

H₂ Activation on Pristine and Substitutional ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) and Cr₂O₃(001) Surfaces by Density Functional Theory Calculations

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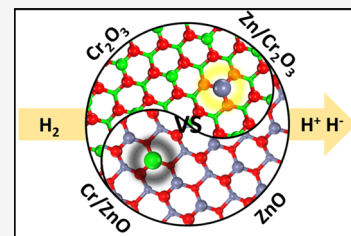


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ABSTRACT: As a major component of syngas (a mixture of hydrogen and carbon monoxide), activation of hydrogen molecules on metal oxides plays a vital role in various hydrogenation reactions and synthesis of valuable chemicals. Herein, we present a density functional theory investigation of H₂ activation and subsequent dehydration over pristine and substituted ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) and Cr₂O₃(001) surfaces. An ab initio thermodynamics study shows that Cr₁ substitution on ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) and Zn₁ substitution on Cr₂O₃(001) are stable in a wide range of temperatures and pressures. The binding strength of H to the low-valent Zn cations is the weakest one, followed by the high-valent Cr cation and the lattice oxygen coordinated to Cr as well as to Zn. Heterolytic dissociation is found to be preferential than the homolytic one. The pristine ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) is active for H₂ dissociation, and the presence of Cr₁ increases the formation energy of oxygen vacancies and lowers the reactivity to H₂ dissociation. Although Cr₂O₃(001) is less active for H₂ dissociation, the presence of Zn₁ lowers the formation energy of oxygen vacancies and promotes the surface reactivity even higher than that of pristine ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0). The dissociated H species turn to recombine and form H₂ rather than reacting with the lattice oxygen to form H₂O. The present work provides a deeper insight into H₂ activation over pristine and heterometal-atom-modified oxide surfaces and a rationale for the design of active catalysts for syngas conversion.



1. INTRODUCTION

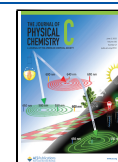
Syngas (a mixture of CO and H₂) is a key platform for energy conversion by the utilization of carbon resources,¹ such as natural gas,² shale gas,³ coal,⁴ and biomass.⁵ Transition-metal oxides play an important role in syngas conversion. Recently, Bao and co-workers developed a bifunctional catalyst consisting of CrZnO_x oxides and MSAPO zeolite (OX-ZEO), using which a selectivity of as high as 80% of light olefins can be achieved for syngas conversion.⁶ In fact, various OX-ZEO catalysts, such as ZnO–ZrO₂/SAPO-34,⁷ ZnO–Al₂O₃/SAPO-34,⁸ Zn–Cr/SAPO-34,⁹ Zn_aMn_bO_x/ZSM-22,¹⁰ and ZrO₂–In₂O₃/SAPO-34,¹¹ have been reported to show high selectivity to light olefins and other products. Different from transition-metal catalysts, the bifunctional OX-ZEO catalysts separate the activation of syngas on the oxide part from the subsequent carbon chain growth and hydrogenation on the zeolite part. For the oxide part, the metal–oxide mixtures and/or complex metal oxides were found to be more active than the separated metal oxides.^{12–15} Identification of the active sites and their role in syngas conversion remain challenging.^{16–18} Mechanistic investigation and gaining an understanding of the intrinsic activity of prototype oxides such as ZnO and Cr₂O₃ for syngas activation and the influence of the defects such as heterometal atoms are valuable for understanding the mechanism behind this phenomenon but not well explored yet.

H₂ activation and adsorption is the first step during the syngas conversion. H₂ dissociation on metal surfaces was extensively investigated before.¹⁹ In Fischer–Tropsch syn-

thesis (FTS) and methanol synthesis reactions catalyzed by Fe,^{20,21} Co,^{22–24} Ru,^{25,26} and Cu^{27–29} metals, H₂ readily dissociates homolytically on the metal surfaces to form chemically similar hydrogen atoms, which would recombine to form H₂ molecules and desorb from the surface at higher temperatures. In contrast, on oxide surfaces, H₂ could dissociate heterolytically to form hydride (H[−]) and proton (H⁺) species coordinating to the metal cation and oxygen anion, respectively. For example, H₂ favors the heterolytic dissociation on the CeO₂(111) surface and then the heterolytic (H[−] and H⁺) products can further evolve into the homolytic one (2H[•]).³⁰ H₂ dissociation on ZnO surfaces was studied before.^{31–36} Using scanning tunneling microscopy and density functional theory (DFT) calculations, Shao and co-workers found that the H₂ molecules dissociate heterolytically on ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) and grow into a one-dimensional chain along the [0001] direction, which can be observed under cryogenic conditions below 55 K.³¹ However, most of the hydrogenation reactions occur above room temperature and at even higher temperatures. The presence of heterometal atoms was found to enhance the adsorption of substrates.³⁷ It is therefore

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interesting to study the influence of heterometal atoms on activation of hydrogen molecules. Cr_2O_3 was widely studied in the field of molecular adsorption and reactions using DFT before, such as adsorption of carbon dioxide³⁸ and hydrogen sulfide,³⁹ catalytic oxidation of nitric oxide,⁴⁰ and the oxygen reduction reaction.⁴¹ However, compared to ZnO, investigation of hydrogen activation on Cr_2O_3 as well as the influence of heterometal atoms has not been reported yet. Finally, different from transition metals, at higher temperatures, the dissociated products might recombine to form H_2 or react with the lattice oxygen to form H_2O with oxygen vacancies left. Investigation on how these two paths compete as well as their dependence on oxides are valuable for subsequent hydrogenation.

Herein, we systematically investigated H_2 dissociation on the prototype oxide surfaces used in the OX-ZEO catalysts, nonpolar $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$, using DFT calculations. To facilitate a consistent comparison with respect to transition metals, we included the corresponding H binding energy from our DFT calculations. The difference between the two oxides provides a critical understanding on the influence of the chemical composition, valence states, and structure on H_2 dissociation. Formation of heterometal atoms, Cr_1 substitution in the surface Zn lattice of $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$, and Zn_1 substitution in the surface Cr lattice of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$, and their influence on H_2 dissociation were studied in detail. In this work, both heterolytic and homolytic H_2 dissociations over the pristine and substituted $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ were calculated. In addition to recombination and formation of H_2 molecules, dehydration was investigated.

2. THEORETICAL CALCULATIONS

2.1. Density Functional Theory Calculations. DFT^{42,43} calculations were performed using the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) with the projector augmented wave^{44,45} method. We used the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) applying Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof functionals.⁴⁶ The plane-wave basis set with a kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV was used to solve the Kohn–Sham equations. The $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ surface was modeled by a three double-layer slab with a (3×2) periodicity separated by 12 Å vacuum along the Z-direction. To model the Cr-substituted $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ surface, one of the six surface Zn cations is substituted by the Cr cation. The Monkhorst–Pack scheme for a $(2 \times 2 \times 1)$ k-point mesh was used to sample the Brillouin zone. The two topmost layers of the slab and the adsorbates were relaxed with the residual forces less than 0.02 eV/Å throughout the present work unless mentioned otherwise. GGA calculations were performed on H_2 activation on the $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ surface. Previous calculations showed that GGA + U with different U values from 2.0 to 6.0 eV applied to the Zn 3d states gives essentially the same adsorption energies and reaction barriers over the ZnO surface with standard GGA.^{37,47–49} It is likely that its hybridization with reactants has been little affected due to the nature of the deep-lying Zn 3d states. The optimized lattice constants of bulk wurtzite ZnO are $a = b = 3.29$ Å with $c = 5.30$ Å, which are consistent with the previous experimental results ($a = b = 3.25$ Å with $c = 5.21$ Å).^{50,51} The crystal orbital Hamilton population (COHP) method^{52,53} was used in chemical bonding analyses as implemented in the LOBSTER package.^{54,55}

The $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ surface was modeled by four Cr_2O_3 -unit layers with a supercell of (2×2) . The neighboring slabs were

separated by 12 Å vacuum layers along the Z-direction. To model the Zn-substituted $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ surface, one of the four surface Cr cations is substituted by the Zn cation. The bulk Cr_2O_3 in an antiferromagnetic configuration is found to be stable^{40,56} and is adopted in the present work. To describe the strong electron correlation of Cr, DFT + U was applied to the Cr 3d states with a U value of 3 eV.^{40,57–59} For the slab model, a Monkhorst–Pack $(2 \times 2 \times 1)$ k-point mesh was used to sample the Brillouin zone. The plane-wave basis set with a kinetic energy cutoff of 450 eV was used to solve the Kohn–Sham equations. The optimized lattice constants of bulk hexagonal corundum Cr_2O_3 are $a = b = 5.03$ Å with $c = 13.77$ Å, in line with the previous experimental results ($a = b = 4.96$ Å with $c = 13.60$ Å).^{60–62}

For comparison, we also studied the bcc Fe(100), hcp Co(10 $\bar{1}0$), and Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) surfaces, which were modeled by a 4-layer slab model with a (2×2) supercell separated by 15 Å vacuum along the Z-direction. The two topmost layers of the slab and the adsorbates were relaxed with the residual forces less than 0.02 eV/Å. A $(4 \times 4 \times 1)$ k-point mesh was used to sample the Brillouin zone. The plane-wave basis set with a kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV was used to solve the Kohn–Sham equations.

The climbing-image nudged elastic band⁶³ method was used to locate the transition states (TSs). The relaxations stopped when the residual forces on each atom, which were allowed to relax, became smaller than 0.05 eV Å⁻¹, and they were verified to possess only one vibrational mode with a negative curvature in the direction of the bond breaking or forming process. The reaction energy and activation energy barriers were calculated using $\Delta E = E_{\text{FS}} - E_{\text{IS}}$ and $E_{\text{ac}} = E_{\text{TS}} - E_{\text{IS}}$, in which the E_{IS} , E_{FS} , and E_{TS} are the total energy of the initial state (IS), final state (FS), and the corresponding TS without zero-point correction, respectively.

The binding strength of H atoms, E_{b} , is evaluated using the so-called binding energies below

$$E_{\text{b}} = E_{\text{slab}}(\text{H}) - E_{\text{slab}} - E_{\text{tot}}(\text{H})$$

in which E_{slab} and $E_{\text{slab}}(\text{H})$ are the total energies of the (metal oxide or metal) slab without and with an adsorbed H atom and $E_{\text{tot}}(\text{H})$ is the total energy of the H atom in the gas phase. The dissociative adsorption energy per H_2 molecule E_{ad} is given by

$$E_{\text{ad}} = E_{\text{slab}}(2\text{H}) - E_{\text{slab}} - E_{\text{tot}}(\text{H}_2)$$

where $E_{\text{slab}}(2\text{H})$ and $E_{\text{tot}}(\text{H}_2)$ are the energies of the dissociative adsorbed hydrogen surface and H_2 in the gas phase, respectively. Oxygen vacancy formation energy, E_{V} , can be calculated using

$$E_{\text{V}} = E_{\text{slab}}(\text{O}_{\text{V}}) + \frac{1}{2}E_{\text{tot}}(\text{O}_2) - E_{\text{slab}}(\text{oxide})$$

in which $E_{\text{slab}}(\text{O}_{\text{V}})$ and $E_{\text{slab}}(\text{oxide})$ are the total energies of an optimized oxide slab with and without oxygen vacancies, respectively, and $E_{\text{tot}}(\text{O}_2)$ is the total energy of an oxygen molecule in the gas phase. Here, a positive number means the corresponding process is endothermic, and a negative number means it is exothermic unless mentioned otherwise.

2.2. Ab Initio Thermodynamics. To evaluate the stability of Cr defects in ZnO, the Gibbs free energy of formation $\Delta G(T, p)$ for Cr substitution in the Zn lattice of $\text{Zn}(10\bar{1}0)$ was investigated. Here, the substituted Zn was in equilibrium with the reservoir of bulk ZnO, introduced Cr was taken from the reservoir of bulk Cr_2O_3 , and extra oxygen was consumed by

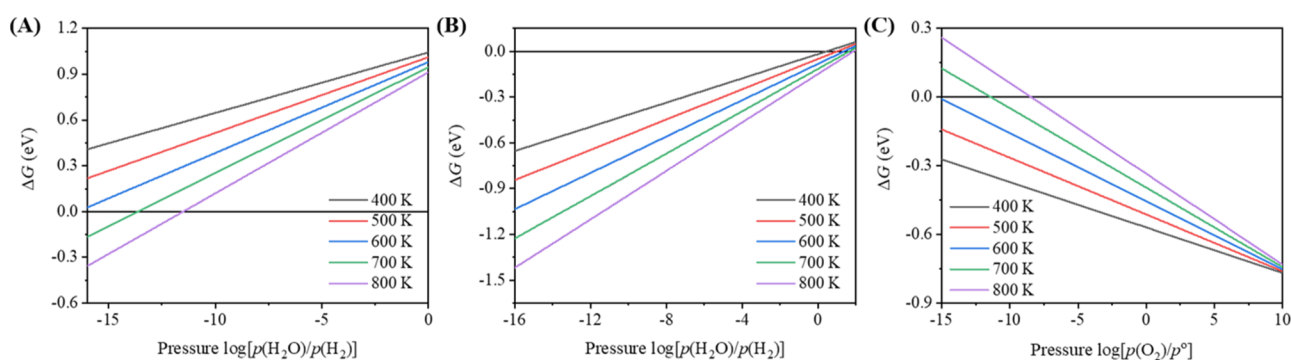


Figure 1. Gibbs free energy of formation $\Delta G(T,p)$ for the Cr substitution on Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) as a function of $p(\text{H}_2\text{O})/p(\text{H}_2)$ and temperatures with respect to the pristine (A) and defective (B) Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$). Gibbs free energy of formation $\Delta G(T,p)$ for the Zn substitution on Cr₂O₃(001) as a function of $p(\text{O}_2)$ and temperatures with respect to the pristine Cr₂O₃(001). For the Cr substitution on Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$), one of the six surface Zn cations is substituted by the Cr cation. For the Zn substitution on Cr₂O₃(001), one of the four surface Cr cations is substituted by the Zn cation.

H₂(g) in forming H₂O(g) under the reaction conditions. Specifically, corresponding $\Delta G(T,p)$ can be calculated using^{64,65}

$$\Delta G(T, p) = E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{bulk}} + E_{\text{Cr/ZnO}}^{\text{slab}} - \frac{1}{2}E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{bulk}} - E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{slab}} + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - \mu_{\text{H}_2})$$

where $E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{bulk}}$ and $E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{bulk}}$ are the total energies of the bulk ZnO and Cr₂O₃ and $E_{\text{Cr/ZnO}}^{\text{slab}}$ and $E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{slab}}$ are the total energies of the Cr-substituted Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) and the pristine Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$). T and p dependence is given as $\mu_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - \mu_{\text{H}_2}$

$$\mu_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - \mu_{\text{H}_2} = E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{total}} - E_{\text{H}_2}^{\text{total}} + \tilde{\mu}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}(T, p_0) - \tilde{\mu}_{\text{H}_2}(T, p_0) + RT \ln \left(\frac{p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}}{p_{\text{H}_2}} \right)$$

where $\tilde{\mu}$ includes the contribution from rotations and vibrations of the molecule, as well as the ideal-gas entropy at 1 atm, which was calculated using VASPKIT⁶⁶ here. $p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ and p_{H_2} are the partial pressures of water and hydrogen molecules. As shown in Figure 1A, at a low $p(\text{H}_2\text{O})/p(\text{H}_2)$ ratio and elevated temperatures, corresponding formation energy is exothermic, indicating that the formation of Cr-defects upon substitution is a thermodynamic process likely.

Previous studies show that the synthesized Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) surface might exhibit considerable defects.^{67,68} Assuming that there are vacancies of the Zn–O pair with a total energy of $E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{slab-d}}$, the corresponding Gibbs free energy of formation for Cr in the Zn lattice became

$$\Delta G(T, p) = E_{\text{Cr/ZnO}}^{\text{slab}} - \frac{1}{2}E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{bulk}} - E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{slab-d}} + \frac{1}{2}(\mu_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - \mu_{\text{H}_2})$$

As shown in Figure 1B, on the defective Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$), the Cr substitution happens in a wide range of temperatures and partial pressures considered. Indeed, recent studies have already reported the Cr substitution on Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$).⁶⁹

To evaluate the stability of the Zn-defects in Cr₂O₃, the Gibbs free energy of formation for the Zn substitution in the Cr lattice of Cr₂O₃(001) was investigated. Here, the substituted Cr was in equilibrium with the reservoir of bulk

Cr₂O₃, the introduced Zn was taken from the reservoir of bulk ZnO, and missing oxygen was taken from the reservoir of O₂(g). Specifically, corresponding $\Delta G(T,p)$ can be calculated using

$$\Delta G(T, p) = \frac{1}{2}E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{bulk}} + E_{\text{Zn/Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{slab}} - E_{\text{ZnO}}^{\text{bulk}} - E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{slab}} - \frac{1}{4} \left(E_{\text{O}_2}^{\text{total}} + \tilde{\mu}_{\text{O}_2} + RT \ln \left(\frac{p_{\text{O}_2}}{p^\circ} \right) \right)$$

where $E_{\text{Zn/Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{slab}}$ and $E_{\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3}^{\text{slab}}$ are the total energies of the Zn-substituted and the pristine Cr₂O₃(001), respectively. As shown in Figure 1C, the Zn substitution in Cr₂O₃(001) is thermodynamically favorable in a wide range of temperatures and partial pressures considered.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. H Atom Binding to ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) and Cr₂O₃(001).

We first calculated H binding strength over various transition metals at 0.25 ML and oxide surfaces to see their difference (Figure 2). On transition metal surfaces, H₂ molecules dissociate into two homolytic H atoms, which have a similar coordination and chemical state.^{70,71} Fe and Co, the commonly used metal catalysts in FTS, bind H atoms strongly at the hollow sites with E_b equal to -2.60 eV (exothermic) for Fe(100) and -2.71 eV for Co(10 $\bar{1}0$) (Figure S1), whose binding strength is stronger than that of the gas-phase H₂(g) (-2.26 eV). This shows that Fe and Co metal surfaces dissociate H₂ exothermically, when they were as widely used as the FTS catalysts. However, the H atom on Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) has a binding energy of -2.04 eV, and the weak binding strength makes the H₂ dissociative adsorption on Zn(10 $\bar{1}0$) endothermic, mainly due to full occupation of the Zn 3d band far from the Fermi level.

Different from the metal surfaces, H atoms on oxide surfaces can bind to metal cations or oxygen anions forming H[−] and H⁺ species, respectively. Here, we investigate nonpolar ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$), the most stable and abundant facet of wurtzite ZnO.^{72,73} The H atom binds to Zn²⁺ and forms H[−] species with a binding energy of -0.66 eV, which is extremely weak even compared to the Zn metal. This indicates that the formation of hydride on ZnO alone is unstable. However, the H atom binds to O^{2−} and forms H⁺ with a value of -2.69 eV. The binding strength is much stronger than that of H[−] to Zn²⁺ by 2.03 eV, and even close to those of the Fe and Co metals.

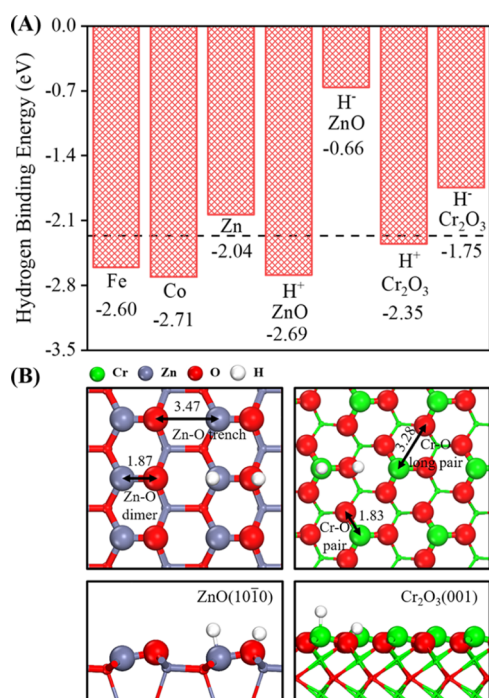


Figure 2. (A) Binding energies of H⁺ and H⁻ ions on Cr₂O₃(001) and ZnO(1010) calculated with respect to the isolated H atom. The binding energies of the H atom on Fe(100), Co(1010), and Zn(1010) are given as a comparison. The dashed line indicates H binding energy in gaseous H₂. The optimized H⁺ and H⁻ ions' adsorption configurations are given in Figure S1. (B) Atomic surface structures and a schematic diagram of hydrogen adsorption of ZnO(1010) and Cr₂O₃(001). Green, gray, red, and white spheres represent Cr, Zn, O, and H atoms, respectively.

For hexagonal corundum Cr₂O₃, we investigated the Cr-terminated (001) surface, one of the most exposed surfaces.^{59,74} Calculated binding energy of the H atom to the exposed Cr³⁺ forming H⁻ is -1.75 eV. Though the binding strength is stronger than that to Zn²⁺ by 1.09 eV, it remains weak compared to the Zn metal. The H⁺ binding energy to O²⁻ of Cr₂O₃ (001) is -2.35, 0.34 eV weaker than the counterpart of ZnO(1010). This makes the binding difference between H⁺ and H⁻ on Cr₂O₃(001) as small as 0.60 eV. These differentiate two oxide surfaces studied as shown more clearly below.

For H atom binding to the lattice oxygen and the Zn cation of ZnO(1010), the corresponding Bader charges are +0.41 and -0.28 |e|, indicating formation of H⁺ and H⁻, respectively. However, the presence of H⁺ and H⁻ has little influence on the Bader charge of coordinated oxygen and Zn and the corresponding Zn-O bond length. On the other hand, the PDOS (Figure 3A) shows that the presence of H⁺ and H⁻ upshifts and downshifts the corresponding Fermi level. This indicates that the electrons are delocalized on the whole surface, rather than localizing on the coordinated O and Zn, though there are certain electron polarizations seen from the charge density difference (Figure 3B,C). For H binding to Cr₂O₃(001), calculated Bader charges for H⁺ and H⁻ are +0.35 and -0.42 |e|, respectively. The electron distributions are very different from those of ZnO. First, the presence of H⁺ lowers the valence state of the neighbor Cr cation from +1.76 to +1.47 |e|, and the corresponding Cr-O bond length increases from 1.83 to 2.05 Å. PDOS (Figure 3D) and charge density

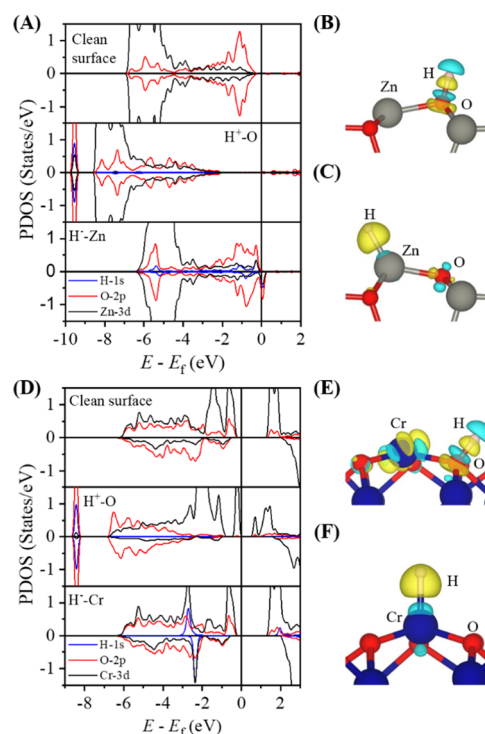


Figure 3. (A) Projected density of states (PDOS) on Zn 3d, O 2p, and H 1s for the clean ZnO(1010) surface, H⁺/Zn(1010), and H⁻/Zn(1010); (B,C) charge density difference for H⁺/Zn(1010) and H⁻/Zn(1010) (the isosurfaces of 0.015 au), respectively. (D) PDOS on the Cr 3d, O 2p, and H 1s bands for clean Cr₂O₃(001), H⁺/Cr₂O₃(001), and H⁻/Cr₂O₃(001). (E,F) Charge density difference for H⁺/Cr₂O₃(001) and H⁻/Cr₂O₃(001) (the isosurfaces of 0.015 au), respectively. Blue and yellow isosurfaces indicate charge depletion and accumulation.

differences (Figure 3E) further show a significant change in orbital hybridization between Cr and O and charge transfer. This states clearly that the electrons are localized in coordinated Cr and O, in stark contrast to ZnO.

3.2. H₂ Activation on Pristine and Cr₁-Substituted ZnO(1010). H₂ molecular adsorption over ZnO(1010) has a small exothermic energy of -0.09 eV and falls well in the range of physical adsorption. Subsequent H₂ activation via both homolytic and heterolytic pathways was studied on the pristine ZnO(1010). For homolytic activation, the two dissociative H atoms bound with two adjacent Zn cations are highly endothermic with E_{ad} equal to 3.28 eV/H₂, and the corresponding dissociation process cannot happen. When two dissociative H atoms were bound with two adjacent O anions, the corresponding E_{ad} becomes slightly exothermic and is equal to -0.15 eV/H₂. Considering the large separation distance of 3.28 Å between two anions with respect to the H-H bond length of 0.75 Å in the gas phase, large H-H bond stretching is required to reach the TS of dissociation. This would result in a large dissociation barrier and therefore cannot be calculated explicitly.

The heterolytic splitting of H₂ generates one H⁻ bound to the Zn cation and one H⁺ bound to the O anion. This can take place over the Zn-O dimer or Zn-O trench along the [0001] direction as indicated in Figure 2B. The corresponding E_{ad} values are -0.48 eV/H₂ and -0.24 eV/H₂, respectively. For the former one, the calculated Bader charges are -0.36 |e| for H⁻ and 0.39 |e| for H⁺. Accordingly, the heterolytic

dissociations are exothermic and energetically feasible on ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0). When H⁻ and H⁺ are separated by an infinitely large distance, the corresponding E_{ad} becomes highly endothermic and is equal to 1.17 eV/H₂. This indicates a strong lateral attraction between H⁺ and H⁻, which is, however, not found in Cr₂O₃(001) below. COHP analysis (Figure 4) shows that with the presence of H⁺ nearby, there is

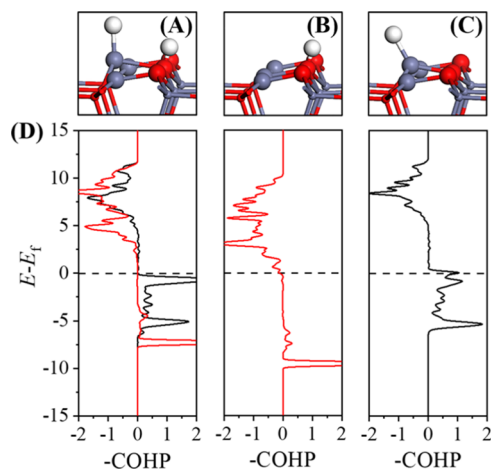


Figure 4. (A) H₂ heterolytic dissociative adsorption configuration over the Zn–O dimer, (B) H⁺ and (C) H⁻ adsorption configurations on ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0), and (D) corresponding COHP curves.

more bonding orbital populated on H⁻, and the Bader charge increases from -0.28 l_{e} to -0.36 l_{e} . The electrostatic attraction of H⁻ with H⁺ and Zn²⁺ underneath is enhanced, stabilizing the overall system.

Kinetically, H₂ heterolytic dissociation over the Zn–O dimer (path I) must overcome a barrier of 0.55 eV with a reaction energy ΔE of -0.39 eV (exothermic), as plotted in Figure 5C. However, for path II over the Zn–O trench, the barrier becomes 0.20 eV only, despite its less exothermic ΔE of -0.16 eV. The lower barrier for path II can be rationalized partly by its TS (TS1), where the corresponding H–H bond distance of 0.93 Å (Figure 5B) is shorter than that of the path I (0.95 Å, Figure 5A), and a less extent of the H–H stretching and the energy cost is required to reach the TS. These results are consistent with the previous experimental and theoretical study.³¹ The weak adsorption and low dissociation energy barrier resulted in the observation of H₂ heterolytic dissociation under cryogenic conditions.

Considering the weak binding of H⁻ to Zn²⁺, it might diffuse to the neighbor O²⁻ and become H⁺. Calculated diffusion barriers of H⁻ for paths I and II are 1.05 and 0.96 eV (Figure 5, TS2) along with small ΔE values of 0.15 eV and -0.09 , respectively. In addition to the forward diffusion, H⁻ might recombine with H⁺ to form H₂^{*}, and the corresponding barriers are 0.94 eV for path I and 0.36 eV for path II. For the latter one, the barrier for the backward recombination is small and 0.61 eV lower than that for the forward diffusion. This shows that the dissociated H⁺ and H⁻ via path II is only metastable and tends to recombine and desorb in the form of H₂ at elevated temperature. However for path I, though the barrier for the backward recombination remains lower than that for the forward diffusion, their difference is as small as 0.11 eV. In other words, both processes become competitive, and importantly both barriers are considerably higher (0.94 eV at least). This indicates that the dissociated H⁺ and H⁻ species

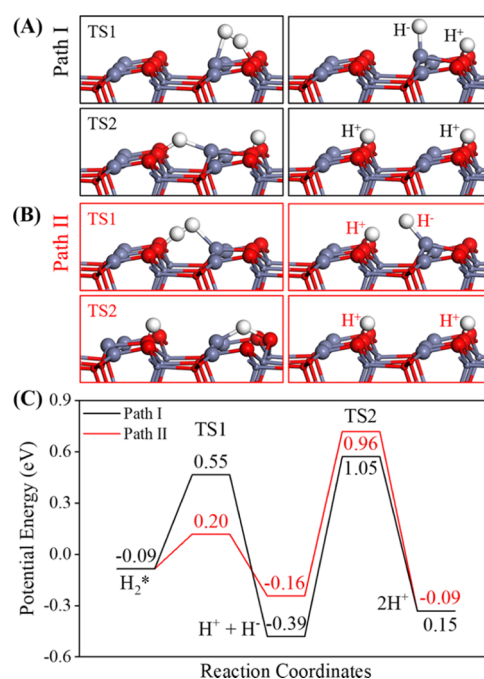


Figure 5. Optimized reaction intermediates and TS structures of H₂ heterolytic dissociation and H⁻ diffusion over the ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) surface over (A) Zn–O dimer (path I) and (B) Zn–O trench (path II). Gray, red, and white spheres represent Zn, O, and H atoms, respectively. (C) Corresponding potential energy diagrams. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H₂ in the gas phase and clean surface.

over the O–Zn dimer could have a longer lifetime, and part of the H⁻ species could diffuse and convert to H⁺ at high temperature.

We describe below the change in reactivity when one surface Zn atom was substituted by the Cr atom (noted as Cr₁/ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) afterward) (Table S1). First, we calculated H₂ dissociation over the Zn–O dimer and Zn–O trench near the Cr₁ atom (Figure 6A). The corresponding dissociation barriers are 0.58 and 0.21 eV along with small exothermic ΔE values of -0.43 and -0.24 eV (Figure 6C), all close to those of the pristine surface. We further investigated the H₂ dissociation over the Cr₁–O dimer and Cr₁–O trench (Figure 6B). It was found that the corresponding dissociation barriers are 0.87 and 0.21 eV along with endothermic ΔE values of 0.19 and 0.12 eV (Figure 6C). These show that the substituted Cr₁ atom shows no improvement in H₂ dissociation. Nevertheless, compared to CO adsorption on the Zn-top with an energy of -0.37 eV, Cr₁ binds CO stronger with -0.52 eV, another important reactant involved in syngas conversion.

3.3. H₂ Activation on Pristine and Zn₁-Substituted Cr₂O₃(001). On Cr₂O₃(001), H₂ molecular adsorption is nearly energetically neutral as found for ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0). The heterolytic dissociation over the Cr–O pair with a bond length of 1.83 Å is investigated, and the calculated dissociative adsorption energy E_{ad} is endothermic and is equal to 0.42 eV/H₂ (Figure 7B). Different from ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0), the lateral interaction between dissociated H⁺ and H⁻ is small because there is little change in the overall energy with infinitely large increase in the corresponding distance. TS1 with a H–H bond distance of 1.11 Å and the corresponding barrier of 0.79 eV is identified as the most favorable TS to dissociate H₂ as shown in Figure 7A. Again, considering the weak binding of H⁻ to

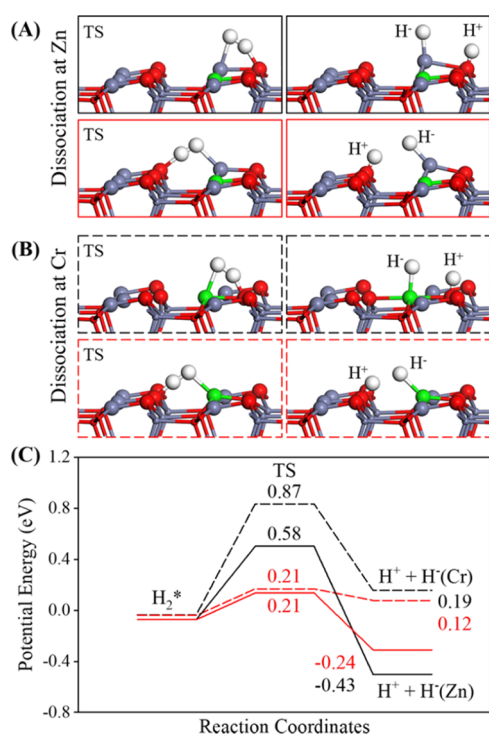


Figure 6. Optimized reaction intermediates and TS structures of H_2 heterolytic dissociation over (A) Zn–O dimer and (B) Cr–O dimer of $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ with substituted Cr_1 . Green, gray, red, and white spheres represent Cr, Zn, O, and H atoms, respectively. (C) Corresponding potential energy diagrams. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H_2 in the gas phase and clean surface.

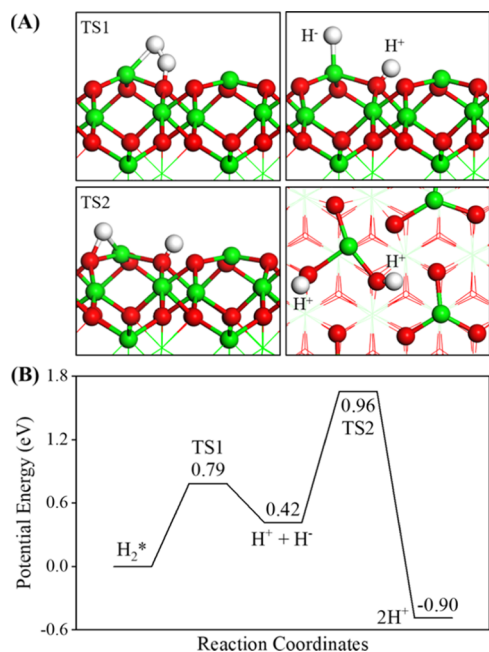


Figure 7. (A) Optimized reaction intermediate configurations, TS structures and (B) potential energy diagrams for H_2 heterolytic dissociation and H^- diffusion over pristine $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ surfaces. Green, red, and white spheres represent Cr, O, and H atoms, respectively. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H_2 in the gas phase and clean surface.

Cr^{3+} than H^+ to O^{2-} by 0.60 eV (Figure 2), H^- tends to diffuse to the oxygen nearby and change to H^+ . Indeed, the calculated ΔE is -0.90 eV, and the overall ΔE for formation of 2H^+ afterward with respect to $\text{H}_2(\text{g})$ is -0.49 eV/ H_2 , slightly more exothermic than that of the pristine $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ (-0.34 eV/ H_2). The calculated forward diffusion barrier is as high as 0.96 eV (Figure 7A, TS2). However, the backward recombination barrier for H^- with H^+ to form H_2^* is 0.37 eV only. This means that the pristine $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ has a rather low activity to dissociate the H_2 .

We studied the H_2 heterolytic dissociation on Zn-substituted $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$, noted as $\text{Zn}_1/\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ here afterward (Figure 8). Again, H_2 molecular adsorption on $\text{Zn}_1/\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3(001)$ remains neutral. For the Cr–O pairs near the Zn_1 (Figure 8A, path I), calculated E_{ad} for the heterolytic dissociation improves considerably and becomes exothermic and is equal to -0.55 eV/ H_2 . At TS1, the H–H bond distance is 0.96 Å, and the corresponding barrier is 0.63 eV, lower than that of the pristine surface (0.79 eV), due to the improved energetics. The H^- species formed diffuses to the oxygen nearby and becomes H^+ with a considerable ΔE of -1.19 eV. The final structure formed is plotted in Figure 8A, where two H^+ coordinate to two oxygen coordinated to the same Cr cation, and the overall ΔE with respect to $\text{H}_2(\text{g})$ is as large as -1.78 eV/ H_2 . The forward diffusion barrier is 1.35 eV at TS2, slightly higher than its backward recombination barrier of 1.18 eV (Figure 8D). Compared to the pristine surface, the great improvement in energetics and kinetics activates efficiently the Cr–O pairs near the Zn_1 for the H_2 dissociation.

H_2 heterolytic dissociation can take place over the Cr–O long pairs (Figure 2B) with a bond length of 3.28 Å, where the O atom of interest coordinates to the Zn_1 (Figure 8B, path II). The calculated E_{ad} becomes even more exothermic equal to -1.04 eV/ H_2 . As a result, the corresponding barrier decreases further to 0.21 eV only, and the H–H bond distance at the TS (TS1) is 0.99 Å. After the heterolytic dissociation, H^- formed diffuses to the oxygen nearby and becomes H^+ with a modest ΔE of -0.62 eV. The final structure formed is plotted in Figure 8B, where one H^+ from dissociation coordinates to the oxygen coordinated to Zn_1 , and another H^+ from diffusion coordinates to the oxygen coordinated to Cr, and the overall ΔE with respect to $\text{H}_2(\text{g})$ is also significantly -1.70 eV/ H_2 . The forward diffusion barrier to form 2H^+ is 1.39 eV at TS2, which is slightly higher than its backward recombination barrier of 1.26 eV to form H_2^* . Similar to the Cr–O pairs near the Zn_1 , the Cr–O long pairs nearby are active for the H_2 dissociation as well.

H_2 dissociation adsorption over the Zn_1 –O pairs with a bond length of 1.86 Å was also studied (Figure 8C, path III), and the calculated E_{ad} was slightly exothermic equal to -0.22 eV/ H_2 , close to that of the pristine $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ despite their different local coordination. At TS1, the H–H bond distance is 0.98 Å, and the corresponding barrier is 0.63 eV. The H^- species formed diffuses to the oxygen coordinated with the Zn_1 and becomes H^+ with a significant ΔE of -1.40 eV. The final structure formed is plotted in Figure 8C, where two H^+ coordinates to two oxygen coordinated to the same Zn_1 , and the overall ΔE with respect to $\text{H}_2(\text{g})$ is -1.66 eV/ H_2 . The diffusion barrier at TS2 is 0.63 eV, smaller than that of the pristine $\text{ZnO}(10\bar{1}0)$ largely due to the improved energetics. Importantly, the forward diffusion barrier is lower than the backward recombination barrier of 0.85 eV to form H_2^* .

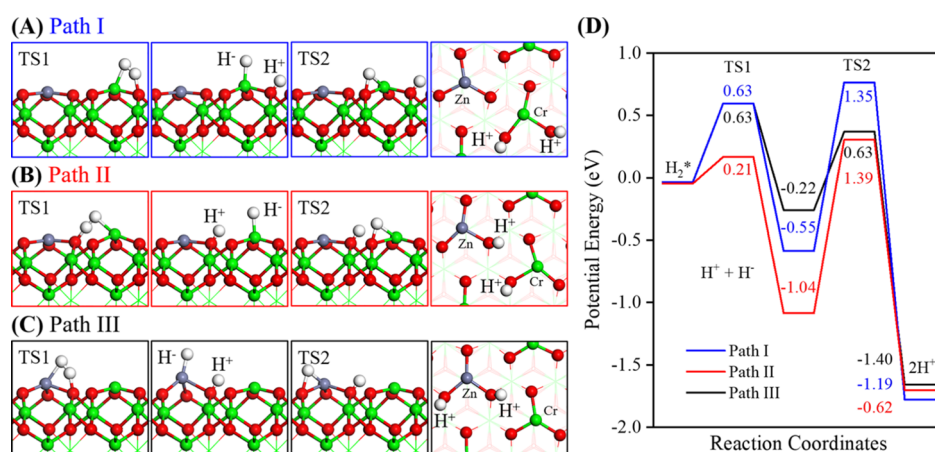


Figure 8. Optimized reaction intermediates and TS structures of H₂ heterolytic dissociation and H⁻ diffusion over Cr₂O₃(001) with substituted Zn₁ over (A) Cr–O pair (path I), (B) Cr–O long pair (path II), and (C) Zn₁–O pair (path III). Green, gray, red, and white spheres represent Cr, Zn, O, and H atoms, respectively. (D) Corresponding potential energy diagrams. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H₂ in the gas phase and clean surface.

Namely, the Zn₁–O pairs on the Zn₁/Cr₂O₃(001) are also active to dissociate the H₂ molecule.

Above investigations show clearly that the presence of the low-valent Zn₁ not only promotes the H₂ heterolytic dissociation but also the formation of the homolytic H⁺ and two lattice hydroxyl groups finally. Higher reactivity comes from the improved reactivity of the lattice oxygen with a lower vacancy formation energy E_V . We rationalize this using the improved ΔE for the heterolytic dissociation forming H⁻ and H⁺ over the Cr/Zn₁–O pairs, respectively. When the Zn₁ is introduced, there is little change in the binding strength of H⁻ to the Cr cation nearby (less than 0.02 eV). Moreover, the binding strength of H⁻ to the Zn₁ cation is also close to that of the pristine ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0), different by 0.15 eV only. Namely, the cations have no contribution to the increased reactivity. In contrast, the binding strength of H⁺ to the oxygen coordinated to the Cr near the Zn₁ (path I) increases considerably by 0.85 eV, changing the dissociation from endothermic to exothermic. This can be understood by a decrease in the corresponding E_V from 4.14 eV (the pristine surface) to 3.28 eV. For path II, the binding strength of H⁺ to the oxygen coordinated to the Zn₁ enhances by 1.45 eV along with the least E_V of 3.03 eV, and the corresponding dissociation process becomes most exothermic. Path III is different from path II by H⁻ coordinating to the Zn₁ rather than the Cr. The binding strength of H⁻ to the Zn₁ is 0.91 eV weaker than that to the Cr, increasing the overall energetics but remaining more favorable than that of the pristine Cr₂O₃(001), as plotted in Figures 8C and 7B.

3.4. Influence on Reducibility and Dehydration.

Hydrogen molecules might react with the oxide surfaces by forming water with oxygen vacancies left, which is studied below. Calculated ΔE between H₂(g) and the lattice oxygen to form H₂O(g) is endothermic by 0.30 eV on the pristine ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) but highly endothermic by 1.60 eV on the pristine Cr₂O₃(001). Namely, ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0) is much easier reduced than Cr₂O₃(001), consistent with their different E_V of 2.83 and 4.14 eV, respectively. At higher temperatures, the corresponding free energy becomes exothermic, and the oxide surfaces would be reduced. For Cr₁/ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0), the oxygen coordinated to the high-valent Cr₁ is stabilized and becomes more resistant to the reduction, and the calculated ΔE becomes highly endothermic by 1.36 eV. For the oxygen nearby but not

coordinated to the Cr₁, corresponding ΔE is 0.47 eV, remaining close to that of the pristine ZnO. This shows that the Cr₁ worsens the reducibility of ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0), but this happens only on the Cr₁-coordinated oxygen. For Zn₁/Cr₂O₃(001), the oxygen coordinated to the low-valent Zn₁ is destabilized and prone to be reduced for its small ΔE of 0.68 eV. Moreover, we found that for the oxygen nearby but not coordinated to Zn₁, corresponding ΔE also becomes modest varying from 0.49 to 0.75 eV. In other words, the Zn₁ enhances the reducibility of Cr₂O₃(001), and the influence is not limited to the Zn₁-coordinated oxygen but also the oxygen nearby.

To see the kinetics of reduction and eventually formation of water, we start from ZnO(10 $\bar{1}$ 0). There are two possible reaction pathways, and the first one is the direct pathway from H⁺ and H⁻ (Figure 5). The H⁺ species bond with the surface oxygen to form the lattice hydroxyl (HO*), which could be attacked by the H⁻ species to form H₂O*. However, irrespective of the reaction path over either the Zn–O dimer (path I) or the Zn–O trench (path II) (Figure 9A), corresponding processes to form a lattice H₂O*-like intermediate sitting in the oxygen vacancy O_v are highly endothermic by 1.31 and 1.08 eV (Figure 9B). This comes mainly from the strong electrostatic repulsion when H⁻ approaches the negatively charged O of the lattice HO* and considerable energy cost for bending of the H⁻–Zn bond. Therefore, though subsequent water formation (Figure 9C) is an energetically downhill process with a small barrier, significant reaction barriers (1.50 and 1.93 eV) and endothermic features in the previous step prevent the pathway.

Alternatively, water could be produced by two lattice HO* (or equivalent 2H⁺ as plotted in Figure 10A), where one is formed directly during the H₂ heterolytic dissociation, and another one is formed via diffusion of the H⁻ species to the lattice oxygen. To form water, one lattice HO* first migrates out from the lattice and sits at the bridge site of the Zn (Figure 10A). The corresponding ΔE is endothermic by 0.20 eV along with a barrier of 0.75 eV at TS1. Then, the bridge HO* reacts with H⁺ of the lattice HO* to form H₂O* with a ΔE and a barrier of –0.34 eV (exothermic) and 0.14 eV at TS2, respectively. Finally, desorption of H₂O* into the gas phase costs 0.77 eV. Throughout the entire process, the rate-determining step is diffusion of the H⁻ species with a barrier of

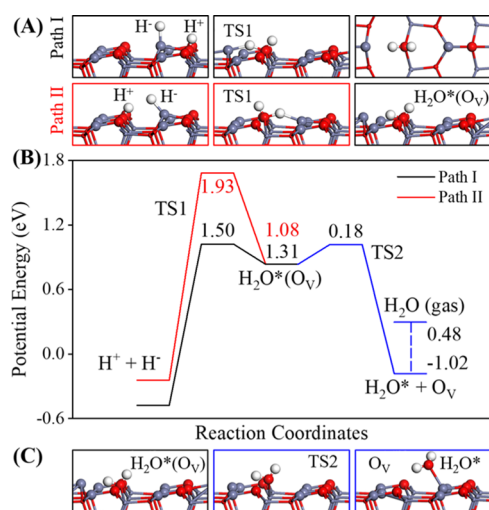


Figure 9. Optimized reaction intermediates and TS structures of surface reduction to form H₂O via H⁻ attacking the lattice HO* via (A) path I and (B) path II over the ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) surface. (B) Corresponding potential energy diagrams. (C) Optimized reaction intermediates and TS structures of H₂O* diffusion with an oxygen vacancy O_v left. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H₂ in the gas phase and clean surface.

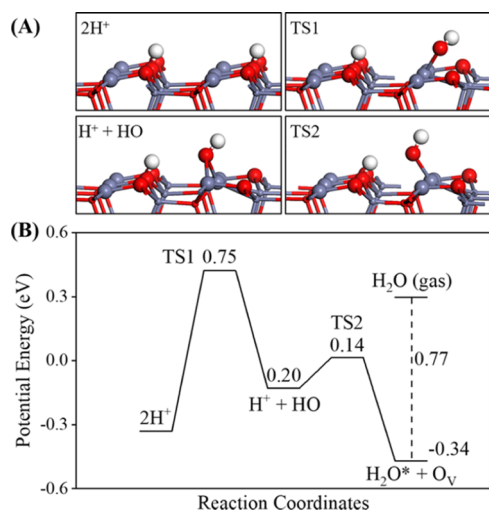


Figure 10. (A) Optimized reaction intermediate configurations, TS structures, and (B) potential energy diagrams for ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) reduction to form H₂O via the lattice hydroxyls. The energy reference zero corresponds to the energy of H₂ in the gas phase and clean surface.

1.05 eV. As shown in Figure 5, this diffusion competes with recombination to form H₂, therefore H₂ reduction to form H₂O is limited at the low coverage considered. When the Cr₁ is introduced, dehydration is suppressed as seen from the above energetics and not discussed explicitly here.

Formation of water via the H₂ reduction on Cr₂O₃(001) is energetically rather unfavorable as indicated above. Therefore, we look at the Zn₁/Cr₂O₃(001). We note that though the domain around the Zn₁ sites could be reduced by the H₂, the direct process via the H⁻ species attacking the lattice HO* was unlikely as found in the pristine ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$). For the water formation via two lattice HO*, Figure 8 shows that the lattice HO* formed via the H₂ dissociation is very stable. Subsequent water formation becomes highly endothermic by more than 2

eV. As a result, the reactivity of dehydration from the H₂ dissociation on the pristine and Zn₁-substituted Cr₂O₃(001) is lower than that on the pristine and Cr₁-substituted ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$).

4. CONCLUSIONS

Comprehensive DFT calculations are performed to study H₂ activation over the pristine and substituted ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) and Cr₂O₃(001). It is found that Cr₁-substituted ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) and Zn₁-substituted Cr₂O₃(001) are stable in a wide range of temperatures and pressures considered. For hydrogen binding to the lattice oxygen of ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$), the electrons are delocalized on the whole surface but become localized in the Cr–O bond for Cr₂O₃(001). On both surfaces, H₂ heterolytic dissociation is found to be more favorable than the homolytic one. On ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$), the H₂ heterolytic dissociation occurs over the Zn–O dimer instead of the Zn–O trench, and afterward the hydride species formed tends to diffuse to the nearby lattice oxygen forming a hydroxyl group. Cr₁ substitution on ZnO(10 $\bar{1}0$) has little improvement in H₂ activation. The pristine Cr₂O₃(001) is less active for H₂ dissociation. However, when one surface Cr cation is substituted by Zn₁, the domain around the substitutional sites efficiently promotes the H₂ heterolytic dissociation and subsequent migration of the hydride to form a hydroxyl group. At elevated temperatures, the dissociated H species tend to recombine and form hydrogen molecules, rather than reacting with the lattice oxygen to form water.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcc.2c02607>.

Detailed structure configurations (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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