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The origin of metallic conductivity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>: a first principles studyAkhil R Peeketi<sup>1,\*</sup> , Lavie Rekhi<sup>1</sup> , Alexander R Muñoz<sup>1</sup> , Rahul Jayan<sup>1</sup> , Edward F Holby<sup>1</sup> ,  
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E-mail: [peeketiakhilreddy@gmail.com](mailto:peeketiakhilreddy@gmail.com) and [tejones@lanl.gov](mailto:tejones@lanl.gov)**Keywords:** density functional theory (DFT), projected density of states (PDOS), electronic conductivity, crystal orbital Hamilton population (COHP), electrocatalysis, platinum oxides, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>

## Abstract

The platinum oxide Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> exhibits metallic conductivity even though it contains square-planar PtO<sub>4</sub> units, which in related oxides such as PtO are usually associated with insulating behavior. To identify the electronic origin of this anomalous metallicity, we performed a comprehensive first-principles study using the PBE and *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN functionals together with Hubbard *U* corrections and spin-orbit coupling (SOC). Structural benchmarks show that *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN with SOC and a moderate *U* value (< 4 eV) reproduces the experimental lattice constants and formation enthalpy, whereas larger *U* values (~8 eV) destabilize the cubic structure. Across all functionals and *U* values considered in this work, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> remains metallic. Analyses of the projected density of states, band structures, charge-density isosurfaces, and bonding characteristics demonstrate that the dominant contribution to the metallic character originates from delocalized Pt–O–Pt hybridized antibonding states at the Fermi level. Direct Pt–Pt interactions are present but contribute less strongly to the conductivity. Bader charge analysis reveals only weak Pt charge disproportionation, consistent with mixed Pt<sup>II</sup>/Pt<sup>III</sup> character, and a small charge-transfer energy that prevents localization of the Pt 5*d* electrons even at elevated *U*. In contrast, PtO develops a Mott or charge-transfer gap under modest *U* despite having the same PtO<sub>4</sub> coordination environment. These findings demonstrate that persistent Pt–O–Pt covalency is the primary driver of metallicity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and support the view that this phase can remain conductive under oxygen reduction and oxygen evolution reaction conditions in fuel cell and electrolyzer environments.

## 1. Introduction

The oxygen reduction reaction (ORR) is a key electrochemical process in fuel cells through which energy is extracted from hydrogen and oxygen gases. However, ORR is kinetically sluggish, limiting fuel cell performance and necessitating the use of catalysts. Platinum (Pt) is widely considered as the benchmark catalyst for ORR due to its high activity and stability [1–3]. It is also employed in unitized reversible fuel cells (URFCs) [4], which combine a fuel cell and an electrolyzer—responsible for the oxygen evolution reaction (OER) to generate hydrogen—into a single device. Consequently, the catalytic behavior of Pt in ORR has been extensively studied [1, 2, 5, 6]. Thermodynamically, ORR occurs at potentials below 1.23 V versus the reversible hydrogen electrode (RHE). Although Pt is a good catalyst for ORR, it still exhibits an overpotential [1, 7, 8], with practical operation typically occurring at 0.8 V to 0.9 V versus RHE [2, 5, 9]. Surface oxidation of Pt begins around 0.6 V, while bulk oxidation initiates near 1.3 V versus RHE [10–17]. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations further suggest that bulk oxides such as Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and PtO<sub>2</sub> may form at even lower potentials, around 0.65 V and 0.75 V, respectively (in accordance with the Materials Project database [18, 19]). Oxidation is more severe in URFCs, where potentials exceed 1.23 V during OER operation, leading to repeated and prolonged exposure of Pt to oxidizing environments. Such conditions can promote irreversible conversion of metallic Pt to surface or bulk oxides [10, 14, 16, 17]. The possibility of platinum surface corrosion during ORR, OER and

cycling between them has important technical and scientific consequences for fuel cells and URFCs, as metallic platinum is an effective catalyst, whereas its bulk oxides, such as PtO and PtO<sub>2</sub>, are typically semi-conducting and exhibit poor ORR performance [9].

Platinum oxide surfaces resembling Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and  $\alpha$ -PtO<sub>2</sub> are observed upon exposure to electrochemically oxidizing potentials. In particular, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> has been reported to form on Pt nanoparticles supported on substrates [20–22]—a typical design for catalysts in fuel cells and URFCs [5, 23, 24]—under mildly oxidizing conditions. Furthermore, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> could form during cycling voltages and sustain through ORR-relevant potentials in fuel cells and URFCs. While PtO and PtO<sub>2</sub> are semiconducting in nature [25–28] and are ineffective for ORR, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> exhibits metallic conductivity [29, 30], making it a plausible active phase. Recent experimental and theoretical work has explicitly linked changes in Pt–O bonding and the Pt 5*d* electronic structure to ORR and OER kinetics, highlighting the importance of oxidized Pt environments and their electronic structure in determining activity and stability [5, 6, 9].

Interestingly, both PtO and Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> contain PtO<sub>4</sub> motifs, yet the former is semiconducting while the latter is suggested to be metallic [29]. This contrast raises fundamental questions about the underlying electronic structure and bonding. Additionally, the non-integer oxidation state of Pt in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (+8/3) suggests the possibility of charge disproportionation, akin to that in Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, where Fe exists in mixed valence states as Fe<sup>II</sup>/Fe<sup>III</sup> [31]—an aspect not previously addressed for Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [29, 30]. Studies on mixed-valence transition metal oxides have shown that the interplay between cation valence, metal–oxygen covalency, and band structure can strongly influence oxygen electrocatalysis [32–34], suggesting that a similar connection may exist for possibly mixed-valence Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Given its potential presence during ORR, and its unclear electronic properties, it is essential to investigate the atomic and electronic structure of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. From a technical perspective, understanding the origin of its metallic behavior is critical for the design of Pt-based catalysts if Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> forms and persists in fuel cells and URFCs.

Although the electronic structure of metallic Pt is well captured by standard DFT using the generalized gradient approximation (GGA), a Hubbard *U* correction is often required to account for localized *d*-electrons in oxides [29, 35, 36]. While DFT+*U* has shown success in modeling 3*d* transition metal oxides [37–39], its applicability to 5*d* systems like PtO<sub>x</sub> remains unclear. The *U* in 5*d* systems is typically smaller than their 3*d* counterparts due to greater delocalization of electrons [40], and no consensus exists regarding an optimal value. While *U* can be determined from first-principles [41–43] or fit to experimental data [35, 37, 44], no single value tends to be universally applicable [37, 38, 45]. Furthermore, *U* can vary with oxidation state and chemical environment [38, 42], complicating thermodynamic calculations, which typically require a single *U* [46]. Previous work has used values as high as 7.5 eV for Pt in PtO<sub>2</sub> [35] and Pt-CeO<sub>2</sub> [36], but such values are at the strongly correlated limit and are more appropriate for 3*d* oxides [47]. For Pt-based 5*d* systems, values in the range of 1.5–2 eV are more reasonable [40]. Notably, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> remains metallic even with high *U* values [29], suggesting the choice of *U* primarily affects quantitative results such as formation enthalpies rather than qualitative properties. Meta-GGA functionals such as SCAN and its regularized form, *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN, [48, 49] offer an alternative to DFT+*U*, providing improved accuracy in describing transition metal oxides and possibly alleviating the ambiguity associated with *U*. These functionals have shown promise for 3*d* oxides such as Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni [50, 51]. Additionally, since Pt is a 5*d* element with strong spin-orbit coupling (SOC), including SOC may be necessary to accurately model its structural and electronic properties [52, 53].

To address these questions, we performed DFT calculations on Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> using the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) GGA and *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN meta-GGA functionals, both with and without a Hubbard *U* correction and SOC. This enables us to assess the influence of different computational choices on the structural and electronic properties of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. We also conducted a Bader charge analysis [54–56] to examine charge disproportionation, and a Bader critical point analysis to identify bonding features. Moreover, we have performed orbital-based calculations [57, 58] to identify the bonding and antibonding contributions for different orbital-pair interactions and gain further insight into the chemical bonding in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Through density of states (DOS) and band structure calculations, we elucidate why Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> is metallic whereas PtO is semiconducting. The metallic nature of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> arises from the combination of Pt–Pt bonding and Pt–O bonding, which places the material in a mixed valence regime with a small charge transfer energy. Consequently, the addition of a Hubbard *U* correction is not able to open a band gap in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> even at the strongly correlated limit. By contrast, PtO behaves as a positive charge transfer insulator, and a small Hubbard *U* correction opens a band-gap.

## 2. Computational methods

DFT calculations were performed using the Vienna *ab initio* Simulation Package [59] with a plane-wave energy cutoff of 400 eV, which was verified to sufficiently converge the heats of formation of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

Increasing the plane-wave energy cutoff to 450 eV altered the heat of formation by less than 0.02 eV per formula unit, confirming the adequacy of the selected cutoff. Projector augmented wave datasets were used to describe electron-ion interactions. The structures were relaxed using the exchange-correlation potentials described by the PBE type of the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) while considering the spin-polarization. The exchange-correlation potentials described by  $r^2$ SCAN (regularized-restored strongly constrained and appropriately normed) type of the metaGGA were also used for relaxation. DFT calculations were performed while considering the influence of SOC and the Hubbard  $U$  correction on the Pt  $5d$  manifold. In all calculations, the spin states were initialized with a magnetic moment of  $4.0 \mu_B$  on each Pt atom and  $0.0 \mu_B$  on each O atom. All structures were relaxed separately with and without imposed symmetry.

All DFT calculations were performed using a  $\Gamma$ -centered Monkhorst–Pack  $\mathbf{k}$ -point mesh of  $12 \times 12 \times 12$ , which was confirmed to be well-converged in terms of calculated total energy of the  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  unit cell. Increasing the  $\mathbf{k}$ -point mesh to  $14 \times 14 \times 14$  changed the total energy by less than 0.005 eV per formula unit, confirming the adequacy of the chosen mesh. The same  $12 \times 12 \times 12$   $\mathbf{k}$ -point mesh was consistently applied across all studied systems, including metallic platinum and other platinum oxides. Structural relaxations were carried out using the Methfessel–Paxton smearing scheme of order 1 with a smearing width of 0.05 eV. For each level of theory, namely, the PBE and  $r^2$ SCAN functionals, with and without Hubbard  $U$  corrections and SOC, the atomic coordinates were relaxed over 3–5 consecutive steps to account for changes in the plane-wave basis set associated with variations in cell volume. The electronic self-consistency was converged to a threshold of  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  eV, while the ionic relaxations were performed until the residual forces on all atoms were below  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  eV  $\text{\AA}^{-1}$ . Subsequently, a single-point self-consistent field (SCF) calculation was performed to obtain converged charge densities. These charge densities were then used to evaluate the electronic structure (density of states and band structure) using the tetrahedron method of smearing. For semiconducting platinum oxides, Gaussian smearing with a width of 0.05 eV was applied during both the relaxation and SCF steps. Bader charge calculations and critical point analyses were performed on the converged charge densities, following the method described in [55, 56]. For each platinum oxide, Bader charges were computed at all levels of theory considered in this work.

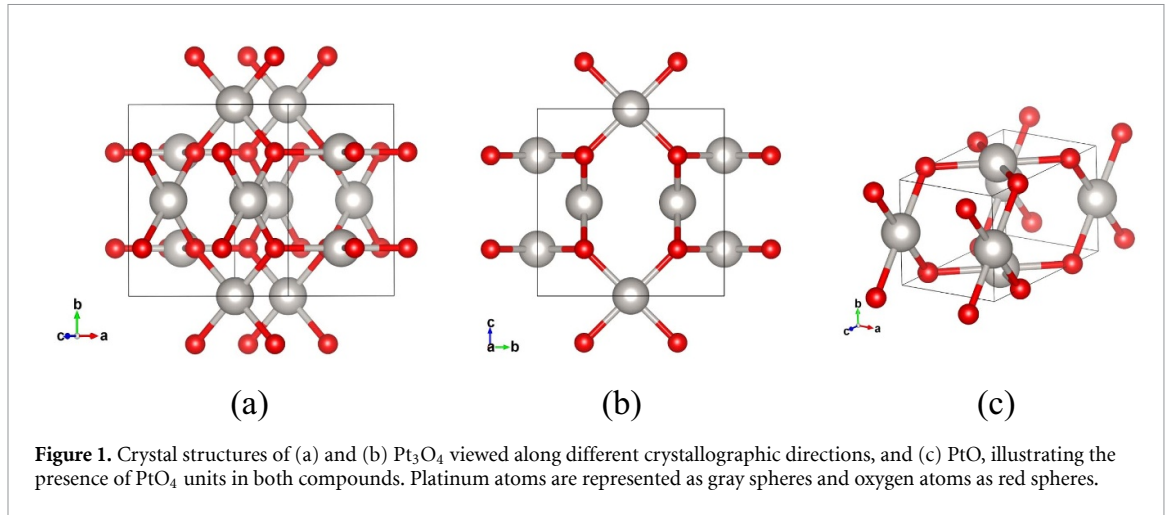
We employed LOBSTER version 5.1.1 to compute Crystal Orbital Hamilton Population (COHP) values using the projected augmented wave method [57, 58]. Following structural optimization, a SCF calculation was conducted to obtain the wavefunction with a sufficient number of bands (NBANDS = 100) required for projection onto atomic orbitals in LOBSTER. To investigate Pt–Pt and Pt–O bonding interactions in  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$ , we plotted COHP values as a function of energy relative to the Fermi level ( $E - E_F$ ). Specific Pt–Pt and Pt–O atomic pairs were defined in the lobster input file to compute the corresponding projected COHP values. To gain orbital-level insight into bonding interactions, we also performed orbital-resolved COHP analysis, which allowed us to isolate contributions from particular orbital pairs on each atom. The electronic-structure analyses (density of states, band structures, charge-density isosurfaces, and COHP) were carried out on the relaxed geometries obtained at each corresponding level of theory. For the PBE+ $U$  calculations with  $U = 8$  eV, the electronic-structure analysis was instead performed using the PBE-relaxed geometry; the motivation for this choice is discussed in the Results and Discussion section.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Crystal structure and formation enthalpy

In this section, we evaluate various theoretical approaches (PBE,  $r^2$ SCAN, + $U$ , and +SOC) to determine the most suitable methodology for modeling  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  by comparing with experimental crystal structures and formation enthalpies.

$\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  crystallizes in a symmetric cubic structure belonging to the  $\text{Pm}\bar{3}\text{n}$  space group, with a unit cell consisting of six platinum atoms and eight oxygen atoms, as illustrated in figure 1. The initial structure was obtained from the Materials Project [62] and were fully relaxed at different levels of theory, with all degrees of freedom allowed to vary. The lattice constants predicted at various levels of theory (PBE,  $r^2$ SCAN, + $U$ , +SOC) are summarized in table 1. Experimentally, the lattice constant of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  is measured to be 5.585  $\text{\AA}$  [60]. At the scalar-relativistic PBE and at the fully relativistic PBE+SOC levels, DFT slightly overestimates the lattice constant relative to experiment. The inclusion of SOC at both the PBE and  $r^2$ SCAN levels changes the lattice constant by less than 1%, indicating that relativistic effects have only a minor influence on the DFT-relaxed lattice parameters. In contrast, the inclusion of a moderate Hubbard  $U$  (4 eV) results in an underestimation of the lattice constant. This suggests that an intermediate  $U$  value could yield lattice parameters closer to the experiment for both PBE



**Figure 1.** Crystal structures of (a) and (b) Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> viewed along different crystallographic directions, and (c) PtO, illustrating the presence of PtO<sub>4</sub> units in both compounds. Platinum atoms are represented as gray spheres and oxygen atoms as red spheres.

**Table 1.** Crystal lattice parameters and formation enthalpies of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> obtained from DFT calculations using different levels of theory. The lattice angle is consistently found to be 90° in all cases.

Theory	<i>a</i> (Å)	<i>b</i> (Å)	<i>c</i> (Å)	$\Delta H_f$ (eV/Pt atom)
PBE	5.609			−1.1
PBE+ <i>U</i> (4 eV)	5.564			−1.3
PBE+ <i>U</i> (8 eV)	5.678	5.468	5.414	−1.4
PBE+SOC	5.616			−1.1
PBE+SOC+ <i>U</i> (4 eV)	5.572			−1.3
PBE+SOC+ <i>U</i> (8 eV)	5.732	5.435	5.435	−1.4
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN	5.575			−1.3
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN+ <i>U</i> (4 eV)	5.516			−1.6
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN+ <i>U</i> (8 eV)	5.654	5.428	5.427	−1.6
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN+SOC	5.580			−1.4
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN+SOC+ <i>U</i> (4 eV)	5.538			−1.5
<i>r</i> <sup>2</sup> SCAN+SOC+ <i>U</i> (8 eV)	5.653	5.443	5.443	−1.6
Exp	5.585 [60]			−1.69 [61]

and PBE+SOC. Calculations using *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN and *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN+*U* tend to underestimate the unit cell dimensions even further, consistent with the known tendencies of these functionals [63]. Among all tested methods, *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN+SOC yields a lattice constant of 5.580 Å in the closest agreement with the experimental value. Using a high value of *U* (8 eV) leads to a symmetry-breaking distortion for both PBE+*U* and *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN+*U*, regardless of the inclusion of SOC. However, experimental data indicates that Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> retains a symmetric structure, indicating that such high values of *U* are not appropriate, despite the use of similar values (7.5 eV) in previous studies on platinum oxides [35, 36]. The moderate *U* values that yield agreement with experimental lattice constants are also more consistent with the expectations that *U* should be low (< 4 eV) for 5*d* transition metal oxides. For completeness, we also report representative bond lengths in the relaxed Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure. At the *r*<sup>2</sup>SCAN+SOC+*U*(4 eV) level, the Pt–O distance within the square-planar PtO<sub>4</sub> units is 1.96 Å, and the shortest Pt–Pt separation is 2.77 Å.

In addition to crystal structure, the formation enthalpy is another key experimentally accessible property that can be used to tune the choice of *U* value [37, 64]. The formation enthalpy (eV) for Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> per Pt atom can be estimated from DFT calculations as,

$$\Delta H_f(\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4) = \frac{1}{3} \times \left( E_{\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4}^{\text{DFT}} - 3 \times E_{\text{Pt}}^{\text{DFT}} - 4 \times E_{\frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2} \right), \quad (1)$$

where the DFT-calculated energy of  $\frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2$  is corrected to mitigate the known overbinding of O<sub>2</sub> at the GGA level [65], using the experimental enthalpy of formation of water,

$$E_{\frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2} = E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\text{DFT}} - E_{\text{H}_2}^{\text{DFT}} - \Delta H_f(\text{H}_2\text{O}). \quad (2)$$

Here, the experimental enthalpy of formation of gas-phase water is taken as  $-2.48$  eV at 0 K [66]. The formation enthalpies obtained from different levels of theory are compiled in table 1. PBE and PBE+ $U$  (with or without SOC) predict formation enthalpies that are less exothermic than the experiment ( $-1.69$  eV/Pt atom) [61]. Within PBE+ $U$ , the formation enthalpy becomes more negative with increasing  $U$ .  $r^2$ SCAN yields more exothermic formation enthalpies than PBE. The cases of  $r^2$ SCAN+ $U$  ( $U > 4$  eV) with or without SOC predict the formation enthalpies closest to the experimental measurement [61]. The inclusion of SOC at both the PBE and  $r^2$ SCAN levels changes the predicted formation enthalpies by less than 0.1 eV per Pt atom. Taking into account both the predicted lattice constants and formation enthalpies,  $r^2$ SCAN+SOC with a moderate  $U$  of 4 eV appears to offer the most accurate description of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

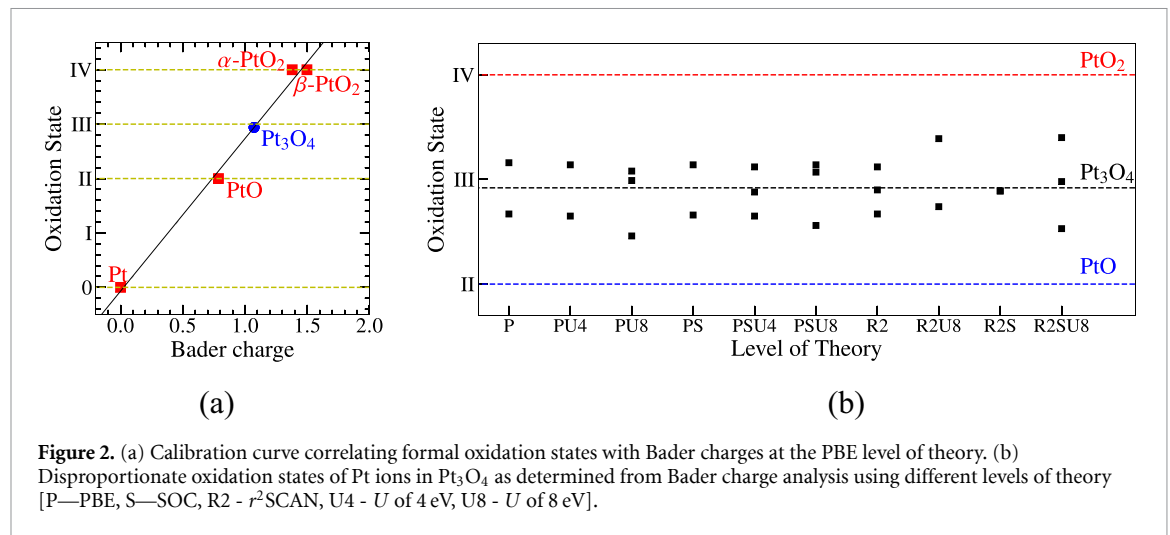
### 3.2. Charge disproportionation

The non-integer formal oxidation state of platinum in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> suggests the possibility of charge disproportionation. In Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, each Pt occupies an identical local environment, coordinated by four oxygen atoms in a square-planar PtO<sub>4</sub> motif, analogous to that in PtO (see figure 1(c)). In PtO, this geometry is consistent with a formal oxidation state of Pt(II). However, in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the structural equivalence implies a formal oxidation state of +2.67 for each Pt atom. Achieving integer formal oxidation states would therefore require charge-disproportionation—either into a one Pt<sup>IV</sup> and two Pt<sup>II</sup>, or two Pt<sup>III</sup> and one Pt<sup>II</sup>. While such disproportionation has been proposed for Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [20], it would necessarily break the symmetry of the Pt sites and is typically accompanied by lattice distortions [67–69].

To drive such structural distortions and probe the possibility of charge disproportionation, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> was initialized with three different geometries: (i) a cubic symmetric structure, (ii) a cubic structure with oxygen atoms distorted around one Pt center, and (iii) a cubic structure with oxygen atoms distorted around three Pt centers. These initial configurations were fully relaxed at different levels of theory, with all degrees of freedom allowed to relax, and only the minimum-energy structures were retained for further analysis. We then performed Bader charge analysis [55] on the relaxed structures to assess charge-disproportionation. The symmetric structure retained identical Bader charges for all Pt atoms. Interestingly, even in cases where the structures initially deviated from symmetry, the relaxation process returned them to nearly symmetric geometries with only minor residual distortions. Notably, these small distortions are still accompanied by a charge disproportionation with a magnitude of 0.18 e. For comparison, in the well-known mixed-valent system Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, the charge separation between Fe<sup>II</sup> and Fe<sup>III</sup> is estimated to be 0.18–0.24 e [31]. This suggests that Pt ions in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> may similarly exist in a weakly disproportionated state, most plausibly as a mixture of Pt<sup>II</sup> and Pt<sup>III</sup>, even in the absence of strong structural distortions.

Although Bader charges do not directly yield formal oxidation states, they can often be correlated with formal oxidation states of known reference compounds and then used to assign oxidation states in an unknown phase. To establish such a correlation, we computed the Bader charges of Pt ions in platinum metal, PtO,  $\alpha$ -PtO<sub>2</sub>, and  $\beta$ -PtO<sub>2</sub> at each level of theory and related them to their formal oxidation states, Pt<sup>0</sup>, Pt<sup>II</sup>, and Pt<sup>IV</sup> (for both  $\alpha$ -PtO<sub>2</sub> and  $\beta$ -PtO<sub>2</sub>). We then compared the Pt Bader charges in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> with these reference values and used the resulting correlation between charge and oxidation state to estimate the oxidation states of Pt in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. The symmetric Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> structure relaxed at the PBE level yields a Bader-derived oxidation state of approximately +2.9 as seen in figure 2(a). While this deviates slightly from the expected value of +2.67 (based on all oxygen atoms as O<sup>2-</sup>), the discrepancy may stem from the fitting approach.

DFT calculations with various levels of theory and distorted initial configurations support the existence of modest charge disproportionation in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (figure 2(b)). At the PBE level, Pt oxidation states are found to be +2.7 to +3.2, despite the final relaxed structure remaining nearly symmetric. This suggests that only minimal structural distortions are required to induce charge separation. Moreover, the energy of the charge-disproportionate system is nearly identical to that of the non-disproportionated system. Including Hubbard  $U$  corrections (PBE+ $U$ ) up to 6 eV slightly enhances the charge disproportionation. At the PBE+ $U$  level with  $U = 8$  eV, Bader charge analysis yields oxidation states of approximately +2.5 and +3.1 for Pt, accompanied by a symmetry-breaking distortion of the crystal structure from cubic to orthorhombic (see table 1). The inclusion of SOC at the PBE level leads to charge disproportionation regardless of the initial structure, although the extent remains unchanged with SOC. DFT calculations with  $r^2$ SCAN resemble those of PBE. The most pronounced charge disproportionation—oxidation states of +2.5, +3.0, and +3.4—is observed with  $r^2$ SCAN+SOC+ $U$  at  $U = 8$  eV, although again accompanied by significant structural distortion from cubic to tetragonal. Given that the undistorted structure yields a Bader-derived oxidation state of +2.9 rather than +2.67, the states of +2.5 and +3.4 are assumed to be more consistent with Pt<sup>II</sup> and Pt<sup>III</sup> rather than Pt<sup>II</sup> and Pt<sup>IV</sup>. However, a  $U$  value

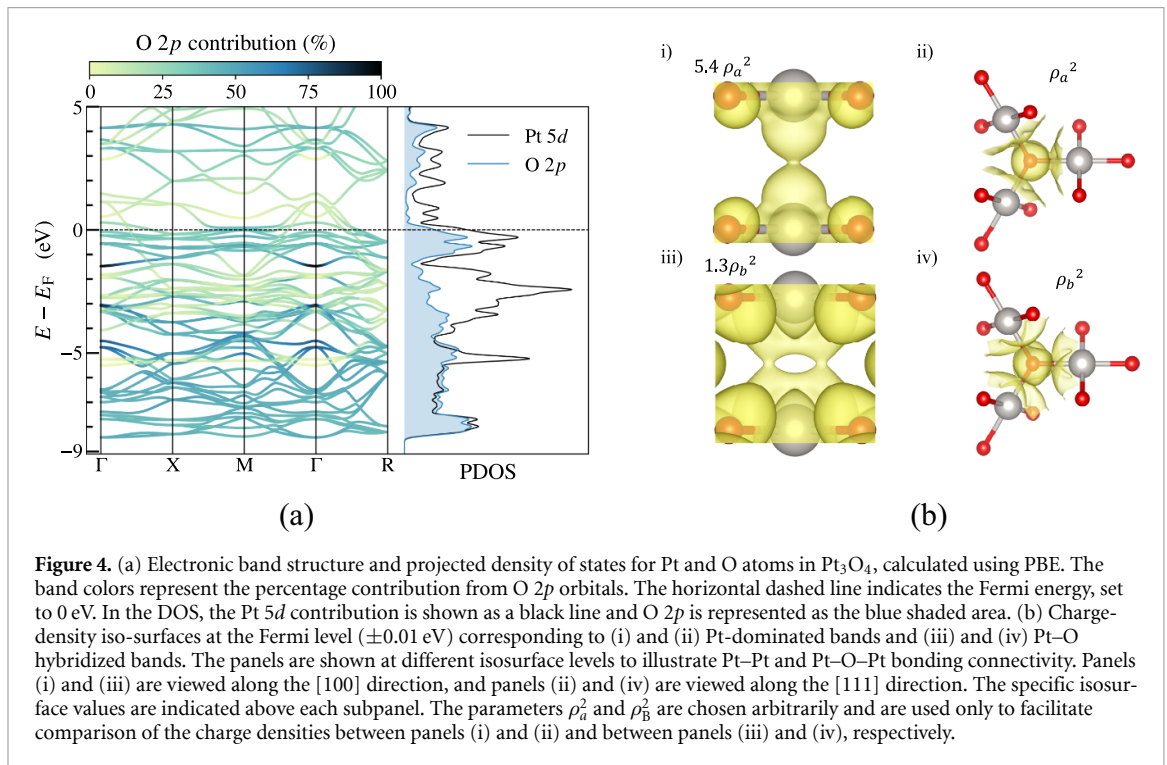
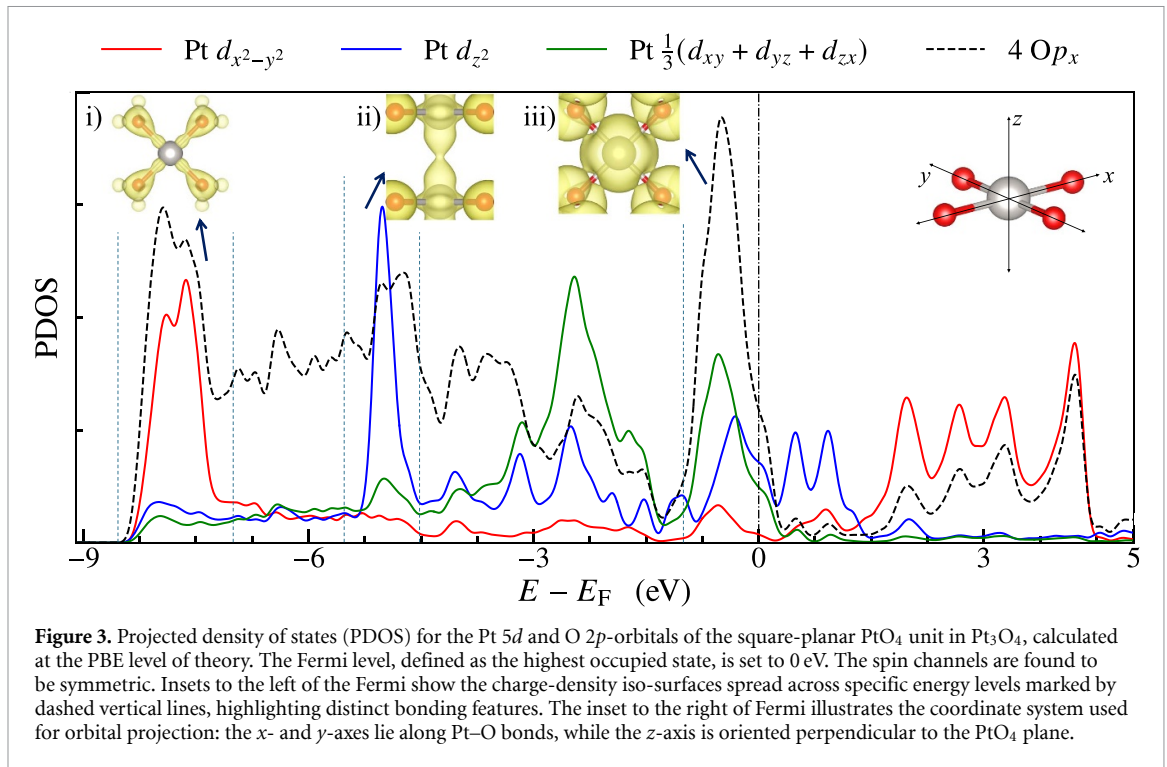


of 8 eV leads to pronounced distortion in crystal structure inconsistent with the experimental XRD data for  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  [60]. Therefore, based on our analysis,  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  exhibits only weak charge separation. If a strong charge-disproportionation occurs, it is more likely to involve  $\text{Pt}^{\text{II}}/\text{Pt}^{\text{III}}$  rather than  $\text{Pt}^{\text{II}}/\text{Pt}^{\text{IV}}$ —as previously proposed by [20]. Since distorted crystal structures are inconsistent with experimental observations [60] and only appear at high  $U$  values ( $\sim 8$  eV), we restricted our study to the cubic symmetric structures for all further calculations and analyses.

### 3.3. Electronic structure and metallicity

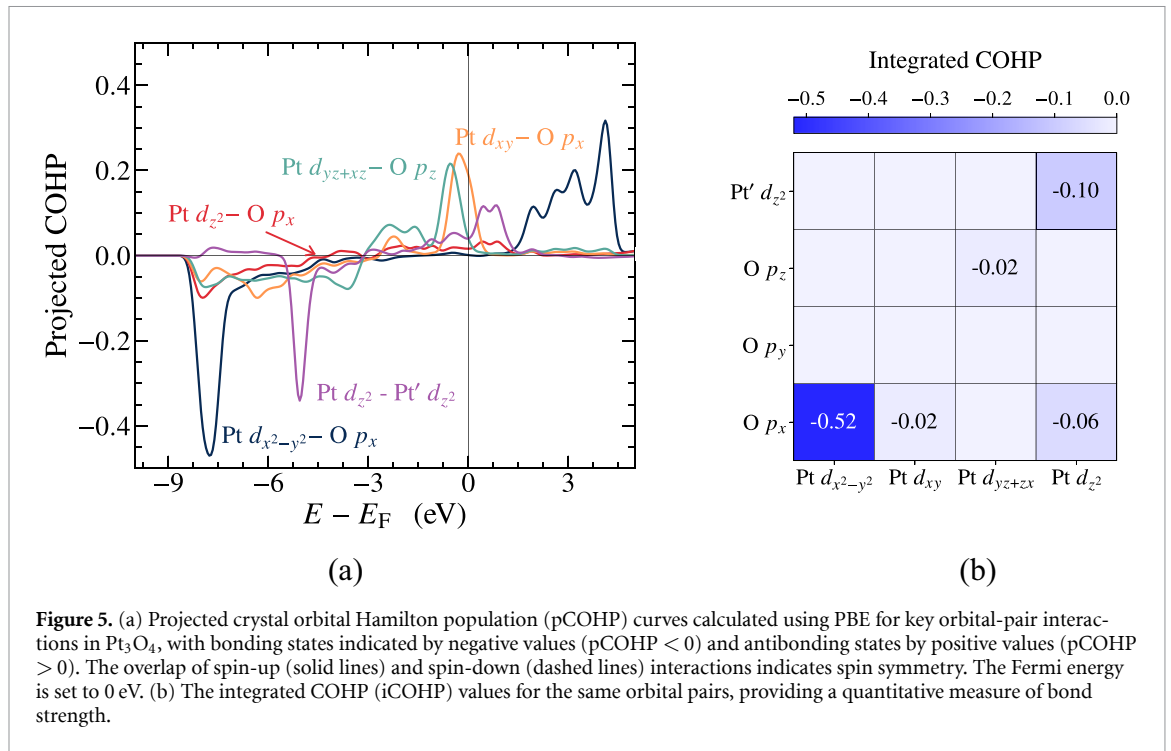
Figure 3 shows the PDOS for the square-planar  $\text{PtO}_4$  motif in  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$ , calculated at the PBE level of theory, reveals distinct bonding characteristics arising from the orbital interactions between Pt 5d and O 2p orbitals, illustrated by the charge density iso-surfaces shown in the insets. At the PBE level, the spin states are found to be symmetric. The PDOS and the iso-surface corresponding to  $-6$  to  $-8.5$  eV below the Fermi level indicates the strong overlap between the Pt 5  $d_{x^2-y^2}$  orbitals and the O 2p orbitals, forming a  $\sigma$  bond (see inset i of figure 3). The corresponding  $\sigma$  antibonding states are located from 2 to 5 eV above the Fermi level. The large energy separation ( $\approx 12$  eV) between the  $\sigma$ -bonding and  $\sigma$ -antibonding states underscores the strength of Pt–O hybridization, driven by significant overlap between diffuse Pt 5d and O 2p orbitals, resulting in a highly covalent  $\sigma$  bond. The  $d_{xy}$ ,  $d_{yz}$  and  $d_{zx}$  overlap with O 2p contribute to  $\pi$  bonds (see inset iii of figure 3), but the bonding and antibonding states of the  $\pi$ -bond are not easily extractable from the PDOS. In contrast, the  $d_{z^2}$ -orbitals of Pt show negligible hybridization with O 2p orbitals but display inter-motif overlap with  $d_{z^2}$  orbitals of neighboring  $\text{PtO}_4$  units forming a Pt–Pt  $\sigma$  bond at around  $-5$  eV below the Fermi energy (see inset ii of figure 3). Even for these Pt–Pt  $\sigma$ -bonds, the bonding and antibonding states are not clearly identifiable from the PDOS. The presence of finite DOS at the Fermi level confirms the metallic nature of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$ , consistent with previous studies [29]. Notably, both Pt 5d and O 2p states contribute at the Fermi level, indicating that metallic conduction arises from a combination of Pt–Pt and Pt–O interactions. To further elucidate the origin of this metallicity, we examined the band structure, PDOS, charge density isosurfaces, and orbital-resolved bonding features across multiple levels of theory.

The band structure and the corresponding total DOS of Pt 5d and O 2p per  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  formula unit calculated at PBE level of theory are shown in figure 4(a), and the coloring indicates the amount of O 2p character as defined by the figure legend. Between  $-6$  eV to  $-9$  eV below the Fermi level, strong hybridization is evident, with nearly equal contributions from Pt 5d and O 2p states, in agreement with the inferences from figure 3. Pure O 2p bands are almost entirely absent, indicating that nearly all O 2p orbitals are engaged in bonding. Pure Pt 5d bands appear around  $-2.8$  eV, while the center of the occupied Pt 5d bands lies near  $-3.8$  eV. Hybridized states with an almost equal contribution from Pt and O dominate the region from  $-1$  eV up to the Fermi level. At the PBE level of theory, two types of bands cross the Fermi level: those predominantly Pt 5d in character and hybridized bands with nearly equal O 2p and Pt 5d character. The charge density iso-surfaces for these bands at the Fermi level ( $\pm 0.01$  eV) shown in figure 4(b) confirm distinct Pt–Pt and Pt–O–Pt bonding contributions. The charge density iso-surface of the Pt-dominated bands shown in figure 4(b)(i) and (ii) indicates that the charge density magnitude of Pt–Pt connectivity (via  $d_{z^2}$  overlap) is five times more pronounced than the Pt–O–Pt connectivity (via the overlap of  $d_{zx}$ ,  $d_{yz}$ ,  $d_{xy}$  with p). The charge density iso-surface of the hybridized Pt



and O bands shown in figure 4(b)(iii) and (iv) displays a comparable charge density magnitude for both Pt–Pt and Pt–O–Pt connectivity. The Pt–Pt connection in figure 4(b)(iii) stems from the overlap of the neighboring Pt  $d_{xy}$  orbitals, that are strongly hybridized with O  $p_x$ . Together, the band structure, and the real-space charge density iso-surfaces highlight the dual role of Pt–Pt and Pt–O bonds in driving metallic conductivity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

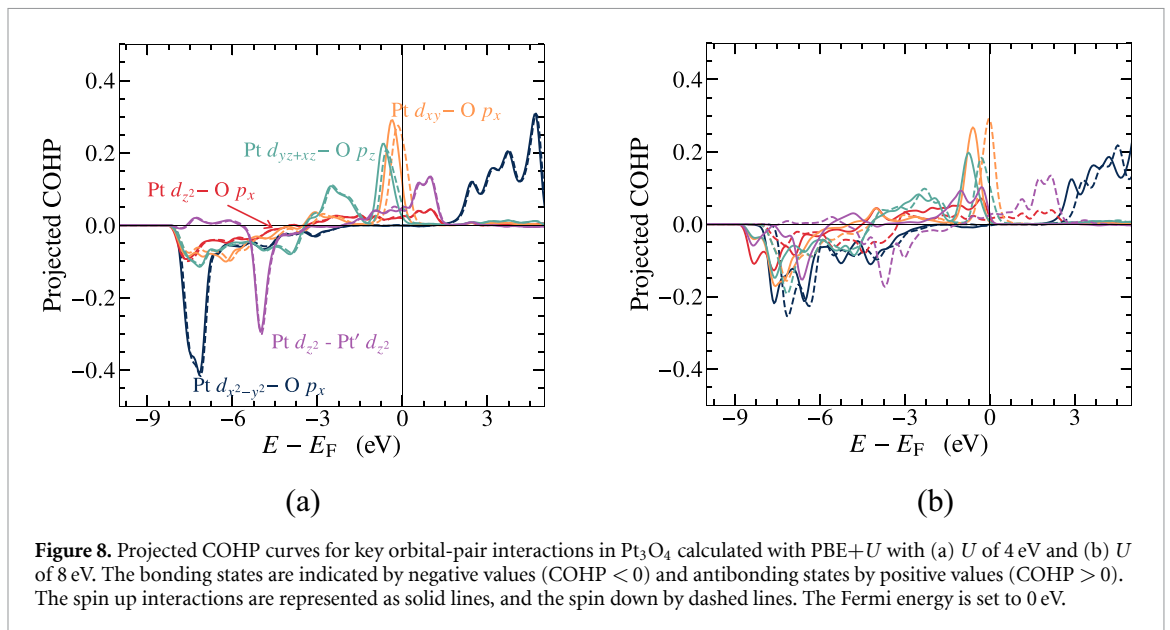
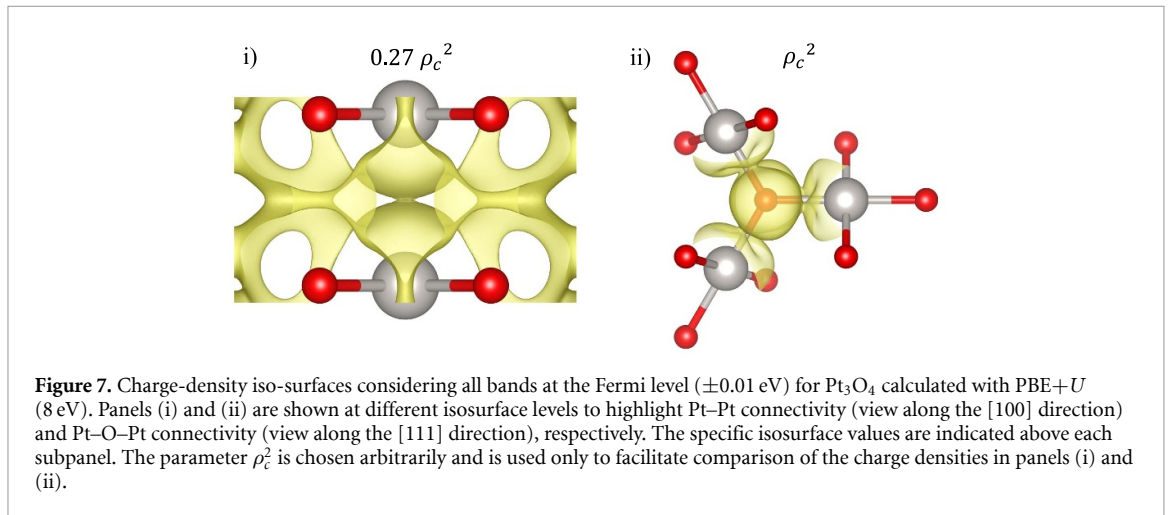
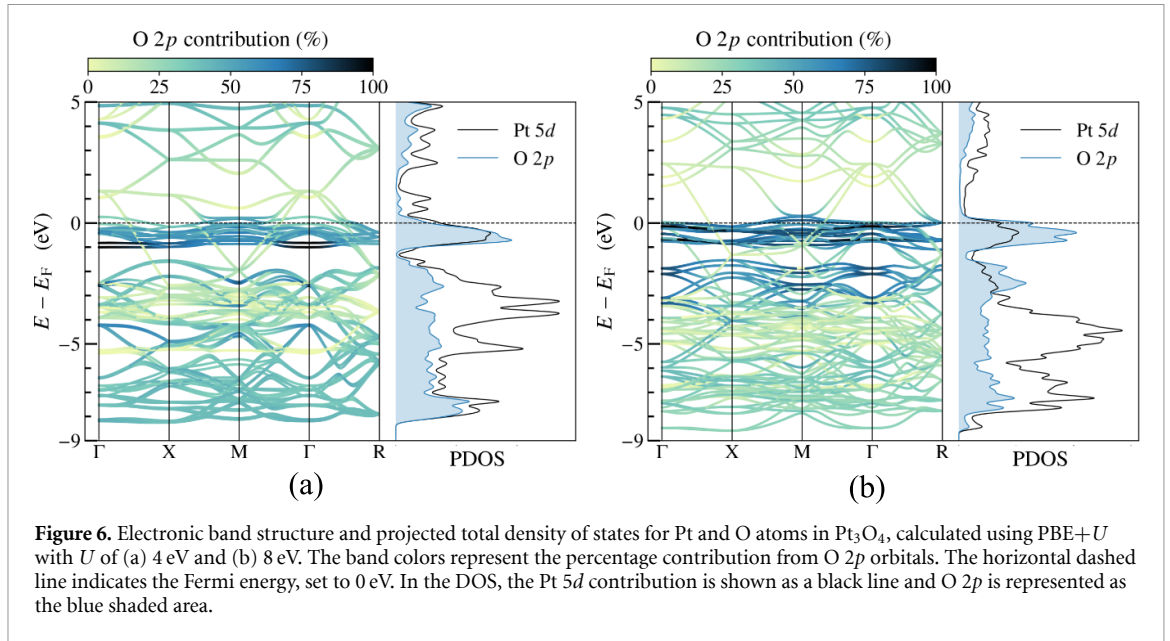
To further dissect these interactions, we employed COHP analysis, a method that distinguishes between bonding and antibonding contributions based on the constructive or destructive nature of orbital interactions [57, 58, 70]. Unlike the PDOSs, which do not give an unambiguous assignment of bonding character, COHP directly resolves energy contributions from specific orbital-pair interactions. Figures 5(a) and (b) present the projected COHP (pCOHP) values with respect to the Fermi level and

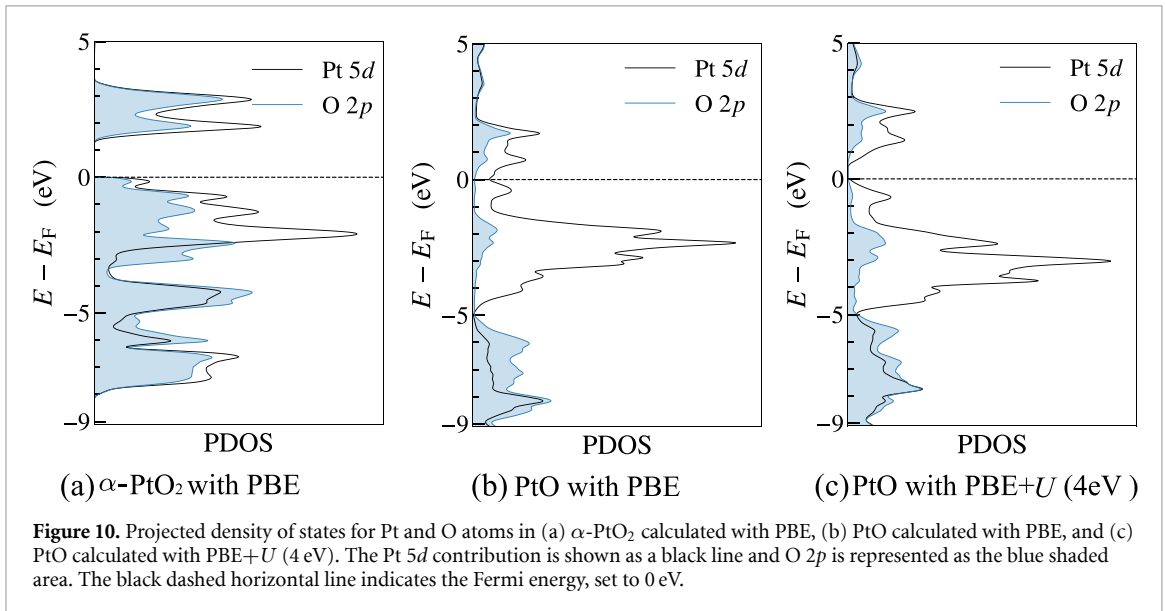
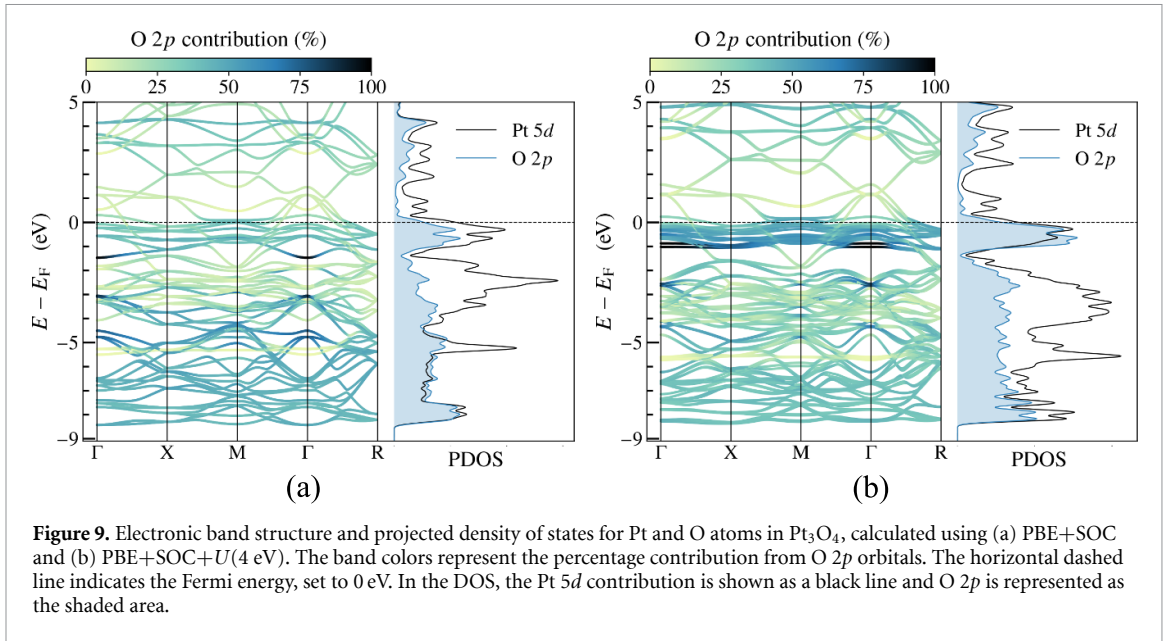


the integrated COHP (iCOHP) values calculated with PBE for key orbital-pair interactions, respectively. Bonding states (pCOHP < 0) dominate between -9 eV and -3 eV, while antibonding states (pCOHP > 0) appear from -3 eV. A particularly strong  $\sigma$ -bond is observed between the Pt  $d_{x^2-y^2}$  and O  $p_x$  orbitals, as evidenced by the high value for iCOHP. In contrast,  $\sigma$ -bonding between Pt  $d_{z^2}$  orbitals of neighboring PtO<sub>4</sub> motifs is significantly weaker. Other orbital interactions mainly involve weak  $\pi$ -bonding. Several antibonding states—Pt  $d_{xy}$ -O  $p_x$ , Pt  $d_{z^2}$ -O  $p_x$ , Pt  $d_{yz+xz}$ -O  $p_z$ , and Pt  $d_{z^2}$ -Pt'  $d_{z^2}$ —persist at the Fermi level (figure 5(a)). These findings corroborate the PDOS and charge-density results, confirming that the metallic nature of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> arises from antibonding states involving both Pt-Pt and Pt-O orbital overlaps. Additionally, COHP analysis confirms that the  $d_{xy}$  connection at the Fermi level seen in figure 4(b)(iii) is due to Pt  $d_{xy}$ -O  $p_x$  hybridization, not direct Pt  $d_{xy}$ -Pt'  $d_{xy}$  bonding.

To evaluate the role of the O 2p states in the metallic conductivity of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> further, we analyzed the influence of onsite Coulombic interactions on the Pt 5d manifold through the inclusion of a Hubbard  $U$  on Pt. We performed the electronic structure calculations on the relaxed cubic symmetric structures obtained at each specific  $U$  value, except for  $U = 8$  eV. At this high  $U$ , the crystal structure distorts from cubic symmetry. Since the experimentally observed phase is cubic [60] and to avoid artifacts from unphysical distortions, the PBE-relaxed cubic structure was used for the PBE+ $U$  (8 eV) electronic structure calculations. As shown in figure 6, increasing  $U$  enhances the localization of 5d orbitals and shifts the occupied states to lower energies while preserving their hybridization with the O 2p states near the Fermi level. For  $U > 4$  eV, the region from -1 eV to the Fermi level becomes increasingly O 2p dominated. At  $U = 8$  eV, the O 2p states contribute significantly more than Pt 5d at the Fermi level. The charge density iso-surfaces at  $U = 8$  eV (figure 7) show dominant Pt-O-Pt connections with diminished Pt-Pt character. The COHP analysis supports this, with the antibonding states of Pt  $d_{xy}$ -O  $p_x$  maintaining a significant presence at the Fermi level, see figure 8. A similar trend is observed with the  $r^2$ SCAN functional with  $U$ , confirming that the Pt-O hybridization underpins the metallic character of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> even under strong electronic correlations. Moreover, for calculations with PBE with  $U = 4$  and 8 eV, the spin channels become asymmetric, as shown in figure 8, leading to slight magnetization with a net magnetic moment of 0.4  $\mu_B$  and 1.7  $\mu_B$  per formula unit for  $U = 4$  and 8 eV, respectively.

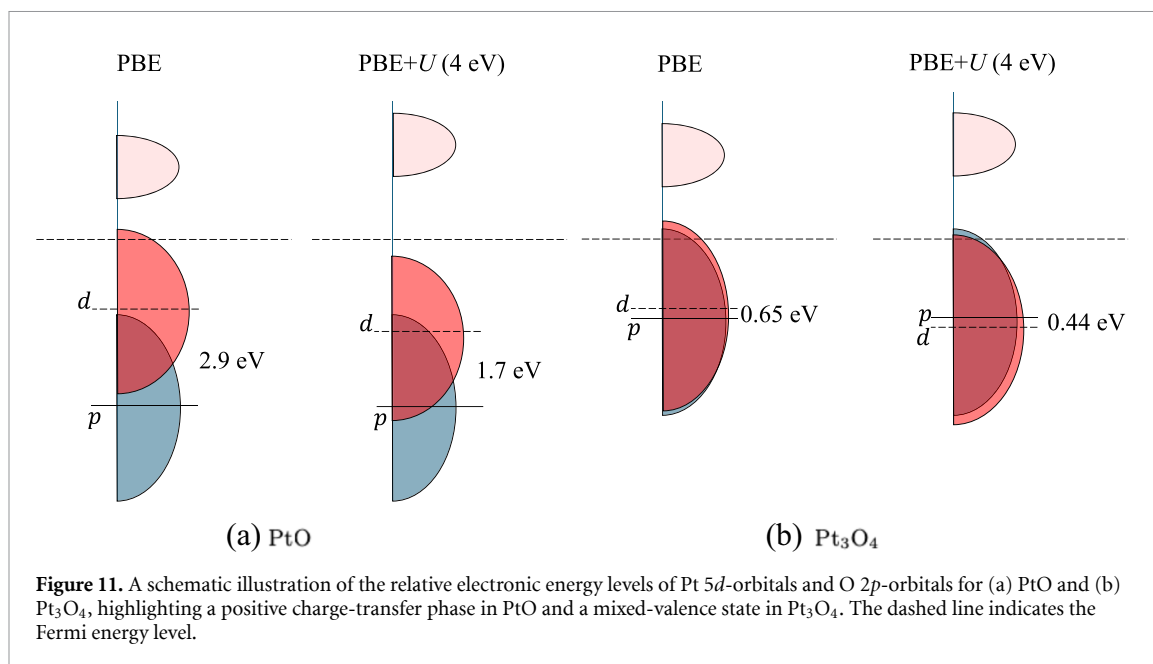
Given the presence of heavy Pt atoms, SOC effects must be considered. At the PBE level, inclusion of SOC causes only small changes in the relaxed structure (table 1), but lifts several band degeneracies near the Fermi level, as evident from the comparison between band structures computed with and without SOC (figures 4(a) and 9(b)). We have also computed the band structure at the PBE+SOC+ $U$ (4 eV) level (figure 9(b)), which shows that several bands with mixed Pt 5d and O 2p character continue to cross the Fermi level and that the total DOS at  $E_F$  remains very similar to the PBE and PBE+ $U$  cases. SOC does not induce symmetry breaking in the crystal structure, nor does it open a gap or shift the O





2p-derived states away from the Fermi level. Taken together with the meta-GGA results, these observations demonstrate that the metallic character of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  is robust with respect to both SOC and on-site Coulomb interactions. Standard GGA-based calculations, even without SOC, are therefore sufficient to capture the essential features of the electronic structure and metallic nature of  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$ .

To understand what distinguishes  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  from other Pt oxides, we compared its electronic structure with that of PtO,  $\alpha\text{-PtO}_2$ , and  $\beta\text{-PtO}_2$ . The  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  phases of  $\text{PtO}_2$  contain octahedral  $\text{PtO}_6$  units, in which the crystal field splits the Pt 5d orbitals into lower-energy  $t_{2g}$  and higher-energy  $e_g$  levels. In this formal  $\text{Pt}^{\text{IV}}(d^6)$  configuration, the six 5d electrons fully occupy the  $t_{2g}$  manifold, leaving the  $e_g$  orbitals empty. Strong Pt–O covalency further separates the predominantly O 2p + Pt 5d valence band from the empty  $e_g$ -derived conduction band, producing a well-defined  $d/p$ – $d/p$  band gap and making these phases semiconducting (see DOS for  $\alpha\text{-PtO}_2$  in figure 10(a)). In contrast, both PtO and  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$  contain square-planar  $\text{PtO}_4$  motifs, where orbital splitting yields  $a_{1g}$ ,  $b_{1g}$ ,  $b_{2g}$ , and  $e_g$  states. PBE calculations incorrectly predict PtO to be metallic (figure 10(b)), but application of  $U = 4\text{ eV}$  opens a Mott–Hubbard (positive charge-transfer)  $d$ – $d$  gap (figure 10(c)), agreeing with experimental evidence [25, 26]. Bader critical point analysis reveals Pt–Pt bonding interactions in both PtO and  $\text{Pt}_3\text{O}_4$ , consistent with previous findings by Seriani *et al* [29]. If metallic conductivity were driven solely by such Pt–Pt bonding, one



would expect both Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and PtO to be metallic. However, PtO becomes semiconducting under moderate  $U$ , whereas Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> remains metallic. This difference underscores the critical role of Pt–O orbital interactions in maintaining metallic conductivity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

Finally, we evaluated the relative electronic energy levels of PtO and Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (figure 11). In PtO, Pt 5*d* states cross the Fermi level at  $U = 0$ , but are pushed down with increasing  $U$ , opening a positive charge-transfer (Mott–Hubbard) gap while the O 2*p* states lie well below the Fermi level, figure 11(a). In Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, Pt 5*d* states are lower in energy due to the higher oxidation state, which improves hybridization with the O 2*p* orbitals and reduces the charge-transfer gap, figure 11(b). This leads to a small positive charge-transfer energy and potential mixed-valence behavior, analogous to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [71]. Even though Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> shows signatures of weak charge disproportionation, indicating a mixed-valence phase, the Pt ions do not localize into distinct Pt<sup>II</sup> and Pt<sup>III</sup> sites as observed in Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [72–75]. Strong Pt–O covalency in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> prevents full *d*-orbital localization with the application of  $U$  which, when coupled with small charge transfer conduction of Pt–O orbital interactions, preserves the metallic character even under strong  $U$ , in stark contrast to PtO.

#### 4. Summary and conclusions

We have conducted a comprehensive first-principles study of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, a platinum oxide phase relevant to electrochemical energy conversion systems, using multiple levels of theory. Our investigation included GGA PBE, meta-GGA ( $r^2$ SCAN), SOC, and Hubbard  $U$  corrections to evaluate the structural and electronic properties of Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. Our results show that large  $U$  values (e.g. 8 eV) destabilize the experimentally observed cubic symmetry, driving the system toward a distorted structure, and are therefore unsuitable for Pt oxides. Bader charge analysis reveals that even minor structural distortions can induce limited charge disproportionation; though not of sufficient magnitude to confirm distinct Pt<sup>II</sup>/Pt<sup>III</sup> or Pt<sup>II</sup>/Pt<sup>IV</sup> states.

Importantly, Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> exhibits metallic behavior consistently across all functionals, regardless of the inclusion of  $U$  or SOC. This conductivity arises from a combination of delocalized Pt–Pt states and hybridized Pt–O–Pt interactions at the Fermi level. COHP analysis shows that while the contributions of Pt–Pt states progressively diminish at high values of  $U$  (e.g. 8 eV), Pt–O–Pt states remain robust, maintaining metallic nature. The persistence of these O 2*p*-derived pathways reflects the small charge-transfer energy in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, which stabilizes mixed-valent Pt centers, as supported by Bader charge analysis. In contrast, PtO, despite its structural similarity, behaves as a positive charge-transfer insulator that develops a band gap under modest  $U$ , highlighting a key distinction in the electronic structures of these two oxides. The comparison of PtO and Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> underscores the critical role of Pt–O hybridization in maintaining conductivity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

These findings clarify the origin of metallicity in Pt<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> and establish its potential relevance as a conductive phase under ORR conditions in fuel cells and URFCs.

## Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

## Acknowledgments

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