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Maximized Ir atom utilization via downsizing active sites to single-atom scale for highly stable dry reforming of methane

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Abstract

Noble metals such as iridium with high Tammann temperature are inclined to sintering resistance and may be promising in the high-temperature dry reforming of methane (DRM) process, yet the low atom utilization remains intractable. Herein, we synthesized Ir/TiO₂ catalysts via the conventional incipient wetness impregnation method and further downsized the Ir species from a nanoparticulate to a single-atom scale by gradually decreasing Ir loadings from 1.0 wt.% to 0.01 wt.%. With the advantage of single atoms for maximized atom utilization, Ir single atoms were employed to enhance atom utilization in the DRM process. Various characterizations, such as aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy, CO adsorbed *in situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectra and X-ray absorption spectra demonstrated the existence of Ir single atoms in 0.01% and 0.05% Ir/TiO₂. During the DRM process, Ir single-atom catalysts exhibited a better specific reaction rate of as high as 697.71 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ at 750 °C compared with that over Ir nanoparticles of mere 447.12 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹, which unambiguously showed the remarkable Ir atom utilization over Ir single atoms. Besides, the Ir single-atom catalysts also exhibited excellent stability during the DRM process for 50 h and revealed outstanding anti-coking and good sintering-resistance properties examined by the thermal gravimetric analysis-mass spectrometer and Raman spectroscopy. The strategy of employing Ir single atoms for the maximum atom



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utilization in the high-temperature reaction process can pave the way for better exploitation of noble metals in other industrial reaction processes.

Keywords: Single-atom catalysts, dry reforming of methane, atom utilization, specific reaction rate, iridium

INTRODUCTION

Carbon dioxide and methane are major parts of greenhouse gases, which are notoriously responsible for the year-on-year global warming and unfavorable climate change^[1-4]. Therefore, to retard or even reverse those unsettling environmental issues, greenhouse gases should be scientifically stored^[5,6] or converted into value-added chemicals^[7-9]. To this end, dry reforming of methane (DRM) process, during which carbon dioxide and methane are simultaneously converted into a mixture of monoxide and hydrogen, known as syngas for the industrially downstream hydroformylation^[10], carbonylation^[11], and Fischer-Tropsch processes^[12-14], is widely investigated in both academic and industrial fields^[15]. Therein, one main research point is the selection of active metals. Generally, transition metals, especially Ni-based catalysts^[2,16-18] and noble metals (Rh^[19], Ru^[20], Pt^[21], Pd^[22], Ir) are both hotspots for the DRM process. Although transition metals have abundant reserves on Earth and show high catalytic activity during the DRM process, they also severely suffer from sintering and the consequent carbon deposition at high temperatures^[23], which inevitably causes high operational costs for coke elimination of facilities and regeneration of catalysts. Alternatively, noble metals with excellent activity and stability are promising candidates for the DRM process. Meanwhile, their long-term anti-coking properties^[24,25] can efficiently prevent the shutdown of facilities and profitably offset the expense of noble metals in return.

Compared with the other noble metals suitable for the DRM process, iridium has the highest Tamman temperature^[13,26], probably inferring the best thermal stability even at harsh reaction conditions. Overall, iridium species have been mainly investigated as either promoters or active sites in the DRM process. As for iridium species as promoters, especially over dual Ni-Ir systems^[27-30], iridium species can efficiently transform the carbon depositions generated from CH₄ activation over the adjacent Ni nanoparticles and the carbonate species formed from CO₂ adsorbed on the support into monoxide, thus fostering the elimination of carbon depositions and consequently rendering the improvement of long-term stability. However, with regard to iridium species as active sites, few researches focus on the correlation of intrinsic properties of iridium with catalytic performances while most reports primarily pay attention to how the physicochemical properties of supports, for example, oxygen vacancies^[31], acidity^[32] and metal-support interaction^[33], affect the CO₂ activation and stability during DRM process. Considering the scarcity of iridium, the intrinsic properties of Ir atoms should be exploited as far as possible to maximize atom utilization.

Single-atom catalysts (SACs) have gained extensive spotlights in the heterogeneous catalysis field due to their outstanding catalytic activity and maximized metal atom utilization efficiency^[34-40]. For example, Zhou *et al.* have synthesized Ru single atoms supported on nitrogen-doped carbon (Ru₁/NC) which were applied in the high-temperature propane dehydrogenation^[41]. Compared with the Ru nanoparticulate counterparts, the specific rate of the production of propylene per metal sites increased as the size of the Ru particle decreased and peaked at 428 mol_{C₃H₆}·g_{Ru}⁻¹·h⁻¹ over Ru₁/NC. In addition, Han *et al.* have constructed Rh single atoms supported on CeO₂ (Rh₁/CeO₂) for the low-temperature CO oxidation, during which Rh₁/CeO₂ attained a specific rate of 14.3 mol_{CO}·h⁻¹·g_{Rh}⁻¹ while only 3.1 mol_{CO}·h⁻¹·g_{Rh}⁻¹ was yielded over Rh nanoparticles^[42]. The abovementioned reports undoubtedly demonstrate the effectiveness of SACs on maximized atom utilization. Therefore, it is plausible that Ir atom utilization may also be greatly improved via the strategy of downsizing Ir active sites to a single-atom scale since our group has previously revealed an excellent specific reaction rate over Ni SACs in the DRM process^[43,44].

Herein, we supported Ir species on TiO₂ via the conventional incipient wetness impregnation method and acquired Ir nanoparticles, atomically dispersed Ir and Ir SACs by gradually scaling down the Ir loading from 1.0 wt.% to 0.01 wt.%. Combining various characterizations, it was evidenced that Ir SACs were successfully supported on TiO₂ and meanwhile had stronger electronic interaction with TiO₂ compared with that with bulk Ir nanoparticles. Therefore, Ir SACs showed a better specific reaction rate of 697.71 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ at 750 °C in the DRM process than that of 447.12 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ over Ir nanoparticles. Besides, the as-synthesized Ir SACs also exhibited decent stability resulting from the anti-coking properties of Ir species, which further sheds light on the rational design of prospectively stable Ir single-atom DRM catalysts with maximum atom utilization.

EXPERIMENTAL

Synthesis of iridium SACs and nanoparticles supported on TiO₂

The conventional incipient wetness impregnation method was employed to prepare Ir SACs and nanoparticles supported on TiO₂. In detail, 0.02, 0.10, 0.41, 1.02, and 2.04 mL H₂IrCl₆ (purchased from Energy Chemical, 98%) aqueous solution (4.9 mg_{Ir}/mL) were added into 50 mL deionized water for 0.01 wt.%, 0.05 wt.%, 0.2 wt.%, 0.5 wt.%, and 1.0 wt.% Ir/TiO₂, respectively, and then 1.0 g commercial TiO₂ (rutile phase, purchased from Aladdin, 99%) was added and continuously stirred for 1 h. Afterwards, this solution was evaporated at 70 °C in a water bath under stirring conditions. The as-obtained solid was dried at 80 °C for 12 h and calcined at 500 °C for 4 h. The low loading (0.01 wt.% and 0.05 wt.%) and high loading (0.2 wt.%, 0.5 wt.%, and 1.0 wt.%) of Ir/TiO₂ catalysts were denoted as x% Ir/TiO₂, respectively, where x represents the nominal metal loading of iridium. The reproducibility was also well confirmed by preparing three batches of catalysts for DRM tests, during which similar catalytic results were observed [Supplementary Figure 1].

Characterizations

The actual Ir loadings of x% Ir/TiO₂ catalysts were determined by an inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) on an ICPS-8100 instrument (Shimadzu Co., Ltd.). Textural properties were measured by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms recorded at 77 K using Quantachrome station. Specific surface areas were calculated from the adsorption branch using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded with a PW3040/60 X'Pert PRO PANalytical diffractometer with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.15432$ nm) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA in the range of $2\theta = 10^\circ$ - 80° .

Temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) was performed on a Micromeritics AutoChem II 2920 instrument. For each experiment, 100 mg of each sample was placed in a quartz reactor and pretreated in flowing Ar (30 mL·min⁻¹) at 300 °C for 30 min to remove the physically adsorbed water. After cooling to 30 °C, the temperature was gradually increased to 800 °C with a ramp of 10 °C·min⁻¹ under a flow of 10 vol.% H₂/Ar (30 mL·min⁻¹), and the thermal conductivity detector (TCD) then monitored the H₂ consumption. The CH₄-temperature-programmed surface reaction (TPSR) experiments were also performed using the same instrument. Typically, 50 mg of sample was placed in a quartz reactor and reduced with 10% vol.% H₂/Ar (30 mL·min⁻¹) for 1 h at 500 °C. After purging with Ar and cooling down to room temperature, the gas was switched to 1 vol.% CH₄/He, and the catalyst was gradually heated to 800 °C at a ramping rate of 10 °C·min⁻¹ with a flow rate of 30 mL·min⁻¹. Reaction products were analyzed online using a mass spectrometer (MS) (GSD350 OmniStar).

The high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) images were conducted on JEOL JEM-2100F operating at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The aberration-

corrected HAADF-STEM (AC-HAADF-STEM) images were obtained on JEOL JEM-ARM200F operated at 200 kV equipped with a Gatan Quantum 965 image filter system. Before the measurement, the samples were ultrasonically dispersed in ethanol and deposited onto carbon films.

In situ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed using a ThermoFischer ESCALAB 250Xi instrument equipped with an Al K α excitation source (1,486.8 eV). Adventitious carbon was employed as the internal standard (C 1s = 284.8 eV). Before the measurement, the as-synthesized samples underwent *in situ* reduction in 10 vol.% H₂/N₂ at 500 °C for 1 h in an ultra-high vacuum (UHV)-connected high-pressure gas chamber. After this pre-treatment, the samples were transferred into the analyzer chamber under UHV conditions.

In situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectra (DRIFTS) of adsorbed CO were collected on an infrared spectrometer (Vertex 70, Bruker) equipped with a liquid nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector. Spectra were collected in the range 1,000-4,000 cm⁻¹ range at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹, averaging 32 scans. Prior to the analysis, the sample was reduced *in situ* within the reaction cell under a flow of 10 vol.% H₂/He (30 mL·min⁻¹) at 500 °C for 1 h. The background spectrum was recorded after purging with He for 30 min to cool the chamber to room temperature. Subsequently, 5 vol.% CO/He was introduced into the reaction cell, and the spectra were collected until no further changes were observed. Finally, pure He was introduced to remove the gaseous CO, and additional spectra were recorded.

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed using a Simultaneous Thermal Analyzer (STA449F5). The catalysts were initially heated to 200 °C in Ar flow with a ramp rate of 5 °C·min⁻¹ and maintained at the temperature for 0.5 h to remove physically adsorbed water. Subsequently, the samples were further heated to 800 °C following the same heating protocol. Raman spectroscopy was conducted using a combined atomic force microscopy (AFM)-Raman system (Bruker NanoWizard Ultra Speed & inVia Raman) with a 532 nm excitation laser.

The X-ray absorption spectra (XAS), including X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) at Ir *L*-edge analysis was performed with Si (111) crystal monochromators at the BL14W1 beamlines at the Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF) (Shanghai, China). Before the analysis at the beamline, samples were pressed into thin sheets 1 cm in diameter and sealed using Kapton tape film. The XAFS spectra were recorded at room temperature using a 4-channel Silicon Drift Detector (SDD) Bruker 5040. Ir *L*-edge EXAFS spectra were recorded in fluorescence mode. Negligible changes in the line shape and peak position of Ir *L*-edge XANES spectra were observed between two scans taken for a specific sample. The XAFS spectra of these standard samples (Ir, IrO₂) were recorded in transmission mode for 0.05% Ir/TiO₂, and a solid detector was used to achieve high data quality. For the XAS spectra of reduced catalysts, the samples were reduced in a fixed-bed reactor with 10 vol.% H₂/Ar at 500 °C. The spectra were processed and analyzed using the Athena and Artemis software code.

Catalytic tests

Methane dry reforming reaction over different samples was evaluated at atmospheric pressure in a fixed bed quartz reactor (inner diameter = 0.76 cm) with 50 mg catalysts. Before each catalytic test, the sample was *in situ* reduced at 500 °C for 60 min under 10 vol.% H₂/Ar and then purged for 30 min with Ar until the temperature increased to 750 °C. The mixture gas of CH₄ and CO₂ (20 vol.% CH₄, 20 vol.% CO₂, 1 vol.% N₂, Ar balanced) with a total flow rate of 32.3 mL/min [gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 38,760 mL·g_{cat}⁻¹·h⁻¹] was fed into the fixed bed reactor. The specific reaction rate and turnover frequency (TOF) for CH₄ and

CO₂ conversion were measured at much higher GHSV (using 2-50 mg of catalyst diluted by 70-80 mesh quartz sand, wherein the CH₄ and CO₂ conversions were controlled below 25%). The reactor temperature was recorded with a thermocouple inserted close to the catalytic bed of the reactor. The reactants and products were analyzed by a gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and a TDX-01 column connected online with the Ar as the gas carrier. N₂ in the feed stream was employed as an internal standard to compensate for the changes in the concentration due to volume expansion after DRM reaction. The CO₂ and CH₄ conversions were determined according to:

$$\delta = \frac{[N_2]_{out}}{[N_2]_{in}}$$

$$C_{CH_4(out)} = \frac{[CH_4]_{out}}{\delta}, C_{CH_4(in)} = [CH_4]_{in}$$

$$C_{CO_2(out)} = \frac{[CO_2]_{out}}{\delta}, C_{CO_2(in)} = [CO_2]_{in}$$

$$C_{H_2(out)} = \frac{[H_2]_{out}}{\delta}, C_{CO(out)} = \frac{[CO]_{out}}{\delta}$$

$$X_{CH_4} = \frac{C_{CH_4(in)} - C_{CH_4(out)}}{C_{CH_4(in)}}$$

$$X_{CO_2} = \frac{C_{CO_2(in)} - C_{CO_2(out)}}{C_{CO_2(in)}}$$

$$H_2/CO = \frac{C_{H_2(out)}}{C_{CO(out)}}, C_{H_2(out)} = [H_2]_{out}, C_{CO(out)} = [CO]_{out}$$

$$Carbon\ balance = \frac{C_{CO(out)} + C_{CO_2(out)} + C_{CH_4(out)}}{C_{CO_2(in)} + C_{CH_4(in)}}$$

where [CH₄] and [CO₂] denoted the concentrations (vol.%) detected by gas chromatography (GC), while C_{CH₄} and C_{CO₂} indicated the actual concentration after calibrations. Methane and CO₂ specific reaction rate (mol·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹) were calculated according to:

$$Rate\ CH_4 = \frac{(F_t * [CH_4]_{in} * X_{CH_4})}{(Weight\ of\ catalyst * w_{Ir} * 22.4 * 10^3)} * 60$$

$$Rate\ CO_2 = \frac{(F_t * [CO_2]_{in} * X_{CO_2})}{(Weight\ of\ catalyst * w_{Ir} * 22.4 * 10^3)} * 60$$

where F_t represents the total flow (mL·min⁻¹), whereas ω_{Ir} is the iridium metal loading (wt%). TOF (s⁻¹), defined as the number of CH₄ or CO₂ molecules converted per exposed catalytic site per second, is determined based on:

$$TOF = \frac{(F_t * [CH_4]_{in} * X_{CH_4})}{Weight\ of\ catalyst * \frac{w_{Ir}}{192.22} * Dispersion * 22.4 * 10^3 * 60}$$

$$Dispersion = \frac{1.1053}{d_{VA}}$$

where the mean particle size (d_{VA}) is obtained from STEM images^[45,46], specifically by selecting more than ten images and measuring over one hundred particles. The derivation process of the dispersion formula is presented in the [Supplementary Materials](#). As for Ir single atom/atomically dispersed Ir species, all the Ir atoms are directly bonded with TiO₂ support and exposed to the catalytic environment, thus showing 100% dispersion^[47,48].

Before carrying out the kinetic experiment, it is necessary to eliminate external diffusion by changing the linear velocity. It is worth mentioning that the CH₄ conversion is almost the same when the liner velocity is above 7.89 cm/min [[Supplementary Table 1](#) and [Supplementary Figure 2](#)], at which the external diffusion on the reaction is experimentally eliminated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Iridium species were dispersed onto the rutile TiO₂ support via the conventional incipient wetness impregnation method with H₂IrCl₆ as the precursor. In order to downsize the Ir species from a nanoparticulate scale to an atomically dispersed or even single-atom scale, the nominal Ir loading was gradually decreased from 1.0 wt.% to 0.01 wt.%. The as-obtained samples were denoted as x% Ir/TiO₂, where x represented the nominal iridium loading. As shown in [Figure 1A](#), XRD patterns of all the samples exhibit the retention of the rutile phase, while the absence of both iridium and IrO₂ can be attributed to the low loading and/or high dispersion of Ir species on TiO₂ support. The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the above samples [[Figure 1B](#)] also bear few differences and the corresponding BET surface areas [[Supplementary Table 2](#)] of around 40 m²/g nearly remain unchanged. The actual Ir loadings of x% Ir/TiO₂ samples detected by ICP-OES range from 0.0057 wt.% to 0.7888 wt.% [[Supplementary Table 2](#)], which unambiguously demonstrates that the successful deposition of Ir species on TiO₂ does not have any impact on the physical structure of supports.

The distributions of Ir species were directly observed via the AC-HAADF-STEM. As can be seen in [Figure 2A](#) and [B](#), Ir single atoms or atomically dispersed Ir species can be attained when we lower the Ir loadings below 0.05 %. Further examining AC-HAADF-STEM images with a lower magnitude of 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ [[Supplementary Figure 3](#)] also testifies to high dispersion of Ir single atoms. It is worth noting that a calcination temperature of 500 °C is the prerequisite for acquiring highly dispersed Ir single atoms as a higher calcination temperature, such as 750 °C, leads to Ir agglomeration [[Supplementary Figures 4 and 17](#)]. As for the samples with Ir loadings of 0.2%-1.0% [[Figure 2C-E](#)], Ir species are mainly in the form of nanoparticles with a similar average size of 1.78 nm regardless of increasing Ir loadings. As mentioned above, the resistance of Ir sintering can result from the inherently high Tammann temperature, which is a promising merit for giving excellent stability at harsh temperatures in the DRM process.

To further estimate the dispersion and chemical properties of Ir species on Ir/TiO₂ catalysts, CO was used as a probe in the *in situ* diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) spectra to get a structural comparison after *in situ* reducing the samples at 500 °C. In a typical experiment, after CO reached saturation adsorption, pure He was purged into the reaction chamber to remove the physically adsorbed CO

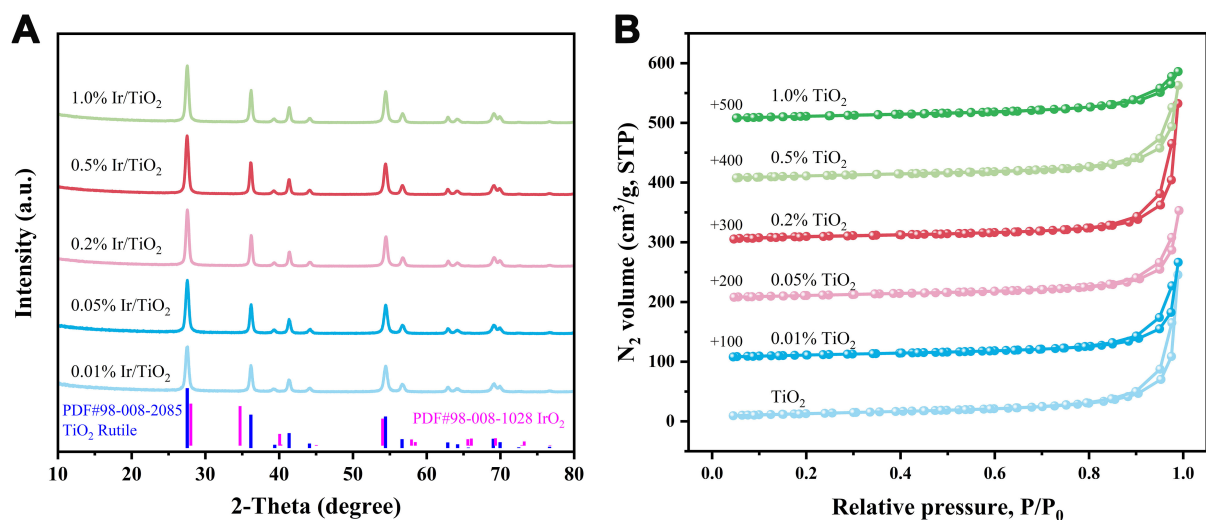


Figure 1. Physical properties of different Ir/TiO₂ samples. (A) XRD patterns and (B) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms. XRD: X-ray diffraction.

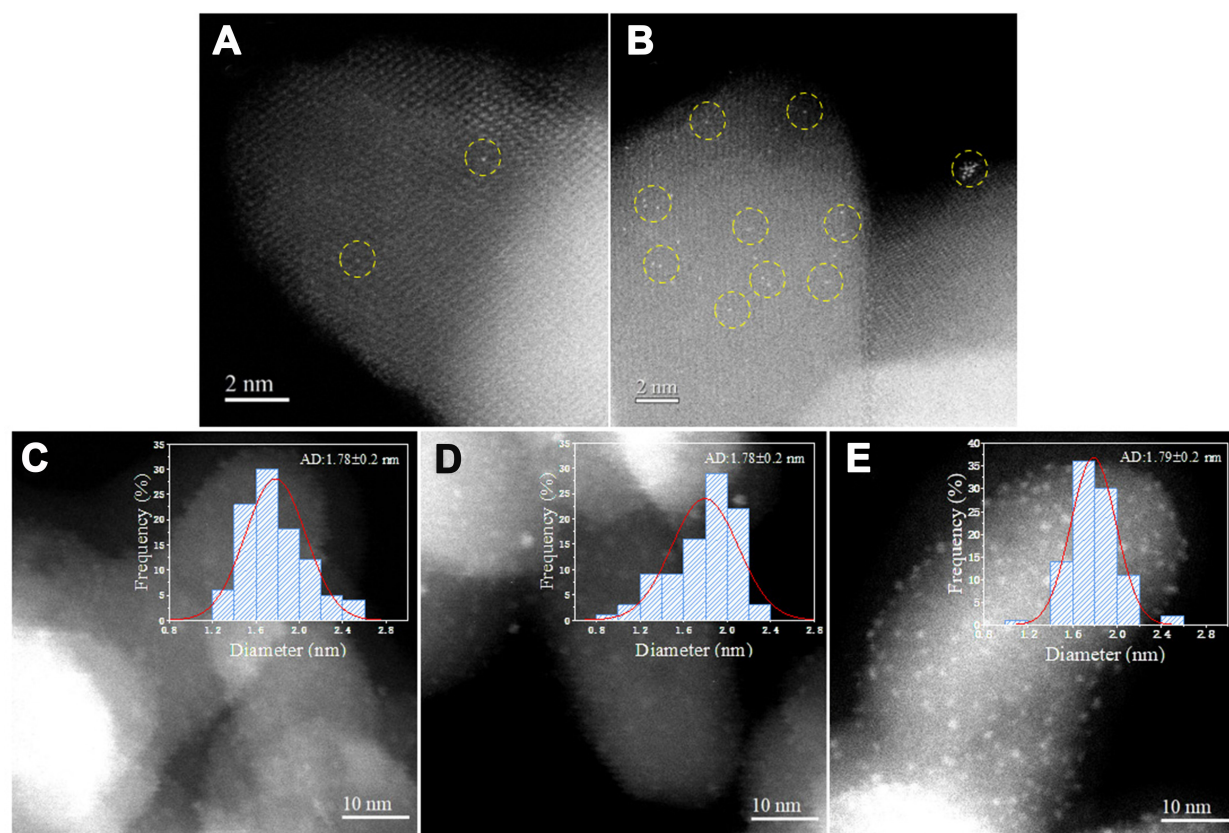


Figure 2. AC-HAADF-STEM images of (A) 0.01% Ir/TiO₂; (B) 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ and HAADF-STEM images of (C) 0.2% Ir/TiO₂; (D) 0.5% Ir/TiO₂; (E) 1.0% Ir/TiO₂ samples after reduction at 500 °C. AC-HAADF-STEM: Aberration-corrected high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy.

while the chemically adsorbed CO remained on the metal sites. Typically, four characteristic adsorption peaks can be observed in the CO-DRIFT spectra of Ir species. The two features at 2,058 and 1,990 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the dicarbonyl Ir⁺(CO)₂ species, which signals the existence of Ir single atoms, similar to the

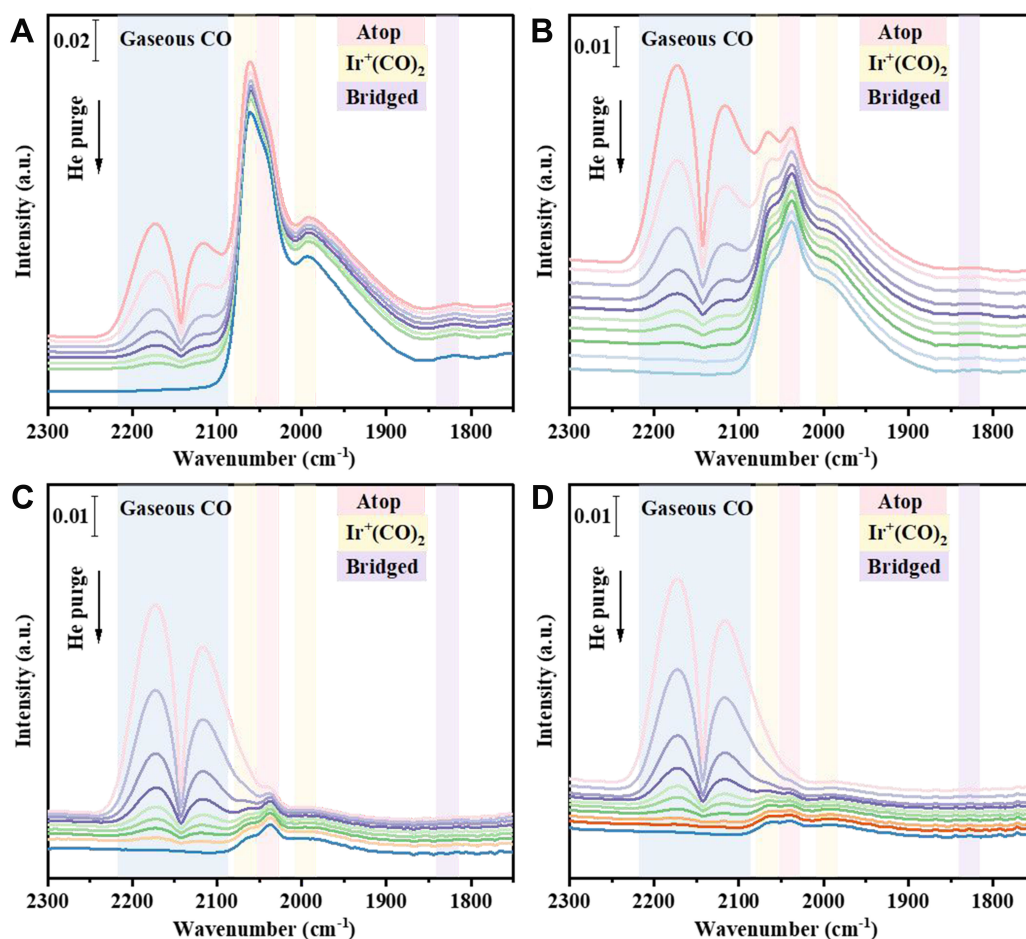


Figure 3. DRIFT spectra of CO adsorption on Ir/TiO₂ with different Ir loadings after in-situ reduction at 500 °C. (A) 1.0% Ir/TiO₂; (B) 0.5% Ir/TiO₂; (C) 0.2% Ir/TiO₂; (D) 0.05% Ir/TiO₂. DRIFT: Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectra.

results of peaks at around 2,065 and 1,985 cm⁻¹ reported by Lu *et al.*^[49] and Jin *et al.*^[50]. In addition, the peak at 2,036 cm⁻¹ is attributed to the atop binding of CO on Ir nanoclusters while the broad peak centered at 1,820 cm⁻¹ is ascribed to bridged CO species, which are the indicators of Ir clusters or nanoparticles^[45,49,50]. For 1.0%, 0.5% and 0.2% Ir/TiO₂ samples [Figure 3A-C], all the abovementioned four CO adsorbed peaks can be clearly identified, suggesting that Ir species have relatively wide distributions in those samples. As for 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ [Figure 3D], two main dicarbonyl and one weak atop CO adsorption peaks can be ascertained. Combined with the devoid of bridged CO species, it is rational that Ir species are atomically dispersed on TiO₂, which is in accordance with the results obtained from the AC-HAADF-STEM images. Although the low Ir loading of 0.01% Ir/TiO₂ sets obstacles for evidently monitoring the adsorption peaks [Supplementary Figure 5], barely can any atop and bridged adsorption peaks be detected even after enlarging the specific spectra [Supplementary Figure 6], thus consolidating the Ir single-atom state in 0.01% Ir/TiO₂.

Furthermore, after downsizing the Ir species from the nanoparticulate to single-atom scale, the interaction between Ir species and TiO₂ support can be switched into a stronger state due to the direct contact between Ir single atoms and oxygen atoms of the TiO₂ support. In order to give evidence of this inference, XPS experiments were conducted after *in situ* reducing the Ir/TiO₂ samples at 500 °C. As illustrated in Figure 4A, the binding energy of Ir 4d_{5/2} peak gradually increases from 296.64 eV of 1.0% Ir/TiO₂ to 298.11 eV of 0.05%

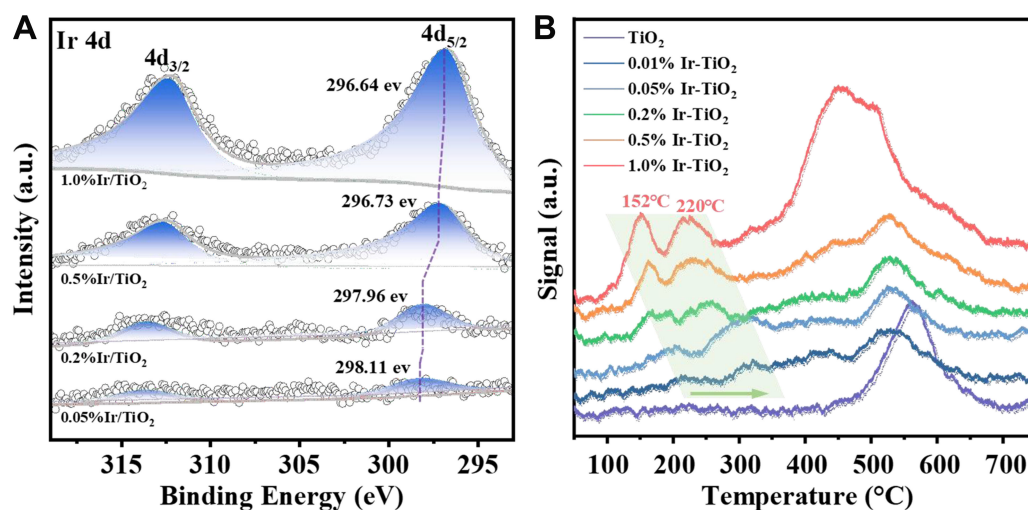


Figure 4. Interactions between Ir species and TiO₂ support of different samples. (A) *In situ* Ir 4d XPS spectra and (B) H₂-TPR profiles. XPS: X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy; TPR: temperature-programmed reduction.

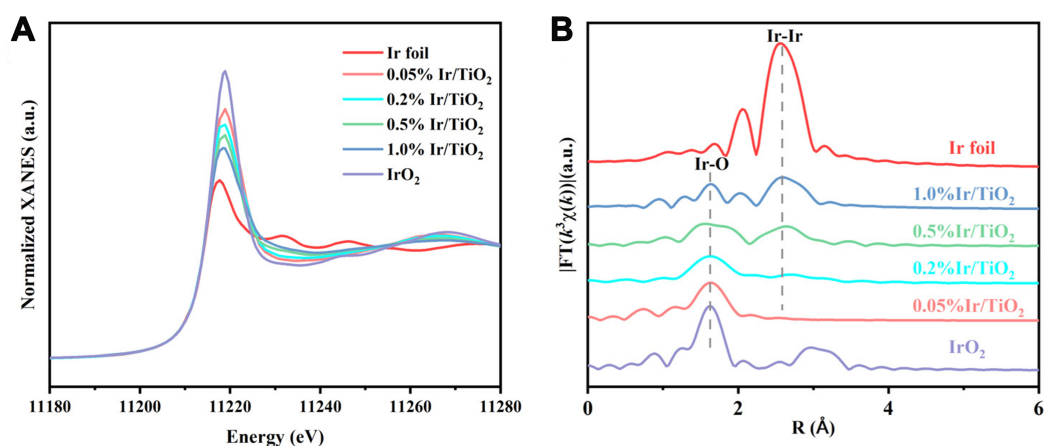


Figure 5. (A) Ir L₃ XANES spectra and (B) Fourier-transformed *k*³-weighted EXAFS spectra of Ir foil, IrO₂, and different Ir/TiO₂ samples. XANES: X-ray absorption near-edge structure; EXAFS: extended X-ray absorption fine structure.

Ir/TiO₂, indicating that exposing only Ir single atoms can forge stronger interaction between Ir species and lattice oxygen of TiO₂. Moreover, the reduction peaks at 152 and 220 °C attributed to the reduction of Ir species in the H₂-TPR profiles [Figure 4B] also shift to higher temperatures after downsizing the scale of Ir species. This resistance to reduction is also an accompanying benefit of Ir single atoms anchored on TiO₂, which may be conducive to enhancing stability in the DRM process. Moreover, the reduction peaks of TiO₂ supports also shift to lower temperatures due to the occurrence of hydrogen spillover compared with the bare TiO₂ support.

X-ray absorption spectroscopy was carried out on different Ir/TiO₂ samples to further gain insight into the local coordination state of Ir atoms. The Ir L₃-edge XANES spectroscopy [Figure 5A] shows the white lines of Ir/TiO₂ samples between Ir and IrO₂, which reveal the partially positive state of Ir species consistent with the *in situ* XPS results. In addition, the Fourier-transformed (FT) *k*³-weighted EXAFS profiles were obtained to further study the fine structure and local environment of Ir species [Figure 5B]. As for the 0.05% Ir/TiO₂, the Ir-O scattering at ~2.03 Å is exclusively detected and no Ir-Ir scattering can be observed, thus

confirming the single-atom Ir species supported on TiO₂. However, for 0.2%, 0.5% and 1.0% Ir/TiO₂ samples, the Ir-Ir scattering at 2.73 Å is gradually intensified with the average coordination number of Ir-Ir scattering path increasing to 1.35, 2, 2.79, respectively [Supplementary Table 3]. Therefore, combined with the AC-HAADF-STEM, *in situ* CO DRIFTS and EXAFS results, we can unambiguously confirm that the Ir species of 0.01% Ir/TiO₂ and 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ samples are in single-atom state, while those of 0.2%-1.0% Ir/TiO₂ samples are mainly composed of nanoparticles.

DRM is a highly endothermic reaction that often requires a high temperature. Prior experiments have shown the ideal reaction temperature of 650 to 800 °C, especially higher than 750 °C, to effectively activate both CH₄ and CO₂ molecules [Supplementary Figure 7]. However, the subsequent sintering of active sites forming thermodynamical stable agglomerates is detrimental to the catalytic stability due to either a decrease in active metal sites and/or the concomitant formation of coke depositions. Considering the expense of noble metals such as iridium, the maximum utilization of Ir atoms while maintaining catalytic stability is of great importance. To cater to those criteria, Ir loading was decreased to scale down the Ir species from a nanoparticulate to a single-atom scale, and the corresponding DRM performances for 50 h are shown in Figure 6. During the DRM process over different Ir/TiO₂ samples, CO₂ conversion [Figure 6B] is constantly higher than CH₄ conversion [Figure 6A] due to the concomitant occurrence of the reverse water-gas shift reaction. However, with increasing Ir loading, both CH₄ and CO₂ conversions rise along with the gradually growing H₂/CO ratio [Figure 6C], which unequivocally indicates the progressive dominance of the DRM process in the whole reaction^[8,51]. Other than CO and H₂, water is the only detected by-product due to the simultaneous reverse water-gas shift reaction. During the time-on-stream of 50 h, all the Ir catalysts display excellent stability, which agrees well with our experimental strategy of selecting Ir species with high Tammann temperature as the stable active sites for DRM even at a high temperature of 750 °C. Besides, it is worthwhile to mention that although the CH₄ conversions over Ir nanoparticles are higher than that over atomically dispersed Ir or Ir single atoms, increasing the Ir loading from, for example, 0.05% to 0.2%, the CH₄ conversion is not proportionally increased, which implies the effective atom utilization over Ir SACs compared with the nanoparticulate counterparts. This reasonable speculation is further tested by purposely controlling the CH₄ conversion below 25% to quantitatively compare the TOF values and specific reaction rates over different Ir/TiO₂ catalysts^[43,52]. As listed in Table 1 and Supplementary Table 4, considering the exposed Ir atoms as active sites, the TOF values over Ir nanoparticles are slightly higher than that over Ir single atoms, which can be attributed to the existence of step, corner and kink sites on nanoparticles for better activation of reactants. Nevertheless, when all the Ir atoms are considered to acquire specific reaction rates for the assessment of atom utilization, on the contrary, the specific reaction rates over Ir single atoms are higher than those over Ir nanoparticles because of the fully exposing Ir atoms to the reactant molecules^[47,48,53]. Particularly, the specific reaction rate over 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ is as high as 697.71 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ at 750 °C while that only ranges from 447.12 to 499.32 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ over Ir nanoparticles, which corroborates the highest Ir atom utilization from the economic perspective after downsizing the Ir species to single-atom scale while part of the atoms inside Ir nanoparticles do not participate in the catalytic process. Besides, we also compare the DRM performance over 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ with reported results over transition and noble metals, which demonstrate the excellent coke-resistance and higher specific reaction rate over the single-atom scale Ir species [Supplementary Table 5]. Other Ir SACs supported on, such as SiO₂, MgO and Al₂O₃, were also tested in the DRM process. The results show that 0.05% Ir/SiO₂, 0.05% Ir/MgO and 0.05% Ir/Al₂O₃ suffer from either low activity or poor stability [Supplementary Figures 8-11]. Therefore, TiO₂, as a reducible support with abundant oxygen vacancies, can provide more sites to stabilize single atoms for the improved catalytic activity and stability in DRM process.

Table 1. Catalytic reaction rate during DRM process over different loadings of Ir catalysts

Sample	Dispersion (%)	TOF (s ⁻¹) ^a		Specific reaction rate ^a (mol·g _{Ir} ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)		Temperature (°C)
		CH ₄	CO ₂	CH ₄	CO ₂	
0.01% Ir/TiO ₂	100	12.02	20.05	225.09	375.52	700
		32.07	60.99	600.56	1,142.22	750
0.05% Ir/TiO ₂	100	10.40	17.29	194.86	323.83	700
		37.25	68.55	697.71	1,283.78	750
0.2% Ir/TiO ₂	62.10	17.28	28.38	200.99	330.07	700
		42.93	72.10	499.32	838.52	750
0.5% Ir/TiO ₂	61.82	17.80	27.93	206.05	323.41	700
		39.60	60.28	458.49	697.87	750
1.0% Ir/TiO ₂	61.47	14.58	22.19	167.80	255.43	700
		38.84	56.26	447.12	647.71	750

^aIn the kinetic activity assessment, equilibrium conversion was determined based on triplicate evaluations [Supplementary Table 4 and Supplementary Figure 18]. The reaction gas mixture consisted of CH₄ and CO₂ (20 vol.% CH₄, 20 vol.% CO₂, 1 vol.% N₂, balance Ar). DRM: Dry reforming of methane; TOF: turnover frequency.

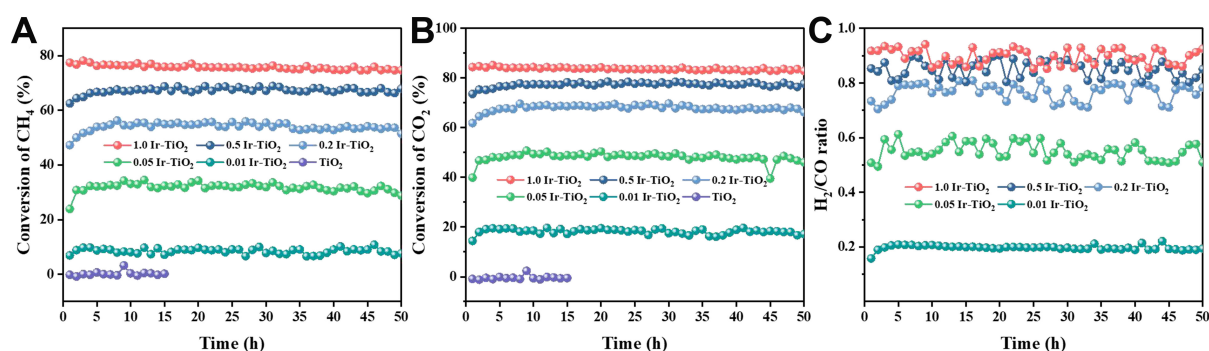


Figure 6. DRM performances over different loadings of Ir/TiO₂ catalysts. (A) CH₄ conversion (B) CO₂ conversion and (C) the ratio of H₂/CO. DRM: Dry reforming of methane.

The ability to activate CH₄ and the corresponding cracking mechanism were investigated via TPSR experiments using diluted CH₄ as the sole reactant because CH₄ cracking is of great significance during the DRM process. In CH₄-TPSR experiments, two consecutive processes are involved: the CH₄ decomposition (CH₄ → C + 2H₂) and the formation of CO (C + O* → CO) from the above deposited carbon and lattice oxygen atoms on the TiO₂. As a result, both the MS signals of H₂ and CO can be detected. For the original TiO₂ support [Supplementary Figure 12], barely can any CH₄ be activated in the temperature-programmed process. After Ir deposition, CH₄ cracking occurs, which suggests Ir species are responsible for the CH₄ activation. As shown in Figure 7A and B, the activation of CH₄ over 1.0% Ir/TiO₂ is more inclined to happen than that over 0.05% Ir/TiO₂. The temperature point at which CH₄ starts cracking is in the order of 0.01% (at 380 °C, Supplementary Figure 13) > 0.05 wt% (at 327 °C) > 0.2 wt% (at 270 °C, Supplementary Figure 14) > 0.5 wt% (at 260 °C, Supplementary Figure 15) > 1.0 wt% (at 240 °C). This trend is approximately in line with the above TOF values but still confirms that Ir single atoms are capable of CH₄ activation. Furthermore, CH₄-TPSR experiments were also carried out at 750 °C over 0.05% and 1.0% Ir/TiO₂ [Figure 7C and D] to discriminate if there is any difference on the mechanism of CH₄ cracking. To this end, MS signals of C₂H₄ were also additionally monitored because the literature has reported the possibility of C-C coupling to C₂H₄ during the CH₄ cracking process^[19,44,54]. Nonetheless, no apparent C₂H₄ signals can be observed in the whole CH₄ cracking process. The above CH₄-TPSR experiments collectively indicate that Ir single atoms have the ability to activate CH₄ and share the same CH₄ decomposition mechanism as that over

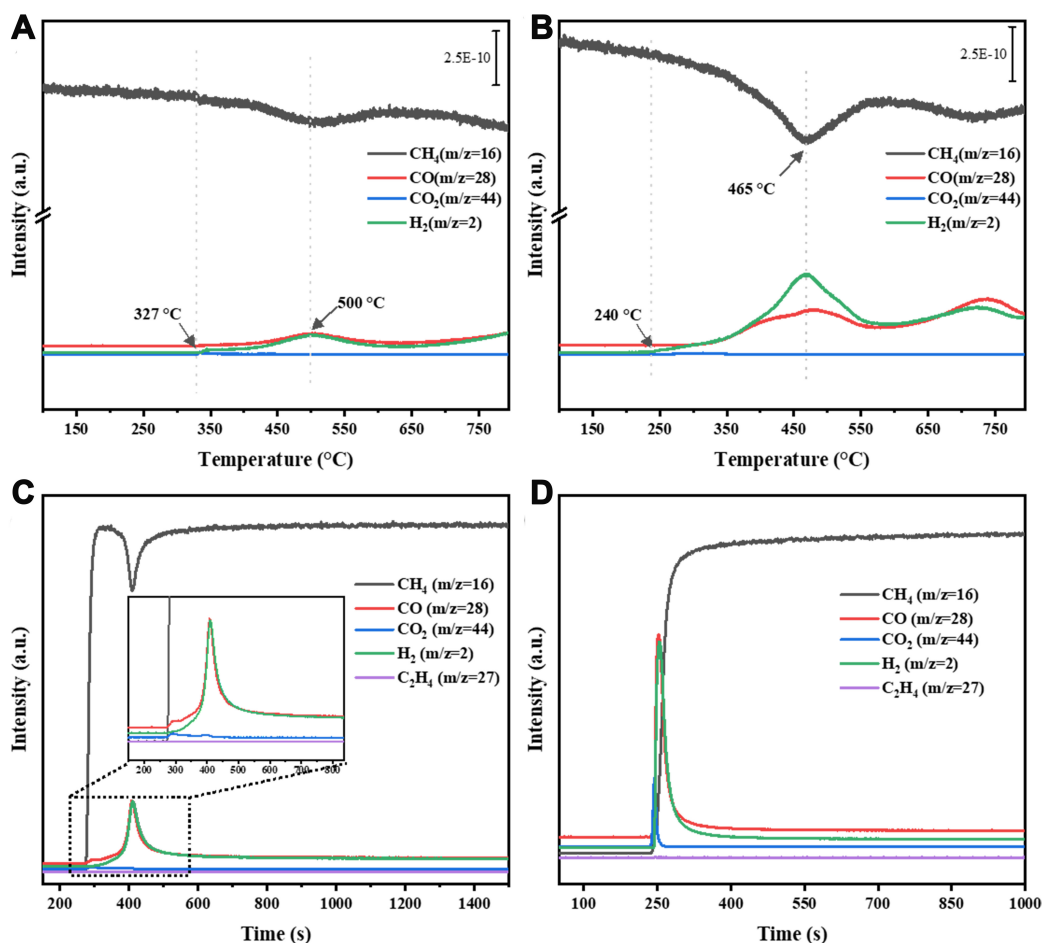


Figure 7. Mass spectrometer signals of CH_4 , CO , CO_2 , H_2 and C_2H_4 of CH_4 -TPSR experiments over (A and B) 0.05% Ir/TiO_2 , (C and D) 1.0% Ir/TiO_2 at elevated temperature and constant 750 °C. TPSR: Temperature-programmed surface reaction.

Ir nanoparticles.

The spent Ir/TiO_2 catalysts after DRM reaction for 50 h were then subjected to different characterizations to examine the anti-coking and sintering-resistance properties of Ir species. As shown in Figure 8A, there is nearly no clear weight loss (residual mass above 99.72%) in the high temperature range from 500 to 800 °C by thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) and the corresponding MS spectra are also absent of the CO_2 ($m/z = 44$) signals, which manifests nearly no carbon depositions on the Ir/TiO_2 catalysts. In addition, in Raman spectra (Figure 8B), the D band at around 1,256 cm^{-1} and G band at around 1,598 cm^{-1} ascribed to sp^3 carbon atoms at defects/disordered sites and sp^2 carbon atoms in graphitic rings, respectively^[55,56], cannot be discerned and the strong peaks at 235, 450 and 605 cm^{-1} attributed to rutile TiO_2 remain unaffected. Thereupon, Ir/TiO_2 catalysts have excellent ability for anti-coking and the harsh reaction conditions have little influence on the TiO_2 supports, which can also be confirmed by the XRD patterns of the spent catalysts [Supplementary Figure 16]. Furthermore, the size distributions of Ir species were directly observed by HAADF-STEM. As shown in Figure 9A and B, Ir species of 0.01% and 0.05% Ir/TiO_2 catalysts tardily grow to 1.62 and 1.91 nm, which are still smaller than the average size of Ir nanoparticles of around 2-3 nm in the 0.2%, 0.5%, 1.0% Ir/TiO_2 ones [Figure 9C-E]. The relatively good sintering resistance of Ir species resulting from the high Tammann temperature meets our experimental anticipations of choosing Ir as active sites for a stable DRM process.

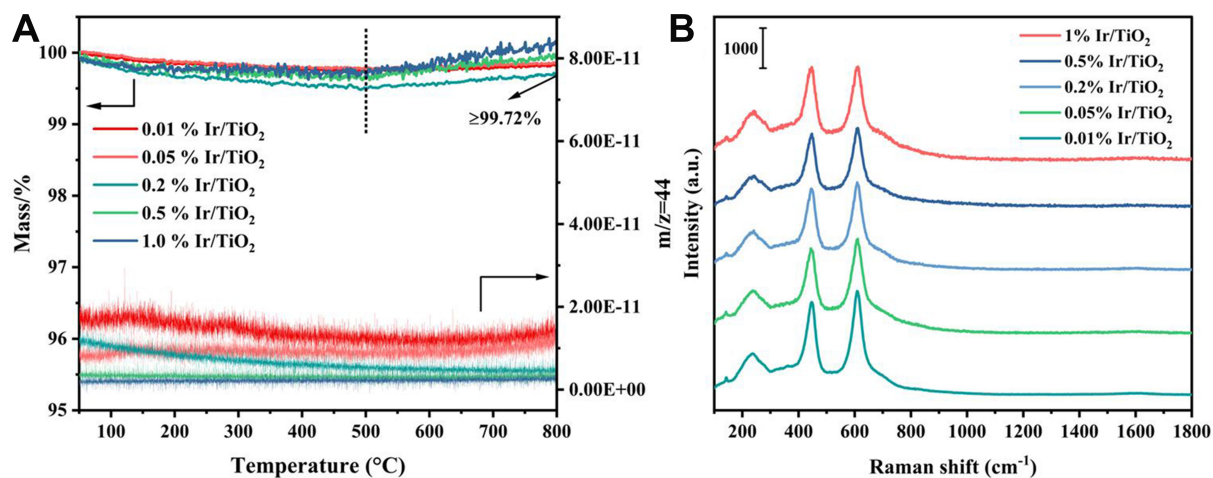


Figure 8. (A) TGA-MS profiles and (B) Raman spectra of spent Ir/TiO₂ catalysts after DRM reaction for 50 h. TGA-MS: Thermogravimetric analysis-mass spectrometry; DRM: dry reforming of methane.

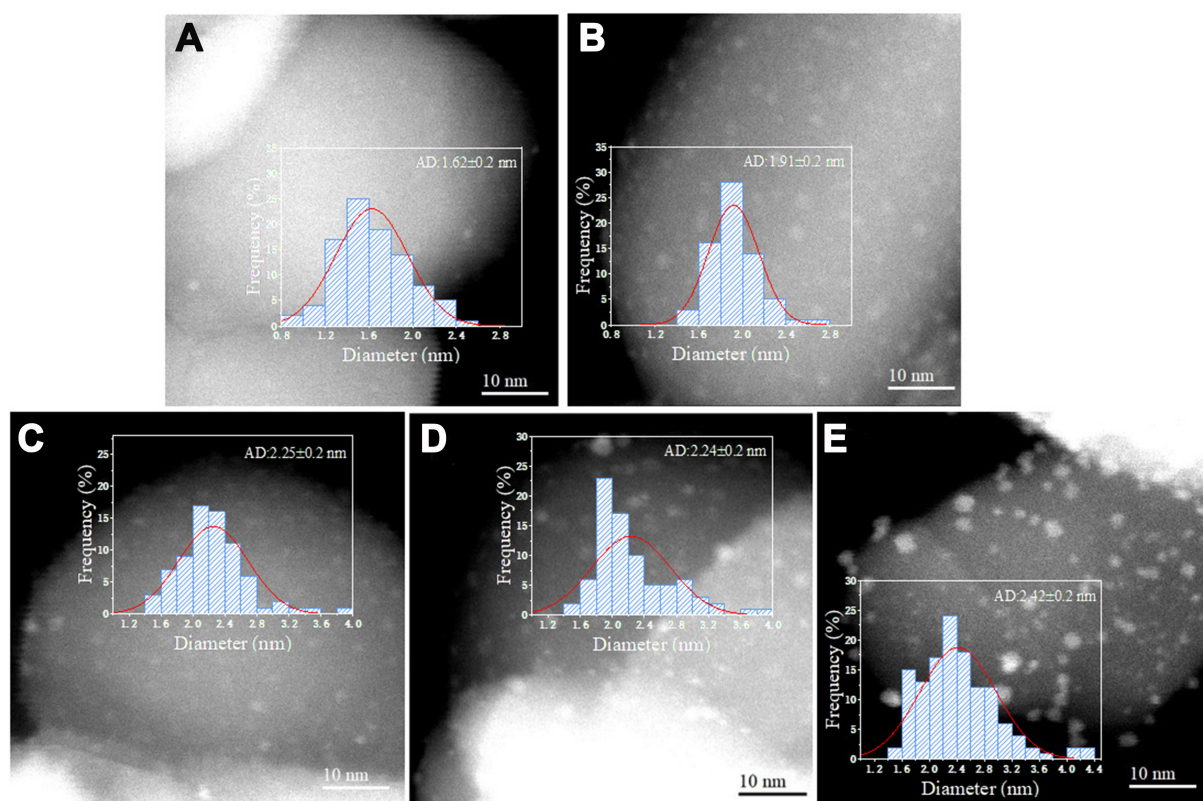


Figure 9. HAADF-STEM images of different Ir/TiO₂ samples after DRM reaction for 50 h. (A) 0.01% Ir/TiO₂; (B) 0.05% Ir/TiO₂; (C) 0.2% Ir/TiO₂; (D) 0.5% Ir/TiO₂; (E) 1.0% Ir/TiO₂. HAADF-STEM: High-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy; DRM: dry reforming of methane.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we have synthesized Ir/TiO₂ catalysts via the conventional incipient wetness impregnation method and further downsized the Ir species from a nanoparticulate to a single-atom scale by gradually decreasing Ir loadings. Various characterizations, such as AC-HAADF-STEM, CO-DRIFTS and XAFS,

demonstrated the existence of Ir single atoms on 0.01% and 0.05% Ir/TiO₂ samples. In comparison with the DRM performances over the nanoparticulate Ir/TiO₂, the Ir SACs show a better specific reaction rate of as high as 697.71 mol_{CH₄}·g_{Ir}⁻¹·h⁻¹ at 750 °C, which signifies outstanding Ir atom utilization over Ir single atoms. Besides, the Ir SACs also exhibit excellent stability during the DRM process for 50 h and reveal outstanding anti-coking and good sintering-resistance properties. The strategy of employing Ir single atoms for the maximum atom utilization in the high-temperature reaction process can pave the way for better exploitation of noble metals in other industrial reaction processes.

DECLARATIONS

Authors' contributions

Writing-original draft, visualization, validation, supervision, methodology, investigation, data curation: Li Y
Writing-review and editing, visualization, validation, supervision, methodology, investigation, data curation, conceptualization: Liu C

Investigation, validation: Su Y, Zhao Y

Writing-review and editing, visualization, validation, supervision, resources, investigation, conceptualization: Qiao B

Availability of data and materials

[Supplementary Materials](#) is available in the online version of this article.

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Conflicts of interest

All authors declared that there are no conflicts of interest.

Ethical approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

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