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Materials for energy and sustainability

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1	Reasonable active site design for promoting
2	water dissociation and carbon monoxide
3	activation in low temperature water-gas shift
4	reaction
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13	dissociation, Active site design
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### **ABSTRACT**

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To solve the energy crisis, water-gas shift reaction (WGSR) has been deeply and systematically studied for effectively providing pure hydrogen and removing hazardous carbon monoxide spontaneously. In typical industrial applications, the WGSR commonly consists of two individual processes: high-temperature shift reaction (320-450°C) for high reaction rate and low-temperature shift reaction (150-300°C) for high conversion due to their intrinsic thermodynamic and kinetic properties. Owing to the complexity of traditional catalytic system, researchers have made great efforts to seek low-temperature (< 300°C) reaction catalysts with better performance and energy efficiency. Recent advancements are mainly based on the correlation of catalyst components and reactivities for low-temperature WGSR. However, this work considers different ideas of catalyst design for enhancing low-temperature WGSR performance based on the combination of two half-reactions: water dissociation and carbon monoxide activation, which occur on different active sites. Therefore, only purposeful active site design for the two half-reactions can constitute an efficient catalyst. This review goals to summarize the advances in the recent decade and provides some possible active site design direction for future investigation.

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# 1 Introduction

Hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) is widely recognized as a potential clean energy carrier, which could help reduce greenhouse gas emission. Number of hydrogen production process have been developed and studied by scientists, among which water-gas shift reaction (WGSR) is considered as a typically efficient way to produce and purify H<sub>2</sub><sup>1</sup> and it has been applied to many industrial processes, such as natural gas reforming, ammonia synthesize<sup>2</sup> and fuel cell application<sup>3, 4</sup>. The history of WGSR can be traced back to 1780s with their reaction depicted in the following equation:  $CO + H_2O \leftrightarrow CO_2 + H_2 (\Delta H_r^{\theta} = -41.1 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1})$ . As an exothermic reaction, it is thermodynamic suitable at low temperature with strict kinetic limit. Therefore, conventional WGSR system contained two adiabatic stages: hightemperature stage with Fe-Cr catalyst for high reaction rate and low-temperature stage with Cu-Zn-Al catalyst ( $\leq 300^{\circ}$ C) for forward conversion<sup>5, 6</sup>. The reaction was not applied until 1888 that Mond utilized it for hydrogen production for fuel cell application. In 1914, Bosch and Wild had applied the reaction to industrial hydrogen production<sup>7</sup>. Because of the poisonousness of Cr and the high energy consumption, scientists struggled to optimize the performance of Fe-based catalysts by introducing different kinds of adjuvants until 1980s<sup>8</sup>. But the complexity and energy consumption of the system still encouraged scientists to develop new-style catalytic systems.

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Encouraged by the proposal of associative mechanism and redox mechanism in 1920/DSTA02030A and 1940<sup>1</sup>, scientists realized that the reaction is mainly induced by the interfacial sites between loaded metals and the supports on the heterogeneous catalysts<sup>9</sup>. Increasing kinds of metal oxides are revealed by researchers with decent water dissociation performance and mild reaction condition, such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>10, 11</sup>, CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>12</sup>, ZrO<sub>2</sub><sup>13</sup>, CeZrO<sub>4</sub><sup>14</sup>. Also, the catalytic performance can be assisted by additives such as ZnO<sup>15</sup>, Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub><sup>16</sup> which adjusting the physical and electronic structure of catalysts. Besides metal oxides, some advanced functional materials were noticed by researchers for their exclusive properties. For example, noble metal based catalysts putting α-MoC as a carrier was emphasized in the last few years for the excellent water dissociation activity<sup>17</sup>. With the development of catalyst design strategies<sup>18</sup>, noble metal based catalysts aroused much attention in this field<sup>19, 20</sup>. With moderate adsorption capacity for CO, metals like Au, Pt, Ru, Pd, Ag are frequently selected as active components for WGSR<sup>21, 22</sup>. Furthermore, in 2011, Zhang et al. firstly realized a single atom catalyst (SAC) that consists of single Pt atoms uniformly dispersed on a FeO<sub>x</sub> support<sup>23</sup>. With decent catalytic activity and new reaction mechanisms, SACs were further explored for better synthesis methods and catalytic properties and regarded as promising catalysts for WGSR<sup>24</sup>. However, in some occasions, nanoparticles show significant catalytic activity, whereas single atoms act as spectators<sup>25</sup>. It is necessary to differentiate the function of nanoparticles and single atoms in different catalyst system for CO activation.

Table 1 Summary of the review perspective and proposed catalyst and active site design approach of some published reviews and this work

Title	Published Year	Review Perspective	Proposed Catalyst and Active Site Design Approach	Ref
For more and purer hydrogen-the progress and challenges in water gas shift reaction	2023	Catalyst type and catalyst structure	Low and high temperature shift reaction catalysts Sulfur-tolerant and wide temperature shift reaction catalysts Nano catalysts and Single-atom catalysts design Surface structure design	1
The water gas shift reaction: Catalysts and reaction mechanism	2021	Catalyst component	Fe-based catalysts Cu-based catalysts Ni-based catalysts Co-Mo-based catalysts Noble-metal-based catalysts	8
Noble-metal based single- atom catalysts for the water- gas shift reaction	2021	Catalyst component and active species (noblemetal-based catalysts)	Single-atom catalysts with reducible oxide, irreducible oxide, carbides and nitrides supports  Active metal species (positive state and metallic state)	21
Platinum based catalysts in the water gas shift reaction: Recent advances	2020	Catalyst component and mechanism study (platinum-based catalysts)	The influence of supports  The influence of loading method and loading amount  The influence of promoter addition  Kinetic and mechanism study of Pt-based catalysts	22

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The review of Cr-free Fe- based catalysts for high- temperature water-gas shift reactions	2013	Catalyst component (Fe- Cr-based catalysts)	Iron oxide-Chromium oxide catalysts Chromium free catalysts	7
Water gas shift catalysis	2009	Catalyst component	Iron oxide-Chromium oxide and Chromium free catalysts for high temperature shift reaction Cu-Zn-Al and promoted Cu catalysts for low temperature shift reaction Sulfur-tolerant catalysts Noble-metal-based catalysts Monolith-coated catalysts for fuel cell	
The water-gas shift reaction	2006	Catalyst component and kinetic study	Iron-based shift catalysts Copper-based shift catalysts Cobalt molybdenum-based shift catalysts	6
Reasonable active site design for promoting water dissociation and carbon monoxide activation in low temperature water-gas shift reaction	/	Mechanism summary and active-site-design strategy for the two half- reactions of WGSR	Mechanism study of WGSR $ Active \ site \ design \ strategies \ for \ H_2O \ dissociation \\ Active \ site \ design \ strategies \ for \ CO \ activation $	This work

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Up to now, most WGSR reviews mainly focus on the correlation between different catalyst structure and performance, like noble metal catalysts, transitional metals-based composite and so on. For example, Zhou et al. discussed different sorts of supported metal nanoparticle catalysts for WGSR<sup>1</sup> and Chen et al. detailly summarized noblemetal-based single-atom catalysts for WGSR<sup>21</sup>; Pal et al. provided a systematical review for transitional-metal-based catalysts<sup>26</sup>. Lee et al. focused on the impacts of reaction conditions and catalysts on WGSR involving different feed gases<sup>27</sup>. Some other reviews with their review perspectives and proposed catalyst and active site design approaches have been summarized in Table 1. These reviews demonstrated comprehensive understanding of different catalytic systems and summarized the promising catalysts in terms of material composition. However, to our best knowledge, few reviews conduct their discussion based on the understanding of active site design, which triggered us to summarize the first-class catalyst designs and attempt to find some possible correlation between active site structure and promising catalytic performance. More importantly, based on the proposal of surface catalytic theory<sup>28</sup> and the specificity of the WGSR, this review considered it as the combination of two principal half-reactions: water dissociation and CO activation, and emphasized that most excellent catalyst design strategies focused on at least one of the half-reactions, whose significancy was hardly acknowledged by the previous reviews as shown in the last row of Table 1. Additionally, on knowing that the deactivation of catalysts is still an inevitable phenomenon in actual

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situation, some typical active site design strategies aimed at the inhibition of

deactivation, which is worth discussing with their specific examples in this review.

### 2 Mechanisms

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better reduction capacity.

The studies on the mechanism of WGSR have been conducted for a few decades because it is complex and still remain controversial. The most recognized mechanisms can be roughly divided into two categories, which mainly involves different routines of water dissociation and carbon monoxide activation: redox mechanism and associative mechanism. The redox mechanism was first proposed by Temkin in 1949<sup>29</sup>. The shift reaction goes through a redox cycle as shown in the schematic in Figure 1 (a) and Eq. 1-5, where \* represents the active site. To be specific, the H<sub>2</sub>O will be directly adsorbed and activated on the active sites to be thoroughly dissociated into H<sub>2</sub> and O\* (light blue balls: H atoms; dark blue balls: O atoms dashed circle: oxygen vacancy; grey rectangle: support) and consume much energy. Simultaneously, the CO will be activated and react with the lattice oxygen to generate CO<sub>2</sub> leaving an oxygen vacancy which will be supplied by the O\* from H<sub>2</sub>O (black balls: C atoms; light yellow balls: low valance state noble metals; dark yellow balls: high valance state noble metals; yellow ellipse: noble metal sites). The reduction process is entirely independent from CO oxidation, and need enough activation energy to be thoroughly dissociated. Therefore, this mechanism is more favored by high-temperature shift reaction and active sites with

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117  $H_2O + * \rightarrow H_2O* \rightarrow H* + *OH \rightarrow 2H* +O*$  Eq. 1

118  $O^* + O_V \rightarrow O_L$  Eq. 2

119  $2H^* \rightarrow H_2$  Eq. 3

120  $CO + * \rightarrow CO*$  Eq. 4

121  $CO^* + O_L \rightarrow CO_2 + O_V$  Eq. 5

122 With the research trend for lower reaction temperature, the associative mechanism 123 based on Langmuir-Hinshelwood model gradually came into scientists' eyesight. As 124 shown in the schematic in figure 1 (b), different from the redox mechanism, the water dissociation will only be partially dissociated into H\* and \*OH, and the \*OH will 125 126 further react with CO\* to generate important free radical intermediates such as carboxyl (\*COOH) and formyl (HCOO\*), thus the reduction and oxidation processes are not 127 128 independent but associative. The intermediates will decompose into CO<sub>2</sub> and an extra 129  $H^*$ , which can combine with the former  $H^*$  to produce  $H_2$ . This mechanism described 130 by Eq. 6-9 revealed that the \*OH could directly react with activated CO and form important intermediates which could be further reform into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>, rather than 131

indispensable exhaustive dissociation into O\* and H\* with higher activation energy,

134  $H_2O + * \rightarrow H_2O* \rightarrow H^* + *OH$  Eq. 6

resulting in lower reaction temperature.

135  $CO + * \rightarrow CO*$  Eq. 7

136  $CO^* + *OH \rightarrow *COOH \rightarrow CO_2 + H^*$  Eq. 8.1 (Carboxyl-Intermediate Pathway)

137  $CO^* + *OH \rightarrow HCOO^* \rightarrow CO_2 + H^*$  Eq. 8.2 (Formyl-Intermediate Pathway)

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 $2H^* \rightarrow H_2$  Eq. 9

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Both mechanisms above could be credible under different conditions with different rate determining steps (RDS). For example, WGSR on classic high-temperature catalysts like Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite tend to follow the redox mechanism. Huang et al. conducted meticulous density functional theory calculation using Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (111) surface with the Fe<sub>oct2-tet1</sub> terminal and proved that redox mechanism was the primary reaction routine with the RDS of CO<sub>2</sub> desorption because of the distinguishing water adsorption ability of Fe<sub>oct2</sub> sites<sup>30</sup>. Nevertheless, noble metal catalysts with abundant well-designed interfacial active sites allowed easy combination of CO\* and \*OH, leading to the associative mechanism. Vecchietti et al. studied Pt/CeO2 catalyst and diffused reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) results demonstrated the existence of HCOO\* and COO\* species, which are typical intermediates of associative mechanism. They also mentioned that on the contrast of the previous research, the activation of water molecules in the WGSR mechanism is not the RDS in this system<sup>31</sup>. These previous works emphasized the complexity of the reaction mechanisms with various catalytic systems and reminded the future researchers that reasonable designing of the interfacial site that initiated associative mechanism might be a common solution for the first-class catalysts. Considering that the water dissociation and CO activation are both inevitable for WGSR, these two vital processes could be thinking pivots for the future active site design strategies, which would be further discussed in the following section of the review.

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# 3 Active sites design

### 3.1 Water Dissociation

Water dissociation is the key process of H<sub>2</sub> production and active intermediate generation in WGSR. Metal oxides have been widely studied in laboratory and industrial process for water dissociation. As a kind of common defect site on the surface of oxide catalysts, oxygen vacancies are regarded as the reaction sites and it has been investigated for a long time because of its high activity and stability<sup>32</sup>. Mostly, the activity of oxygen vacancies can be influenced by two factors: concentration and species. Also, some metal sites can undertake the task of water dissociation by purposive catalyst design. Therefore, it is worthwhile summarizing the ideas for active sites design, which can be demonstrated in Figure 2.

# 3.1.1 Oxygen Vacancy

### 3.1.1.1 Concentration of Oxygen Vacancy

For the reducible metal oxide supports, such as CuO<sup>33</sup>, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>34</sup>, TiO<sub>2</sub><sup>35</sup>, CeO<sub>2</sub><sup>36</sup> and so on, the concentration of oxygen vacancy can be easily controlled by synthesizing and pretreatment methods such as element doping. Jeong et al. prepared a series of Cu-CeO<sub>2</sub>-ZrO<sub>2</sub> materials with different Ce/Zr ratio. They found that by the shrinkage of lattice, Cu-Ce<sub>0.8</sub>Zr<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> contained a larger amount of oxygen vacancies and exhibited a very stable WGSR activity at about 300°C, which is correlated with the enhancement of oxygen mobility. This work also mentioned that compared with tetragonal phase of Cu-Ce<sub>0.8</sub>Zr<sub>0.2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, cubic phase shows higher WGSR activity because it helps to achieve

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higher concentration of oxygen vacancy<sup>14</sup>. Homogeneously, the design of La doped CeO<sub>2</sub><sup>37,38</sup> and Ga doped Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub><sup>31</sup> achieved high concentration of oxygen vacancy and thereby promoted catalytic activity for WGSR. Therefore, element doping is regarded as a valid performance-promoting pathway<sup>39</sup>. And similarly, the synthesis condition of catalysts can also change the O<sub>V</sub> concentration, which needs to be further discussed. In summary, there are direct evidences showing that materials with more oxygen vacancies tend to be more active in water dissociation process, because oxygen vacancies serve as the main active site of water dissociation and can stabilize the \*OH, which enhance the WGSR activity. 3.1.1.2 Species of Oxygen Vacancy Apart from gaining higher concentration of oxygen vacancy, recent advanced works mainly focus on the species of oxygen vacancy. Zhou\* et al. successfully formed an asymmetric environment of oxygen vacancies also by element doping<sup>32</sup>. For example, the group doped Bi in CeO<sub>2</sub> and modified the surrounding of the oxygen vacancy by forming a distorted tetrahedral geometry of Bi-O<sub>v</sub>-Ce<sub>3</sub>. In comparison with traditional symmetric clusters like Ce<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ce<sub>2</sub>, the asymmetric oxygen vacancy makes both the adsorption and desorption much easier (Figure 3 (a))<sup>40</sup>. It is predictable that such asymmetric oxygen vacancy can be applied to some structure-sensitive reaction like the activation of H<sub>2</sub>O in WGSR. Researchers obtained a Zn-Ti mixed oxide support from a Zn-Ti layered double

hydroxides precursor. Because of the strong metal-support interaction, after loading Au

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.1039/D5TA02030A nanoparticles, the electrons will transfer from the  $TiO_{2-x}$  overlayer to Au atoms to form the asymmetric oxygen vacancy site Au<sup>δ</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ti<sup>3+</sup> shown in Figure 3 (b), and deep analyzation of X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) results shown in Figure 3 (d) provided convincing evidence of the asymmetric oxygen vacancies. During the WGSR, both  $Au^{\delta}$  and  $O_v$  species of the site directly participate in the H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation process. Moreover, characterization results substantiated that the active oxygen vacancy also accelerated the CO chemisorption and H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation<sup>41</sup>. The group also reported a TiO<sub>2-x</sub>-modified Ni catalyst with tunable Ni-TiO<sub>2-x</sub> interaction and the reaction process over Ni<sup>δ</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ti<sup>3+</sup> site was discussed. By the in situ time-resolved DRIFTS results, a new redox mechanism was revealed and can be illustrated by two main steps: (1) the cleavage of O-H bond in H<sub>2</sub>O molecule at the asymmetric oxygen vacancy site to generate  $H_2$  and transform  $Ni^{\delta}-O_v-Ti^{3+}$  into  $Ni^{\delta}-O-Ti^{4+}$ ; (2) reaction between CO and Ni<sup>δ+</sup>-O-Ti<sup>4+</sup> to form CO<sub>2</sub> and Ni<sup>δ-</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ti<sup>3+</sup>. These works focus on the establishment of asymmetric active oxygen vacancy and provide a new possible solution for construction of high-efficiency heterogeneous catalytic systems<sup>42, 43</sup>. Many other works have successfully synthesized composites with asymmetric oxygen vacancies which also exhibited LT-WGSR performance<sup>44</sup>. Additionally, based on the design of asymmetric oxygen vacancy, Chen et al. synthesized a bilayer Cu covered on CeO<sub>2</sub> (structure illustrated by Figure 3 (c)). The bottom layer of Cu can donate an electron to Ce<sup>4+</sup> and coordinate with an O<sub>v</sub> to form a Cu<sup>+</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ce<sup>3+</sup> site, and the top layer of Cu can bond with the underlying Cu<sup>+</sup> to modify

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the site to Cu<sup>0</sup>-Cu<sup>+</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ce<sup>3+</sup>. Such interfacial active sites can optimize the planeintegrated bonding charge shown in Figure 3 (e) around Cu<sup>+</sup> and O<sub>v</sub> sites, thereby

enhance the CO adsorption and H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation capacity<sup>45</sup>.

Although the oxygen vacancy concentration is an important factor for the catalytic performance, the optimization of it is capped by the stability requirement of catalysts. Designing better oxygen vacancy species like the asymmetric oxygen vacancy is more crucial for more efficient catalytic system and can fundamentally reveal the  $H_2O$  dissociation mechanism.

### 3.1.2 Metal site

Except for oxygen vacancies, metal sites can also play as the core sites for water dissociation. For traditional metal oxide catalysts, the loaded metal can be the water adsorption sites, and the dissociation capacity can be enhanced by the establishment of the interfaces between laded metals and supports. Lucas et al. designed a Ni/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> composite and deeply tracked the oxygenate species (O\* and \*OH) from water dissociation process at interface sites in contrast to the bare Ni surface. They found that the surface species are only available at the interfacial sites. The results reminded us that the combination of metal and support can be properly adjusted to obtain better water dissociation activity, and the WGSR is a typical interface-sensitive reaction<sup>11</sup>.

Plentiful studies center on MoC for production of high-purity H<sub>2</sub> was carried out and achieved intriguing advances<sup>46, 47</sup>. Different from other oxides like SiO<sub>2</sub> or TiO<sub>2</sub> which cannot dissociate H<sub>2</sub>O or can easily dissociate H<sub>2</sub>O into H<sup>+</sup> and OH<sup>-</sup> respectively, the

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mass spectrum results have shown that after being adsorbed on  $\alpha$ -MoC, the H<sub>2</sub>O can be instantly dissociated into H\* and \*OH at almost room temperature, which are both important intermediates for WGSR<sup>48</sup>. Researchers composed a review to summarize the efforts they made on the development of M/MoC. The review mentioned that the wonderful catalytic performance of MoC originated from the incorporation of carbon atoms at the interstitial sites, which endows MoC with higher density of states near the Fermi level and proper electronic interaction between carbon atoms and metals. Such electronic interaction can optimize the adsorption energy of H<sub>2</sub>O to a moderate level where the H<sub>2</sub>O molecular can be solidly adsorbed on the surface and simultaneously dissociated by the energy released from adsorption<sup>49</sup>. Furthermore, Zhang et al. designed Pt<sub>1</sub>-Pt<sub>n</sub>/α-MoC (morphology and structure shown in Figure 4 (a)) based on Pt<sub>1</sub>/α-MoC with promising activity but disappointing stability and obtained better CO conversion than Cu-Zn-Al model catalyst and other MoC-based catalysts given in Figure 4 (b). The extra Pt clusters can change the interfacial structure by covering the redundant exposed surface of Pt<sub>1</sub>/α-MoC, in order to preventing the oxidation of α-MoC by excess \*OH, because the \*OH far from the interface of Pt and α-MoC cannot react with the activated CO. Also, the transient kinetic analysis (TKA) results of Pt<sub>1</sub>-Pt<sub>p</sub>/α-MoC revealed that except for H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation, the CO can also be dissociated at low temperature to generate an extra carbon atom which can react with activated H<sub>2</sub>O to produce additional 35% of H<sub>2</sub> in the total H<sub>2</sub> production. The reaction routines can be summarized by Figure 4 (c). By isotope labelling method, this work found some

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View Article Online different reaction routines based on the dissociation of CO, which means that the combination of noble metal and  $\alpha$ -MoC can not only make full use of the water dissociation capacity of MoC, but also enhance the CO activation process, resulting in more active oxygen species supplement from CO dissociation<sup>50</sup>. The fantastic performance of α-MoC based catalysts provided possibility for future research to investigate the electronic structure optimization of metal sites, in order to improve intrinsic H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation ability, but there might be still many challenges to surpass the current performance of the  $\alpha$ -MoC based catalysts. MoC has been proved as an outstanding H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation material, and other carbides like TiC<sup>51, 52</sup> and Co<sub>2</sub>C<sup>53</sup> are also under investigation. Additionally, metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) have been predicted as promising supports with controllable porous structure and changeable open metal sites (OMSs)<sup>54</sup>. However, limited MOFs have been applied in LT-WGSR because of their instability in vapor atmosphere. Recently, Rivero-Crespo et al. synthesized a robust and highly crystalline MOF which can stabilize Pt+ single atom sites by a water cluster. The work reported a double water attack mechanism for the MOF to give CO<sub>2</sub>, in which both of the oxygen atom in CO<sub>2</sub> are coming from H<sub>2</sub>O. However, the synthesis of the MOF is complex and timeconsuming, which needs further development<sup>55</sup>. The optimization of metal sites mainly focuses on adjusting the electronic structure by adjusting the surrounding environment. No matter loaded metal sites or support metal sites, it is vital to reveal the volcano-type relationship between metal sites and

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surrounding atoms, which can really provide valid active site design reference for future research.

### 3.2 Carbon Monoxide Activation

Meanwhile, carbon Monoxide activation is essential for CO elimination in WGSR. Sometimes oxygen vacancy can serve as CO adsorption site at the interfacial zone between loaded metal and supports, but in most LT-WGSR process, d-block elements, such as noble metals, can perform as the effective CO activation sites by cooperate with the supports<sup>56, 57</sup>. Opinions on how to optimize the activation sites for better performance remains unclear and contradictory. In this section, optimizing the geometric structure and electronic structure are considered as two feasible choices for the enhancement of d-block element performance (shown in Figure 5), which will be discussed below.

### 3.2.1 Geometric Structure

The geometric structure can directly affect the catalytic performance by changing the interaction between catalysts and substrates. For instance, metal loaded on supports can be controllably synthesized with varies of sizes, such as nanoparticles, clusters and single atoms<sup>58</sup>. And based on the size effect, different sizes exhibited different catalytic performance and stability. Also, exposed facet of the catalysts is a key factor to the catalytic performance<sup>59</sup>. It is essential to summarize the merits and drawbacks of different geometric structures, in order to provide clear strategies for reference.

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Generally, it is well-known that as the maximization of interfacial site, single atom catalysts should be divinely high-efficiency for WGSR. However, works have been delivered to identify the active sites of CO activation and prove that nanoparticles performed better than single atom by time-dependent infrared spectrum. The result proved that only CO adsorbed on Pt nanoparticles could be activated and participate in the reaction (demonstrated in Figure 6 (a)) <sup>25</sup>. Therefore, with decent catalytic performance and stability, they are widely investigated for LT-WGSR since 1996<sup>19, 34</sup>. Andreas et al. designed TiO<sub>2</sub>-supported Pt catalysts and used density functional theory (DFT) calculations and microkinetic modeling to clarify the activity of the three-phase boundary. Their results suggested the dominant catalytic process on Pt<sub>8</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>(110) should be redox pathway and the better activity of three-phase boundary can be correlated to reduced CO adsorption energy on Pt sites and increased number of oxygen vacancies<sup>59</sup>. Moreover, Zhao et al. synthesized a Pt-TiO<sub>2</sub> composite with ultra-small Pt nanoparticles encapsulated in sub-50 nm hollow TiO<sub>2</sub> nanospheres. With the decrease of Pt particle size, the catalyst shows a much higher turnover frequency (TOF) value, which can be attributed to the size-dependent variation in the electronic structure of Pt species and the sintering prevention effect from TiO<sub>2</sub> encapsulation. This work provided a valid synthesis strategy for loading Pt on the internal surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanospheres and revealed a creative catalyst designing thought that the deactivation of Pt could be avoided by controllable support encapsulation<sup>60</sup>. CeO<sub>2</sub> is a typical reducible support and is frequently selected as the support of noble metals such as Au<sup>61</sup>. Fu et al.

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View Article Online compared the activity of Au nanoparticles and clusters on  $CeO_2$  and found that the abundant interfacial sites between Au clusters and CeO2 induced superior catalytic performance than Au nanoparticles during WGSR<sup>62</sup>. In short, the size of loaded metals could directly determine the number of active sites. Zhang et al. synthesized Pt clusters and single atoms by changing the loaded facets shown in Figure 6 (b). They deeply investigated the CO adsorption on Pt by IR spectrum given in Figure 6 (c) and proved that the binding energy between CO and Pt nanoparticles is weaker than CO and Pt single atoms by the blue shift of PtO<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup> peak compared with  $Pt^{\delta+}$  and  $Pt^0$  peaks, which means that single atom catalysts (SACs) could be well designed to show promising research value<sup>63</sup>. Therefore, for WGSR, single atom sites with appropriate geometry design can still effectively activate CO for further reaction with other intermediates such as \*OH. Lin et al. synthesized Ir<sub>1</sub>/FeO<sub>x</sub> SAC for WSGR whose performance is one order of magnitude higher than its cluster and nanoparticle counterparts<sup>64</sup>. Furthermore, Liang et al. studied the redox mechanism of Ir<sub>1</sub>/FeO<sub>x</sub> for WGSR by detailly calculation and experiments and proved that the CO will be adsorbed and activated on the Ir single atom with a dual active site of Fe<sup>3+</sup>-O···Ir<sup>2+</sup>-O<sub>v</sub><sup>65</sup>. And Guan et al. from the same group also fabricated Rh<sub>1</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> SAC and obtained an overall CO conversion of ~95%, which indicated that there are multiple choices of noble metal for LT-WGSR<sup>66</sup>. Some kinds of SACs have also broken the traditional cognition that noble metal sites are the actual CO activation sites. Sun et al. designed a

 $Ir_1/\alpha$ -MoC catalyst for LT-WGSR. Different from other works, they revealed that the

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View Article Online great performance does not originate from the direct participation of Ir single atoms in the CO activation. The Ir single atoms served as a promoter which assisted Mo sites to activate CO. With kinetic measurements and theoretical calculation, they proved that the addition of Ir single atoms effectively changed the electronic property of Mo sites, resulting in a obviously reduction of the activation energy  $(E_a)^{67}$ . These works provided abundant possibilities for the utilization of SACs in the future research with rational catalyst design to avert excessively adsorption. As for the influence of exposed facets, Zhang et al. synthesized uniform cubic, dodecahedral and octahedral Cu nanocrystal by partial reduction of Cu<sub>2</sub>O nanocrystal. They found that cubic Cu nanocrystal exposed (100) facets was more active than dodecahedral Cu nanocrystal exposed (110) facets for H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation and CO activation, and octahedral Cu nanocrystal exposed (111) facets was inactive. By theoretical calculation results of surface structures and H<sub>2</sub>O adsorption energy change, it is confirmed that the formate species adsorbed on Cu (111) need to overcome a large barrier to decompose, leading to the accumulation of formate and finally covering the active sites. Therefore, the Cu (111) facets are initially active, but will be self-poisoning during the reaction<sup>68</sup>. On the basis, the research group deeply studied ZnO/Cu and revealed that the catalysts would undergo an in situ restructuring process during WGSR to form the Cu-hydroxylated ZnO ensemble<sup>69</sup>. These results suggested that controlling the exposed facet of crystalized catalysts like traditional Cu-based catalysts might also be a considerable strategy for performance optimization.

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As is shown above, a reasonable geometric structure is important for better catalytic

performance. The size and morphology effect need to be detailly investigated and discussed based on the experience and future works, aiming to summarize some universal catalyst design rules.

### 3.2.2 Electronic Structure

3.2.2.1 Strong metal-support interaction (SMSI)

The Strong Metal-Support Interaction (SMSI) was first found by S.J.Tauster and S.C.Fung in 1978<sup>70</sup>. The interaction broadly exists in numerous kinds of supported catalysts and markedly adjusts their electronic structure, such as the electron states of loaded metals. For example, as we mentioned in water dissociation section, SMSI can optimize the electron distribution of metal sites. Similarly, Abdel-Mageed et al. employed operando X-ray absorption spectrum (XAS) and FT-IR to identify the active Au species in highly active Au/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. By synthesizing Au species with different electronic states  $(Au^{\delta}, Au^{\delta}, Au^{\delta})$  on purpose, they presented an idea that the nanometer-sized Au<sup>0</sup> particles are the dominant active species rather than the cationic Au species (Au<sup>3+</sup>)<sup>71</sup>. Apart from that, the coordination number of active sites is related to the strength of SMSI. Jin et al. loaded Au atomic layers and isolated atoms on MoC to synthesize different Au/MoC catalysts. With XAS analysis and catalytic performance test, they revealed a volcano-style pattern between the specific activity for LT-WGSR and the coordination number of Au-Au. These results offered a reference for the geometric and electronic structure design in the future<sup>72</sup>. The SMSI designed in these

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View Article Online works noticed us that for better CO activation performance, the interaction should be moderate. Excessively weak SMSI cannot form qualified active sites and the CO molecules are uneasy to react with oxygenate species if the SMSI is too strong. In order to obtain an appropriate SMSI between loaded metals and supports, scientists offer varieties of methods. For example, Yang et al. demonstrated the origin of SMSI by using Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> as a model catalyst and WGSR as a model reaction. On CeO<sub>2</sub>(110), Pt clusters embed into CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice within 3-4 atomic layers. Such embedding structure optimizes the SMSI between Pt clusters and CeO<sub>2</sub> for more productive Pt sites<sup>73</sup>. Similarly, the Pt/TiO<sub>2</sub> with overlayer structure can also optimize the SMSI<sup>74</sup>. The results remind us that SMSI could be optimized by adjusting the geometric structure of materials. Another important factor of SMSI is the component and concentration of active sites. Cu/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is a simple and non-toxic material. The formation of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> spinel structure can enhance the thermostability and change the electronic state of Cu and Fe by Jahn-Teller effect<sup>75</sup>. Lin et al. prepared a Cu/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> catalyst by co-precipitation method to gain larger amount of CuFe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, better which were responsible for CO activation<sup>33</sup>. Han et al. further optimized the composition of Cu/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and found the Cu<sub>0.3</sub>Fe<sub>0.7</sub>O<sub>x</sub> exhibited the highest CO conversion. The group reported that excessive loaded Cu will sinter and insufficient loaded Cu will suffer from lack of active sites and poisoning<sup>12</sup>. For future investigation, it is necessary to figure out the most applicable component for a promising material.

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3.2.2.2 Synergistic effect

Besides normal nanoparticle-based materials, bimetallic sites and alloys arouses much more attention because the synergistic effect between two different metals is intriguing and contains profound scientific principles<sup>76, 77</sup>. Recent research trend of bimetallic catalysts for WGSR focus on the bimetal size adjustment and composition optimization to reduce the cost and enhance the performance<sup>78-80</sup>. As typical active components, Cu and Ni can be loaded on Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> simultaneously. The H<sub>2</sub>-TPR results indicated that the SMSI between the dopants (Cu or Ni) and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which was beneficial to LT-WGSR<sup>81</sup>. Zhang et al. anchored well-dispersed Pt single atoms on Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> nanorods, forming a Pt<sub>1</sub>Co<sub>1</sub>/Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> composite shown by structure schematic in Figure 7 (b), and found that the singly dispersed Pt<sub>1</sub>Co<sub>n</sub> nanoclusters were the active sites of WGSR in the temperature range of 150-200°C. After increasing the temperature to about 300°C, the Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> demonstrated by Figure 7 (a) will be reduced to CoO<sub>1-x</sub> and Pt will sinter, resulting in the formation of  $Pt_mCo_m/CoO_{1-x}$  demonstrated by Figure 7 (c) with more abundant surface oxygen vacancies. Both H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation and CO activation process take advantage of the Pt<sub>m</sub>Co<sub>m</sub>, active sites and achieve a lower activation energy, which suggested a effective method to tune the reactivity through reconstructing the oxide catalyst in the gas phase<sup>82</sup>. Xia et al. prepared Au and AuM (M=Ni, Cu, Pt) alloy nanoparticles supported on layered double hydroxides (LDHs) and found Au<sub>2</sub>Cu<sub>1</sub> exhibited the highest TOF value with modulation to the redox process at the interface of AuM/LDHs interfaces<sup>83</sup>. These works of bimetallic catalysts

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construction with optimized structure show great potential for LT-WGSR, but the type and structure of metals need to be carefully designed for reacting in concert.

As a kind of electronic adjuvants, alkali elements are often doped in some supported catalysts to optimize the electronic structures of metal sites. Therefore, many noticeable works have been reported and provided plentiful solutions. Au loaded on zeolites and mesoporous MCM-41 were found to be stabilized by the addition Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>. The single site species of Au-O(OH)<sub>x</sub>-(Na or K) are active for the LT-WGSR below 200°C, and the AuO<sub>6-7</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>Na<sub>9</sub> clusters exhibited the best catalytic performance and stabilization with the applicable CO adsorption energy because the addition of alkali ions performed as an electron acceptor and shared part of the electrons transferring to Au atoms to form a moderate Bader charge on Au<sup>84</sup>. Coincidentally, Pt-Na/SiO<sub>2</sub> has also been synthesized and showed better activity than Pt/SiO<sub>2</sub> below 300°C<sup>25</sup>. Kaftan et al. applied DRIFTS coupled with online quadrupole mass spectrometry (QMS) to observe the formation of surface species and demonstrate the enhancement of KOH coated Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. They assured that formates are the primary intermediate on uncoated Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, while a film of hydroxides and carbonates is observed on the KOH-coated sample. It is interesting that the change of electronic structure by alkali species can affect the dominant routine of WGSR. Additionally, the strong red shift of CO adsorption peak in DRIFTS suggested that K-coadsorption can weaken the C-O bond and strengthen the Pt-C bond, leading to hinderance for CO desorption and facilitation for the reaction of CO with \*OH85. Ang et al. suppressed the formation of methane by

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covering a layer of Na/NaO<sub>x</sub> on Ni loaded CeO<sub>2</sub>. The Na<sup>+</sup> could replace the Ce<sup>++</sup> in the lattice and generate abundant lattice defects thus increasing the oxygen mobility, which will make the redundant CO adsorbed on Ni rapidly degraded and prevent the catalyst from being poisoning<sup>86</sup>. These works revealed that the alkali metal doping can change the electron distribution of catalysts, in order to enhance the performance of active sites and change the reaction routine.

Generally, the electronic structure of active sites can be adjusted by bimetallic site design and alkali doping based on the synergistic effect between the metals. For different sites with different performances, they need concrete analyses of their specific situations to ensure that which elements can help to achieve the best optimization results.

# 4 Summary and Prospect

Being regarded as a promising reaction fulfilling two expectations of converting CO and generating H<sub>2</sub> simultaneously, WGSR is a promising reaction but faces the problem that the temperature cannot overcome the thermodynamic and kinetic limits synchronously, thus bunches of catalytic systems have been developed for high-efficiency WGSR. In this review, we considered WGSR as a combination of two half-reactions: H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation and CO oxidation, which are the optimization targets of active sites design. The combination of active site design for the two side reactions makes high-efficient WGSR for CO removal and H<sub>2</sub> production possible. In the past one-decade, numerous research has achieved important advances in the following prospects. For water dissociation, the concentration and structure of oxygen vacancies

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39/D5TA02030A can be designed for better catalytic performance and reasonable metal sites design can help them efficiently participate in the process. For carbon monoxide activation currently happening on d-block element sites, selectively synthesizing suitable size and exploring providential electronic structure of the sites are both considered as valid ideas for designing first-class catalysts. Some catalysts stood out with promising activity and industrial application potential, such as noble metal loaded on CeO<sub>2</sub>, α-MoC. But the comparing with the relatively mature applied catalysts like Cu/Zn/Al system, the harsh synthesis process and costly ingredients hindered their industrial application prospects and research on the resistance of catalyst deterioration need to be further conduct in the future. The future active site design strategies should take the industrial costs and production scenarios into consideration and target at economical, stable and efficient catalytic system. Taken together, although WGSR has been investigated for a long period of time, there is still room for improvement of the catalytic systems, which triggered extensive interest from the scientific community. With the proposing of more novel theories and the development of large language model, the catalysts for WGSR also need to stay upto-date and the designing methods could be assisted by AI prediction. We hope that the development of active sites design for WGSR can make it a really efficient pathway for H<sub>2</sub> generation and CO oxidation in the future.

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# 492 **FIGURES**

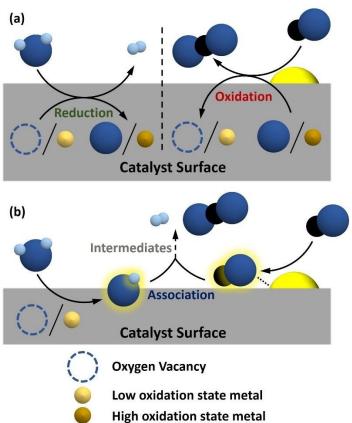
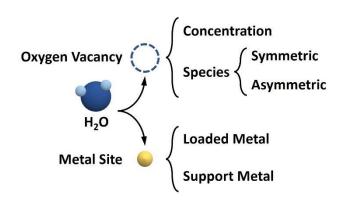


Figure 1 (a) Process schematic of redox mechanism. (b) Process schematic of associative mechanism.

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496 **Figure 2** Summarization of active site design for H<sub>2</sub>O dissociation.

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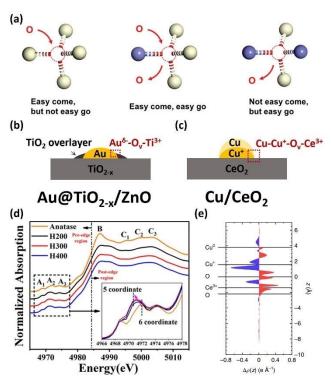


Figure 3 (a) Schematic diagram of relationship between the microstructure of oxygen vacancy and its redox property. (b) A diagram of the active site structure on Au@TiO<sub>2-x</sub>/ZnO. (c) A diagram of the active site structure on Cu/CeO<sub>2</sub>. (d) Normalized XANES spectra of Au@TiO<sub>2-x</sub>/ZnO with different synthesizing condition, which provided a direct evidence for the existence of asymmetric oxygen vacancy site (Au<sup>δ</sup>-O<sub>v</sub>-Ti<sup>3+</sup>). (e) Plane-integrated bonding charge  $\Delta \rho(z)$  as a function of position across the Cu-Ce interface. The red and blue areas represent charge accumulation and depletion, respectively.

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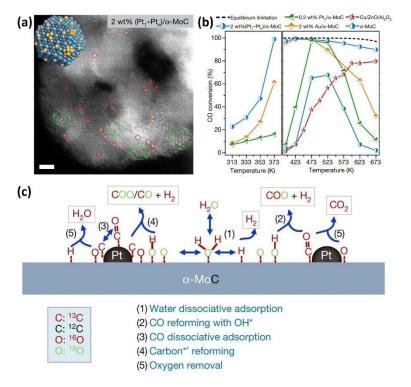
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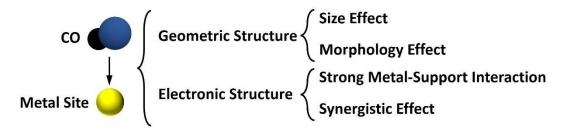
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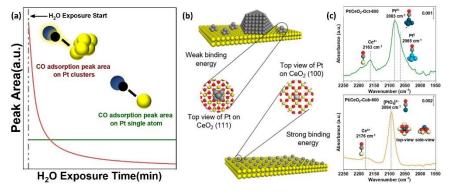
**Figure 4** (a) TEM image and a diagram of the distribution of Pt single atoms and clusters on  $(Pt_1-Pt_n)\alpha$ -MoC. (b) CO conversion over different catalysts at various temperatures. (c) Schematic of the reaction routes for the WGS reaction over Pt/ $\alpha$ -MoC: (1) water dissociation; (2) the conventional WGS reaction routes (redox or associative intermediate mechanism); and (3)–(5) the unconventional WGS reaction routes. The asterisk represents the active site.

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520 **Figure 5** Summarization of active site design for CO activation.

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**Figure 6** (a) Time-dependent IR spectra of CO adsorbed on 1 wt.% Pt/SiO<sub>2</sub> upon H<sub>2</sub>O exposure. The peaks in green zone corresponds to CO adsorbed on Pt single atoms and the peaks in blue zone corresponds to CO adsorbed on Pt nanoparticles. The diagrams on the right side shows the CO activation status on different sites. (b) A diagram of Pt cluster and single atom on different CeO<sub>2</sub> facets. (c) In situ CO-DRIFTS of Pt/CeO<sub>2</sub> samples, showing the bonding energy differences between CO and Pt with different sizes.

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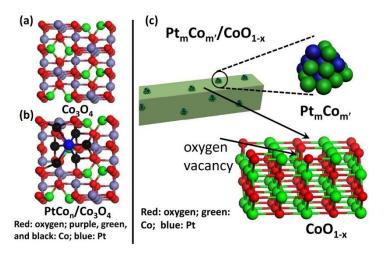
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**Figure 7** Structural models of surfaces of pure  $Co_3O_4$  and active catalysts, (a) Top view of pure  $Co_3O_4$ . (b) Top view of  $Pt_1Co_n/Co_3O_4$ . (c) Diagrams of synergistic active sites in  $Pt_mCo_m/CoO_{1-x}$ .

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## **Data Availability Statement**

Dear Editor:

No primary research results, software or code have been included and no new data were generated or analysed as part of this review.

Sincerely,

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