

# Catalytic Properties of Pt Cluster-Decorated CeO<sub>2</sub> Nanostructures

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## ABSTRACT

Uniform clusters of Pt have been deposited on the surface of capping-agent-free CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods using electron beam (e-beam) evaporation. The coverage of the Pt nanocluster layer can be controlled by adjusting the e-beam evaporation time. The resulting e-beam evaporated Pt nanocluster layers on the CeO<sub>2</sub> surfaces have a clean surface and clean interface between Pt and CeO<sub>2</sub>. Different growth behaviors of Pt on the two types of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals were observed, with epitaxial growth of Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and random growth of Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The structures of the Pt clusters on the two different types of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals have been studied and compared by using them as catalysts for model reactions. The results of hydrogenation reactions clearly showed the clean and similar chemical surface of the Pt clusters in both catalysts. The support-dependent activity of these catalysts was demonstrated by CO oxidation. The Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods showed much higher activity compared with Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra because of the higher concentration of oxygen vacancies in the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The structure-dependent selectivity of dehydrogenation reactions indicates that the structures of the Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra are different. These differences arise because the metal deposition behaviors are modulated by the strong metal–metal oxide interactions.

## KEYWORDS

Nanocrystals, nanoclusters, interface, catalysis

## 1. Introduction

Metal nanoparticles and metal oxide supports are two major components of most heterogeneous catalysts [1–4]. It is well known that catalytic activity and selectivity are highly dependent on the type of metal oxide support used [5–7], and catalysis can be modulated by using different metal oxide supports [8]. A great deal of research has been devoted to understanding the interaction between metals and

different metal oxide supports in order to design better catalysts [9–12]. Recently, cerium oxide (CeO<sub>2</sub>) has become a very attractive candidate as a metal oxide support [13–15]. CeO<sub>2</sub> has extensively documented oxygen storage capacity (OSC) [16–18] and results in strong metal–metal oxide interactions [19]. Due to these unique properties, metal/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts show great activity for reactions such as hydrogenation, the water gas shift, and CO and hydrocarbon oxidation [20–22]. Most previous studies have focused on traditional

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supported metal catalysts, which are prepared by depositing metal clusters on the surface of micron-size  $\text{CeO}_2$  supports. However, in these studies the size, shape, and crystal structure of the  $\text{CeO}_2$  supports were not controlled at the nanoscale [23–25]. Less attention has been paid to the effects of the nanostructure of  $\text{CeO}_2$  supports. Flytzani-Stephanopoulos et al. reported one of the few catalytic studies using different nanostructured  $\text{CeO}_2$  materials, employing them as a support to deposit gold clusters [26]. The resulting  $\text{Au/CeO}_2$  catalysts showed a strong support-shape effect in the water gas shift reaction. Further studies of the deposition of different metal clusters on nanostructured  $\text{CeO}_2$  are merited because of two consequences of the strong metal–metal oxide interaction: The interaction potentially changes the intrinsic properties of the metal and metal oxide, and moreover, is strong enough to affect metal growth behavior on deposition. Further study of deposition methods would also be useful in understanding this phenomenon.

Electron beam (e-beam) evaporation is a frequently used method for the preparation of overgrowth thin films or thin cluster layers on substrates. It is popular because of its conceptual and experimental simplicity; the source material is transformed into its gaseous state, which is then condensed on the substrate. The clean surface and chemical purity of the resulting evaporated cluster layer make it ideal for the synthesis of model catalysts. Herein, we describe the use of the e-beam evaporation method and shape controlled metal oxide nanostructures to synthesize model catalysts. In this instance, shape-specific  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanocrystals were first synthesized and subsequently decorated with a thin Pt cluster layer. The as-synthesized  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanocrystals have no organic capping. The structure of the composite nanomaterials was analyzed by electron microscopy. The nanosupport-dependent catalytic behaviors were demonstrated by model hydrogenation, dehydrogenation, and oxidation reactions. The information gained from this study will lead to a better understanding of the interactions between metals and metal oxides.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1 Characterization methods and instrumentation

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded

with a GADDS Hi-Star D8 diffractometer (Bruker) using  $\text{Co } K\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.790 \text{ \AA}$ ). XRD samples were prepared by depositing the precipitated samples on a silicon plate. The sizes and morphologies of the as-obtained nanocrystals were examined with a FEI Tecnai G2 S-Twin transmission electron microscope at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV and a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL6430) with an operating voltage of 5 kV. The samples were prepared by casting the dilute colloidal solution onto carbon-coated copper transmission electron microscopy (TEM) grids and silicon wafers, respectively. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) experiments were performed on a Perkin–Elmer PHI 5300 XPS spectrometer with a position-sensitive detector and a hemispherical energy analyzer in an ion-pumped chamber (evacuated to  $2 \times 10^{-9}$  Torr). The  $\text{Al } K\alpha$  ( $h\nu = 1486.6 \text{ eV}$ ) X-ray source was operated at 300 W with 15 kV acceleration voltage. Binding energies (BE) were calibrated by setting the measured BE of C 1s to 285 eV.

### 2.2 Synthesis of $\text{CeO}_2$ nanorods and nanooctahedra

The uniform organic-capping-free  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanostructures were synthesized in two morphologies, rod-like and octahedral, by using a hydrothermal process [27].  $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was used as the cerium source. No organic surfactant or template was introduced in the synthesis. For  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanooctahedra, 434.3 mg of  $\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 1.6 mg of  $\text{Na}_3\text{PO}_4$  were mixed in 40 mL of D.I.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and sonicated for 30 min. The mixed solution with of pH 4 was then transferred into the Teflon-liner of a hydrothermal autoclave. The autoclave was heated to 170 °C for 12 h. The as-synthesized  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanooctahedra were collected and cleaned by centrifugation at 10,000 r/min for 5 min and re-dispersed twice in ethanol. The supernatant was discarded and the precipitated product was then calcined at 400 °C for 4 h. The  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods were synthesized by adjusting the pH value of the precursor solution from 4 to 2 with dilute hydrochloric acid solution and employing the same hydrothermal treatment. For the synthesis of the  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods, the pH value is very crucial and needs to be very precise.

### 2.3 E-beam evaporation of Pt

A homogeneous thick layer of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanostructures

was drop casted on a  $1.8 \times 0.9$  cm silicon wafer. After Ar plasma treatment for few seconds, a low density Pt nanocluster layer was deposited by an e-beam evaporator with a background pressure of  $\sim 2 \times 10^{-6}$  Torr. The Pt evaporation rate and deposition thickness were monitored by a crystal monitor. The evaporation rate is controlled by the electron beam current and was fixed at 0.01 nm/s. Different amounts of Pt were deposited by varying the evaporation time.

## 2.4 Ethylene hydrogenation and cyclohexene hydrogenation/dehydrogenation

Catalytic activities of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods with the same amount of deposited Pt were measured and compared. For catalytic studies, samples were loaded into glass reactors. Temperature was controlled by a proportional–integral–derivative (PID) controller (Watlow 96) and a type-K thermocouple. Gases were all ultrahigh-purity (UHP) from Praxair. Gas flows were regulated using calibrated mass flow controllers. Before the reaction, samples were reduced in 50 mL·min<sup>-1</sup> of 76 Torr of H<sub>2</sub> with a He balance for 1 h at 100 °C. For ethylene hydrogenation, the gas mixture was composed of 10 Torr of ethylene and 100 Torr of H<sub>2</sub> with a balance of He. For cyclohexene hydrogenation/dehydrogenation, the feed was 10 Torr of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub> (Sigma–Aldrich) and 200 Torr of H<sub>2</sub> with a balance of He. The desired partial pressure of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub> was achieved by bubbling He through C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub> and assuming saturation. All lines before and after the quartz U-tube reactor were heated to 393 K to prevent condensation of organic compounds.

## 2.5 CO oxidation

The CO oxidation reaction was also used to evaluate the catalytic properties of Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods. CO oxidation reactions were carried out in a laboratory scale reactor with gas recirculation. The reaction temperature was between 170 and 230 °C. Samples were loaded into quartz reactors and the reaction temperature was recorded by a type-K thermocouple placed near the sample. Prior to the reaction, the reactor was filled with 40 Torr of CO, 100 Torr of O<sub>2</sub>, and 620 Torr of He. Gas composition was analyzed with a HP 5890 Series II gas chromatograph

equipped with a thermal conductivity (TCD) detector. Turnover frequency (TOF) was calculated by extrapolating the conversion data to the initial time. The numbers of available Pt active sites on the catalysts were calculated from the TEM and ethylene hydrogenation reaction.

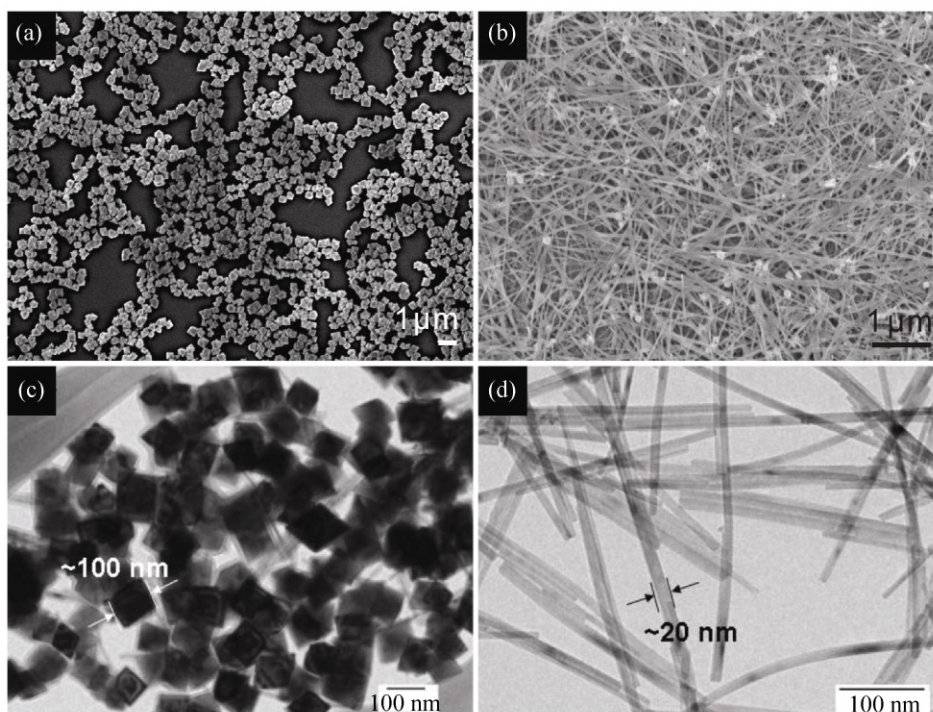
## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1 CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra without organic capping agents

The structures of as-synthesized CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods were confirmed by Scanning electron microscope (SEM) and TEM (Fig. 1). Even without organic capping agents, CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were well-dispersed and no aggregation of nanocrystals was observed under SEM imaging. Furthermore, well-defined morphologies can easily be obtained by simply adjusting the pH value of the precursor. The TEM images show that both CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra and rods have high uniformity and well-defined morphologies (Figs. 1(c) and 1(d)). The edge length of the octahedra is  $\sim 100$  nm. The widths of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are  $\sim 20$  nm and the lengths are around several hundred nanometers. The crystal structures of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were confirmed by XRD (Fig. 2). The diffraction peaks of both octahedra and rods can be indexed to cubic phase CeO<sub>2</sub> (JCPDF 43-1002). The organic-capping-free surface and good dispersion of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures are the two most critical factors for the subsequent step involving Pt deposition on the surface of CeO<sub>2</sub> via e-beam evaporation.

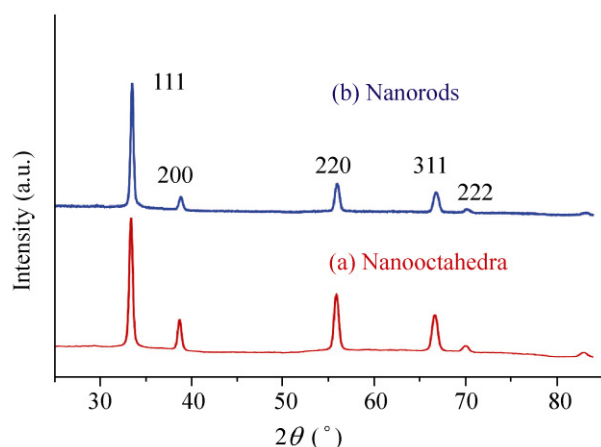
The detailed shape and crystal facets of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures were studied by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM). The HRTEM images of octahedral CeO<sub>2</sub> show lattice planes with d-spacing of 0.32 nm corresponding to the (111) planes of cubic CeO<sub>2</sub> (Figs. 3(a) and 3(b)). This suggests that the octahedra were mainly enclosed by (111) facets, which have the highest surface density of atoms and the lowest surface energy for a face-centered cubic structure. Truncated apexes of the CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra were observed on some of the HRTEM images. The exposed facets of the truncated apexes are (200). Figures 3(c) and 3(d) show typical HRTEM images of





**Figure 1** SEM and TEM images of (a) and (c) CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra (b) and (d) CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The clear lattice images indicate the good crystallinity and single crystalline nature of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The interplanar spacings in the HRTEM images suggest that the predominant facets of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are (200) and (110), rather than the (111) facets found for the nanooctahedra. The nanorods are characterized by rough edges, in contrast to the smooth edges of the nanooctahedra; this represents an additional important difference between the surfaces of the two materials.

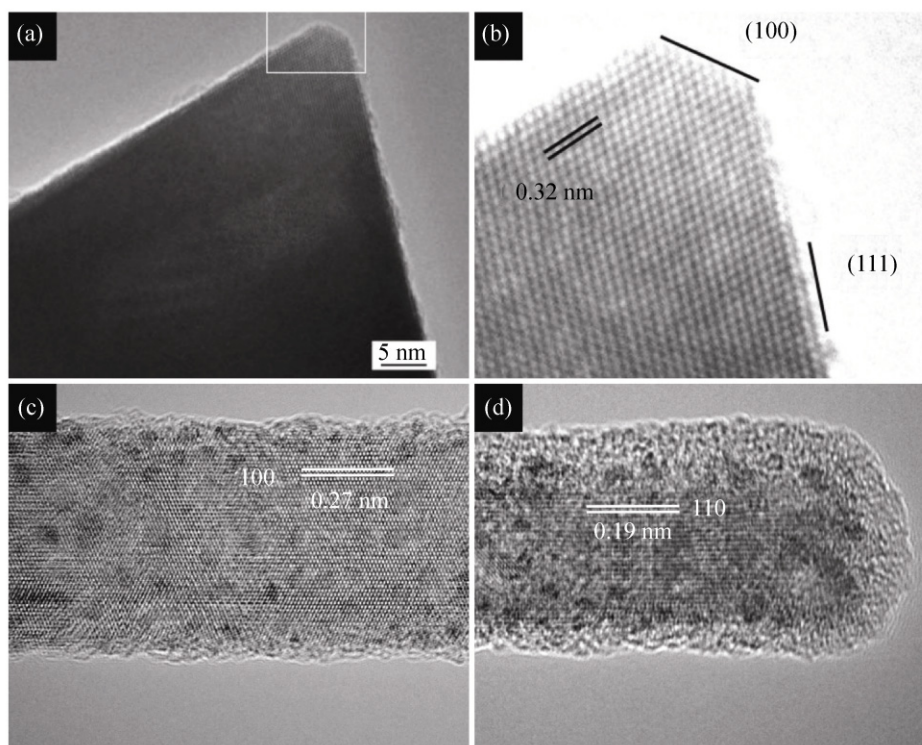


**Figure 2** XRD patterns of (a) CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra. (b) CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods

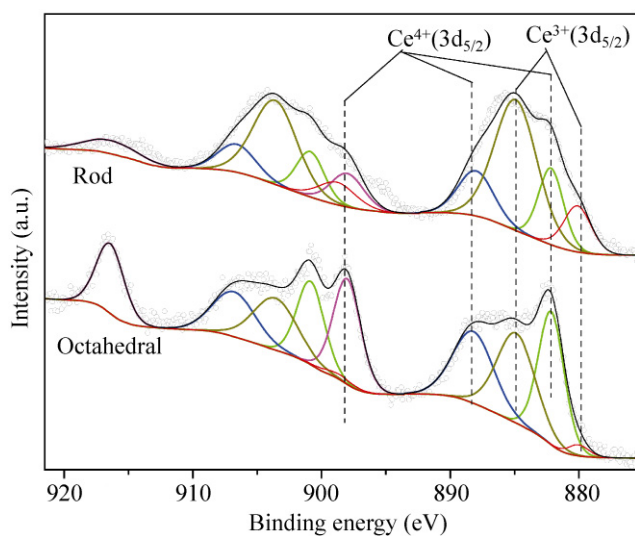
As shown in Fig. 4, Ce (3d) XPS of both rod and octahedron-shaped CeO<sub>2</sub> shows characteristic main and satellite peaks due to Ce<sup>4+</sup> and Ce<sup>3+</sup> ions. Due to the complexity of the XPS, we followed the deconvolution procedure described by Schierbaum [28] and Kotani [29]. The XPS of Ce<sup>3+</sup> (3d<sub>5/2</sub>) shows two binding energy peaks at 880 and 885 eV (satellite peak). For Ce<sup>4+</sup> (3d<sub>5/2</sub>), the XPS shows three binding energy peaks at 882.6, 888.4 (satellite peak), and 898.2 eV (satellite peak). The other five peaks at higher binding energy correspond to the 3d<sub>3/2</sub> states of Ce<sup>3+</sup> and Ce<sup>4+</sup> ions with 2/3 of the intensity of the corresponding 3d<sub>5/2</sub> peaks. All peak positions were fixed for the two spectra in order to comparing their relative intensity. It is very clear that the CeO<sub>2</sub> rods contain more Ce<sup>3+</sup> compared to the octahedral CeO<sub>2</sub>. From the deconvoluted peak area, Ce<sup>3+</sup> ions account for 59.8% of cerium on the surface of CeO<sub>2</sub> rods, while only 28% of cerium on the CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra is in the Ce<sup>3+</sup> state.

### 3.2 Deposition of Pt nanoclusters on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructure surface

Silicon wafers and TEM grids with CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra layers were used as the substrates



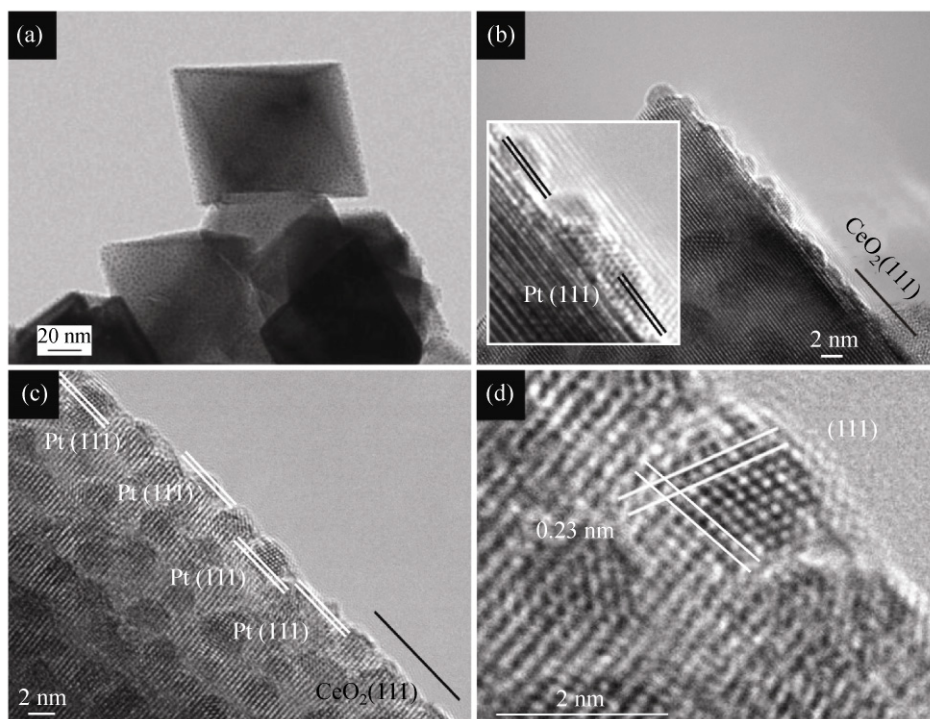
**Figure 3** (a) HRTEM image of a CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedron. (b) Shows a magnified view of the selected area of (a). (c) and (d) HRTEM images of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods



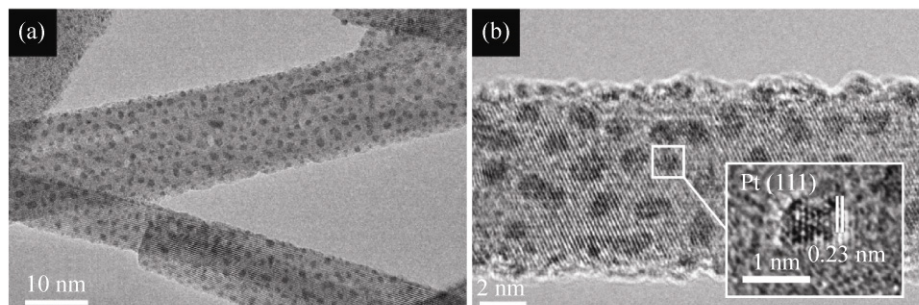
**Figure 4** Ce (3d) XPS spectra of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra

for e-beam Pt evaporation for the purpose of catalysis studies and TEM analyses, respectively. The Pt evaporation rate and deposition amount were monitored by a crystal monitor. The evaporation rate was controlled by the e-beam current and was fixed at 0.01 nm/s.

The amount of Pt deposited was controlled by varying the evaporation time. Figures 5(a) and 6(a) show TEM images of Pt cluster layers on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods, respectively, after an evaporation time of 20 seconds. Pt nanoclusters with a uniform diameter of about 1 nm were distributed evenly on both CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra and rods. Figures 5(b), 5(c), and 5(d) show HRTEM images of an individual Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedron. Figure 5(d) and the inset of Fig. 5(b) show magnified views of the selected areas in Figs. 5(c) and 5(b), respectively. These HRTEM images clearly show that most Pt nanoclusters are oriented in the [111] direction on the surface of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedron, which is the (111) facet of CeO<sub>2</sub>. The magnified views show the great structural homogeneity and high degree of alignment of the (111) zone axis of the Pt nanoclusters. This suggests an epitaxial growth of Pt on the surface of the CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra. The HRTEM image of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods after Pt deposition for 20 seconds is shown in Fig. 6(b). The HRTEM image of Pt deposition on CeO<sub>2</sub> indicates that Pt nanoclusters were oriented in the [111] direction on



**Figure 5** (a) TEM image of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanooctahedra decorated with a Pt nanocluster layer. (b, c) HRTEM images of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanooctahedra decorated with a Pt layer. (d) and the inset in (b) show magnified views of the selected areas in (c) and (b), respectively

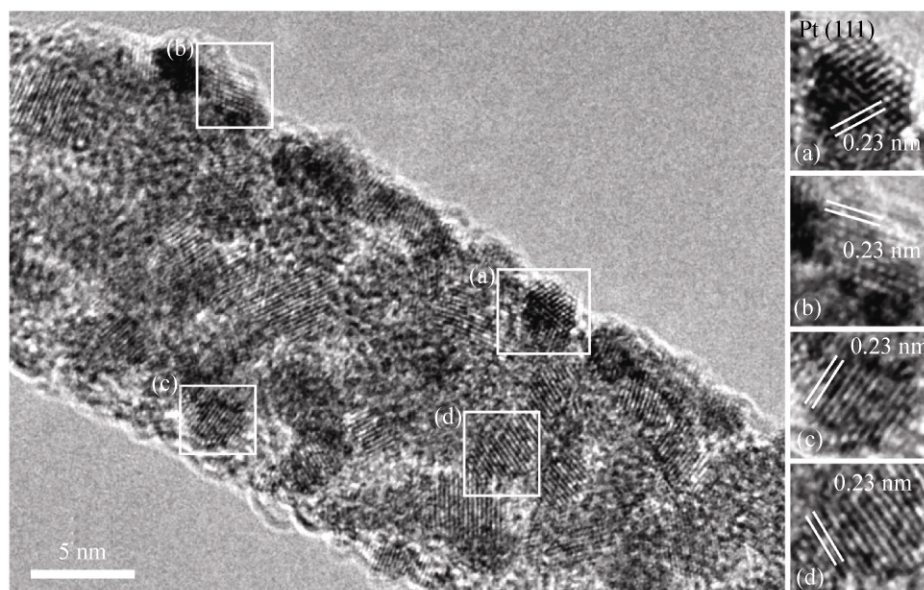


**Figure 6** (a) TEM image of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods coated with a Pt nanocluster layer and (b) HRTEM images of  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods coated with a Pt layer. The inset in (b) shows a magnified view of the selected area

the surface of the  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods. The nanoclusters were slightly smaller than the Pt nanoclusters on found on the nanooctahedra. In order to further investigate the growth of Pt on the  $\text{CeO}_2$  rods, longer evaporation times were also employed. HRTEM images (Fig. 7) indicate that most of the resulting 3 nm Pt nanoclusters were also oriented in the [111] direction on the surface of the  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods. The magnified views indicate the high degree of crystallinity of the Pt nanoclusters but no lattice alignment was observed. It is worth mentioning that the coverage of Pt for the samples with 3 nm Pt was very high. About 40–50% of

the  $\text{CeO}_2$  surface that was exposed to the evaporation was covered by Pt. However, the coverage of the opposite sides of the nanorods is low due to the shadow effect.

In the case of the nanooctahedron, it is enclosed solely by (111) facets. The relatively smooth (111) facets of the octahedra are indicated by the clear and sharp edges of the octahedra in the TEM images. These large and smooth (111) facets on the octahedra provide ideal substrates for Pt deposition and contribute to the epitaxial growth of Pt nanoclusters. In contrast,  $\text{CeO}_2$  nanorods have different exposed surface planes



**Figure 7** HRTEM image of a CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorod with 3 nm thick Pt deposition

and different Pt cluster growth is observed. Our observations clearly indicate that the structure of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals plays an important role in Pt deposition. Different structures of the CeO<sub>2</sub> support result in different growth behaviors of Pt. The different growth behaviors affect the size, structure, and coverage of Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub>. All these parameters change the stability, activity, and selectivity of the Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts.

### 3.3 Catalysis

The activities and selectivities of Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts for model hydrogenation and oxidation reactions were measured and compared. In order to determine the turnover frequency (TOF), the number of active sites in the Pt catalysts has to be determined first. The number of available Pt sites for reactions is generally determined from H<sub>2</sub> or CO chemisorption measurements [30, 31]. However, for our model catalysts this technique is very challenging, due to the limited amount of metal deposited. It has been demonstrated that ethylene hydrogenation can be used as a chemical probe for estimating the number of available metallic Pt active sites in a catalyst [32]. Ethylene hydrogenation is a classic example of a structure insensitive reaction. The intrinsic catalytic activity is not a function of the Pt surface for this catalytic reaction, which makes it

an ideal way to determine the number of available Pt sites. The number of available Pt sites for different Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts were calculated and determined by using the TOF of ethylene hydrogenation at 35, 40, 45, 50, and 55 °C, with single crystal and standard Pt catalysts as references. The results are shown in Table 1.

CO oxidation was used as a model reaction to characterize the catalytic properties of Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nano-octahedra and nanorods. CeO<sub>2</sub> is an important component in automobile exhaust converters, which is due to its exceptional OSC [33]. During engine operation, CeO<sub>2</sub> adsorbs oxygen from the exhaust under lean conditions (high air-to-fuel ratio) and releases oxygen into the exhaust under rich conditions (low air-to-fuel ratio). CeO<sub>2</sub> undergoes reversible Ce<sup>4+</sup>/Ce<sup>3+</sup> redox reactions when it adsorbs or releases oxygen. The superior OSC of CeO<sub>2</sub> maintains the air-to-fuel ratio in the exhaust; this is crucial for ensuring high efficiency of the three-way catalysts in the automobile exhaust converter [34]. The OSC also greatly alters the mechanism of the CO oxidation reaction catalyzed by precious metals supported on CeO<sub>2</sub>. In a Pt catalyzed CO oxidation reaction, the oxygen reaction order as well as the reaction activation energy is much lower when CeO<sub>2</sub> is used as the support compared to  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [35]. This indicates that the

**Table 1** Catalytic behavior over the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanostructure catalysts

Catalyst	Available Pt sites (atom) <sup>a</sup>	$E_a$ of ethylene hydrogenation (kcal/mol) <sup>b</sup>	TOF of CO oxidation at 200 °C (s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>c, e</sup>	$E_a$ of CO oxidation (kcal/mol) <sup>e, f</sup>	TOF of cyclohexene hydrogenation at 120 °C (s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>d, e</sup>	$E_a$ of cyclohexene hydrogenation (kcal/mol) <sup>e, f</sup>	TOF of cyclohexene dehydrogenation at 150 °C (s <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>d, e</sup>	$E_a$ of cyclohexene dehydrogenation (kcal/mol) <sup>e, f</sup>
Pt/CeO <sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra	$6.41 \times 10^{14}$	8.87	0.18	34.70	10.23	10.98	4.59	20.13
Pt/CeO nanorods	$8.22 \times 10^{14}$	7.94	3.10	24.30	10.00	8.52	9.72	25.47

<sup>a</sup> The number of available Pt sites was determined by TOF of ethylene hydrogenation.

<sup>b</sup> Standard conditions were 10 Torr of ethylene and 100 Torr of H<sub>2</sub> with a balance of He.

<sup>c</sup> Standard conditions were 40 Torr of CO and 100 Torr of O<sub>2</sub> and 620 Torr of He.

<sup>d</sup> Standard conditions were 10 Torr C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>10</sub> and 200 Torr of H<sub>2</sub> with a balance of He.

<sup>e</sup> Normalized by the total number of surface atoms determined by ethylene hydrogenation.

<sup>f</sup> The activity in this temperature regime displays “normal” Arrhenius temperature-dependent behavior; 170 °C–230 °C for CO oxidation, 130–160 °C for hydrogenation and 170–200 °C for dehydrogenation.

Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst is more active and the reaction is less dependent on the oxygen concentration of the gas phase compared to Pt/  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

The OSC of CeO<sub>2</sub> depends on the ease of the reversible Ce<sup>4+</sup>/Ce<sup>3+</sup> redox cycles, which can be affected by many factors, such as crystal facets, surface roughness, the concentration and distribution of oxygen vacancies, as well as the size of the oxygen vacancy clusters [36–38]. The predominant facets of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods are crystallographically distinct from those of the nanooctahedra. These distinct differences in surface structure should be reflected in the catalytic properties of Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods in the CO oxidation reaction. Indeed, the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods catalyst was found to be 17 times more active than Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra, with TOFs at 200 °C of 3.1 and 0.18 s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra before Pt deposition show no CO conversion under the same reaction conditions. The activation energies for Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra are 24.3 and 34.7 kcal/mol, respectively. These results are consistent with our XPS study, in which 60 and 28% of cerium exists as Ce<sup>3+</sup> ions on the surface of CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods and nanooctahedra, respectively. The high concentration of Ce<sup>3+</sup> ions on the surface of the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods reflects the high concentration of surface oxygen vacancies. Because oxygen diffusion is considered to be the rate controlling step in the CO oxidation reaction on Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts [36, 38], the high concentration of oxygen vacancies on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods enhances the

diffusion of oxygen, and thus, makes the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods more active compared with the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra.

Cyclohexene hydrogenation-dehydrogenation over the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts was used as a model reaction to study the structural differences between the Pt species in the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts. Both hydrogenation and dehydrogenation products (cyclohexane and benzene respectively) are thermodynamically allowed and can be formed over Pt catalysts at the temperatures employed (120–200 °C). It has been demonstrated that the hydrogenation of cyclohexene to cyclohexane is structure insensitive, whereas the dehydrogenation of cyclohexene to benzene is structure sensitive [39–42]. The dehydrogenation of cyclohexene proceeds more rapidly on the Pt(100) crystal surface than on the Pt(111) crystal surface due to the different distributions of reaction intermediates on the Pt surfaces. The activity, TOF, and apparent activation energy for both the hydrogenation and dehydrogenation of cyclohexene are summarized in Table 1. As expected, the hydrogenation TOF at 120 °C was structure insensitive; the rates were around 10 s<sup>-1</sup> and the activation energies were around 10 kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup> for both catalysts. This result is in agreement with those for Pt single crystals reported previously. It also confirms that the numbers of available Pt sites determined by ethylene hydrogenation are correct. The kinetics of the dehydrogenation of cyclohexene at 150 °C are also reported in Table 1. The TOF values for dehydrogenation are 4.59 and 9.72 s<sup>-1</sup> for Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanooctahedra and nanorods,



respectively. In other words, the selectivity to benzene over the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods is two times higher than that for the Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra. The activation energies are 20.13 and 25.47 kcal·mol<sup>-1</sup> for Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nano-octahedra and nanorods, respectively. Similar structure-dependent selectivities and activation energies have also been observed in studies of Pt single crystals. [43, 44]. Under the same reaction conditions employed in this study, the selectivity to benzene on Pt(111) was higher than on Pt(100) and the activation energy for dehydrogenation on Pt(111) was lower than on Pt(100). Our results are not conclusive enough to determine the dominant crystal facets on the Pt nanocluster, but clearly indicate the structural differences between the epitaxial growth of Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> nano-octahedra and the random growth of Pt on CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods.

#### 4. Conclusions

Pt nanocluster layers have been deposited on the surface of capping-agent-free CeO<sub>2</sub> nano-octahedra and nanorods via an e-beam evaporation strategy. The coverage of the Pt nanocluster layer could be controlled by adjusting the e-beam evaporation time. The e-beam evaporated Pt nanocluster layers on CeO<sub>2</sub> surfaces have a clean surface and a clean interface between Pt and CeO<sub>2</sub>. Different growth behaviors of Pt on the two CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals were observed. The epitaxial growth of Pt was observed on the CeO<sub>2</sub> octahedra. A high degree of lattice alignment between the Pt clusters on CeO<sub>2</sub> was shown in the HRTEM images of nano-octahedron system, but not in the nanorod system where the growth was random. The structures of the Pt clusters on the two different CeO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals have been studied and compared by means of model reactions with the catalysts. The results of hydrogenation reactions clearly show the clean and similar chemical surface of Pt clusters in both catalysts. The support-dependent activity of these catalysts is demonstrated by CO oxidation. The Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods show much higher activity compared with Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> nano-octahedra because of the higher concentration of oxygen vacancies in the CeO<sub>2</sub> nanorods. The structure-dependent selectivity of dehydrogenation indicates that the structures of the Pt species on CeO<sub>2</sub>

nanorods and nano-octahedra were different, showing how the metal deposition behavior can be modulated by the strong metal–metal oxide interactions.

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