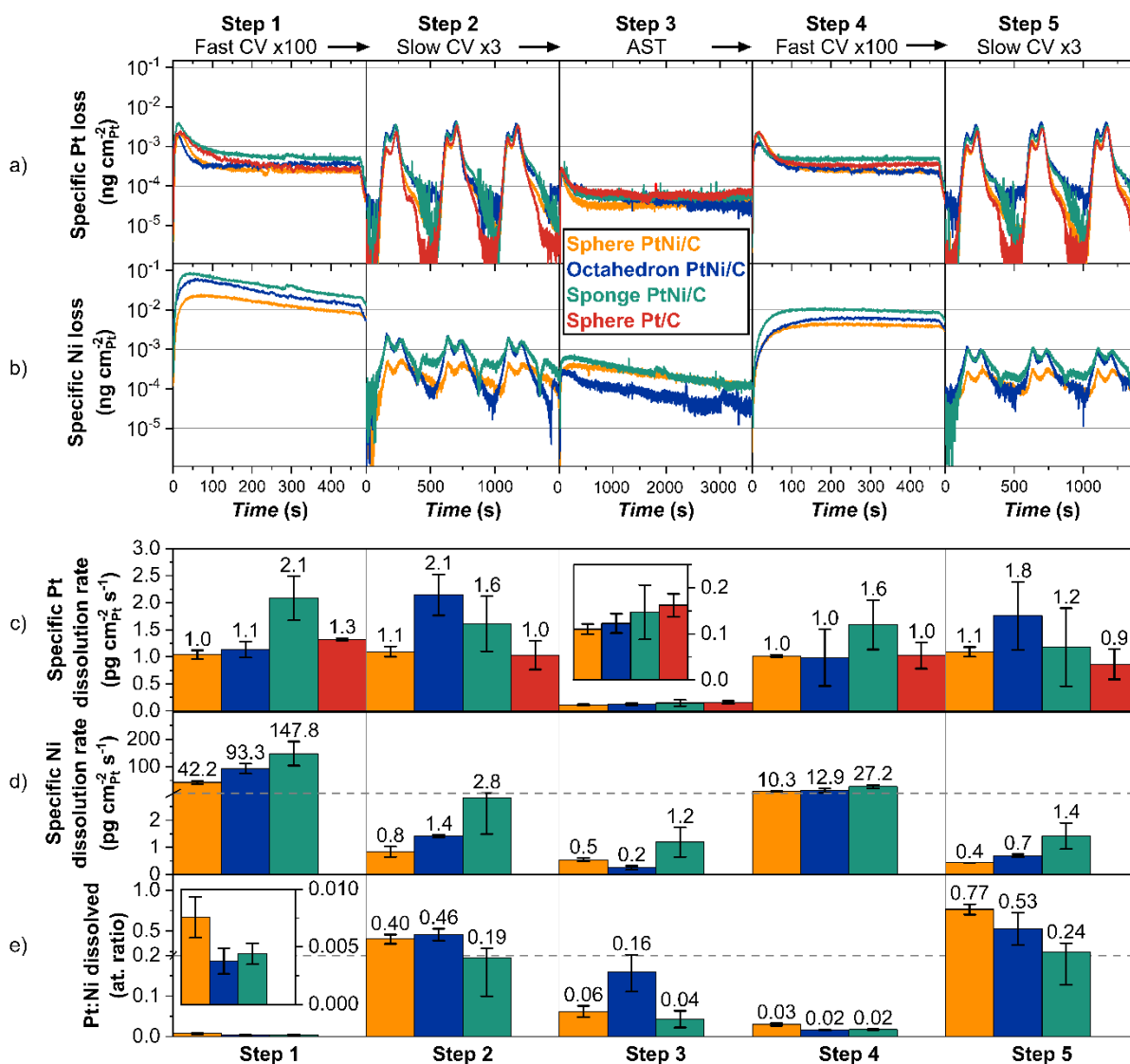


Figure 3. Pt and Ni dissolution signals during the electrochemical aging protocol. a) Pt and b) Ni dissolution signals normalized by ECSA. Scales are logarithmic to allow comparison between the different steps of the aging protocol. c) Pt and d) Ni cumulated losses during each step normalized by ECSA with corresponding error bars. e) Pt:Ni atomic ratio detected during each step with insert to highlight the low Pt:Ni ratio obtained during Step 1. The dashed gray lines represent a break in the scale. Between each step, a potential of 0.4 V is imposed to retrieve a constant Pt and Ni dissolution baseline. The error bars correspond to the standard deviations from three independent measurements.

Another important result emerges from **Figure 3a**: the Pt dissolution signals during Step 1 and Step 4 reach a plateau after *ca.* 150 s for Pt/C and all PtNi/C catalysts, confirming a morphology-independent Pt dissolution mechanism. In contrast, the Ni dissolution profiles were consistent among all PtNi/C

catalysts during Step 1 and Step 4 but a steady Ni dissolution signal was only reached after the AST, *i.e.* during Step 4. This suggests that a harsh break-in and a long AST are required to measure steady-state metal dissolution rates with a FC-ICP-MS set-up.

Quantitatively speaking, we observed nearly a two-order-of-magnitude difference in the dissolution rates between Pt and Ni under the highly dynamic conditions of the break-in steps (Step 1 and Step 4), see **Figure 3a** and **Figure 3b**. This large difference results from the propensity of Pt^{z+} ions to electrochemically redeposit, unlike Ni²⁺ ions. Further supporting this statement is the sweep rate independence of the Pt dissolution rate, which is not the case for the Ni dissolution rate (the potential sweep rate is 500/5 mV s⁻¹ for Step 1/4 and Step 2/5, respectively in **Figure 3c** and **Figure 3d**). Consequently, the Pt:Ni atomic ratio in the electrolyte was 5 times (Step 2 and Step 5) to 50 times (Step 1, Step 3 and Step 4) lower than the nominal composition of the pristine PtNi/C catalysts (estimated from ICP-MS analyses on digested PtNi/C powders, see **Supplementary Table 1**). Moreover, as the Pt dissolution rate remained nearly constant while the Ni dissolution rate decreased over time (**Figure 3d**), the Pt:Ni atomic ratio in the electrolyte steadily increased (**Figure 3e**). These results confirm former conclusions from aged PEMFC cathodes [30-34, 74-76] that transition metal atoms are continuously leaching out from Pt-alloy/C catalysts. They also support our former conclusion that short-duration AST or CVs cannot be used to quantitatively predict the resistance to dissolution of bimetallic nanocatalysts. In the one-hour AST conditions of Step 3 reflecting the potential range experienced by PtNi/C catalysts at a PEMFC cathode (excursions to potentials exceeding 1 V are unlikely to happen instead during unprotected start-up/shutdown events [77]), Octahedron PtNi/C best retain Pt and Ni atoms during model PEMFC operating conditions (**Figure 3** and **Supplementary Figure 6**). Now, should the UPL exceed 1 V (*e.g.* during characterization CVs) or should the complete electrochemical aging protocol be considered, Sphere PtNi/C provides the best stability compromise (**Supplementary Figure 7**).

Summing up, we have shown in this section that stabilized Pt and Ni dissolution rates can be obtained, provided that experimental FC-ICP-MS conditions (harsh break-in protocol, long AST) are properly chosen. From the 2-hour electrochemical aging protocol used in this study, we show that the nanocatalyst's morphology affects the Pt and Ni dissolution rate, not their dissolution mechanisms.

We also report that Ni atoms are continuously leached out from PtNi/C catalysts. Knowing the deleterious effects of transition metal cations on proton conductivity, [78-80] water uptake [81, 82] and mechanical toughness [83] of ionomer/ membrane, the question then arises whether *ex situ* chemical leaching can attenuate or even prevent the dissolution of Ni atoms in model PEMFC cathode conditions.

4. Effect of *ex situ* formation of Pt-skeleton on Pt and Ni losses

As Sphere PtNi/C was identified as the most stable catalyst during the full aging protocol, a given mass of this nanocatalyst was acid-treated for 24 h in 1 M H₂SO₄ at room temperature under air (open-circuit potential close to 1.0 V). The acid-treated commercial PtNi/C sample is referred to as Sphere PtNi/C-AT. As shown by **Supplementary Table 1**, acid-leaching leads to an increase of the Pt:Ni atomic ratio in the catalyst (from 3.2 to 4.6 for Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C-AT, respectively *i.e.* 30 % of Ni atoms were removed by the acid-leaching process) but does not change its lattice parameter. As 30 % of the atoms are surface atoms on a 5 nm PtNi nanoparticle, [84] the monitored 30 % reduction in Ni content implies formation of a Pt-rich shell approximately 1-2 monolayers thick on Sphere PtNi/C-AT. This observation is in good agreement with former measurements on acid-treated Pt₃Co/C or Pt₃Ni/C nanoparticles using spot-resolved energy-dispersive spectroscopy, [74, 85] Synchrotron X-ray diffraction [32] or electron energy loss spectroscopy [29]. Similar CVs and ORR activities measured on the Sphere PtNi/C-AT and Sphere PtNi/C (**Supplementary Figure 8**) indicate that the loss of Ni from the outermost surface layers does not affect their ORR activity, in line with earlier findings [29, 85].

The Pt and Ni dissolution signals recorded on Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C-AT during Step 1 and Step 4 (break-in steps) are displayed in **Figure 4a** and **Figure 4b**. The dissolution signals are homothetic, pointing towards identical Pt and Ni dissolution mechanisms for Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C-AT. Quantitatively speaking, the ECSA-normalized Pt loss is slightly increased for Sphere PtNi/C-AT relative to Sphere PtNi/C during Step 1 (**Figure 4c**), which could be due to the higher proportion of under coordinated Pt atoms of the former. Interestingly, the difference in specific Pt loss between the two materials persists during Step 4, that is after the one-hour long AST (Step 3). In contrast,

a 47 % decrease of the ECSA-normalized Ni loss is reported for PtNi/C-AT compared to Sphere PtNi/C during Step 1. Similar trend during Step 4 (42 % decrease of ECSA-normalized Ni losses) suggests that the presence of the Pt-rich shell attenuates the Ni dissolution rate. The benefit arising from acid-leaching is also obvious when one compares the bulk Pt:Ni atomic ratio in the pristine Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C-AT catalysts and the Pt:Ni ratio in the electrolyte (Figure 4d). We therefore conclude that acid-leaching is an effective strategy for reducing the overall amount of dissolved Ni in the electrolyte and mitigating the degradation of mass transport properties in the ionomer/membrane associated with the partial exchange of protons by Ni cations, while maintaining high beginning of life ORR activity (Supplementary Figure 8).

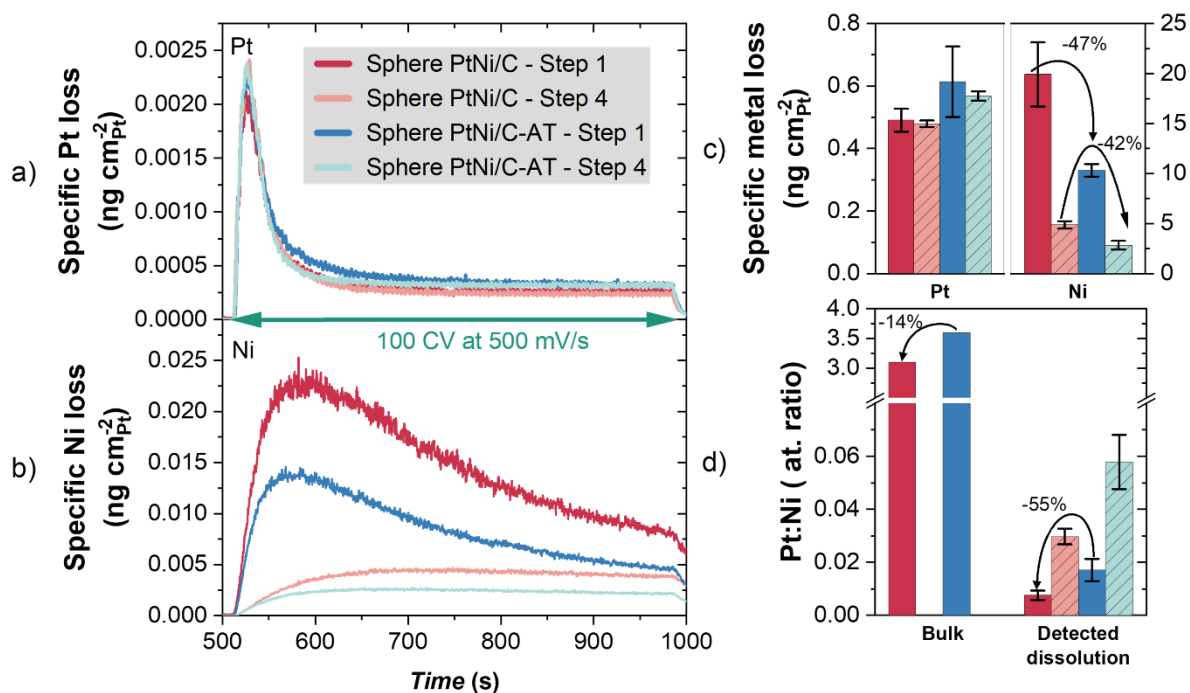


Figure 4. Effect of acid leaching on Pt and Ni dissolution rates. a) Pt and b) Ni are ECSA-normalized dissolution signals for the pristine PtNi/C Sphere and acid-leached PtNi/C Sphere catalysts during Step 1 and Step 4, c) displays ECSA-normalized Pt and Ni cumulated losses during Step 1 and Step 4, d) compares the Pt:Ni atomic ratio in the pristine Sphere PtNi/C and Sphere PtNi/C-AT catalysts and dissolved in the electrolyte during Step 1 and Step 4. The error bars correspond to the standard deviations from three independent measurements.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, using an electrochemical flow cell coupled to inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry, we have investigated the dissolution mechanism of spherical, octahedral and spongy PtNi/C nanocatalysts, when subjected to linear ramp or square-wave potential ramp experiments. Morphology-independent Pt and Ni dissolution profiles were measured for the three PtNi/C catalysts, as a result of the formation of a Pt-rich shell covering the underlying PtNi core, so called Pt-skeleton nanostructure. The Pt-skeleton nanostructure reduces the dissolution of Ni atoms in all PtNi/C catalysts, as long as the cathode potential remains below 1.0 V. Exposure to higher potentials, such as those experienced during start-stop events, results in simultaneous dissolution of both Pt and Ni. The FC-ICP-MS results also suggest that *ex situ* acid leaching mitigates the overall loss of Ni atoms during the AST, but it does not alter the dissolution mechanism of Pt and Ni. From a methodological point of view, our study indicates that steady-state Pt and Ni dissolution rates can be obtained using harsh break-in conditions and long AST. This methodological outcome is of crucial importance since it could circumvent difficulties in predicting the lifetime of electrocatalysts using FC-ICP-MS. Focusing solely on the impact of nanoparticle shape on the retention of Pt and Ni, we observe that the least oxyphilic catalyst (Sphere PtNi/C) demonstrates superior retention of Pt and Ni atoms.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Camille Roiron: Nanocatalysts synthesis, Sample collection and analysis; Methodology, Investigation; Formal analysis; Drawing; Data curation; Writing – original draft. **Vincent Martin:** Sample collection and analysis; Investigation; Data curation. **Kavita Kumar:** Sample collection and analysis; Investigation. **Laetitia Dubau:** Conceptualization, Data curation; Funding acquisition; Methodology, Project administration; Resources; Supervision; Validation. **Frédéric Maillard:** Conceptualization; Data curation; Funding acquisition; Methodology; Resources; Supervision; Validation; Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at DOI.

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