

Exploratory Direct Dynamics Simulations of $^3\text{O}_2$ Reaction with Graphene at High Temperatures

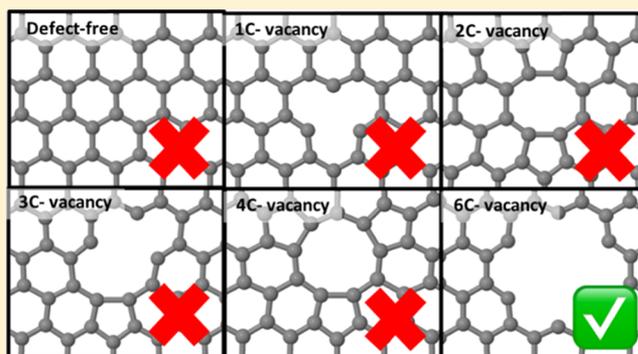
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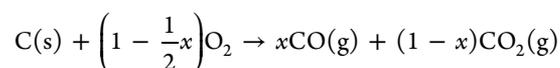
S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Direct chemical dynamics simulations at high temperatures of reaction between $^3\text{O}_2$ and graphene containing varied number of defects were performed using the VENUS-MOPAC code. Graphene was modeled using (5a,6z)-periacene, a poly aromatic hydrocarbon with 5 and 6 benzene rings in the armchair and zigzag directions, respectively. Up to six defects were introduced by removing carbon atoms from the basal plane. Usage of the PM7/unrestricted Hartree–Fock (UHF) method, for the simulations, was validated by benchmarking singlet-triplet gaps of *n*-acenes and (5a,*nz*) periacenes with high-level theoretical calculations. PM7/UHF calculations showed that graphene with different number of vacancies has different ground electronic states. Dynamics simulations were performed for two $^3\text{O}_2$ collision energies E_i of 0.4 and 0.7 eV, with the incident angle normal to the graphene plane at 1375 K. Collisions on graphene with one, two, three, and four vacancies (1C-, 2C-, 3C-, and 4C-vacant graphene) showed no reactive trajectories, mainly due to the nonavailability of reactive sites resulting from nascent site deactivation, a dynamical phenomenon. On the other hand, $^3\text{O}_2$ dissociative chemisorption was observed for collisions on four- (with a different morphology), five- and six-vacant graphene (4C-2-, 5C- and 6C-vacant graphene). A strong morphology dependence was observed for the reaction conditions. On all reactive surfaces, larger reaction probabilities were observed for collisions at $E_i = 0.7$ eV. This is in agreement with the nucleation time measured by supersonic molecular beam experiments wherein about 2.5 times longer nucleation time for O_2 impinging at 0.4 eV compared with 0.7 eV was observed. Reactivity at both collision energies, viz., 0.4 and 0.7 eV, showed the following trend: 5C- < 6C- < 4C-vacant graphene. Formation of carboxyl/semiquinone (C=O)- and ether (-C-O-C-) type dissociation products was observed on all reactive surfaces, whereas a higher probability of formation of the ether (-C-O-C-) group was found on 4C-vacant graphene on which dangling carbon atoms are present in close proximity. However, no gaseous CO/CO₂ formation was observed on any of the graphene vacancies even for simulations that were run up to 10 ps. This is apparently the result of the absence of excess oxygen atoms that can aid the formation of larger groups, the precursors for CO/CO₂ formation. Although the results of this study do not provide a conclusive understanding of the mechanism of graphene/graphite oxidation, this work serves as an initial study attempting to understand the $^3\text{O}_2$ dissociative chemisorption dynamical mechanism on defective-graphene/graphite surfaces at high temperatures.



I. INTRODUCTION

Understanding the reaction between molecular oxygen and carbon is of great fundamental and applied interest in the production of fuels from coal,¹ in graphene/graphite oxidation and reduction of graphene oxides,² high-temperature gas-cooled nuclear reactors,³ and degradation of polymeric material in space reentry vehicles.⁴ Combustion of carbon by oxygen is generally represented by the following simple equation that has been the backbone of numerous kinetic studies,^{5,6}



However, considering the number of factors and reactions involved in oxidation of carbon-based surfaces, the reaction mechanism is found to be extremely complex and not very well understood. In particular, details regarding the following remain uncertain, i.e., the nature of adsorbed surface species,

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surface pit depths and shapes, the effects of surface temperature and multiple surface electronic states, and the role of atomistic dynamics for $O_2 + C(s)$ reactions and formation of gaseous products.

Experimental studies using electron microscopy, scanning tunneling microscopy (STM), etc., exhibit formation of etch pits during high-temperature oxidation of highly ordered pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) surfaces.^{7–12} However, the ensuing explanation of the oxidation mechanism varied; e.g., active sites on the HOPG basal plane were classified on the basis of the number of free sp^2 orbitals¹³ and Monte-Carlo computer models¹⁴ and DFT calculations showed dissociative chemisorption (DC) of O_2 on carbon divacancies.¹⁰ Recently, Delehouzé et al. reported a morphological transition of hexagonal pits at low temperatures to circular pits at high temperatures of ~ 1040 K using in situ high-temperature environmental scanning electron microscopy and kinetic Monte-Carlo (kMC) simulations.¹⁵ Interestingly, the transition was observed both at high and low oxygen pressures, which was linked to the competition between etching of armchair and zigzag edge sites of graphene. Recent high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) studies coupled with image simulations¹⁶ showed that oxidation structures contained $C=O$, pyranlike ether, and lactonelike functional groups. Recent combined experimental and molecular dynamics investigations studied the tendencies of oxidative gasification reaction on carbonized tetracene with zigzag edges and carbonized chrysene with armchair edges¹⁷ and other PAHs.¹⁸ It was found that zigzag edges oxidized and increased their weight whereas armchair edges decomposed without increasing their weight wherein the difference in oxidative gasification was attributed to the difference in activation energy. Similar studies reporting the reactivity of different edges are also available in the literature.^{19,20} However, regarding the differences in the etch morphology at different temperatures, no consensus on differences in reactivity of armchair and zigzag edges and subsequent $O_2 + C(s)$ reaction mechanisms has been achieved.

Because of low reactivity of defect-free surfaces,^{21–26} interactions of molecular oxygen with carbon vacancies on the basal plane of $C(s)$ surfaces have been investigated theoretically using models for the surface. Using ab initio calculations and a $C_{25}H_9$ model, Chen and Yang found that active site carbons in graphene have a negative charge.^{27,28} With theoretical methods and a $C_{25}H_9$ model, Backreedy et al.²⁹ studying the reactivity of the zigzag edge exposed to O_2 suggested that the defects are active sites with a range of reactivities but sites with dangling carbon atoms are super-reactive and subsequently regenerated by a turnover mechanism by a pseudocatalytic mechanism. Using similar models, the following groups have performed detailed quantum chemical calculations to understand $O_2 + C(s)$ reaction mechanism and also differentiate the reactivity of zigzag and armchair type edge sites in graphene. From DFT simulations, Sendt and Haynes^{30–33} were able to explain two experimental observations, O_2 adsorption without gasification at low temperatures and O_2 DC followed by desorption at high temperatures. Radovic et al. used quantum chemistry calculations to study various aspects of carbon gasification reactions, including graphene active sites,³⁴ origin of epoxide groups,³⁵ thermochemistry of oxygen atom hopping,³⁶ and nascent site deactivation (NSD),³⁷ which is responsible for stabilization of reactive/dangling carbon atoms and edge

reconstruction. Differences were found for O_2 adsorption on graphene and carbon nanotubes (CNT) and also between the armchair and zigzag edges on both CNT and graphene.³⁸

The above studies used an edge-unsaturated model to simulate the reactivity of defect/vacancy sites, which does not completely capture effects of neighboring reactive carbon atoms. In response, O_2 DC was investigated on defective sites of large PAH and supercell models in the following studies. Using the supercell approach, DFT calculations proposed increased chemical reactivity of graphene sheets at relaxed defect structures due to the presence of excess charge assisting dissociation of adsorbed molecules.³⁹ Later, an ab initio atomistic thermodynamics study⁴⁰ proposed a two-step mechanism for low-temperature oxidation of graphene vacancies. It was inferred that increasing the O concentration beyond V4/3O (3 oxygen atoms for 4 vacancies) results in formation of larger oxygen complexes containing anhydride and ether groups. Energetics of adsorption and O_2 DC on various types of defects, such as 1C-vacancy,^{41–43} 2C-vacancy,^{44,45} and Stone–Thrower–Wales defect,⁴⁶ were reported. All of these studies suggested O_2 DC on defect sites, irrespective of the defect number, type, and structure. For dissociative adsorption of OH, H_2O , CO, CO_2 , NO, and NO_2 , a 1C-vacancy defect showed lower barriers than those of a defect-free graphite surface.^{47–49} Although these studies provided valuable insights on the $O_2 +$ graphite reaction mechanism, they missed important dynamical details, such as the fate of dissipated energy and effects of surface temperature, defect morphology, electronic states, etc.

Owing to its relevance in oxidation of polymer-coated surfaces in low-earth orbit, where atomic oxygen species are abundant, collisions of high-energy oxygen atoms with graphite surfaces have been studied in detail using experimental techniques^{50–52} and simulations,^{53–58} typically at very high energies (~ 5 eV). Although understanding the reaction dynamics of atomic oxygen with graphite may assist in explaining the mechanism of carbon gasification/graphite oxidation, it is important to understand differences in reactivity of O and O_2 . The O atom is highly reactive and can form epoxide species on a C–C bridge, which is a precursor for further breakup of the hexagonal carbon network. On the contrary, molecular oxygen is first required to dissociate on the “reactive” active sites, followed by migration to the basal plane for carbon removal to occur. Scattering dynamics of hyperthermal O and O_2 on hot vitreous carbon surfaces⁵⁹ showed that O was involved in formation of CO_2 at low temperatures and CO and O_2 at high temperatures, wherein no O_2 DC was observed. Similar results were obtained in a photoemission study, supported by DFT calculations probing initial stages of oxidation of perfect and defective HOPG surfaces by atomic oxygen.⁶⁰ Furthermore, activation energies calculated over a temperature range of 400–1000 °C showed that at high temperatures, the dissociative chemisorption of O_2 almost entirely dictates the rate of oxidation, with the dissociatively chemisorbed oxygen atoms responsible for desorption of CO and/or CO_2 .⁶¹ This clarifies that the reaction mechanisms of O and O_2 with graphite surfaces are fundamentally different.

In a recent review of oxidation of different grades of graphite, different oxidation rates under identical conditions were attributed to differences in surface morphology.⁶² To account for this observation, a model based on the intrinsic reaction rate, i.e., the rate normalized to the reactive surface area, was introduced to characterize and understand the role of

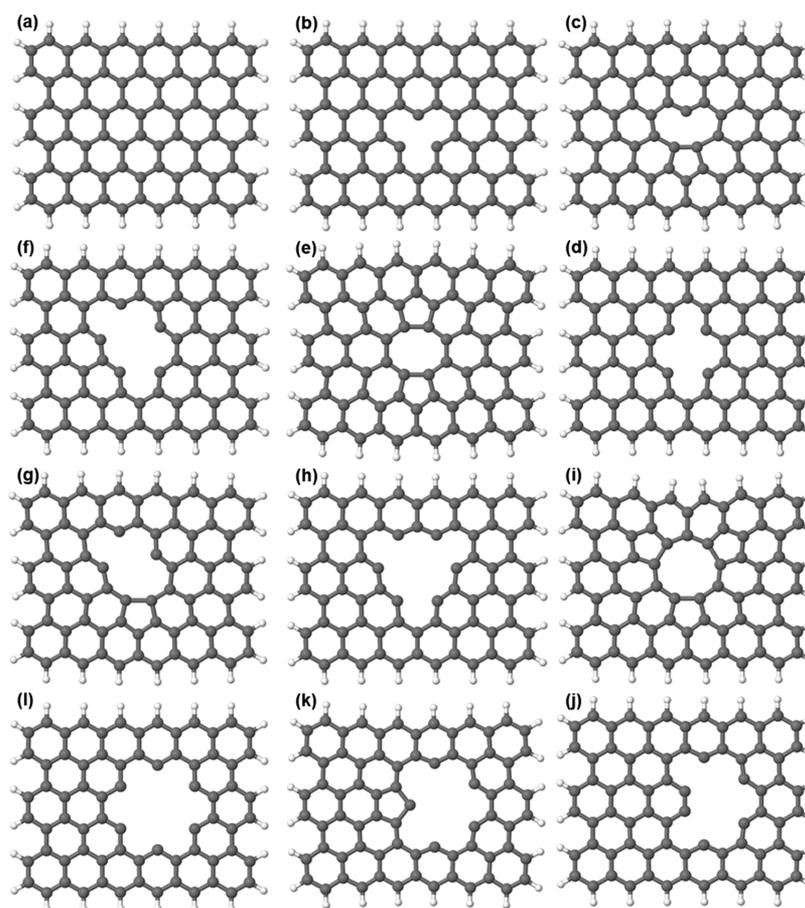


Figure 1. Optimized geometries of (a) defect-free and (b–i) defective-graphene sheets up to six vacancies used as model systems for interaction with $^3\text{O}_2$ in direct dynamics simulations. Herein, (b) 1C-vacant unrelaxed, (c) 1C-vacant relaxed, (d) 2C-vacant unrelaxed, (e) 2C-vacant relaxed, (f) 3C-vacant unrelaxed, (g) 3C-vacant relaxed, (h) 4C-1-vacant unrelaxed, (i) 4C-1-vacant relaxed, (j) 4C-2-vacant, (k) 5C-vacant, and (l) 6C-vacant graphene sheets correspond to defective-graphene structures with 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 5, and 6 carbon atoms removed. Although all structures are optimized, the distinction between unrelaxed and relaxed is explicitly made to show the difference between the two structures only when such distinction could be made. The unconventional way of labeling the figures is chosen to make the comparison between the unrelaxed and relaxed figures easier.

the graphite microstructure and morphology leading to O_2 DC. Since O_2 DC is a difficult step, it is of interest to establish the sufficient and necessary conditions for O_2 dissociation on defective graphene.

Although a substantial number of experimental and theoretical studies have addressed the interaction of O_2 with graphene/graphite surfaces, important questions remain. The starting point of most of the previous studies relied on the assumption that dissociation of O_2 had already been taken place. Furthermore, temperature effects have not been explicitly included, if included, only approximately. As Radovic³⁴ discussed, “understanding the mechanism of carbon gasification and graphene oxidation is hindered by the lack of knowledge regarding the ‘dynamic nature of the reactive surface compounded by the fundamentally different fates of zigzag and armchair sites’”. As discussed above, although the $\text{O}_2 + \text{C}(\text{s})$ reaction has been widely studied using various experimental and theoretical methods, there have been no dynamics simulations to obtain atomic-level insights into O_2 dissociative chemisorption. A direct dynamics simulation of the oxidation of a single-wall carbon nanotube by singlet O_2 was reported and is a study of the oxidation of a carbon-based material using dynamical methods.⁶³ However, this study was

limited by the number of trajectories and did not consider the reaction of the ground-state triplet O_2 .

The current direct dynamics simulation is aimed at obtaining atomistic insights into the dissociative chemisorption of $^3\text{O}_2$ on defective-graphene surfaces/sheets at high temperatures. We investigated in detail effects of defect morphology and collision energy on O_2 DC. Since graphite is held together by weak plane–plane van der Waals forces and the mechanism of the interaction of $^3\text{O}_2$ with all carbonaceous materials is thought to be similar, in this work, the $\text{O}_2 + \text{C}(\text{s})$ reaction dynamics were studied using a single graphene layer of carbon atoms. Motivated by studies of the high-temperature oxidation of graphite,^{64,65} the reaction was studied at 1375 K. Furthermore, this reaction was studied in the triplet electronic state, the ground electronic state of molecular oxygen. We are aware that other adiabatic states might be the ground states for O_2 reacting with defective graphene with ground states other than singlet. Although studying the ground-state dynamics (for $^3\text{O}_2$ on all defective graphene) is a possibility, the low-lying electronic states might require a comparison with the dynamics on other electronic states too. This would be expensive and time consuming considering the size and number of systems studied and will be carried out in future studies. Effect of surface temperature, effects of different electronic states, and

energy-transfer mechanisms will also be the subject of future studies. The manuscript is organized as follows. Details of graphene potential energy surfaces and direct dynamics simulation method are provided in Sections II and III, respectively. Results and discussion are presented in Section IV, and the results are summarized in Section V.

II. GRAPHENE POTENTIAL ENERGY SURFACES

II.I. Ground Electronic State PES of Graphene with Defects. Periacenes, resulting from the peri-condensation of acenes, possessing a balance between the number of zigzag and armchair edges in their periphery, are good models to study graphene. In the current study, graphene is modeled using [5a,6z] periacene (Figure 1a) with 5 and 6 edge benzene rings in the armchair and zigzag directions, respectively. DFT calculations using both atom-centered and plane wave basis set showed that for graphene nanoribbons modeled as periacenes, with at least three consecutive zigzag edges, a spin-polarized state with each edge having an opposite spin is the ground state.^{66–69} Further calculations using high-level multireference theories also confirmed the spin-polarized states and the multiradical/polyradical character of periacenes⁷⁰ and showed that the singlet–triplet energy gap in model graphene systems approach near-degeneracy for sufficiently extended systems.^{71,72} All of these studies emphasized the use of multireference theories when studying graphene.

Although multireference methods might be necessary for the most accurate treatment of graphene, a recent review suggested that semiempirical methods with a dispersion correction may be a good choice to study interaction of molecules with graphene.⁷³ For the present study PM7,⁷⁴ the most recent method incorporated in MOPAC⁷⁵ and one that uses a D2-type correction for the H, C, and O atoms considered in this study, is employed. PM7 combined with the unrestricted Hartree–Fock (UHF) Hamiltonian method, best suited for radical systems, is used for all calculations reported here for triplet oxygen interacting with defective-graphene surfaces. UHF was also preferred because the gradient calculation, the critical step in direct dynamics simulations, is much slower with restricted open-shell Hartree–Fock (ROHF). However, with UHF, the wave function is not spin-quantized, a consequence of spin contamination. Nevertheless, PM7/UHF within MOPAC is the best compromise between speed and accuracy.

Prior to using PM7/UHF for the direct dynamics simulations, it was benchmarked with the high-level coupled cluster single and double and perturbative triple excitation (CCSD(T)), multiconfigurational self-consistent field (MCSCF), complete active space self-consistent field (CASSCF), and other multireference (MR) theoretical methods. Comparisons of singlet–triplet energy gaps (ΔE_{S-T}) calculated for linear *n*-acenes ($n = 1–7$) (Figure S1) and of the (*Sa,nz*) periacenes ($n = 2–6$) (Figure S2) using PM7/UHF with results obtained from coupled cluster, multireference configuration interaction methods and also from experiment are given in Tables S1 and S2 of the Supporting Information. For linear *n*-acenes, the overall decreasing trend in ΔE_{S-T} , with increase in *n*, was qualitatively reproduced by PM7/UHF. For linear *n*-acenes, up to $n = 5$, PM7/UHF underestimates ΔE_{S-T} whereas agreement with high-level theory methods is better for the linear *n*-acenes with $n = 6$ and 7. Thus, PM7/UHF is a good choice for a system with a large number of rings in the zigzag direction of graphene

flakes. Among the (*Sa,nz*) periacenes with $n = 2–6$, PM7/UHF underestimates ΔE_{S-T} for (*Sa,2z*) periacene whereas it overestimates ΔE_{S-T} for (*Sa,nz*) periacenes with $n = 3–5$. For (*Sa,4z*) and (*Sa,5z*) periacenes, the ΔE_{S-T} values are high compared with the multireference calculations. Nevertheless, the overall trend showing an initial decrease and then an increase in ΔE_{S-T} beyond (*Sa,4z*) periacenes is qualitatively captured by PM7/UHF.

II.II. Electronic States of Graphene with Vacancies. Previous direct dynamics studies of oxidation of single-wall carbon nanotube noted that the proper choice of electronic state is critical for achieving reliable results in oxygen-carbon reactions.⁶³ Later, Frankcombe⁷⁶ pointed out that it is reasonable to consider that spin states arising from unpaired electrons on the edge carbon atoms are degenerate. In addition, it was also mentioned that the fate of spin states in bond breaking regions is largely unknown. Although the latter statement still holds true, there have been several studies reporting the ground electronic states of graphene flakes/sheets of various sizes and shapes.^{70–72,77} Depending upon the level of theory used for the calculations, the ground electronic states of the defect-free graphene varied from a closed shell to open-shell singlet,^{68,78} with some systems having near-degenerate singlet and triplet states.

Although the ground electronic states of defect-free graphene systems are well studied, literature on the ground electronic states of defective graphene is scarce.^{79–81} When defects are created within graphene, the ground electronic state is different from that for defect-free graphene. Compared with unrelaxed configurations, the ground electronic states are different for relaxed configurations, with structural reconstructions resulting from optimizing positions of reactive/dangling carbon atoms at nascent sites. Given the number of possibilities, it is crucial to determine accurately the ground electronic states for model graphene sheets employed in studies of graphene/graphite oxidation (carbon gasification).

II.III. PM7 Electronic States and PESs. All structures corresponding to defect-free and defective graphene sheets shown in Figure 1 were optimized using PM7/UHF in different electronic states to identify their ground electronic states. Relative energies of different electronic states calculated for defect-free and defective graphene with PM7/UHF are listed in Table 1. Defect-free graphene showed a singlet ground state, with the triplet and quintet states lying 0.80 and 1.08 eV higher in energy, respectively. Unrelaxed 1C-vacant graphene (Figure 1b) with 3 dangling carbon atoms has a quintet ground state, with triplet and singlet states closely lying at 0.12 and 0.18 eV above the ground state. Whereas the relaxed structure with 1 dangling carbon atom had a singlet ground state with relatively low-lying triplet and quintet states compared to those of the defect-free structures. These findings agree well with comparisons of ground and low-lying closed shell singlet excited electronic states of defect-free and monovacant graphene molecules of different sizes. It was found that the first and second excitation energies were significantly lower for monovacant graphene than those calculated for its defect-free counterparts.⁸¹ In addition, it was found that the formation of a vacancy defect in graphene results in the formation of new energy levels.

For 2C-vacant graphene, both unrelaxed and relaxed structures with 4 and 0 dangling carbon atoms (Figure 1d,e), showed quintet ground states with near-degenerate triplet states. The singlet state in both cases lies ~ 0.5 eV or higher

Table 1. Structure Optimization and Evolution of Electronic States in Model Graphene Structures Using PM7/UHF^{a,b,c}

defects	C*	relative energies, eV		
		singlet	triplet	quintet
defect-free	0	0.00	0.80	1.08
1C-vacant-UR	3	0.18	0.12	0.00
1C-vacant-R	1	0.00	0.56	0.77
2C-vacant-UR	4	0.48	0.06	0.00
2C-vacant-R	0	0.65	0.02	0.00
3C-vacant-UR	5	0.00	0.33	0.02
3C-vacant-R	3	0.00	0.16	0.06
4C-vacant-1UR	6	0.14	0.49	0.00
4C-vacant-1R	0	0.55	0.00	0.62
4C-vacant-2	6	0.08	0.86	0.00
5C-vacant	5	0.57	0.56	0.00
6C-vacant	6	0.00	0.51	0.34

^aUR: unrelaxed, R: relaxed, indices 1 and 2 for R and UR: configuration number in relaxed and unrelaxed structures. ^bC*: number of “reactive”/“dangling” carbon atoms created by removal of carbon atoms from the pristine graphene surface to produce defect sites. ^cThe values in bold signifies the ground electronic state for that particular graphene system.

than the ground quintet state. Singlet ground states with near-degenerate quintet states were found for unrelaxed and relaxed 3C-vacant graphene (Figure 1f,g), with triplet states lying 0.33 and 0.16 eV above the ground singlet states, respectively. Both 4C-1-vacant unrelaxed and 4C-2-vacant graphene (Figure 1h,j), with six dangling carbon atoms have a quintet ground state with singlet and triplet states as the next higher electronic states. But the relaxed structure (Figure 1i) with no dangling carbon atoms has a triplet ground state with singlet and quintet excited states lying 0.55 and 0.62 eV higher, respectively. A quintet ground state with near-degenerate singlet and triplet states was found for 5C-vacant graphene (Figure 1k) with 5 dangling carbon atoms. For 6C-vacant graphene (Figure 1l), the electronic states are in the order singlet < quintet < triplet with energies 0.00 < 0.34 < 0.51 eV. Of interest is that no correlation was found between the numbers of dangling carbon atoms and the ground electronic state.

III. DIRECT DYNAMICS SIMULATION METHOD

Direct chemical dynamics simulations were performed using the VENUS chemical dynamics computer program^{82,83} coupled with the MOPAC⁷⁵ electronic structure computer program. PM7 method⁷⁴ with unrestricted Hartree–Fock is used for structure optimization, potential energy surface calculation, and calculating gradients during direct dynamics simulations. Direct dynamics simulations were performed by initiating trajectories with ³O₂ + graphene in the triplet electronic state. VENUS includes options for choosing initial conditions for a molecule/surface collision. An initial rotational and vibrational temperature of 10 K was assigned to ³O₂, whereas energies for the normal modes of the surface were chosen from the Boltzmann distribution for a surface temperature of 1375 K. For the simulations reported here, zero-point energy is not added to ³O₂ or to the surface. The algorithm for selection of initial conditions for a ³O₂ + graphene collision have been described previously⁸⁴ and are depicted in Figure S3. The initial position and momentum of the incoming ³O₂ molecule was chosen with respect to a surface plane and the defect site. The surface plane was defined

by atoms NN1, NN2, and NN3. The reaction site is specified by displacing the origin of the surface plane by RX, RY, and RZ from atom NN1 in the reference plane. Herein, RZ = 0 was used. As shown in Figure S3, five coordinates *b*, θ , ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 , and *s* are used to define the position of the center-of-mass and the orientation of ³O₂ velocity vector with respect to the surface plane. The two coordinates *b* and ϕ_1 are used to choose an aiming point on the surface plane. The distance from the defect site *b* (i.e., the impact parameter) was chosen to vary from 0 to a maximum value of 3.0 Å for graphene sheets up to 4C vacancies, whereas *b*_{max} = 4.0 Å was used for the 5C- and 6C-vacant graphene sheets, beyond which the dissociation probability approaches zero. The angle ϕ_1 is randomly chosen from a uniform distribution between 0 and 360°. The angle θ between the incoming projectile's velocity vector and the surface normal is chosen to be fixed at $\theta = 0^\circ$ with fixed initial collision energies, *E*_i = 0.4 and 0.7 eV. The angle ϕ_2 , for the incoming projectile, is chosen randomly between 0 and 360°. It should be noted that the angle ϕ_2 is redundant in normal collisions and has no impact on the reaction dynamics. ³O₂ was randomly oriented with respect to its center of mass and the separation *s* is chosen as sufficiently large at 12 Å to ensure initially there is no interaction between the gaseous species and the surface.

The trajectories were integrated in time by using the 6th order symplectic integration algorithm^{85,86} with a time step of 0.25 fs for all trajectories for a total time of 1 ps within which the dissociative chemisorption was realized in the reactive trajectories. O₂ is considered dissociatively chemisorbed when the distance between the two oxygen atoms becomes larger than 1.5 Å at the end of the trajectory, which was further confirmed by visualizing these trajectories. Functional groups formed on O₂ dissociative chemisorption, and further insights into the reaction mechanism are obtained from these visualizations.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

IV.I. Nonreactive Collisions. Direct dynamics simulations of ³O₂ collisions with 1C-vacant, 2C-vacant, 3C-vacant, and 4C-vacant-1 graphene sheets, illustrated in Figure 1b,d,f,h with 3, 4, 5, and 6 dangling/reactive carbon atoms, respectively, showed no reactive trajectories. O₂ did not undergo dissociative chemisorption on these defective graphene surfaces, and only direct scattering of O₂ was observed. This observation is in contrast to many theoretical calculations that report dissociative chemisorption of O₂ on 1C-vacant,^{41–43} 2C-vacant,^{44,45} and 4C-vacant graphene.⁴⁰ However, earlier reports mentioned that encounter of the colliding O₂ with the reactive carbon atoms is inhibited due to nascent site deactivation³⁴ and formation of pentagons³⁹ surrounding vacancies on graphene nanoflakes/sheets. Although graphene edge structures with pentagons surrounding the vacancies are the preferred low-energy structures, at high temperatures, contribution of structures with carbon dangling bonds toward O₂ dissociative chemisorption cannot be ruled out, provided the reactive sites are not deactivated.

Snapshots of representative trajectories for nonreactive O₂ collisions for each of the graphene sheets are given in the Supporting Information (Figures S4–S7), and the corresponding movies are presented in the Supporting Information (SI_movie1–SI_movie4). For 1C-vacant, 2C-vacant, 3C-vacant, and 4C-vacant structures (Figure 1b,d,f,h), dynamical aspects of reactive edge reconstruction by the formation of

Table 2. Dissociation Probabilities for Oxygen on Graphene Sheets with 4, 5, and 6 Vacancies Corresponding to Structures in Figure 1j–l

no. of vacancies	no. of dangling carbon atoms	no. of trajectories		no. of reactive trajectories		probability	
		0.4 eV	0.7 eV	0.4 eV	0.7 eV	0.4 eV	0.7 eV
4	6	350	350	31	43	0.088	0.123
5	5	450	450	13	27	0.028	0.060
6	6	450	450	35	36	0.077	0.080

pentagons, leading to nascent site deactivation (NSD) prior to O₂ collision, is explicitly shown. From molecular orbital molecular dynamics (MO-MD), such reconstructions were found to occur at temperatures as low as 300 K for 1C-vacant graphene.⁸⁷ Using DFT calculations, it was found that armchair sites, which occur in pairs, are deactivated by formation of a triple bond, whereas the fate of adjacent zigzag sites in graphene was found to be more complex.³⁷

Similarly, in experiments, a decrease in O₂/O reactivity on carbonaceous surfaces with increasing surface temperature was observed.⁸⁸ This decrease was attributed to hysteresis involving removal of active sites at high temperatures and regeneration of active sites at low temperatures.⁸⁹ However, we suspect that the decrease in reactivity may be due to NSD, which deactivates surface-active sites at higher temperatures.

IV.II. Reactive Collisions. Collisions of O₂ with 4C-vacant-2, 5C-vacant, and 6C-vacant graphene sheets, corresponding to structures in Figure 1j–l with 6, 5, and 6 dangling/reactive carbon atoms, respectively, showed two types of trajectories, i.e., direct scattering (DS) and dissociative chemisorption (DC). Direct scattering occurs when the reactive/dangling carbon atoms are not accessible to the colliding O₂ molecule, whereas O₂ dissociative chemisorption takes place when the colliding O₂ molecule interacts with the reactive/dangling carbon atom present in the vacancy. Within the simulation time, oxygen atoms for the dissociatively chemisorbed trajectories did not form CO or CO₂ species but remained in the chemisorbed state on the surface-active sites.

Dissociation probabilities of O₂ on graphene sheets with varying number and types of defects are given in Table 2 for incident energies, E_i , of 0.4 and 0.7 eV. On 4C-vacant-2 and 5C-vacant graphene sheets, the respective dissociation probabilities for $E_i = 0.7$ eV are 1.4 and 2.14 times larger than those for O₂ $E_i = 0.4$ eV. However, on 6C-vacant graphene, the dissociation probabilities for $E_i = 0.4$ and 0.7 eV are similar, 7.7×10^{-2} and 8.0×10^{-2} , respectively. These results are in agreement with supersonic molecular beam experiments where the etching of small sputtering-induced vacancies was monitored over time using scanning tunneling microscopy (STM).⁶⁴ The instrument used for these experiments has been described previously.^{64,90} The relative dissociation probabilities under different experimental conditions were inferred by measuring the nucleation time and the amount of O₂ exposure necessary for product formation to begin and etching to occur. Figure 2 shows the amount of carbon consumed by etching with molecular oxygen impinging at a normal angle on a 1375 K surface at both 0.4 and 0.7 eV kinetic energies. The nucleation time, graphically defined as the x intercept of the linear trends, is about 2.5 times longer for 0.4 eV oxygen, in line with the difference in dissociation probabilities predicted in this paper. Further, the nucleation time does not appear to be strongly related to the subsequent etching rate. The nucleation time for 0.7 eV O₂ remained comparatively short even when its etching rate was lowered

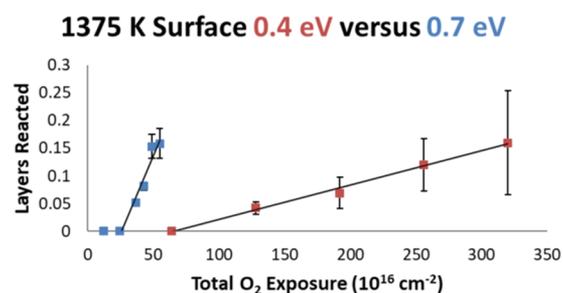


Figure 2. Reactivity of HOPG samples in terms of layers of graphite reacted versus fluence of O₂ from a supersonic molecular beam. Vacancies were introduced by sputtering with 4 keV Ar⁺ ions to provide nucleation sites. Samples exposed to molecular oxygen with kinetic energies of 0.4 eV (red) and 0.7 eV (blue) at a surface temperature of 1375 K and normal incident angle show marked differences in nucleation time (the x intercept of the linear regressions) as well as subsequent overall reactivity (the slope). The nucleation time with 0.4 eV oxygen is roughly 2.5 times longer than with 0.7 eV oxygen.

through the use of a higher quality HOPG sample. HOPG samples were supplied by SPI, with the higher quality grade 2 samples having a lower density of domain boundaries and intrinsic defects than that of the lower quality grade 3 samples otherwise used in these experiments. Conversely, altering the impingement angle of the beam affected nucleation time but not the etching rate, with more glancing angles producing longer nucleation times. Thus, the dissociation process is related in some way to the normal component of the O₂ kinetic energy. Taken together, the experimental evidence shows that molecular oxygen with higher energy and impingement angles closer to normal do indeed dissociate more readily on sputter vacancies, leading to a higher coverage of adsorbed O and the onset of product formation at smaller O₂ exposures.

Snapshots of representative trajectories forming two semi-quinone (carbonyl, C=O) groups on 4C-vacant-2, 5C-vacant, and 6C-vacant graphene sheets are shown in Figure 3a–c. The corresponding movies are also available in the Supporting Information movies SI_movie5, SI_movie6, and SI_movie7. All above observations are in agreement with Ranish and Walker's study that stated that if the collision event between the nascent sites and oxygen occurs prior to rehybridization, the probability of chemical interaction is markedly enhanced.⁹¹ Our results also agree with the study by Malola et al.,⁹² which noted that edge reconstruction chemically passivates the zigzag edge, which also emphasized that spin multiplicities of a free zigzag site are the key issue because both the path and the energetics of its chemical passivation are very much dependent on its geometry.

Direct scattering, a predominant event in these simulations, may occur in both thermal and structural regimes.⁹³ Direct scattering occurs in the thermal regime when the timescale for

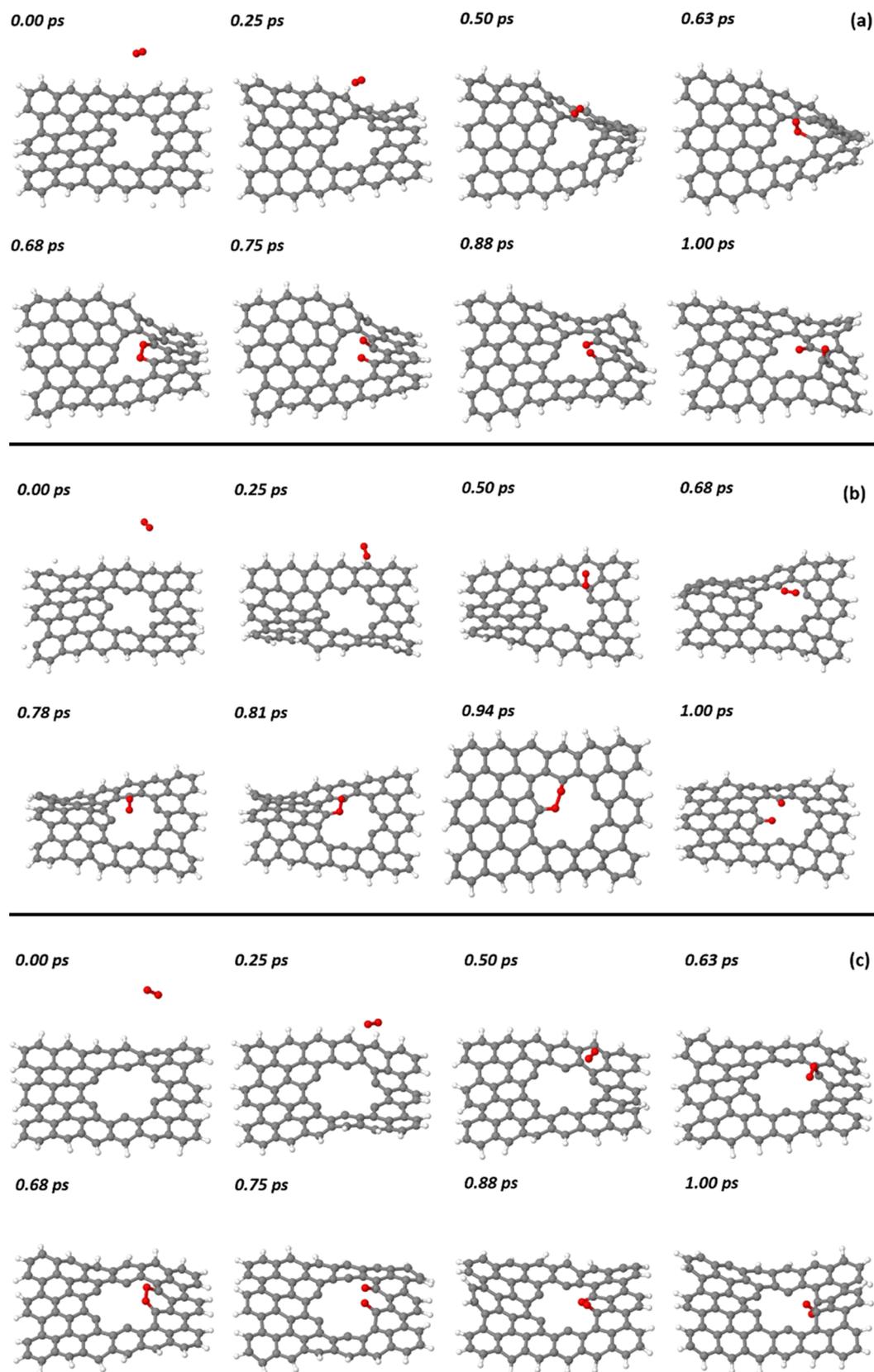


Figure 3. Snapshots from the reactive trajectories of O_2 dissociative chemisorption on (a) 4C-2-, (b) 5C-, and (c) 6C-vacant graphene sheets trajectories in which two semiquinone ($-C=O$) groups were formed.

E_i is nearly resonant with that for the surface motion with energy $2RT_s$. On the contrary, when E_i is considerably larger, an individual surface atom becomes responsible for repelling

the incoming molecule, resulting in collision in the structural regime. At 1375 K, with $2RT_s = 0.24$ eV, which is smaller than both the incidence energies of 0.4 and 0.7 eV, direct scattering

Table 3. Functional Groups Formed during the Dissociative Chemisorption of O₂ on Graphene Sheets with 4, 5, and 6 Vacancies Corresponding to Structures in Figure 1j–l

no. of vacancies	no. of reactive carbon atoms	functional groups formed during O ₂ dissociative chemisorption					
		0.4 eV			0.7 eV		
		2C=O	2-C-O-C-	1C=O and 1-C-O-C-	2C=O	2-C-O-C-	1C=O and 1-C-O-C-
4	6	17	5	9	16	4	23
5	5	10	1	2	23	0	4
6	6	30	0	5	31	0	5

clearly occurs in the structural regime. This observation supports the structure/morphology dependence of O₂ dissociative chemisorption found in this study.

IV.III. Formation of Functional Groups. Depending upon the orientation of the colliding O₂, dissociative chemisorption can occur on reactive sites either adjacent or opposite to the site at which O₂ is chemisorbed. Ether (-C-O-C-) group formation always occurs after formation of the semiquinone (C=O) group, if and only if reactive sites are in close proximity. However, a nearby reactive site does not always guarantee the formation of an ether group. On 5C-vacant graphene, dissociation is always delayed compared with both 4C-vacant-2- and 6C-vacant graphene sheets, because O₂ which approaches the two adjacent reactive sites is repelled by those sites or attracted by the single reactive site present on the pentagon on the opposite side, on which dissociative chemisorption occurs. Depending on the proximity and availability of neighboring sites, CO formation and subsequent ether group formation may occur. These findings agree with the proposition of Radovic,³⁴ which states that dissociation of O₂ on the zigzag edge is possible. However, it requires the existence of two adjacent free, reactive sites but is an improbable event.

Chemisorbed O₂ reaches out to the nearest carbon atom to dissociatively chemisorb as two semiquinone (C=O), one C=O, and either one ether (-C-O-C-) or two ether groups. Irrespective of the final structure, dissociative chemisorption always occurs through a cyclic intermediate. Availability of an additional reactive C atom for formation of the cyclic intermediate strongly depends on the direction of the vibrational motion of the surface carbon atom and the orientation of the incoming O₂. Previous reports showed that, for two O adatoms, the lowest-energy structure consists of a pair of neighboring ether and carbonyl groups, which is 0.37 eV lower than that of the structure containing two epoxy groups.⁵⁵ However, for the current study, the presence of two O adsorbates did not result in formation of epoxy groups but did result in carbonyl, ether, and lactone groups (Table 3). Although previous studies show that bare vacancies are quickly saturated by ether and carbonyl groups, only the formation of larger groups, such as lactones, anhydrides, and carbonate groups, facilitates desorption of CO/CO₂, whose formation requires subsequent collisions of more than one O₂.⁴⁰ In addition, within the time of the simulation, regeneration of molecular oxygen was not found in any of these trajectories.

A few reactive trajectories for O₂ + 6C-vacant graphene were run up to 10 ps to check for possible carbon removal by CO/CO₂ formation. In these simulations, no carbon removal via CO/CO₂ formation was observed. Carbon removal did occur through an intermediate step with O migration/spillover from reactive sites, with a complex mechanism.³⁵ It was previously found that energy cannot be readily dissipated via migration reactions when the graphene domain size is small.³³ Since

migration reactions (and subsequent desorption) are less probable on smaller graphene, these surfaces tend to retain oxides at much higher temperatures and probably for longer times compared with highly ordered graphite surfaces. Studies regarding these dynamics might provide valuable information on the timescale for carbon removal via CO/CO₂ formation.

IV.IV. Coalescence of Defects. High-energy Ar⁺-ion collision is one of the widely used experimental techniques to produce vacancies on graphene/graphite surfaces to make it reactive. Previous investigations on Ar⁺-ion impact on graphene/graphite surfaces reported formation of predominantly 1C-vacant and 2C-vacant defects.⁹⁴ However, in our simulations at high temperature (1375 K), 1C-vacant, 2C-vacant, 3C-vacant, and 4C-vacant sites are found to be nonreactive toward O₂. This leaves an interesting question: what defect type and structure is necessary and sufficient to initiate the carbon-oxygen reaction? In experiments, such high temperatures are achieved by heating the sputtered sample to a desired temperature using a direct current heater for the duration of the exposure.⁶⁴ At these high temperatures, surface carbon atoms undergo vibrational motion in parallel and perpendicular directions. As mentioned above, Ar⁺-ion irradiation in experiments produces multiple monolayer vacancies on the HOPG surface. On annealing, to achieve the desired temperature, the presence of more than one defect resulting from the high dosing of Ar⁺ ions may result in structural relaxations of the vacancy-type defects to coalesce into larger defects.^{95,96} This observation supports our results in which O₂ DC is only observed for defects larger than 4C-vacant graphene and not on 1C-vacant, 2C-vacant, and 3C-vacant graphene systems. This is contrary to the popular view that 1C-vacant and 2C-vacant sites may be the reaction initiation centers on graphite surfaces. Although predominantly 1C-vacant and 2C-vacant sites are produced during initial Ar⁺-ion irradiation, at high temperatures at which O₂ dosing takes place, these defects may coalesce to form larger defects that act as reaction centers.

In most of the early DFT calculations,^{31,32,34,38,42,45} the number of configurations considered to explain graphene oxidation is quite small compared with the ones realized in typical direct dynamics simulations. In addition, most calculations do not consider the singlet–triplet transition during adsorption and dissociation and more importantly, do not account for surface temperature effects and the fate of the energy released during the exothermic O₂ dissociative chemisorption reaction. Furthermore, the number of orientations considered for O₂ is also not sufficient to adequately sample the reaction phase space. Experiments indicate that CO and CO₂ formation are facilitated through the formation of larger groups like lactones or a ether–lactone combination, which necessitates the presence of more than two oxygens atoms on the surface. Even after this study, a number of questions remain open. Nevertheless, this study is a first step

toward understanding the reaction dynamics of molecular oxygen with graphene/graphite, although to realize carbon removal in the form of CO/CO₂, further O₂ dosing would be necessary.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Direct dynamics simulations were performed to study the reaction of ³O₂ on defective graphene at high temperatures. Dissociative chemisorption of ³O₂ was not observed on graphene with 1-, 2-, 3-, and 4-carbon vacancies for the reaction conditions employed in this study. DC of O₂ occurred only on exposed dangling carbon atoms at the defects via a cyclic intermediate and strongly depends on the defect morphology. The necessary condition for oxygen DC at defects is that the carbon atoms at the periphery of the defects should not be close enough to form a C–C bond during the dynamics, resulting in nascent site deactivation (NSD). However, the availability of the nearby reactive site is dynamic and depends on the surface temperature. The dangling/reactive carbon atoms should be exposed during the collision for O₂ to dissociate. Dissociation of molecular oxygen resulted in formation of predominantly carbonyl/semiquinone (C=O) and ether (–C–O–C–) groups. The probability of both adsorbed functional groups being carbonyl or ether depends on the defect morphology. This study strongly establishes that the graphite oxidation mechanisms by atomic oxygen and molecular oxygen are characteristically different.

No CO/CO₂ formation was observed in the (few) simulations run up to 10 ps (at 1375 K and $E_i = 0.4$ eV). Furthermore, since CO and CO₂ formation are facilitated through the formation of larger groups like lactones or an ether–lactone combination, presence of more than two oxygens atoms on the surface is necessary for carbon removal to take place. Our future studies are directed toward direct dynamics simulations of subsequent collisions of O₂ on a surface containing adsorbed O atoms in multiples of two and collision of O₂ on oxygen preadsorbed at random positions on graphene sheets. In addition, the effect of the adsorption sites, adsorption configuration, and the proximity of adsorbed O atoms to the defects will also be studied to obtain detailed insights into the mechanism of CO/CO₂ removal. Carbon removal and the pit growth on graphene and graphite are expected to be different due to the layered structure of graphite wherein O interactions with the inner graphite layers may lead to a different mechanism compared to that observed on graphene surfaces. Above all, oxygen having a triplet ground state and with graphene exhibiting different electronic ground states for different numbers of vacancies, nonadiabatic dynamics may be necessary to correctly describe crossings between electronic states that may occur within the interaction region, just prior to dissociative chemisorption.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jpcc.8b10146.

Structures of linear *n*-acenes (Figure S1) and (*Sa,nz*) periacenes (Figure S2) used for calculating singlet–triplet energy gaps (Tables S1 and S2) using PM7/UHF Hamiltonian; definition of coordinates used for sampling the trajectory initial conditions (Figure S3); snapshots of representative nonreactive trajectory and nascent site

deactivation: O₂ + 1C-vacant (Figure S4), O₂ + 2C-vacant (Figure S5), O₂ + 3C-vacant (Figure S6), and O₂ + 4C-vacant (Figure S7) graphene; snapshots of trajectories with one or two ether groups (–C–O–C–) on O₂ + 4C-vacant-2 graphene (Figure S8); snapshots of trajectories with one semiquinone and one ether (–C–O–C–): O₂ + 4C-vacant-2 (Figure S9), O₂ + 5C-vacant (Figure S10), and O₂ + 6C-vacant (Figure S11) graphene (PDF)

Representative trajectory for nonreactive O₂ collision on 1C-vacant graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for nonreactive O₂ collision on 2C-vacant graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for nonreactive O₂ collision on 3C-vacant graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for nonreactive O₂ collision on 4C-vacant-1 graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for O₂ reactive collision leading to the formation of two semiquinone groups on 4C-vacant-2 graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for O₂ reactive collision leading to the formation of two semiquinone groups on 5C-vacant graphene (AVI)

Representative trajectory for O₂ reactive collision leading to the formation of two semiquinone groups on 6C-vacant graphene (AVI)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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