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Atomically dispersed Pt^{n+} species as highly active sites in Pt/In_2O_3 catalysts for methanol synthesis from CO_2 hydrogenation

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ABSTRACT

Hydrogenation of CO₂ into methanol using the H₂ produced from renewable energy is a promising way for carbon capture and utilization. Therefore, the methanol synthesis catalysts with high methanol selectivity are highly desired. In this work, we found that the methanol selectivity of In₂O₃ catalyst can be significantly enhanced by introducing a small amount of Pt. Methanol selectivity can be increased from 72.2% (In₂O₃) to 91.1% (0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃) at 220 °C. The introduced Pt atoms are doped into the In₂O₃, forming atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species, most of which are stable under working conditions. It is proposed that the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species are responsible for the enhanced methanol selectivity, while Pt nanoparticles on In₂O₃ mainly boost the reverse water-gas shift reaction (CO₂ + H₂ \rightarrow CO + H₂O).

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1. Introduction

The increasing atmospheric CO_2 concentration caused by human activity has become a worldwide concern since CO_2 is considered to be responsible for global climate change and ocean acidification [1–3]. Several routes, such as CO_2 sequestration and conversion of CO_2 into chemicals, have been proposed for the reduction of carbon emission. Utilizing CO_2 as a carbon resource to produce valuable chemicals is more viable. CO_2 can be converted to various chemicals, including methane, olefins, aromatics, and alcohols [4–11]. Methanol is an ideal product since it is a platform molecule for both energy storage and chemical synthesis [12]. There are two major obstacles to be overcome to reduce CO_2 emission by converting CO_2 into methanol. First, the H₂ should be produced utilizing renewable energy instead of fossil resources [13]. Second, highly efficient catalysts for selective hydrogenation of CO_2 into methanol need to be developed.

Ternary Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst has been used for the methanol synthesis from syngas (CO and H₂). This catalyst has also been tested for CO₂ hydrogenation [14]. However, Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ is active in both methanol synthesis reaction and reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction, leading to low methanol selectivity. Unlike CO hydrogenation, a lot of water is generated during CO₂ hydrogenation, causing the sintering of Cu and deactivation of the catalyst. Other catalysts, such as Cu/ZnO/Ga₂O₃ [15], Cu/ZrO₂ [16–18],

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2020.06.018 0021-9517/© 2020 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃/ZrO₂ [19], Pd/ZnO [20], Au/CeO_x/TiO₂ [21], and Ni₅-Ga₃/SiO₂ [22] have also been tested with this reaction, confronting with similar problems.

Recently, catalysts based on metal oxides have attracted research attention. For example, ZnO-ZrO₂ solid solution catalyst shows excellent performance in CO₂ hydrogenation for methanol synthesis. This catalyst achieves methanol selectivity up to 86–91% and is very stable under working conditions [23]. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations suggest that the high methanol selectivity is attributed to the simultaneous activation of H₂ and CO₂ on the neighboring Zn²⁺ and Zr⁴⁺ sites [23]. CdZrO_x and GaZrO_x solid solution catalysts also show good catalytic activity and selectivity to methanol for this reaction [24]. In addition to the ZrO₂ based solid solution catalysts, In₂O₃ was also predicted to be active in CO₂ hydrogenation and possess high selectivity to methanol based on DFT calculations, which have been further demonstrated by experiments [25–29].

Although In_2O_3 catalyst shows higher methanol selectivity compared to Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃, its activity is relatively low. Supporting In_2O_3 on other supports has been investigated to disperse In_2O_3 and improve the activity. However, only a few supported In_2O_3 catalysts such as In_2O_3/ZrO_2 show some limited improvement [28]. A second active metal such as Co [30] and Ni [31] has also been introduced into In_2O_3 to improve the performance. Precious metals are widely used to enhance the catalytic hydrogenation performance of oxide-based catalysts. In this regard, it is reported that introducing Pd nanoparticles prepared separately by a peptideassisted method into In_2O_3 can improve the methanol synthesis

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performance [32]. In another article, the reactivity of Pd in In_2O_3 is found to be related to its state. The low-nuclearity Pd clusters formed in-situ from the isolated Pd atoms in the In₂O₃ lattice improve the methanol synthesis performance without boosting the detrimental RWGS reaction, while Pd nanoparticles mainly promote the RWGS reaction [33]. In addition to Pd, Pt is also reported to improve the performance of In₂O₃ in CO₂ hydrogenation with an inferior improvement compared to Pd in Ref. [33]. However, this article only focuses on the different effects of lownuclearity Pd clusters and Pd nanoparticles. The detailed state of Pt and the mechanism of the Pt enhancement have not been investigated. Herein, we investigated the effect of Pt on the performance of In₂O₃ in the CO₂ hydrogenation. We found that the addition of a small amount of Pt into In₂O₃ through co-precipitation could increase both the methanol selectivity and the activity in CO₂ hydrogenation. It is affirmed that atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species is responsible for the improved methanol selectivity while Pt nanoparticles mainly boost the RWGS reaction.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Catalyst preparation

In₂O₃ was prepared following a published method with some modifications [34]. A solution of aqueous NH₄OH (80 mL, 25.0–28.0%, AR, Sinopharm) in ethanol (240 mL, AR, Damao chemical reagent) was added to a solution of In(NO₃)₃·xH₂O (27.5 g, 99.99%, Macklin) in a mixture of water (80 mL) and ethanol (240 mL) under vigorous stirring at room temperature. The resulting slurry was immersed into a preheated water bath at 80 °C and stirred for 1 h before cooled to room temperature. The precipitate was separated by centrifugation, washed with water, and dried at 70 °C in air. The resulting solid was calcinated in air for 3 h at 450 °C to obtain the final oxide sample.

Pt/In₂O₃ with Pt loading of 0.03–0.58 wt.% was prepared by coprecipitation. For 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, a solution of $(NH_4)_2CO_3$ (15.6 g, AR, Sinopharm) in water (200 mL) was added to a solution of $(NH_4)_2$ PtCl₆ (0.7 g, Beijing chemicals factory) and In(NO₃)₃·xH₂O (28.6 g, AR, Macklin) in water (300 mL) under vigorous stirring at room temperature. The resulting slurry was immersed into a preheated water bath at 70 °C and stirred for 2 h before cooled to room temperature. The precipitate was separated by centrifugation, washed with water, and dried at 70 °C in air. The resulting solid was calcinated in air for 3 h at 450 °C to obtain the final catalyst sample. For Pt/In₂O₃ with Pt loading between 0.03 wt.% and 0.34 wt.%, the amount of $(NH_4)_2$ PtCl₆ and $(NH_4)_2$ CO₃ was changed accordingly while other procedures were kept as the same.

The 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ and 0.65 wt.% Pt/SiO₂ were prepared by wet impregnation, using platinum nitrate solution (Aladdin, Pt, 18.02%) as the precursor and In₂O₃ or SiO₂ (Aladdin, 99.5%) as supports. The mixture containing Pt precursor, water, and support was dried using a rotary evaporator and calcinated in air for 3 h at 400 °C to obtain the final catalyst.

2.2. Catalyst evaluation

 CO_2 hydrogenation was performed using a quartz-lined stainless steel fixed-bed reactor. The catalyst (0.1 g) and quartz sand (0.4 g) were evenly mixed and packed in the reactor. All the catalysts were used directly without any pretreatment. The reactant has the composition of $CO_2/H_2/Ar = 24/72/4$ (molar ratio). The pressure of the reactor was controlled by a high-temperature back-pressure regulator. Products were analyzed online using gas chromatography (Agilent 7890B). CO_2 , Ar, and CO were separated by coupled Porapak N and MolSieve 5A packed columns and quan-

tified by a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). Methane, dimethyl ether, and methanol were separated by an HP-PLOT Q capillary column and quantified by a flame ionization detector (FID). The whole area between the reactor outlet and GC inlet, including the backpressure valve, transfer lines, and GC sampling valves, was kept at 150 °C to avoid the condensation of the products.

The CO₂ conversion (X) and product selectivity (S) were calculated using the following equations:

$$X(CO_2) = \frac{n(CH_4) + n(CH_3OCH_3) * 2 + n(CH_3OH) + n(CO)}{n(CH_4) + n(CH_3OCH_3) * 2 + n(CH_3OH) + n(CO) + n(CO_2)}$$

$$S(CH_3OH) = \frac{n(CH_3OH)}{n(CH_4) + n(CH_3OCH_3) * 2 + n(CH_3OH) + n(CO)}$$

$$S(CH_4) = \frac{n(CH_4)}{n(CH_4) + n(CH_3OCH_3) * 2 + n(CH_3OH) + n(CO)}$$

$$S(CO) = \frac{n(CO)}{n(CH_4) + n(CH_3OCH_3) * 2 + n(CH_3OH) + n(CO)}$$

where n(P) was the molar flow rate of P in the reactor outlet calculated from peak areas on the chromatogram and relative sensitive factors.

2.3. Catalyst characterization

Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were recorded using a Rigaku D/Max 2500 diffractometer with a Cu rotating anode X-ray source working at 40 kV and 200 mA. The scanning rate was set as 2° /min.

 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms at liquid nitrogen temperature were measured on a Quantachrome autosorb iQ analyzer. The samples were evacuated at 200 $^\circ C$ for 6 h before measurement.

The Pt content was measured on a PerkinElmer Optima 7300DV ICP-OES spectrometer.

High-resolution transmission electron microscope (HRTEM) and scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) images were recorded on a JEOL JEM-F200 multi-purpose electron microscope and a JEOL JEM-ARM300F transmission electron microscope.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was recorded on a Thermofisher ESCALAB 250Xi instrument with a monochromatic Al K α X-Ray source. The spectra were calibrated by adjusting C 1s peak to 284.6 eV.

The temperature-programmed reduction with H₂ (H₂-TPR) and temperature-programmed desorption of H₂ (H₂-TPD) were performed using a Quantachrome ChemStar TPx chemisorption analyzer equipped with a TCD detector. For H₂-TPR, the sample was pretreated in Ar at 120 °C for 1 h, then cooled to room temperature, followed by temperature-programmed reduction by 10% H₂/Ar at a ramping rate of 10 °C/min. For H₂-TPD, the sample was heated from room temperature to 300 °C at a ramping rate of 10 °C/min and held at 300 °C for 1 h, followed by cooling to 50 °C in a 10% H₂/Ar mixture. After that, the carrier gas was switched to Ar to remove the weakly adsorbed H₂. Then the temperature was ramping at 10 °C/min for H₂ desorption.

 H_2 - D_2 isotopic exchange experiment was performed using an AutoChem 2910 chemisorption analyzer (Micromeritics). The sample was pretreated in He at 300 °C for 1 h, followed by cooling to room temperature. Then the treatment gas was switched to mixtures of H_2 and D_2 . The temperature was ramping at 5 °C/min. Mass spectrometer (OmniStar) was used to monitor the effluent gas.

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3. Results and discussion

3.1. CO₂ hydrogenation on Pt/In₂O₃

A series of Pt/In₂O₃ catalysts containing 0.03–0.58 wt.% Pt were prepared by co-precipitation. For comparison, a Pt/In₂O₃ catalyst with relatively high Pt loading (2.50 wt.%) was also prepared by wet impregnation. The reaction results at 300 °C and 2 MPa are shown in Fig. 1 and Table 1. Methanol and CO are the major products with a small amount of CH_4 (< 0.8%) for all the catalysts. Dimethyl ether (< 0.1%) is also detected when CO₂ conversion is relatively high, which is formed from the dehydration of methanol. For the Pt/In₂O₃ catalysts prepared by co-precipitation, the conversion of CO₂ increases monotonically with Pt loading. The introduction of Pt hardly changes the CH₄ selectivity. In₂O₃ shows a moderate methanol selectivity (48.0%), which is increased to 54.2% upon the introduction of 0.03 wt.% Pt. The highest methanol selectivity (58.4%) is achieved for 0.13 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃. Further increasing the Pt content to 0.34 wt.% and 0.58 wt.% results in a drop of methanol selectivity to 56.8% and 55.8%, respectively. But the methanol selectivity of these two catalysts is still higher than that of In₂O₃. The 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ used for comparison shows the lowest methanol selectivity (41.0%), even lower than that of In₂O₃. The significant impact of Pt loading on the methanol selectivity may be related to the different chemical states of the Pt species.

Fig. 2 shows the influence of reaction temperature on the catalytic performance. For all the catalysts, the lowering of reaction temperature leads to a decrease in CO_2 conversion and an increase in methanol selectivity. The CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol is exothermic, while RWGS reaction is endothermic [35]. Therefore, a lower temperature is favorable for methanol synthesis. It is noteworthy that the highest methanol selectivity (91.1%) is achieved for 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ at 220 °C, much higher than that of In₂O₃ (72.2%).

The stability of the 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ was further tested at 300 °C and 4 MPa (Fig. 3). The stability test results of In₂O₃ are also shown in Fig. 3 for comparison. The relatively low CO₂ conversion for all the catalysts at the first 1 h is due to the instability of the reactor PID temperature controller at the beginning. The CO₂ conversion of In₂O₃ decreases continuously, especially at the initial stage, indicating the deactivation of In₂O₃. The deactivation is caused by the sintering of In₂O₃ due to the product water [29]. The methanol selectivity does not change significantly. The CO₂ conversion of 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ also exhibits a slight decrease at

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Reaction results of the catalysts at T = 300 °C, P = 2 MPa, and SV = 24,000 mL·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat}.

Catalyst	CO ₂ conversion (%)	Product selectivity (%)			
		СО	CH₃OH	CH ₄	CH ₃ OCH ₃
In ₂ O ₃	4.4	51.4	48.0	0.6	-
0.03 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	4.6	45.1	54.2	0.7	-
0.13 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	5.4	40.9	58.4	0.7	0.01
0.34 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	6.1	42.6	56.8	0.6	0.02
0.58 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	6.3	43.6	55.8	0.6	0.02
2.50 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	8.3	58.6	41.0	0.3	0.01

the initial 30 h but remains almost the same afterward, suggesting that this catalyst is more stable than In_2O_3 . Similar to In_2O_3 , the methanol selectivity of 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ remains almost unchanged for the time we tested.

The influence of space velocity (SV) was investigated using the 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ at 300 °C and 4 MPa (Fig. 4). The CO₂ conversion drops with the increase of SV while the methanol selectivity increases. The methanol space-time yield (STY) increases with the SV in the range we tested. The highest methanol space-time yield of 0.76 g·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat} was achieved for this catalyst at SV of 54,000 mL·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat}.

3.2. Characterization and discussion

Fig. 5 shows the XRD patterns of the as-prepared catalysts. For In_2O_3 , all the diffraction peaks are assigned to cubic In_2O_3 (PDF No. 89-4595). No diffraction peak belongs to the rhombohedral structure is observed, indicating the presence of pure cubic phase of In_2O_3 . The diffraction patterns of the as-prepared Pt/ In_2O_3 are similar to In_2O_3 . There is no diffraction peak belongs to the metallic Pt or Pt oxides phase, suggesting that the particle size of Pt species is smaller than the detection limit of XRD or the Pt species is atomically dispersed in the In_2O_3 lattice. The average crystallite size of the as-prepared catalysts is estimated using the Scherrer equation and shown in Table S1. The as-prepared catalysts have similar average crystallite size (10–12 nm). The specific surface area of these catalysts is determined from N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms. These catalysts have similar specific surface area (64.5–87.6 m²·g⁻¹, Table S1).

The TEM images show that the as-prepared 0.58 wt.% Pt/In_2O_3 contains agglomeration of crystals in diameter from ca. 7 nm to 12 nm (Fig. 6a, b, and Fig. S1), in agreement with the average crystallite size estimated from XRD (Table S1). The lattice fringes indi-



Fig. 1. (a) CO₂ conversion and (b) methanol and CO selectivity of the catalysts. All the catalysts were tested under conditions of T = 300 °C, P = 2 MPa, and SV = 24,000 mL·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat}.

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Fig. 2. (a) CO_2 conversion and (b) methanol selectivity at different reaction temperatures. All the catalysts were tested under conditions of P = 2 MPa and SV = 24,000 mL·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat}.



Fig. 3. Stability of the catalysts under conditions of T = 300 °C, P = 4 MPa, and SV = 24,000 mL·h⁻¹·g⁻¹_{cat}.



Fig. 4. The influence of space velocity on the (a) CO₂ conversion, methanol selectivity, and (b) methanol space-time yield for 0.58 wt.% Pt/ln₂O₃ at T = 300 °C, P = 4 MPa.

cate d spacing of 0.29 nm, corresponding to the (222) planes of cubic In_2O_3 , suggesting that these particles are In_2O_3 nanocrystals. Atomic resolution STEM is used to characterize the dispersion of Pt

species. There are individual bright spots in the STEM images (Fig. 6b and Fig. S1), indicating that the Pt species are atomically dispersed in In_2O_3 . Carefully examination of different regions does





Fig. 5. XRD patterns of the as-prepared In₂O₃ and Pt/In₂O₃.

not show any evidence for the existence of Pt nanoparticles, which should be bright patches in the STEM images if they exist.

The used 0.58 wt.% Pt/In_2O_3 was also studied by TEM. After used in CO₂ hydrogenation, the 0.58 wt.% Pt/In_2O_3 remains to be an agglomeration of small crystals (Fig. 6d, e, and Fig. S2). However, the crystals become larger compared to the catalyst before reaction, implying the sintering of the catalyst during CO₂ hydrogenation, which has also been proved by XRD (Fig. S6). The Pt nanoparticles in diameter of 1–2 nm can be observed in the STEM images of the used 0.58 wt.% Pt/In_2O_3 (Fig. 6e and Fig. S2). These Pt nanoparticles come from the reduction and sintering of the atomically dispersed Pt species during reaction. It should be noted that there is still atomically dispersed Pt species left as revealed by the discrete bright spots in the STEM images (Fig. 6e and Fig. S2), implying that part of the atomically dispersed Pt species is stable against sintering during CO_2 hydrogenation. The TEM images of used 0.13 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ are shown in Fig. S3 for comparison. Pt nanoparticles with similar size (1–2 nm) are also observed, but their counts are less compared to the used 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃. Since CO₂ conversion increases while the methanol selectivity drops when the Pt content is increased from 0.13 wt.% to 0.58 wt.% (Fig. 1 and Table 1), the enhanced RWGS reaction should be related to the increasing amount of Pt nanoparticles. The enhancement of RWGS reaction by Pt nanoparticles is further confirmed by the 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, which has much more Pt nanoparticles after reaction based on TEM images (Fig. S4) and exhibits the highest CO selectivity.

The chemical states of surface elements were investigated by XPS. The strongest photoelectron peaks of Pt (Pt 4f peaks) overlap with the In 4p peaks, so Pt 4d peaks are used for the identification of the chemical states of Pt. The Pt 4d peaks are not observed for the catalysts with Pt content lower than 0.34 wt.% (Fig. S7a) due to the low content. For 0.34 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ and 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, the Pt $4d_{5/2}$ peak (Fig. 7) can be deconvoluted into two peaks locate at 315.3 eV and 317.0 eV, which belong to Pt²⁺ and Pt⁴⁺, respectively [36]. The possibility that Pt species forms separate PtO and PtO₂ phase has been excluded based on XRD and TEM. Therefore, the atomically dispersed Pt species is in the cationic state instead of the metallic state. These Pt^{n+} (Pt^{2+} and Pt^{4+}) cations may replace the In³⁺ ions in the In₂O₃ lattice or locate in the interstitial sites, bonding with the lattice O^{2-} strongly. They may also locate on the defect sites on the surface of In₂O₃. At first sight, the binding energy of Pt 4d_{5/2} peak for 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ is higher than 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃. This is caused by the different chemical states



Fig. 6. (a, d) HRTEM and (b, e) STEM images of (a, b) as-prepared 0.58 wt.% Pt/ln_2O_3 and (d, e) used 0.58 wt.% Pt/ln_2O_3 after reaction. The atomically dispersed Pt species and Pt nanoparticles are marked with arrows and circles, respectively, in the STEM images. Models of the (c) as-prepared 0.58 wt.% Pt/ln_2O_3 and (f) used 0.58 wt.% Pt/ln_2O_3 are shown on the right side of the STEM images. The yellow ball represents ln_2O_3 . The red dots and blue patches represent the atomically dispersed Pt species and Pt nanoparticles, respectively.

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Fig. 7. XPS Pt 4d spectra of the as-prepared catalysts and used catalysts after reaction.

of Pt species. This peak can also be deconvoluted into two peaks at 315.3 eV and 317.0 eV. The first one belongs to Pt^{2+} , while the second one belongs to Pt^{4+} .

The Pt $4d_{5/2}$ peaks of used 0.58 wt.% and 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ both shift to lower binding energy, confirming the partial reduction of Ptⁿ⁺ species (Pt²⁺ and Pt⁴⁺) during the reaction. The deconvolution results (Table 2) show that about 12.2% of the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Pt}^{n^+}}$ species in 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ is reduced to Pt⁰ while others are still in atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ state. For 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, relatively more Pt⁰ (47.9%) is formed compared to 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃. It should be noted that the used samples were exposed to air before the XPS measurement. Thus, the ratio of Ptⁿ⁺ species for the used catalysts may be overestimated by XPS due to the possible partial oxidation of metallic Pt. However, the existence of atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species in the used 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ has already been demonstrated by atomic resolution STEM. The comparison of TEM images between used 0.58 wt.% and 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ also proves that the later sample has more Pt nanoparticles. Considering that the methanol selectivity is enhanced when a small amount of Pt is introduced into In₂O₃, but drops when the Pt loading is higher (Fig. 1 and Table 1), it is reasonable to propose that the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species is responsible for the increased methanol selectivity while Pt nanoparticles mainly boost the **RWGS** reaction.

To further prove that Pt nanoparticles are mainly responsible for the enhanced RWGS reaction, we prepared a Pt/SiO₂ catalyst with Pt loading of 0.65 wt.% by wet impregnation. The catalyst was tested at 300 °C and 2 MPa (reaction conditions same to the conditions used in Fig. 1 and Table 1). This catalyst is active in CO₂ hydrogenation and exhibits very high selectivity to CO (> 99.9%) at a CO₂ conversion of 1.2%. TEM images of the used catalyst (Fig. S5) show plenty of Pt nanoparticles with a wide size distribu-

Table 2

Deconvolution results of the Pt 4d_{5/2} XPS peaks.

Sample	Atomic concentration (%)				
	Pt ⁰ (314.2 eV)	Pt ²⁺ (315.3 eV)	Pt ⁴⁺ (317.0 eV)		
2.50 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃ after reaction	47.9	29.4	22.7		
2.50 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	0	42.7	57.3		
0.58 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃ after reaction	12.2	85.8	2.0		
0.58 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	0	78.9	21.1		
0.34 wt.% Pt/In ₂ O ₃	0	92.7	7.3		

tion range (1–6 nm). The Pt 4f XPS peaks of the used 0.65 wt.% Pt/ SiO₂ (Fig. S10) at 70.6 eV (4f_{7/2}) and 73.9 eV (4f_{5/2}) also clearly indicate that the Pt species in the used 0.65 wt.% Pt/SiO₂ is in the metallic state [37]. Therefore, these results lead us to the conclusion that Pt nanoparticles mainly boost the RWGS reaction.

The binding energy of In $3d_{5/2}$ peak (Fig. S7b) for In_2O_3 is 443.8 eV, implying the +3 oxidation state of In [38]. After adding Pt, the In 3d XPS peaks shift to higher binding energy. This shift is caused by the higher electronegativity of Ptⁿ⁺ (1.513 for Pt²⁺ and 1.880 for Pt⁴⁺) than In³⁺ (1.445) [39]. When the In³⁺ ions in the In_2O_3 lattice are replaced by Ptⁿ⁺, part of the In-O-In structure is replaced by Pt-O-In structure. Electrons transfer from In to Pt through O partially due to the higher electronegativity of Ptⁿ⁺. The In³⁺ ions become more electron deficient. Therefore, the 3d XPS peaks of In shift to higher binding energy. The shift proves that the interaction between atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species and In₂O₃ lattice is strong, which may be important in the stabilization of the Ptⁿ⁺ species during CO₂ hydrogenation. The O 1s peaks of all the catalysts are asymmetric (Fig. S7c). This is due to the presence of surface OH groups and oxygen vacancies [40].

The relative surface atomic ratio of Pt and In was calculated from XPS and shown in Table S2. The surface Pt content increases slightly for the 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ after reaction, which is caused by the reduction and sintering of part of the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species. On the contrary, the surface Pt content for 2.50 wt.% Pt/ In₂O₃ decreases after reaction. Since this catalyst is prepared by impregnation, most of the Pt species locate on the surface for the as-prepared catalyst and are reduced to Pt nanoparticles during reaction. The decrease of surface Pt content is due to the migration of In₂O₃ over Pt nanoparticles, which is widely observed for reducible oxides caused by the strong metal support interaction.

H₂-TPR profiles of the as-prepared catalysts are shown in Fig. 8a and Fig. S8. In₂O₃ gives small reduction peaks which start at ca. 120 °C, originating from the creation of surface oxygen vacancies by H₂ reduction. The strong H₂ consumption starts at ca. 430 °C (Fig. S8) is attributed to the reduction of bulk In₂O₃. The reduction peak at ca. 141 °C becomes more significant with the increase of Pt loading for 0.03-0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ and shifts towards low temperature slightly. This enlarged peak may be attributed to the creation of more oxygen vacancies with more Ptⁿ⁺ species. For 0.34 wt.% and 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, a new reduction peak appears at ca. 110 °C, which is probably ascribed to the reduction of Ptⁿ⁺ species on the surface of In₂O₃ and not in the In₂O₃ lattice. Since this part of Pt^{n+} ions locate on the surface of In_2O_3 , they are easier to be reduced compared to the Ptⁿ⁺ ions in the In₂O₃ lattice. The reduction of these species results in the formation of Pt nanoparticles. It should be noted that although H₂-TPR shows the reduction of part of the Ptⁿ⁺ species below reaction temperature, the reduction of the atomically dispersed Pt^{n*} species in the $\mathsf{In}_2\mathsf{O}_3$ lattice should be harder than this kind of species on the surface due to the strong interaction with In₂O₃ lattice, which has been proved by XPS. On the other hand, the reactant CO₂ and the product H₂O can serve as oxidants for the stabilization of Ptⁿ⁺ species in the oxidation state. The oxidation effect of CO₂ [41] and H₂O [42] under working conditions has been documented in other catalytic systems. For instance, small metallic Co nanoparticles are not stable and prone to be oxidized by H₂O under Fischer-Tropsch synthesis conditions [43]. Metallic Ni in Ni/SiO₂ can be partially oxidized to Ni^{2+} by CO₂ at reaction temperature [41]. In situ EXAFS also demonstrates that part of the metallic Cu is oxidized to Cu⁺ and Cu²⁺ during CO₂ hydrogenation on Cu/ZrO₂ [44]. Therefore, not all the Ptⁿ⁺ species are reduced to Pt⁰ state during CO₂ hydrogenation, as already proved by XPS and TEM.

The H_2 - D_2 isotopic exchange experiment is used to probe the function of Pt in the activation of H_2 (Fig. 8b and Fig. S9). In_2O_3 shows relatively weak ability to catalyze the isotopic exchange of

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Fig. 8. (a) H₂-TPR profiles, (b) H₂-D₂ exchange results at 100 °C, and (c) H₂-TPD profiles of the catalysts.

H₂ and D₂ at 100 °C with a D₂ conversion of 3%. The D₂ conversion is enhanced to 7% upon the addition of only 0.03 wt.% Pt. The 0.13-0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ are much more active for the H₂ activation, and all achieve exchange equilibrium at 100 °C. H₂-TPR proves that the reduction of Pt^{n+} species does not happen at 100 °C. Thus, the enhanced ability to activate H₂ can be ascribed to the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species. A similar conclusion that the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species can facilitate the H₂ activation has also been reported for other Pt-based single-atom catalysts such as Pt on phosphomolybdic acid-modified active carbon (Pt/PMA/C) [45], Pt/m-Al₂O₃ [46], and Pt/FeO_x [47]. The Pt single-atom species in Pt/PMA/C is anchored on the four-fold hollow site on phosphomolybdic acid by coordinating to oxygen atoms and positively charged by electron transfer from Pt to PMA [45]. This catalyst exhibits substantial activity in the hydrogenation of nitrobenzene and cyclohexanone. Similar to Pt/PMA/C, the Pt single-atom species in Pt/m-Al₂O₃ [46] and Pt/FeO_x [47] coordinates with oxygen atoms on the oxide supports and is in oxidized state, which is also active in a variety of hydrogenation reactions.

Fig. 8c shows the H₂-TPD profiles of these catalysts. In_2O_3 and Pt/In_2O_3 exhibit desorption peaks at temperature range between 120 °C and 300 °C. In_2O_3 has two desorption peaks, one main peak centered at ca. 257 °C with a shoulder peak centered at ca. 172 °C. These two peaks belong to H₂ adsorbed on different sites. For 0.03 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, there is only one desorption peak centered at ca. 257 °C. When the Pt content is increased to 0.13 wt.%, this peak

shifts to 242 °C. Further increasing the Pt content makes this peak shift towards low temperature. The shift suggests that H_2 desorbs more easily on Pt/In₂O₃ compared to In₂O₃. The change of H₂-TPD profiles indicates that the introduction of Pt greatly changes the adsorption strength of the adsorbed hydrogen species.

During CO_2 hydrogenation, the surface of In_2O_3 provides an oxygen vacancy containing In₃O₅ structure, serving as a frustrated Lewis pair like structure for the heterolytic dissociation of H₂ [29]. The formed hydride species $(H^{\delta-})$ transfers to the chemisorbed CO_2 , results in the formation of formate (HCOO⁻) intermediate species, which can be further hydrogenated to methanol [29]. The introduction of Pt into In₂O₃ improves both the activity and the methanol selectivity of the catalysts. When Pt was introduced into In₂O₃ by co-precipitation, the positively charged Pt species can be atomically dispersed into the In₂O₃ lattice. During the reaction, part of the Pt species is reduced and sintered, forming Pt nanoparticles. Considering the stability of the 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃, we propose that most of these Pt nanoparticles are generated at the very initial stage of the reaction. Meanwhile, there are still a significant amount of atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species remained in the In₂O₃ lattice, which are stabilized by the strong interaction with In_2O_3 lattice and the oxidation effect of CO_2 and product H_2O . The atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species and Pt nanoparticles are both active in H₂ splitting. H₂ activated on these sites can spill over to the In₂O₃, assisting in the creation of more oxygen vacancies, which are indispensable in CO_2 activation [29]. At the same time,

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the atomically dispersed Pt^{n^+} species can act as a Lewis acid site and participates in the heterolytic splitting of H₂. This is similar to the heterolytic splitting of H₂ on the oxygen vacancy containing In₃O₅ structure, which may be crucial for the high methanol selectivity of In₂O₃ [29]. Therefore, the methanol selectivity is improved by the atomically dispersed Pt^{n^+} species. On the other hand, the formed Pt nanoparticles predominately assist in the homolytic cleavage of H₂ and the formation of CO, which is proved by the comparison of the reaction results between 0.13 wt.% and 0.58 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ and the high CO selectivity of the reference 2.50 wt.% Pt/In₂O₃ and 0.65 wt.% Pt/SiO₂.

4. Conclusions

In this work, we introduced Pt into In_2O_3 to investigate the role of Pt species in CO_2 hydrogenation. The Pt atoms can be embedded in the lattice of In_2O_3 as atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species. During CO_2 hydrogenation, part of the positively charged Pt species was reduced and sintered, forming Pt nanoparticles, while others remained in the atomically dispersed, positively charged state. The remaining atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species and the formed Pt nanoparticles are both active in the activation of H₂ and help to create more oxygen vacancies, on which CO_2 is activated. At the same time, the atomically dispersed Ptⁿ⁺ species that is stable under reaction conditions acts as a Lewis acid site to promote the heterolytic dissociation of H₂ and helps in the methanol formation, while Pt nanoparticles mainly boost the RWGS reaction.

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.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2020.06.018.

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