

Got Coke? Self-Limiting Poisoning Makes an Ultra Stable and Selective Sub-nano Cluster Catalyst

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Abstract:

Supported sub-nano clusters hold great promise as economical and highly active catalysts. However, they tend to deactivate rapidly by poisoning and sintering, impeding their widespread use. We find that self-limiting poisoning can stabilize and promote cluster catalysis, i.e., poisoning is not always detrimental, but can sometimes be exploited. Specifically, Pt-Ge alloy clusters supported on alumina undergo slow coking (carbon deposition) under conditions of thermal dehydrogenation, yet preserve strong binding sites. For the case of Pt₄Ge/alumina, theory shows a number of thermally populated isomers, one of which catalyzes carbon deposition. Because the clusters are fluxional at high temperatures, this isomer acts as a gateway, slowly converting all the clusters to Pt₄GeC₂. The surprising result is that Pt₄GeC₂ is highly catalytically active and selective against further coking, i.e., coking produces functional, stable catalytic clusters. Ge and C₂ have synergistic electronic effects, leading to efficient and

25 highly selective catalytic dehydrogenation that stops at alkenes, and improving stability. Thus,
26 under reaction conditions, the clusters develop into a robust catalyst, suggesting an approach to
27 practicable cluster catalysis.

There is a great drive to go sub-nano in precious metal catalysis, because in sub-nano clusters, nearly all the expensive metal atoms are exposed to reactants, increasing cost-effectiveness. Clusters can also have better catalytic activity than the bulk metal¹, provide a parameter for catalyst tuning (size), and can break scaling relations that can limit the activity of larger catalytic centers². Pt-based catalysts are widely used in refining, transforming chemicals, and converting environmentally harmful products³⁻⁷, and the challenge to the use of sub-nano Pt catalysts in such applications relates to stability: deactivation via thermal sintering, and by poisoning. For example, in alkane dehydrogenation for alkene production, sintering may be rapid at operating temperatures, as can poisoning by carbonaceous side products (“coking”). Past research showed that sintering and coking can be inhibited by growing porous overcoatings on nanometer catalyst particles⁸, but this approach partially blocks the catalytic sites, limiting efficiency^{3,9}. For sub-nano Pt clusters deposited on SiO₂ supports, we showed that even a single layer of overcoating completely blocked all Pt sites, rendering the clusters inert¹⁰. Another strategy is to periodically regenerate catalysts by oxidizing away carbon deposits at high temperatures, however that would tend to deactivate sub-nano clusters by sintering^{11,12}. Alloying sub-nano clusters to modify the chemical and thermal properties is another approach; for example, alloying oxide-supported Pt cluster catalysts with tin or boron prevents carbon deposition and inhibits sintering¹³⁻¹⁶, albeit at the cost of losing a substantial fraction of the catalytically active Pt sites.

Germanium was recently suggested by Jimenez-Izal *et al.*¹⁷ as a dopant for small Pt clusters to inhibit coking and sintering under conditions of alkane dehydrogenation. Supported Pt₂Ge clusters were predicted to be more sinter-resistant than Pt₃, Pt₂Sn, and Pt₂Si clusters, and to be highly active for ethane dehydrogenation to ethylene, while resisting deeper dehydrogenation to form coke. Although density functional theory (DFT) simulations were promising, previous

experimental work on Ge-containing catalysts was not always successful. For example, several studies found that activity for dehydrogenation of cyclohexane was substantially lower for PtGe catalysts than for analogous Pt catalysts^{18,19}. Note, however, that these studies focused on catalysts with particle sizes much larger than the sub-nano clusters examined here. Here we report a novel approach to improving cluster catalyst stability, in which *self-limiting* coking converts the alumina-supported Pt_nGe_x catalyst clusters to a $Pt_nGe_xC_y$ form that is catalytically active and thermally and chemically stable.

Results

Pt₄Ge/alumina characterization. As described in the Methods section, Pt₄Ge/alumina samples were prepared by soft-landing mass-selected Pt₄ clusters on thin-film alumina supports, followed by Ge addition by exposure to GeCl₄ and H₂. The cluster coverage was 3.8×10^{13} clusters/cm², equivalent to 0.1 ML Pt, in the form of Pt₄ clusters. S/TEM imaging on both carbon and alumina-coated aluminum grids is described in the supplementary information (Fig. S1). Individual atoms were not resolved, but from the cluster spot densities, sizes, and stability under the e-beam, we conclude that small Pt_n are stable on both carbon and alumina.

X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) were used to probe the electronic properties of the Pt_nGe/alumina catalysts and measure the Ge:Pt stoichiometry, which was found to be 1.07:4, i.e., roughly one Ge atom was deposited *per* Pt₄ cluster. In addition, there was some non-specific Ge deposition on the alumina support, but as shown below and in the supporting information, this alumina-bound Ge is not catalytically active itself, and has little effect on the catalytic properties of Pt_n clusters deposited on a Ge-treated alumina support. As shown in Figure 1, the Ge 2p_{3/2} peak for Pt₄Ge is shifted slightly to lower binding energy compared to that for Ge bound directly to the alumina support, reflecting the difference in electronic environment.

Cluster structures from DFT. Figure 2 shows the thermally accessible isomers for (Fig. 2A) Pt₄/α-Al₂O₃ and (Fig. 2B) Pt₄Ge/α-Al₂O₃ calculated using global optimization at the DFT level, as described in the methods section. The predicted isomer populations at 700 K, near the upper end of the experimental temperature range, are given as P_{700K}. For Pt₄/alumina, the global minimum structure (GM) is a spin-singlet, but all other thermally-accessible local minima (LM) are spin-triplets. The structures have Pt atoms with both positive and negative charges, but in all cases, there is net support-to-cluster electron transfer (ΔQ). For Pt₄Ge/alumina, the GM and all thermally accessible LMs are singlets, with substantial Ge-to-Pt₄ electron transfer, they also all have net support-to-cluster electron transfer.

Ethylene TPD analysis. For selective alkane dehydrogenation, the desired product is the alkene, and to avoid coking, it is critical that the nascent alkene product desorbs from the catalyst, rather than undergoing further dehydrogenation that ultimately results in carbon deposition. At the same time, it is desirable that the binding energy of the alkene on the catalyst be high because it should lower the barrier for the alkane-to-alkene reaction. To probe the branching between alkene desorption vs. unwanted dehydrogenation/coking, we have adopted the strategy of adsorbing ethylene on the catalyst at low temperature, then measuring, using temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), the branching between desorption of intact ethylene, vs. hydrogen desorption, which signals dehydrogenation and carbon deposition. To directly examine the propensity toward carbon deposition, we have also measured the C 1s XPS intensities after multiple ethylene adsorption/desorption cycles.

Figure 3 shows TPD data collected for Pt₄/alumina and Pt₄Ge/alumina samples, both with identical, 0.1 ML-equivalent of Pt deposited as Pt₄ clusters. The data shown are from experiments in which 21 sequential TPD runs were done for each sample. For each run, the sample was first exposed to a saturation dose of C₂D₄ (10 L) at 150 K, and then heated at 3 K/sec

to 750 K while mass-spectrometrically monitoring desorption of C_2D_4 and D_2 . No signal was observed for desorption of acetylene or other hydrocarbon species, and no additional D_2 desorbed in test experiments in which the samples were ramped to higher temperatures, indicating that ethylene either desorbed intact, or dehydrogenated to $2 C_{(ads)} + 2 D_{2(gas)}$.

For comparison, the figure also shows the desorption signals observed from the alumina and Ge-treated alumina (Ge/alumina) supports with no Pt/PtGe clusters. For both supports, C_2D_4 corresponding to a few percent of a monolayer adsorbed during the 150 K dose, desorbing below 250 K when heated. This support-bound C_2D_4 might be bound at defects in the alumina film, for example. No D_2 desorption was observed, showing that neither the alumina nor Ge/alumina supports were active for ethylene dehydrogenation, and as might be expected, the desorption signals in repeated runs were unchanged.

During the 1st TPD from the Pt₄/alumina sample, there was substantial C_2D_4 desorption in the 250 – 450 K range, corresponding to ethylene binding to the Pt₄ clusters, in addition to a lower temperature feature attributed primarily to weak binding to the alumina support. D_2 desorbed in a broad feature extending from 250 K to 750 K, implying that many of the C_2D_4 molecules dehydrogenated, liberating D_2 and depositing carbon. During the 2nd run there was substantially less C_2D_4 desorption above 250 K and a general shift to desorption at lower temperatures, implying fewer and weaker C_2D_4 binding sites. The amount of D_2 desorption also decreased, suggesting that dehydrogenation occurs primarily for strongly bound C_2D_4 , but the number of such sites was much smaller in the 2nd TPD cycle. As additional cycles were carried out, the decrease in C_2D_4 desorption at high temperatures, and the reduction in D_2 desorption continued, with the rate of change slowing as the clusters were mostly deactivated.

The 21 TPD run experiments took >20 hours each, making repetition impractical and raising the possibility that surface contamination might have influenced the results in later cycles.

Therefore, we also carried out repeated experiments studying the effects of the first six TPD runs, which, indeed, were responsible for most of the change in catalyst properties. Quantitative analysis of the desorption is based on these six-TPD experiments. As described elsewhere¹³ it is possible to calibrate the absolute sensitivity of the TPD system, and Table S1 gives the numbers of C₂D₄ and D₂ molecules desorbing *per* Pt₄ cluster in each of the 6 TPD runs, averaged over the four available data sets. Because there was no evidence of adsorbed hydrogen remaining at 750 K, the number of C atoms deposited should be equal to the number of D₂ molecules desorbing, and the total number C₂D₄ molecules adsorbed during each 150 K dose can be estimated as the number C₂D₄ desorbing + half the number of D₂ desorbing. During the 1st TPD, an average of ~2.9 C₂D₄/Pt₄ were adsorbed, of which ~56% desorbed intact, with the remainder dehydrogenating to liberate D₂ and deposited an average of ~2.5 C atoms/cluster. Because of the cluster isomer distribution, some cluster-to-cluster variation is expected, but we interpret the 1st TPD desorption numbers as indication that three C₂D₄ molecules typically adsorbed per cluster at 150 K, two of which typically desorbed intact upon heating, the other one decomposed to liberate 2 D₂(gas) and deposited 2 C per cluster, on average. By the 6th TPD cycle, the number of C₂D₄ adsorbed *per* Pt₄ had dropped ~58% to just ~1.23, of which ~82% desorbed intact, with the remainder decomposing to deposit C and liberate D₂. For the Pt₄/alumina sample, the total D₂ desorption during the 6 TPD runs corresponded to the deposition of ~5.75 C atoms *per* deposited Pt₄ cluster.

Pt₄Ge/alumina presents a striking contrast. As described in the Methods, the final step in Pt₄Ge/alumina preparation involved 750 K heating to desorb residual Cl and hydrogen (as HCl and H₂ – Fig. S2), and to emphasize the point that the Pt₄Ge/alumina samples had already been heated once prior to the initial C₂D₄ TPD runs, the TPD cycles in Fig. 3 D and E are numbered starting with “2nd TPD”. The C₂D₄ desorption observed in this 2nd TPD for Pt₄Ge/alumina was

quite similar in both intensity and structure to that in the 1st run on Pt₄/alumina, with a low-temperature component at least partly due to desorption from the Ge/alumina substrate, and a high-temperature component attributed to sites on the Pt₄Ge clusters. In contrast, D₂ desorption (i.e., carbon deposition) was much weaker for Pt₄Ge than in either the 1st or 2nd TPD runs for Pt₄/alumina, and had a bi-modal temperature dependence, suggesting that what little D₂ desorbed, was produced by two processes with different activation energies. The D₂ desorption features can, in principle, be fit to extract E_a values, requiring some assumption about the kinetic order of the rate-limiting step. We previously examined D₂ TPD from small Pt_n/alumina under conditions similar to those here²⁰, observing recombinative desorption starting at ~230 K, peaking just below 300 K, and terminating at ~450 K. The fact that the desorption features for D₂ generated by C₂D₄ decomposition do not match the recombinative feature observed in D₂ TPD, suggests that some other step in the D₂ production pathway is rate-limiting. For simplicity, we assume that this step follows 1st order kinetics²¹, and further assume a prefactor of 10¹⁵ sec⁻¹. This crude approximation gives effective (or averaged over multiple accessible pathways) E_a values of ~1.1 eV for the 350 K feature, and ~2.5 eV for the 500 K feature, in the range observed for C-H activation in the DFT calculations. During subsequent TPD cycles, there continued to be a small and reducing amount of D₂ production, and the C₂D₄ desorption behavior evolved, but note that when a steady state had been reached after ~15 runs, the C₂D₄ desorption, particularly at higher temperatures, was substantially higher for Pt₄Ge than for Pt₄.

Again, quantitative desorption analysis was done for the first 6 TPD where multiple experiments were available. The total number of C₂D₄ molecules adsorbed *per* Pt₄Ge cluster in the 2nd TPD was ~1.71, of which ~86% desorbed intact, with the balance decomposing to liberate D₂ and deposit ~0.5 C/cluster on average (Table S2). Given that C atoms deposit in pairs, we interpret this to mean that the Pt₄Ge clusters initially had one or two C₂D₄ molecules

adsorbed, and that on ~25% of the clusters, one ethylene decomposed to deposit two C atoms. Thus, the probability of carbon deposition during this 1st TPD run was ~one-fourth that for the Pt₄/alumina samples. By the 6th TPD cycle, the number adsorbing C₂D₄ molecules was still ~1.46/cluster, of which 91% desorbed intact, with the balance decomposing to liberate D₂ and deposit just ~0.28 C/Pt₄Ge cluster. Thus, during the 2nd TPD for Pt₄Ge/alumina, the number of ethylene adsorbing *per* cluster was ~41% *lower* than in the 1st TPD for Pt₄/alumina, but by the 6th TPD, the number was ~20% *higher* for Pt₄Ge. We interpret this to imply that addition of a Ge atom reduced the initial number of ethylene binding sites, but the binding sites, and particularly the catalytically important strong/high temperature binding sites, survived much better under reaction conditions for Pt₄Ge than for Pt₄.

From the total D₂ desorption during the 6 TPD runs, we estimate that the total carbon deposition on Pt₄Ge/alumina amounts to ~1.8 C atoms *per* deposited Pt₄Ge cluster, which is less than a third the total estimated for Pt₄/alumina (5.75 C/cluster). It should be noted that due to uncertainties in the intensity calibration process, the absolute desorption numbers given here and in Tables S1 and S2 are uncertain by ~50%, however, the relative uncertainties for comparing TPD data in different experiments are smaller – on the order of ±10%. Thus, the TPD data indicate that Pt₄/alumina cokes more than a factor of three faster than Pt₄Ge/alumina.

Carbon deposition analysis. Carbon deposition was also probed directly by C 1s XPS after the 6 TPDs, as summarized in Figs. 3C and 3F. Also shown are the C 1s XP spectra measured for Pt-free alumina and Ge/alumina samples after 6 C₂D₄ TPD. The signals are weak because the coverage of clusters, responsible for most carbon deposition, was small, as is the C 1s photoemission cross section. Nonetheless, it is clear that the C 1s signal for Pt₄/alumina is substantially larger than the signal for the alumina support, and after subtracting the support contribution, the net carbon deposition corresponds to $\sim 8 \pm 5$ C atoms/cluster. The C/Pt ratio

was calculated assuming both C and Pt are in the surface layer, in which case $C/Pt = (I_C \cdot \sigma_{Pt}) / (I_{Pt} \cdot \sigma_C)$, where I_C and I_{Pt} are the integrated intensities for the C 1s and Pt 4d peaks, and σ_C and σ_{Pt} are the sublevel photoemission cross sections²². The C 1s signal for the Pt₄Ge/alumina sample is smaller, and after subtracting the support contribution, the carbon deposition is estimated to be 3 ± 3 C atoms/Pt₄Ge cluster. Thus, both the absolute number of deposited C atoms/cluster, and the ~3:1 ratio of C deposition on Pt₄ compared to Pt₄Ge, are consistent with the values derived from analysis of D₂ TPD.

To provide additional insight into the carbon/Pt morphology, the samples were also probed by low energy He⁺ ion scattering (ISS) before and after 6 TPDs (Fig. 4). Example ISS spectra shown as insets have peaks due to He⁺ scattering from individual Pt, Ge, Al, and O atoms in the top-most sample layer, superimposed on a smooth background from multiple or sub-surface scattering processes. The background rises sharply at lower energies, preventing direct observation of surface carbon. The main plots in Fig. 4 show how the background-subtracted Pt and Ge peak intensities vary as a function of exposure to the ~0.35 μ A He⁺ beam, which slowly sputters materials from the surface. To compensate for any He⁺ intensity variations, the Pt and Ge intensities are normalized to the total (Pt+Ge+Al+O) intensity, which is nearly invariant under He⁺ exposure.

For as-deposited Pt₄/alumina (Fig. 4A), the Pt ISS intensity initially increased slightly, then slowly declined at long exposures as Pt atoms were slowly sputtered from the surface. The slight increase was attributed to exposure of additional Pt due to sputter removal of a small coverage of adventitious adsorbates, e.g. H₂ or CO, which have partial pressures $\leq \sim 5 \times 10^{-11}$ Torr in the UHV system. If an as-deposited Pt₄/alumina sample is briefly heated to 750 K to remove the adsorbates prior to ISS analysis (Fig. 4B), the Pt intensity is substantially higher than in the unheated sample, and simply decreases with exposure time as Pt is sputtered. Note that if the Pt₄

clusters had sintered at 750K to form larger, multilayer clusters on the surface, this would have substantially *decreased* the Pt ISS intensity, thus such extensive sintering is ruled out by the result in Fig. 4B, consistent with the conclusions from the TEM data. The initial Pt ISS intensity for Pt₄/alumina after a single C₂D₄ TPD experiment (Fig. 4C) was ~18% smaller than that for the 750 K heated Pt₄/alumina sample in Fig. 4B, suggesting some attenuation of Pt signal by deposited carbon, and the attenuation increased after 6 TPDs (Fig. 4D), as expected.

The as-prepared Pt₄Ge/alumina sample was probed both before (Fig. 4E) and after (Fig. 4F) the 750 K heating used to remove residual H and Cl from clusters. For the unheated clusters, the initial Pt and Ge intensities were small, increasing as the adsorbed H and Cl were sputtered, exposing underlying Pt and Ge atoms, and then decreasing slightly at long exposures as Pt and Ge were lost to sputtering. For the sample probed after 750 K heating (Fig. 4F), the initial Pt and Ge intensities were similar to the maximum intensities seen for the unheated sample, i.e., removing the adsorbates by heating vs. He⁺ sputtering had similar effects. The initial Pt ISS signal for the heated Pt₄Ge/alumina sample was ~37% smaller than the signal observed for heated Pt₄/alumina, presumably reflecting some shadowing or blocking of He⁺ scattering from Pt by the Ge atom. The 37% lower Pt ISS intensity was quite similar to the 41% lower total adsorbed C₂D₄ measured in the initial Pt₄Ge/alumina TPD (Tables S1 and S2). For Pt₄Ge/alumina samples that were heated to 750 K then subjected to 1 or 6 TPD runs (Fig. 4G and H), the Pt intensities were attenuated compared to the heated sample, as expected from the fact that some carbon deposition occurred.

The post-6-TPD initial Pt ISS intensity for the Pt₄/alumina sample (Fig. 4D) was ~44% attenuated, compared to the initial intensity of the 750 K heated Pt₄/alumina sample. It is not surprising that there was attenuation, given the carbon deposition observed by TPD and XPS (~6 C/cluster from TPD, ~8 C/cluster from XPS). Indeed, the surprise is that the attenuation was not

much larger. For example, 5- and 20-fold attenuations of the Pt ISS signals were found to result from adsorption of just a single layer of H or O atoms, respectively, on sub-nano Pt_n/SiO₂²³. Thus, the much smaller Pt ISS attenuation indicates that the C atoms must be bound in sites where they have little effect on He⁺ scattering from Pt – such as cluster periphery or buried in the cluster core. For the Pt₄Ge/alumina sample after 6 TPDs (Fig. 4H), the initial Pt signal was ~31% attenuated, relative to the heated Pt₄Ge/alumina (Fig. 4F), which can be compared to the amount of C deposition seen from TPD (~1.8/cluster) and XPS (~3/cluster). For both Pt₄ and Pt₄Ge samples, ISS indicates that a significant fraction of the Pt atoms remained accessible to He⁺ scattering after 6 TPD runs.

To summarize the experiments, adding a single Ge atom reduces carbon deposition by a factor of ~three, but there is still significant carbon deposition for Pt₄Ge, amounting to two or three C atoms/cluster after 6 TPD runs. Nonetheless, the Pt₄Ge clusters retain most of their strong/high temperature ethylene binding sites, even after 21 TPD runs, while these the high temperature sites are almost entirely suppressed for Pt₄/alumina. Questions we seek to address are: Why is carbon deposition only partly suppressed for Pt₄Ge/alumina? What is the nature of the strong (high temperature) ethylene binding sites retained for Pt₄Ge but lost for Pt₄/alumina? And why, despite retaining strong C₂D₄ binding sites, does Pt₄Ge clusters nearly stop producing D₂? DFT was used to address these questions and also to examine the activity of the model catalysts for the ethane-to-ethylene dehydrogenation reaction, which cannot be studied under surface science conditions.

DFT of ethane, ethylene, and acetylene C-H activation barriers. Pt₄Ge/alumina clusters are found to strongly bind and activate ethane on all thermally accessible isomers (Fig. 2B), and there are well over 50 configurations for C₂H₆-Pt₄Ge/alumina with energies below 0.4 eV, i.e., with non-zero thermal populations at 700 K. All of the low-lying configurations appear to

activate ethane, as shown by C-H bond elongations ranging from 1.140 Å to 1.158 Å, compared to the un-activated C-H bond length of 1.09 Å. Figure 5A illustrates two reactant configurations and gives energies (horizontal lines) for a dozen more. The two illustrated are built on the GM and on the second local minimum (LM2) for the bare Pt₄Ge cluster. The LM2-based structures are singled out for reasons that will be made clear shortly. Once adsorbates bind to LM2, the structures are labeled LM', because their thermal accessibility is changed by the binding of adsorbates. For all the lowest-energy configurations, the activation barriers for breaking the first C-H bond are found to be ≤ 0.4 eV, well below the energy for desorption of ethane from the clusters (≤ 0.6 eV, see Fig. S3 and text). Thus, DFT shows that ethane should bind to all isomers of Pt₄Ge/alumina, and dehydrogenate in preference to desorbing. Another factor that tends to promote dehydrogenation is that the H atom products readily recombine and desorb as H₂ at moderate temperatures, as shown in Fig. 3E.

To examine the pathways that must ultimately lead to carbon deposition, we next performed DFT calculations of ethylene and acetylene binding and dehydrogenation on the thermally-accessible isomers of the Pt₄Ge clusters (Figs. 5B and 5C). Note that adsorbates can bind with different energies on different cluster isomers, which can significantly change isomer populations, with important effects on the mechanism. We found that ethylene predominantly binds to the Pt₄Ge clusters (including the most abundant GM) in the π -mode, i.e. with the ethylene π bond coordinated to a single Pt atom, retaining the C sp²-hybridization. The barriers for such π -mode-bound ethylene to undergo C-H dissociation are higher than the desorption energies, and thus π -mode-bound ethylene is predicted to mostly desorb intact, rather than undergoing further dehydrogenation, consistent with the small D₂ desorption branching observed for the Pt₄Ge/alumina catalyst. Importantly, however, one of the thermally-accessible isomers of ethylene-Pt₄Ge, LM' (corresponding to LM2 of the bare cluster), binds ethylene in a di- σ mode

(Fig. 5B), and in this configuration the barrier to C-H dissociation is significantly lower than in any of the π -mode-bound configurations. LM2 for the bare cluster has P_{700K} of only 0.3% – far too small to account for the amount of D_2 desorption observed during TPD. However, the ethylene di- σ bond in LM' is strong, stabilizing LM' and increasing its P_{700K} to ~3%.

We propose that dehydrogenation on an isomer with small, but significant population, accounts for carbon deposition being only partly suppressed for Pt_4Ge /alumina. Specifically, during each TPD cycle, most of the Pt_4Ge would desorb C_2D_4 intact, but the small fraction in LM' configurations would dehydrogenate C_2D_4 , giving rise to the observed small D_2 signals. Isomerization between the thermally accessible isomers within the ensemble ensures that LM' is re-populated each TPD cycle, thus LM' acts as a “gateway” isomer that keeps dehydrogenating ethylene on a fraction of the cluster population during repeated TPD cycling. We expect that all of the clusters eventually pass through this gateway during repeated TPD cycling, and become coked. The calculated population of the C_2D_4 -LM' isomer (~3%) is smaller than the population (~25%) suggested by D_2 TPD signal, however, we note that isomer populations depend exponentially on their energies, thus amplifying the effects of small DFT errors.

For coke to form, dehydrogenation must proceed further, beyond acetylene. With acetylene bound to Pt_4Ge (Fig. 5C), the isomer populations adjust again: the LM' isomer drops even further in energy relative to the GM, such that its P_{700K} increases to ~10% of the total population. The population dehydrogenates acetylene with a high propensity, rather than desorbing it, as suggested by the fact that in a number of the low-lying isomers of C_2H_2 - Pt_4Ge /alumina, acetylene dehydrogenates spontaneously (Fig. S5). For the thermally accessible isomers in which C_2H_2 remains intact, the computed first C-H dissociation barriers are well below the desorption energies for intact acetylene, which exceed 2 eV from all isomers (Fig. 5C). Notably, LM'-based isomers continue to dehydrogenate more aggressively than GM-based isomers,

judging by the computed barriers, and new Pt₄Ge core isomers are stabilized due to the strong binding of acetylene, provide lower-barrier routes for dehydrogenation (Fig. 5C, dashed lines). Hence, theory predicts that once acetylene forms on the Pt₄Ge cluster, regardless of the isomer, it will always dehydrogenate, though higher-energy isomers will dehydrogenate at lower temperatures, some with dehydrogenation barriers less than 1 eV. This prediction is consistent with the observation that no intact acetylene desorption is ever seen for Pt₄Ge/alumina in the experiments (Fig. S6). Thus, in ethylene TPD (and in the ethane-to-ethylene reaction), we predict that Ge addition largely, but not completely, suppresses carbon deposition, such that in repeated TPD cycles (or long reaction times) the clusters will slowly all become coked by at least a pair of carbon atoms, with the LM' isomer serving as a gateway to coking.

To assess the favorability of dehydrogenation versus C-C bond breaking (cracking), we computed the energetics (and barriers) of cracking compared to C-H activation. For the Pt₄Ge cluster, we found no cracking pathways that could compete with C-H activation either thermodynamically or kinetically. The single structure that might compete is shown in Fig. S4, however, but it is both thermodynamically more uphill than any C-H activated endpoints and has a higher barrier than any of the LM' dehydrogenation barriers.

The next question posed by the experiments is how Pt₄Ge/alumina retains its high-temperature ethylene binding sites after 21 TPDs, even though the C 1s XPS and ISS results indicated significant carbon deposition. The DFT results indicate that once dehydrogenation has gone beyond ethylene, it should proceed to completion, depositing a pair of C atoms. Therefore, we study the Pt₄GeC₂/alumina system with DFT, finding, surprisingly, that only a single Pt₄GeC₂ isomer was thermally accessible (Fig. 6A). This structure is recognizably a relative of LM' that has incorporated two carbon atoms as an intact C₂ unit into the middle of the cluster, maximizing the number of Pt-C bonds. Theory thus predicts that all the Pt₄Ge clusters will eventually reach

340 this single Pt_4GeC_2 structure as they coke via the LM' gateway isomer. Because the carbon is
341 located in the center of the Pt_4 ring, it does not physically block any Pt sites, in agreement with
342 the observed minimal Pt ISS attenuation.

343 The presence of C_2 does, however, alter the electronic structure of the cluster, apparently
344 stabilizing the system, as it collapses the Pt_4Ge isomer distribution to just the one structure in
345 Fig. 6A – a thermodynamic sink. The C_2 unit acts as an oxidant, developing a net negative
346 charge of -0.42 e, while the Ge atom has a +0.80 e positive charge, i.e. it loses further electron
347 density compared to Ge in Pt_4Ge . The overall charge on the Pt_4 moiety remains negative,
348 decreased slightly from the values typical for Pt_4Ge isomers, but is still higher than that for
349 $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$ (Figs. 2A and 6A). The interaction of C_2 with Pt_4Ge is strikingly different from its
350 interaction with Pt_4 , as shown in Fig. S7. To investigate the electronic structure differences
351 between the Pt_4C_2 and Pt_4GeC_2 clusters in more detail we calculated the molecular orbitals
352 (MOs) of unsupported anionic gas-phase models in which the coordinates of all atoms were held
353 fixed at values determined for the supported clusters (Fig. S8 A and B). These minimal models
354 are validated by their Bader charge distributions, which show the same trends as their supported
355 counterparts^{24,25}. The MO diagrams (Fig. S8C) show that the Ge atom in Pt_4GeC_2 is in the +2
356 oxidation state; the first three unoccupied MOs are all Ge-Pt antibonding combinations with
357 predominant Ge 4p character, while the Ge 4s-based MO is found far below the HOMO in
358 energy. Of further interest is the LUMO of Pt_4C_2 , which corresponds to the HOMO in Pt_4GeC_2
359 after accepting an electron pair from Ge. This orbital has clear C-C π bonding character, so the
360 effect of adding Ge to Pt_4C_2 is to strengthen the C-C bonding in the partially coked cluster.

361 While Pt_4C_2 and Pt_4GeC_2 are structurally similar, have similar total amounts of electron
362 transfer from the support, and feature the partially negatively charged C_2 unit, they differ in the
363 source of electron transfer to C_2 : In Pt_4GeC_2 , C_2 receives electrons largely from Ge, leaving Pt

still quite anionic. In Pt_4C_2 , C_2 draws electrons from Pt, leaving it closer to the charge neutral state. Thus, it appears that in $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$, Ge and C_2 are in a synergistic electronic relationship that preserves the net negative charge on the Pt_4 moiety. Hence, Pt sites are neither blocked nor significantly changed electronically in $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ as compared to Pt_4Ge , and therefore, it is not surprising that Pt_4GeC_2 retains the C_2D_4 binding properties seen in the TPD. Hence, we expect $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ to exhibit the catalytic activity and selectivity comparable to those of $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$.

The important remaining questions are whether $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ is still active for ethane-to-ethylene dehydrogenation, and whether it is selective against additional carbon deposition, thereby resisting deactivation. Ethane dehydrogenation on Pt_4GeC_2 is addressed in Fig. 6B. Binding of ethane and ethylene on the Pt_4GeC_2 cluster in various geometries was sampled (Figs. S9 and S10), and then the barriers for C-H dissociation calculated. We again found that the barriers to ethane C-H activation were generally lower than the desorption energies for ethane from the cluster, suggesting that the Pt_4GeC_2 cluster should still be highly active for ethane to ethylene dehydrogenation. To be stable with respect to further carbon deposition, it is necessary that the resulting ethylene desorb instead of dehydrogenating further. For ethylene on $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ (Figs. S10 and 6C), some configurations were calculated to have highly endothermic (>1.2 eV) dehydrogenation, and in others, the activation barriers were high (>2 eV). Some structures showed the possibility for dehydrogenation of ethylene, with barriers between 1.3-1.5 eV to access structures that are not highly endothermic, however, we note that these barriers are higher than those for the dehydrogenation of ethylene on the Pt_4Ge cluster, indicating that the Pt_4GeC_2 cluster is even more selective than the initial Pt_4Ge catalyst. Acetylene dehydrogenation by Pt_4GeC_2 (Fig 6D) either retains very high barriers (>2 eV), or has such low barriers for the reverse reaction of re-hydrogenation that dehydrogenation remains unlikely. We

note that there is only one thermally accessible acetylene binding mode (Fig 6D, left-most inset), which involves the binding of acetylene to two Pt atoms, in a mixed π -/ σ -fashion, as well as binding to a C in the C₂ unit. This collapse of accessible modes is reminiscent of that of Pt₄Ge to Pt₄GeC₂, which is likewise likely attributable to the formation of multiple Pt-C bonds, as well as an additional C-C bond. It is therefore possible that the cluster cokes further, albeit at an even slower rate once coke has begun to form, based on the heights of C-H activation barriers for ethylene and acetylene on the Pt₄GeC₂ cluster.

In order to assess possible coke formation via cracking on Pt₄GeC₂, we also computed the energetics of the C-C bond scission on relevant intermediates. A few of the pathways found are thermodynamically viable, however the kinetics render them unlikely compared to either C-H activation or desorption (Fig. S11), with the exception of acetylene cracking, where the barrier remains ~ 0.3 eV higher than the lowest barrier for C-H activation.

Ultimately, however, DFT calculations suggest that while coke formation on the Pt₄Ge system is not avoided, the cluster nonetheless retains its active and selective nature towards alkane dehydrogenation. Thus, the conclusion is that selectively-coked Pt₄GeC₂/alumina, generated under reaction conditions by a self-limiting coking process, is the actual stable, active, and selective catalyst for alkane-to-alkene dehydrogenation.

Conclusion

In summary, from the TPD, XPS, and DFT results, we found that Pt₄Ge/alumina promotes intact desorption of ethylene in ethane dehydrogenation, largely, but not completely preventing carbon deposition. There is one minority isomer of Pt₄Ge/alumina (LM2, or LM') that acts as a gateway to carbon deposition on Pt₄Ge/alumina, gradually resulting in all the Pt₄Ge clusters becoming coked. However, defying expectations, coking is not detrimental to catalytic activity, and instead preserves the desired catalytic properties while dramatically enhancing cluster

catalyst stability. The coking is self-limiting: once $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ forms, it dramatically decreases the further deposition of carbon by ethylene dehydrogenation via increased barriers for ethylene desorption, eventually reaching a steady-state catalyst where no further changes in the ethylene binding sites or D_2 desorption are observed experimentally. Furthermore, $\text{Pt}_4\text{GeC}_2/\text{alumina}$ still binds ethane strongly, with low activation barriers for ethane-to-ethylene conversion. Thus, the self-limiting coking of Pt_4Ge improves the selectivity of the catalyst without degrading the activity. The Ge atom in the cluster interacts with the carbon in the coked cluster, stabilizing the cluster significantly, and prevents deactivation of the cluster via either physical blocking of sites, or dramatic change in electronic structure. This moderates the tendency of the cluster to coke, enabling the self-limiting behavior. The synergy between alloying and selective coking could be a way forward in creating ultra-stable sub-nano cluster catalysts for other reactions, solving the main limiting factor hampering wide-spread use of sub-nano clusters in catalysis.

Methods

Instrument design. Past publications detailed the instrument design and protocols used in this study^{13,14,16}. Briefly, Pt_n^+ cluster ions were produced via laser ablation of a Pt target, collected by a series of quadrupole ion guides, mass selected by a quadrupole mass filter, and then guided into the ultra-high vacuum system, where they were deposited on the catalyst support. The support consisted of a thin alumina film grown on a Ta (110) single crystal, which was mounted via heater wires to a cryostat allowing temperature control in the 120 K to 1000 K range. For cleaning, the sample could be heated by electron bombardment; from behind the cryostat, a filament allowed bombardment of electrons to the single crystal, that could heat the crystal to over 2100 K. At that temperature, the alumina film and any deposited clusters desorb, and the sample was found to be clean by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

Alumina film growth. A fresh alumina film was grown on the clean Ta (110) single crystal before each experiment, by evaporating Al in 5×10^{-6} Torr of O₂ at sample temperature of 970 K. These growth conditions produce alumina with a distorted hexagonal lattice that resembles both γ -alumina (111) or α -alumina (0001)^{26,27}. Film thickness was monitored by XPS and was in the 4 to 6 nm range, which we previously found to give chemistry independent of film thickness²⁸.

Pt₄/alumina sample preparation. Pt_n⁺ clusters of the desired size, Pt₄ in this case, were deposited on the alumina film with deposition energy of ~ 1 eV/atom and coverage equivalent to ~ 0.1 monolayer (ML), corresponding to 1.5×10^{14} Pt atoms/cm². Just prior to deposition, the sample was flashed to 750 K to desorb any adventitious adsorbates, and then cluster deposition was carried out as the sample cooled, starting at 300 K.

Pt₄Ge/alumina sample preparation. The approach used to prepare alumina-supported Pt_nGe_m clusters was similar to that used in previous studies of Pt_nSn_m/alumina and Pt_nSn_m/SiO₂.^{13,29} In essence, the Pt clusters were used as seeds to obtain selective, self-limiting deposition by exposing the Pt₄/alumina sample to a 60 L dose of GeCl₄ vapor, then to 6000 L of H₂. The GeCl₄ preferentially binds to the Pt_n clusters, and the number of molecules that bind depends on the size of the cluster. When exposed to H₂, Cl reacts and desorbs as HCl, which can be detected mass spectrometrically. The final stage in the preparation was to heat the samples to 750K to desorb any remaining Cl atoms (as HCl) as well as to remove excess H atoms. The samples were characterized by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The Pt_n clusters were found to “seed” preferential Ge deposition on the clusters, resulting one Ge atom for every Pt₄ cluster deposited as discussed above. The non-specific Ge deposition at defects in the alumina support film also occurs, but ethylene temperature programmed desorption, as shown above, of the support-bound Ge atoms did not show evidence of any effects in the chemistry of ethylene

dehydrogenation. To assess that the coke suppressing effects of Pt₄Ge was not caused by the presence of Pt₄ clusters on the large amount of non-specific binding Ge on the alumina, 0.1 ML Pt₄ clusters were deposited onto the non-specific Ge dosed alumina surfaces (also 60 L of GeCl₄, then 6000 L of H₂ dosed) followed by C₂D₄ TPD, dehydrogenation of ethylene was still substantial and clear evidence of deactivation was observed with every TPD cycle, thus failing to prevent sintering and coke formation as shown in the supportive information (Fig. S12).

XPS quantification. The Ge 2p_{3/2} peak intensity for Pt₄Ge was larger than that of pure Ge, hence indicating Ge can be selective deposited on the surface of Pt₄ clusters. Samples were analyzed via Al K α XPS and the raw intensities were corrected to account for the slight changes in spectrometer sensitivity and X-ray intensity using the Al 2s intensities from the alumina support (details in Supplementary Information).

Temperature programmed desorption (TPD) experimental procedures. TPD was used to investigate C₂D₄ desorption and dehydrogenation/carbon deposition chemistry on the samples. To start each TPD cycle, the samples was held at 150 K and exposed to a 10 L dose of C₂D₄, which is sufficient to saturate all binding sites that are stable at 150 K. The sample was then heated at 3 K *per* second to 750 K, while monitoring desorption of species of interest (principally C₂D₄ and D₂) using a differentially pumped mass spectrometer that views the sample through a 2.5 mm aperture on a skimmer cone, positioned ~0.5 mm from the sample surface. The relationship between numbers of molecules desorbing from the sample and numbers of ions detected by the mass spectrometer was determined using a procedure described elsewhere¹³, calibrated by leaking C₂D₄ or D₂ into the main UHV chamber at measured pressures to create well defined fluxes of into the mass spectrometer.

Computational Methods. Global optimization of the Pt₄Ge/alumina structures was performed with plane-wave density functional theory (PW-DFT) using the Vienna Ab-initio

Simulation Package (VASP)³⁰⁻³² with projector augmented wave (PAW) potentials³³, using the PBE functional³⁴. The energy cutoff for the plane waves was chosen as 400.0 eV, and Gaussian smearing with a sigma of 0.1 was used, while the electronic energy convergence parameter was chosen as 10^{-6} eV. The D3 dispersion correction was used³⁵. The model substrate used was an α -alumina(0001) surface with cell parameters of $a = 4.807$ Å and $c = 13.126$ Å, previously found²⁰ to best match the experimental support. The lower layers of the slab were kept fixed during global optimization and subsequent adsorbate binding calculations. Only gamma-point sampling was used due to the larger supercell used in the study.

Our initial Pt₄Ge structure geometries were obtained using our in-house code PGOPT³⁶, which uses a bond-length distribution (BLDA) algorithm in order to generate structure that are faster to optimize and less likely to result in errors during optimization. Once ~200 Pt₄Ge structures had been generated, we took the thermally accessible structures within a cutoff of 0.4 eV, and generated a number of rough binding modes of C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₂H₂ using PGOPT, which we later refined with VASP local optimizations to obtain the final binding modes. The final ensemble of thermally-accessible catalyst states was computed for the initial cluster structures, and re-computed for every intermediate on the reaction profile, by weighting the optimized structures by the Boltzmann probability to be occupied at 700 K, based on DFT electronic energies.

The Pt₄GeC₂ structures were generated from the thermally accessible acetylene binding modes to Pt₄Ge by removing the hydrogens then optimizing the resulting structures with DFT. Bader charge analysis³⁷⁻⁴⁰ was performed to obtain the partial atomic charges. C-H activation barriers for low-lying and important binding modes were calculated using the climbing-image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method³⁹ and optimized until the force on all of the images was less than 0.02 eV/Å. For ethylene and acetylene, multiple non-equivalent C-H bond breaking

events were attempted, focusing on the hydrogens closest to Pt atoms. For ethane, only the elongated activated C-H bonds were broken.

DFT calculations on gas-phase models were performed with the Amsterdam Density Functional (ADF) package, version 2019.304⁴¹. The PBE functional was used for all calculations. Slater-type basis sets of triple- ζ + polarization quality were used on all atoms, with orbitals up to 4d (Pt), 3d (Ge) and 1s (C) included in the frozen core⁴².

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Author Contributions

ANA and SLA conceived and supervised the research, reviewed and edited the paper. GL and PP wrote the original draft and developed the methodology. GL performed the experimental work. PP conducted all DFT calculations. TM assisted in obtaining the initial experimental conditions and conducted TEM experiments.

Competing interests

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

630 **Additional information**

631 **Supplementary Information**

632 **Data availability** Data behind all Figs. in the paper will be uploaded to a publically available
633 archive with link provided at time of publication.

634 **Correspondence and requests for materials** should be addressed to Anastassia N. Alexandrova
635 and Scott L. Anderson.

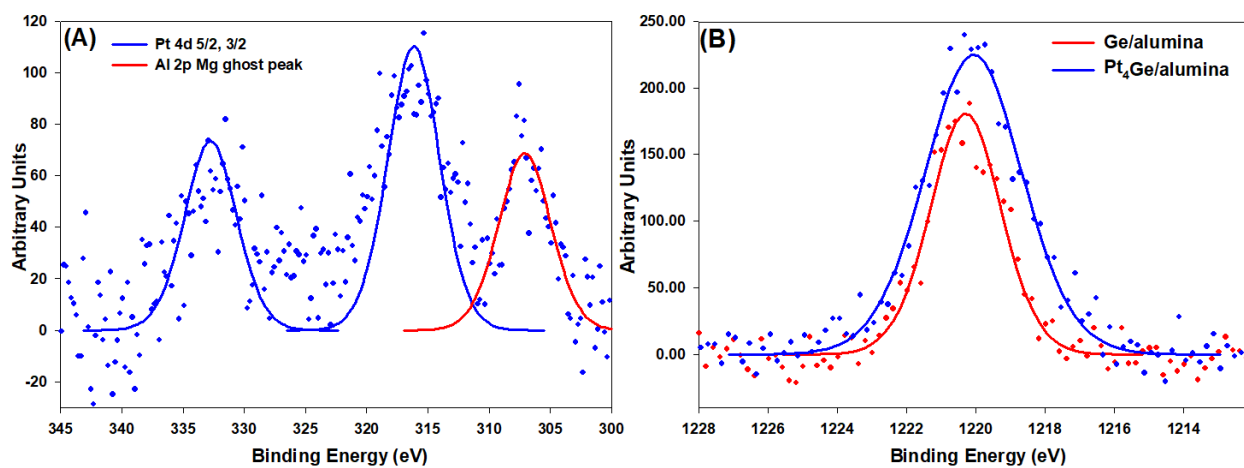


Fig. 1 XPS showing selective binding of Ge to Pt clusters. (A) XPS of Pt 4d 5/2 and 3/2 of Pt₄Ge/alumina, red colored peak is from Mg contamination in the Al source. **(B)** Ge 2p 3/2 peak for Ge/alumina in red and Pt₄Ge/alumina in blue.

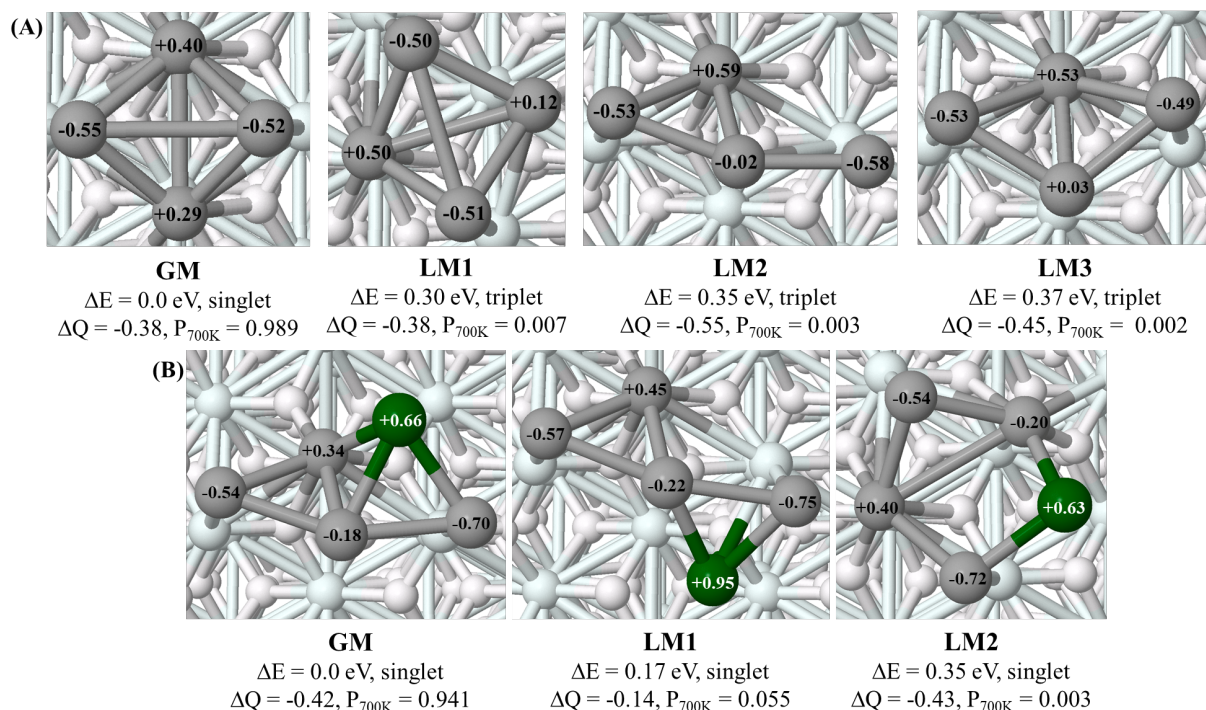


Fig. 2 Thermally accessible structures, which are within 0.4 eV of the lowest energy structure. (A) Computed thermally accessible structures of Pt₄/alumina. (B) Computed thermally accessible structures of Pt₄Ge/alumina. The spin state, net support-to-cluster electron transfer (ΔQ), Bader charges on each cluster atom, and the thermal population at 700 K (P_{700K}) are shown. GM = global minimum. For each local minimum (LM), the energy above the GM (ΔE) is given.

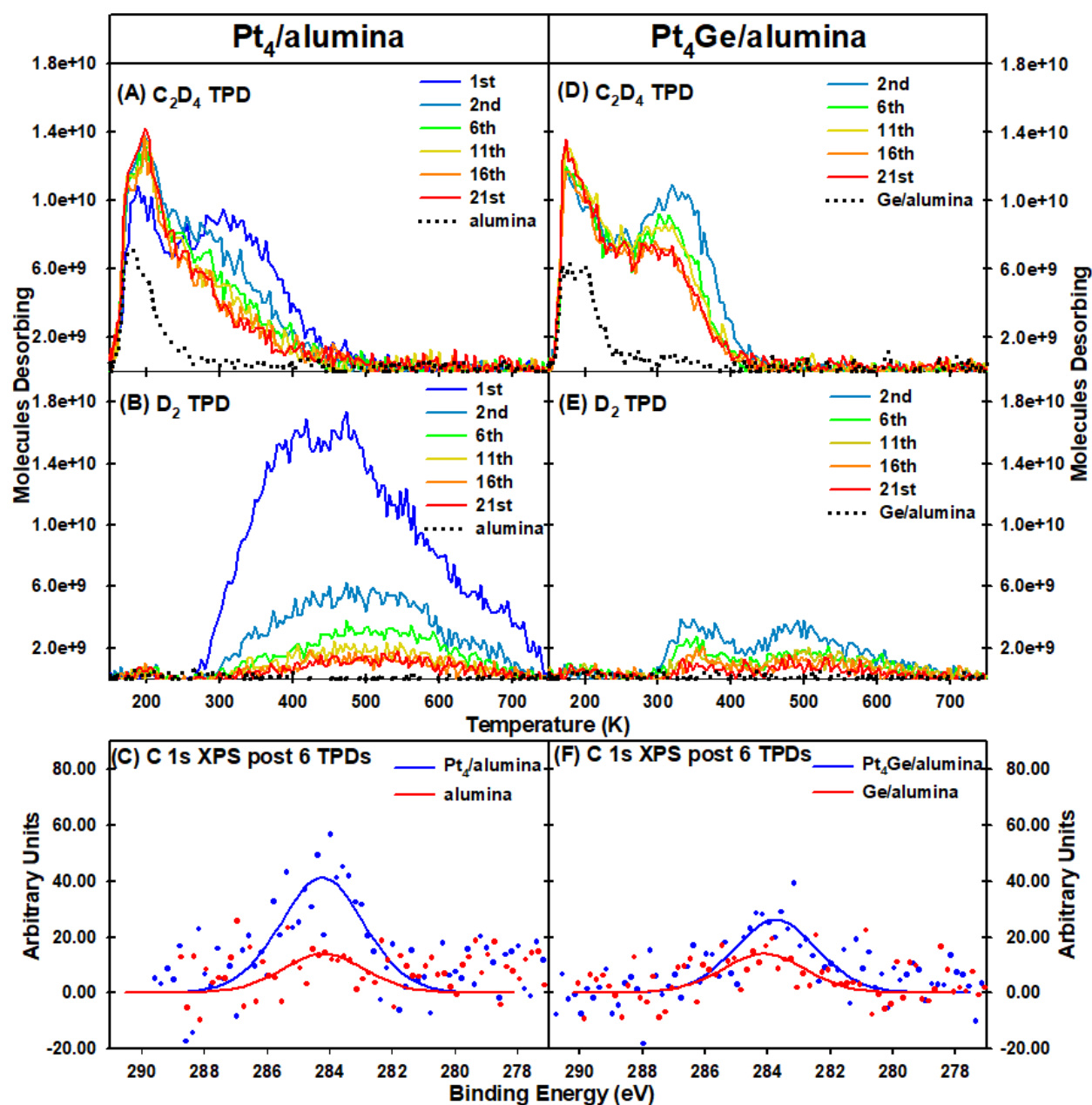


Fig. 3 Temperature Programmed Desorption (TPD) results showing C_2D_4 and D_2 desorption; with Xray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) scans of the C 1s region. Left column: $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$. Right column: $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$. (A) and (D) show desorption of intact C_2D_4 . (B) and (E) show desorption of D_2 . (C) and (F) show carbon 1s XPS from $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$ and $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$ after 6 TPD cycles, control samples (alumina and Ge/alumina) were also probed post 6 TPDs.

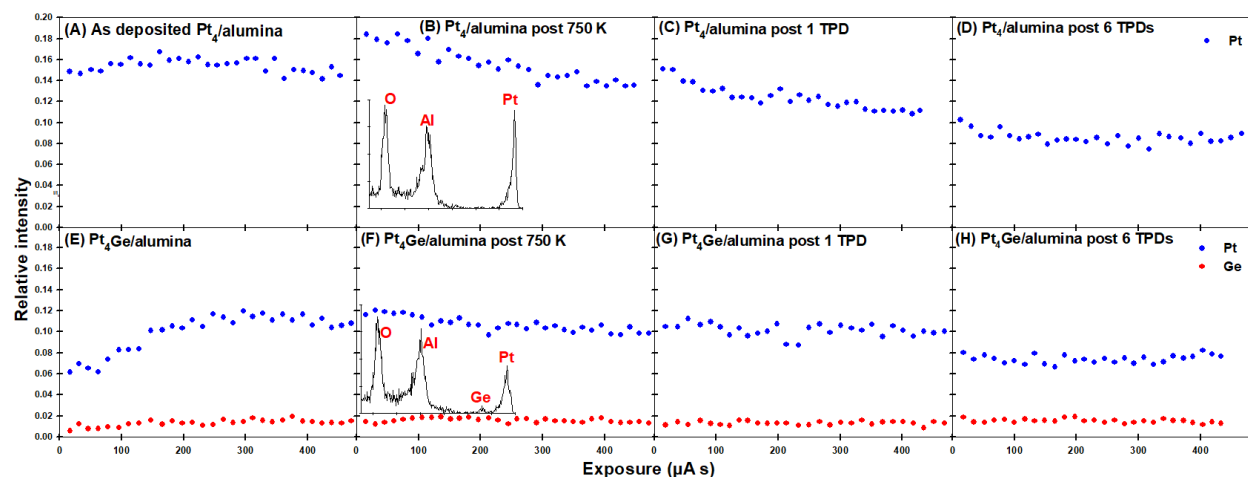


Fig. 4 Low energy He^+ ion scattering spectroscopy (ISS) showing relative intensities of Pt and Ge. (A) as deposited $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$, (B) $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$ post 750 K heat, inset shows the raw ISS at $\sim 30 \mu\text{As}$ exposure. (C) $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$ post 1 C_2D_4 TPD, (D) $\text{Pt}_4/\text{alumina}$ post 6 C_2D_4 TPDs, (E) As-prepared $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$, (F) $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$ post 750 K heat, inset shows the raw ISS at $\sim 30 \mu\text{As}$ exposure. (G) $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$ post 1 C_2D_4 TPD and (H) $\text{Pt}_4\text{Ge}/\text{alumina}$ post 6 C_2D_4 TPDs.

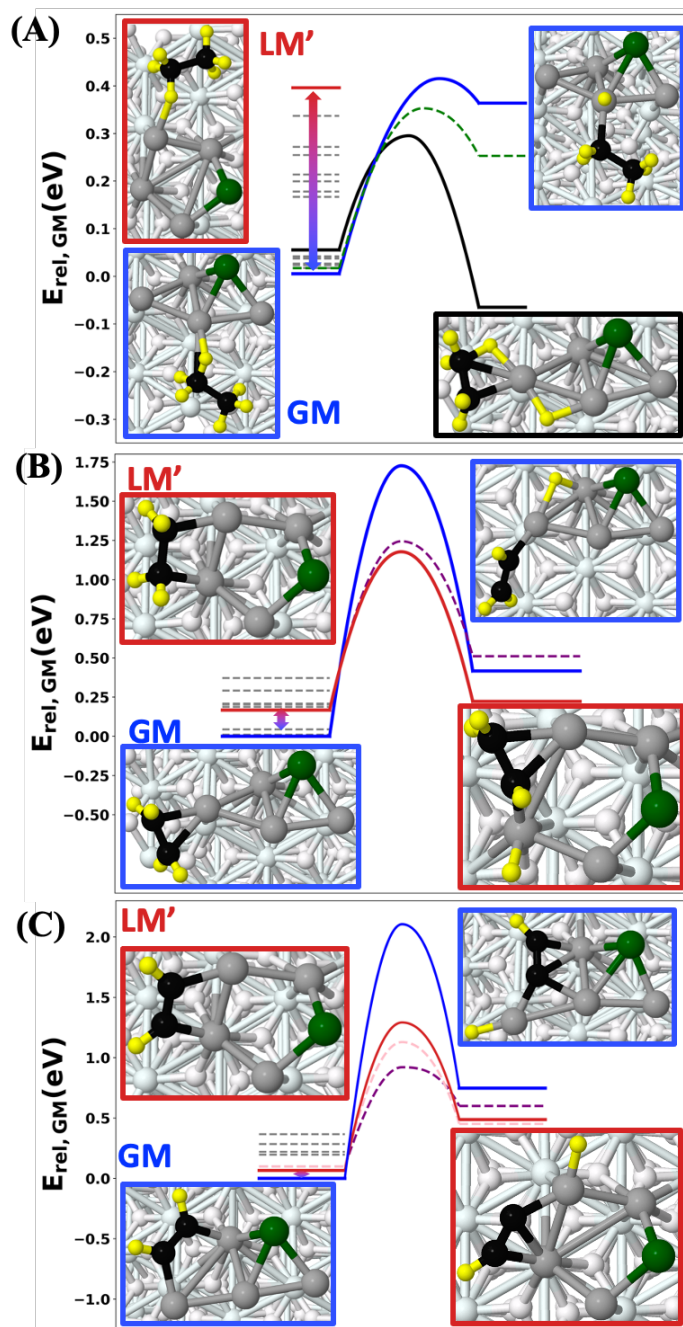


Fig. 5 Representative ethane, ethylene, and acetylene C-H activation barriers for Pt₄Ge. C-H activation barriers on Pt₄Ge/alumina thermal ensemble of states for (a) ethane (b) ethylene and (c) acetylene.

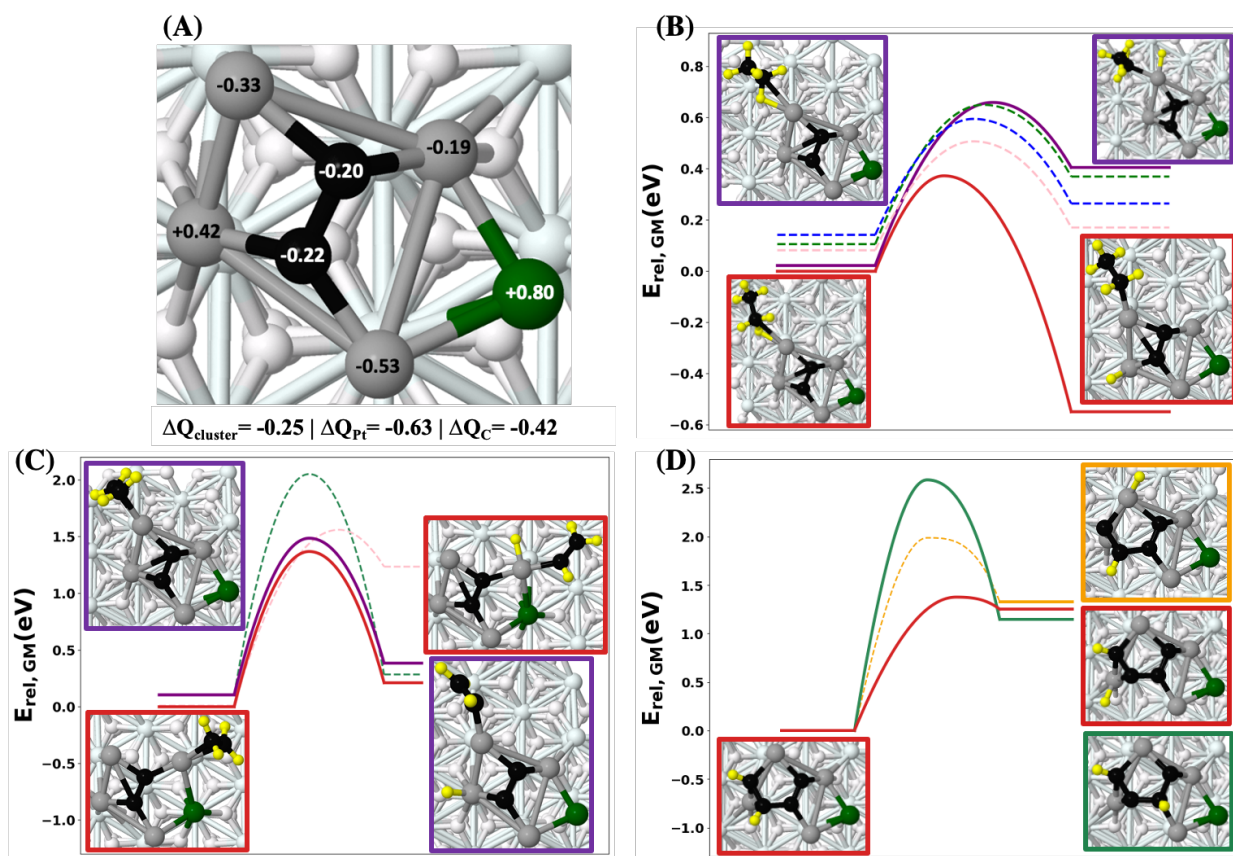


Fig. 6 Representative ethane, ethylene, and acetylene C-H activation barriers on Pt_4GeC_2 , the steady-state catalyst. (a) the one thermally accessible Pt_4GeC_2 isomer, and (b) representative C-H activation barriers for ethane, (c) ethylene, and (d) acetylene, with certain key structures inset.