

Direct Oxidation of Methane to Methanol Enabled by Electronic Atomic Monolayer-Metal Support Interaction

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6 Monolayer-Metal Support Interaction
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20 **Abstract:**

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22 Direct, catalytic oxidation of methane to methanol (MTM) with molecular oxygen is a highly
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24 desirable process to valorize methane. We propose that Rh-doped graphene (GR) supported on
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26 Ni(111) can be a promising catalyst for MTM with appreciable activity and selectivity. In the
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28 absence of the Ni(111) support, a MTM process is difficult. The catalytic activity of the Rh-
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30 doped GR is enabled by the Ni(111) support that covalently binds the Rh-doped GR and
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32 significantly modifies its properties, leading to facile O₂ activation by the synergy of the Rh
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34 dopant and the neighboring carbon atom of GR. The highly activated O₂ and the Rh dopant in
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36 turn activate CH₄. Strikingly, the methane C-H bond breaking is preferred over methanol C-H
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38 bond breaking at 473K. The strong interaction between TM-doped GR and Ni(111) is found to
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40 be a general mechanism for regulating the adsorption strength of various molecules, providing
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42 important insight for tuning the properties of single-atom catalysts.
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50 **Key words:** Methane to methanol conversion; single atom catalyst; graphene; support
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52 interaction; DFT calculation
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Introduction

The increasing supply of natural gas and the resulting increased cost differential between natural gas and petrochemicals that can be derived from natural gas, make the development of efficient heterogeneous catalysts for transforming methane into value-added fuels and chemicals an appealing value proposition. Direct oxidation of methane to methanol with molecular oxygen is the economically preferred approach for valorizing methane relative to indirect oxidation processes involving the energy-intensive syngas production or the use of other (more expensive or corrosive) oxidants. Despite active research for many decades, no economically viable direct MTM process has been developed on an industrial scale.¹

A prerequisite for a potential MTM catalyst is the ability to efficiently activate both methane and dioxygen. Computational studies have correlated the C–H activation barriers of methane with the hydrogen adsorption energies over various heterogeneous catalysts.² The methane molecule is relatively inert and the C–H cleavage is difficult.³ The efficient activation of both CH₄ and O₂ at the same active site is even more challenging, explaining the lack of highly active MTM catalysts. While the reaction rate of the MTM catalyst can be increased with increasing reaction temperature, overoxidation occurs at high temperatures and it was suggested that optimal operating conditions are below 500 K.⁴⁻⁵ Copper-exchanged zeolites, mimicking the methane monooxygenase that catalyzes MTM in nature, are among the most extensively explored low temperature MTM catalysts in academia. Unfortunately, Cu-exchanged zeolites suffers from low activity and the active sites usually need to be pre-oxidized at high temperatures before the methane oxidation can take place.^{4, 6-8} Meaningful but still too low methane to methanol yields have recently been observed for mononuclear rhodium species

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4 anchored on a zeolite or TiO₂ support and suspended in aqueous solution.⁹
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6 The need for developing more efficient MTM catalysts motivated us to search for new
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8 chemistries that might potentially overcome the deficiencies of existing catalysts. In general,
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10 the activity and selectivity of a catalyst can be modified by changing its composition or external
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12 environment. The effects of support,¹⁰ solvent,¹¹ applied electric field,¹² and strain¹³ can
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14 regulate the property of a catalyst significantly and have been harnessed to achieve desired
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16 catalytic activity. The well-known strong metal–support interaction (SMSI)¹⁴ is a typical
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18 support interaction, which usually implies the undesired encapsulation of an active metal by a
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20 few-layer metal oxide support (CeO₂, TiO₂ etc.) that blocks the activity of the metal. Closely
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22 related to SMSI is the recently proposed electronic metal–support interaction (EMSI),^{10, 15}
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24 which implies that a metal catalyst experiences a favorable electronic perturbation by a metal
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26 oxide support that brings about higher activity. While the effect of a metal oxide involved in
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28 SMSI or EMSI has been extensively explored, the role of a metal as a support is less commonly
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30 studied and inverse oxide/metal catalysts¹⁶ and the ability of a Mo(100) support to charge and
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32 activate Au atoms on few-layer MgO that was deposited on the Mo(100) surface¹⁷ are rare
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34 examples. Therefore, utilization of the effect of a metal support may open new opportunities
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36 for the design of MTM catalysts.
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48 Graphene¹⁸⁻¹⁹ and other two-dimensional (2D) materials have seen broad catalytic
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50 applications.²⁰⁻²¹ There are evidences showing that the basal plane of graphene can be
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52 catalytically active in the presence of a metal support due to electronic interactions between the
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54 graphene and the metal.²²⁻²⁴ A more general approach to utilize GR-like monolayers in catalysis
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56 is to immobilize transition metal (TM) atoms to form single-atom catalysts (SAC),²⁵⁻²⁷ which
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4 is a recently emerging frontier in heterogenous catalysis that promises very high atom
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6 efficiency and the design of highly selective heterogeneous catalysts due to the uniformity of
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8 the active sites.²⁸⁻²⁹ While catalytic applications of TM-doped GR-like monolayer SACs have
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10 been extensive, the metal-supported counterpart has been rare.³⁰ Therefore, it is intriguing to
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12 examine the catalytic properties of a metal-supported graphene-like monolayer with an
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14 embedded TM atom for the MTM process. GR³¹ and its analogue hexagonal boron nitride
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16 (hBN)³² can be chemisorbed on Ni(111) due to the small lattice mismatches (GR, 2.46 Å;
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18 Ni(111), 2.49 Å; hBN, 2.51 Å). In our attempt to develop more efficient MTM catalysts and
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20 unleash the catalytic potential of GR/hBN and single TM atoms, we propose to immobilize TM
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22 atoms in graphene and hBN to form SACs, which are supported on Ni(111). Specifically, using
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24 first principles calculations, we investigated the energy profiles of MTM reactions over Rh⁹
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26 and Cu-doped⁴ GR as well as Rh-doped hBN supported on Ni(111). As a boron vacancy is
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28 preferred over a nitrogen vacancy for hBN, we immobilize a Rh atom with B-defective hBN.³³
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30 To generalize the effect of a metal support on the catalytic properties of atomic monolayer-
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32 anchored SACs, we also examined the adsorption energies of small molecules on free-standing
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34 atomic layer and Ni(111)-supported SACs.
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48 **Results and discussion**

49 **Adsorption of TM-doped GR on Ni(111)**

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51 The adsorption of a Rh-doped (4×4) GR (GR-Rh) supported on (4×4) Ni(111) is presented
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53 in Figure 1a. A Rh atom can be immobilized at the single vacancy of a GR with an adsorption
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55 energy (E_{ads}) of -1.90 eV. High activation barriers for metal atom diffusion of 2.2-2.5 eV have
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4 previously been reported for graphene immobilized metal atoms suggesting that these structures
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6 are highly stable.³⁴ A recent experimental study supports this high stability for a graphene-
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8 trapped Ni SAC for hydrogen and oxygen evolution.³⁵ The E_{ads} of GR-Rh on (4×4) Ni(111) was
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10 calculated to be -3.52 eV. The covalent interaction between GR-Rh and Ni(111) is reflected by
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12 significant charge accumulation between GR-Rh and Ni(111) and a downshift of the GR-Rh
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14 projected density of states (DOS) for GR-Rh/Ni(111) as compared with the free-standing one
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16 (Figure 1d). Similar DOS were also observed in a recent computational study of Co-doped
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18 graphene supported on Ni(111) for the oxygen reduction reaction (ORR).³⁰ Bader charge³⁶
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20 calculations suggest that the GR-Rh layer composed of C_{31}Rh gains 1.58 $|e^-|$ from the Ni(111)
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22 support. The activation of O_2 over Rh(111)-supported graphene was reported previously.³⁷ In
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24 the present study, we examine the adsorption of one O_2 (Figure 1c) at the Rh site (**O₂-a**), GR-
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26 Rh interfacial site (**O₂-b**), and GR basal plane site (**O₂-c**), whose O_2 chemisorption energies are
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28 -2.34, -1.99 and -0.60 eV, respectively. At the interfacial site, the O-O bond length is elongated
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30 to 1.478 Å, as compared with the gas phase bond length of 1.234 Å. GR-Rh/Ni(111) can also
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32 accommodate another O_2 molecule in close vicinity of Rh(**2O₂**) with a total adsorption energy
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34 of -3.15 eV. In contrast, O_2 can only be adsorbed on the Rh site of free-standing GR-Rh with
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36 an adsorption energy of -2.03 eV while no C-O bond can be formed (Figure 1b). Bader charge
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38 calculations suggest that the O_2 of the configuration **O₂-c** gains 0.72 $|e^-|$ upon adsorption while
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40 charge redistributes at the C bonded to the O atoms as well as the three nearest-neighboring C
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42 atoms. The energetically favorable charge redistribution originates from the delocalized C p_z
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44 orbitals of GR-Rh/Ni(111) near the Fermi level, which are absent for GR-Rh such that the
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46 electron donation from the non-bonded C to O_2 is hindered.
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Constrained thermodynamics calculations were performed to examine the stability of adsorbed oxygen at various temperatures and pressures. At an oxygen partial pressure of 1 bar and a typical operating temperature of 473 K, we found that **O₂-a** is the most stable adsorption configuration, which is 0.06 eV more stable than **2O₂**. **O₂-c** is not stable at MTM operating conditions. While a chemisorbed O₂ that is activated to a greater extent might be more active for CH₄ activation, we considered the **O₂-a**, **O₂-b**, and **2O₂** structures as active sites for the MTM process.

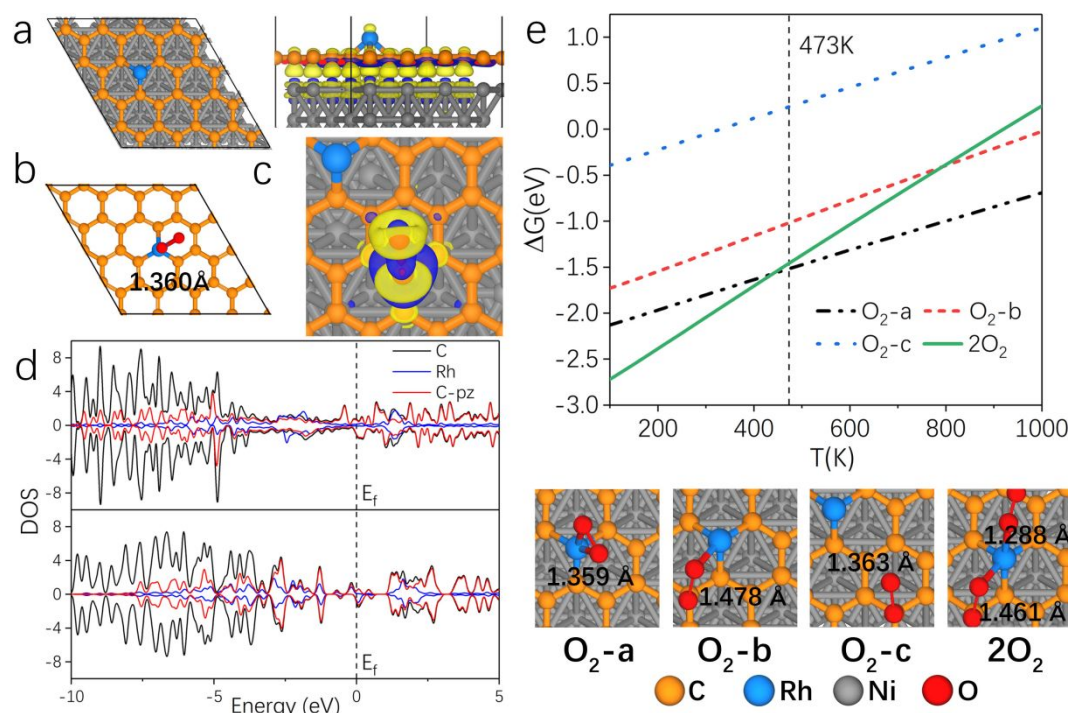


Figure 1. a. Top and side view of a Rh-doped (4×4) GR supported on Ni(111). A carbon atom of pristine GR is substituted by a rhodium atom to create Rh-doped GR. The side view also displays the charge difference plot upon the adsorption of GR-Rh on Ni(111). The isosurface value is 0.003 |e|/bohr³. The accumulation (depletion) of electrons is denoted by yellow (blue). b. Adsorption of O₂ on free-standing GR-Rh. c. Charge difference plot upon the adsorption of O₂ on a carbon site of GR-Rh/Ni(111). The isosurface value is 0.003 |e|/bohr³. d. Projected DOS of C and Rh for GR-

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4 Rh/Ni(111) and GR-Rh, respectively. Positive and negative values of DOS denote spin-up and spin-
5 down electrons, respectively. e. Results from constrained thermodynamic calculations of O₂
6 adsorption on GR-Rh/Ni(111). The O₂ partial pressure is 1 bar. O-O bond lengths are labelled.
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10 11 12 **Conversion of methane to methanol on TM-doped monolayers supported on** 13 14 15 **Ni(111)**

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17 Reaction energy profiles of methane oxidation on GR-Rh/Ni(111) with **2O₂** as the active
18 site is shown in Figure 2. For the calculation of the free energy profiles, the partial pressures of
19 CH₄, O₂, and CH₃OH were set to 50, 1, and 1 bar, respectively. The temperature was set to 473
20 K.¹ Starting from **O₂-a (IS, Fig 2a)**, one additional O₂ is adsorbed to form the active site **(1)**,
21 which is endergonic by 0.06 eV. Next, methane physisorbs on GR-Rh/Ni(111) **(2)**, which
22 subsequently can react with the two oxygen atoms of the adsorbed O₂ with a bond length of
23 1.461 Å (while the other adsorbed O₂ with an O-O bond length of 1.288 Å is a bystander during
24 the reaction). For the reaction with the first oxygen atom, breaking of the C-H bond occurs
25 concurrently with formation of an O-H bond on GR-Rh/Ni(111), the formation of a Rh-C bond,
26 and a further elongation of the O-O bond to 1.505 Å **(2→3)**. The first reaction step occurs with
27 a reasonably low free energy barrier of 1.12 eV (Figure 2a). We also considered the dissociation
28 of O₂ before reacting with methane. However, we did not obtain a stable configuration with a
29 broken O-O bond. The breaking of the O-O bond **(3→4)** only requires overcoming a small
30 barrier of 0.04 eV. The formation of the first CH₃OH **(4→5)** also occurs readily with a free
31 energy barrier of 0.09 eV, which can be explained by the high exergonicity of this elementary
32 step (-2.19 eV). Subsequent desorption of CH₃OH is slightly endergonic by 0.08 eV **(5→6)**,
33 significantly facilitating the often-challenging methanol removal step typical of Cu-exchanged
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zeolites.³ The second oxygen then reacts with another CH_4 by overcoming a free energy barrier of 0.96 eV ($7 \rightarrow 8$). The second CH_3OH is formed upon association of the CH_3 and OH species ($8 \rightarrow 9$). Finally, upon the desorption of the second CH_3OH ($9 \rightarrow \text{FS}$) the catalytic cycle is closed. Apart from the methanol formation mechanism, O-H bond breaking of the adsorbed methanol can also occur ($5 \rightarrow 10$), forming an adsorbed methoxy and hydroxyl that in some catalyst systems (see below) — but not on GR-Rh/Ni(111) as shown in Figure 2 — can poison the active site. The entire MTM process has an effective barrier of 1.37 eV, corresponding to the first CH_4 activation process. As CH_4 is only physisorbed at the active center with pre-adsorbed O_2/O , the MTM mechanism can be described as an Eley-Rideal mechanism.

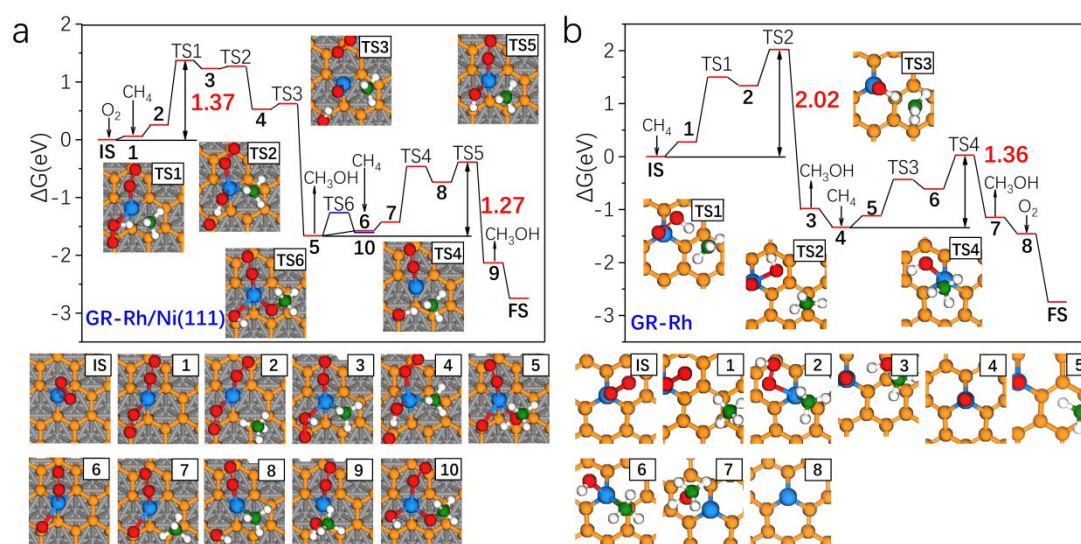


Figure 2. Pressure corrected ($P_{\text{O}_2} = 1$ bar, $P_{\text{CH}_4} = 50$ bar, $P_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}} = 1$ bar) free energy profiles at 473 K associated with the configurations of each intermediate and transition state for the methane partial oxidation over (a) GR-Rh/Ni(111), 2O_2 configuration is the active species; (b) GR-Rh. IS and FS denote initial and final state, respectively. The energetics of each state is also provided in Table S2 and S3. Hydrogen is shown in white; the carbon atom pertaining to CH_4 is shown in green.

The energy profile of the MTM process occurring at $\text{O}_2\text{-b}$, which features a chemisorbed

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4 O₂ at the interfacial site with an O-O bond length of 1.478 Å, is presented in Figure S1. While
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6 the methane C-H activation and the formation of methanol can readily occur, the effective
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8 barrier of the reaction amounts to 1.62 eV since the free energy of the **O₂-b** site is 0.50 eV
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10 higher than that of **O₂-a**. Starting from **O₂-a**, where O₂ is adsorbed over Rh, both the first
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12 methane C-H cleavage and the methanol formation step are difficult with an effective barrier
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14 of 1.74 eV (Figure S2). The high barrier can be explained by two aspects, 1) the O₂ of **O₂-a** is
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16 activated to a lesser extent than that at an interfacial site and there is an energy penalty to further
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18 reduce O₂; 2) O₂ binds with Rh strongly and CH₃ has to compete with O₂ for the adsorption
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20 site. Since the high effective barrier of the first methanol formation process for **O₂-a** is even
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22 higher than that of **O₂-b**, we did not examine the second methanol formation process for **O₂-a**.
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30 Interestingly, the CH₄ activation process is dramatically different for free-standing GR-Rh
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32 (Figure 2b). A O₂ molecule only binds with Rh through a η² mode and the O-O bond length is
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34 elongated to 1.360 Å upon adsorption (Figure 1b). The effective barrier of the entire process
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36 was calculated to be 2.02 eV, which occurs at the formation of the first methanol elementary
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38 step (**2**→**3**). The very different free energy profile of the Ni(111)-supported and free-standing
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40 GR-Rh highlights the critical role of the metal support for the MTM reaction.
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45 As Cu-exchanged zeolites are among the most extensively explored catalysts for MTM
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47 conversion, we also examined Cu for TM-doped GR supported on Ni(111) as a candidate of a
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49 MTM catalyst. Preferred O₂ adsorption configurations under reaction conditions were
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51 determined by constrained thermodynamics calculations (Figure S3). With the most stable
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53 configuration of two O₂ adsorbed on GR-Cu/Ni(111), we found that the effective barrier of the
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55 first C-H cleavage is 1.62 eV (Figure S4), significantly higher than the effective barrier of 1.37
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4 eV for the entire process on GR-Rh/Ni(111). An energy barrier difference of 0.25 eV suggests
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6 a ~460 times lower reaction rate at 473 K. Therefore, GR-Cu/Ni(111) is not a good candidate
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8 as a MTM catalyst.
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11 We also examined the energy profile of the MTM on Rh-doped hBN. Three O₂ can adsorb
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13 neighboring the Rh dopant at operating conditions (Figure S5). While methane activation and
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15 methanol formation can occur on hBN-Rh/Ni(111) with an effective barrier of only 1.31 eV,
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17 methoxy species (**9**) can be formed easier than methanol and is highly stable, rendering the
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19 effective barrier of the second methanol formation step to be 2.05 eV and poisoning the catalyst
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21 (Figure S6).
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27 Owing to the electronic perturbation of the Rh-doped GR monolayer by the presence of
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29 the Ni(111) support, impressive catalytic activities for methane partial oxidation are predicted
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31 that are non-existent for the free-standing counterparts. The interaction between the Rh-doped
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33 GR and Ni(111) that enables the catalytic properties of Rh-doped GR is termed as Electronic
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35 Atomic Monolayer–metal Support Interaction (EAMSI) which is distinct to the classical strong
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37 metal-support interaction¹⁴ or electronic metal–support interaction.¹⁵ The previously reported
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39 electronic interaction between graphene and encapsulated TMs^{22-23, 38} that can lead to desired
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41 catalytic activities falls likely also into our definition of EAMSI. We will demonstrate the
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43 general nature of EAMSI in the next section by illustrating more examples of tunability of probe
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45 molecule adsorption energies on TM-doped monolayers when these are chemisorbed on a
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47 Ni(111) support.
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55 Next, we developed a microkinetic model for the MTM reaction to better understand the
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57 reaction kinetics of the GR-Rh/Ni(111) catalyst (details in the supplementary information). At
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4 473 K, the turnover frequency for Rh-hBN/Ni(111) was calculated to be 0.017/s. The apparent
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6 activation energy for the catalyst was found to be 0.59 eV (Figure S7). A reaction order of 1
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8 and 0.54 was obtained for CH₄ (1-50 bar) and O₂ (1-5 bar). The rate controlling step (first CH₄
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10 C-H cleavage) was identified using Campbell's degree of rate control (DRC) and
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12 thermodynamic rate control (TRC) analysis³⁹ and all degrees of rate control are listed in Table
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19 An important concern regarding methane partial oxidation is the selectivity to methanol
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21 since the C-H bond energy of methanol is 0.49 eV lower than that of methane and hence,
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23 overoxidation of methanol is possible.¹ Conventional scaling relationships, correlating the
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25 activation energies of C-H dissociation and H adsorption energies, suggest that the energy
26
27 barrier of the methane C-H bond is ~0.55 eV higher than that of methanol.² To circumvent the
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29 undesired overoxidation of methanol, it has been proposed to mix an adsorbent with strong
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31 adsorption energy for methanol with the catalyst to effectively reduce the partial pressure of
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33 methanol.⁴⁰ In the present study, however, we found that the transition state (TS) DFT energies
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35 for the first and second CH₄ C-H cleavage is only 0.13 and 0.08 eV higher than that of CH₃OH
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37 occurring at the same adsorption site, respectively, breaking the scaling relationships of the TS
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39 energies for methane and methanol C-H bond activation.² Under reaction conditions of a CH₄
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41 partial pressure of 50 bar and a CH₃OH partial pressure of 1 bar, the free energies of the C-H
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43 bond cleavage TSs in CH₄ for the first and second surface oxygen are 0.19 and 0.22 eV lower
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45 than those for the C-H bond cleavage TSs in CH₃OH. CH₄ C-H breaking is preferred by ~0.04
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47 eV over that of CH₃OH even when the two molecules have the same partial pressure (Figure
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49 S8). As such, overoxidation of methanol can be avoided at significant methane conversion. To
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4 understand the unusual selectivity towards methane C-H activation, we plotted the spin density
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6 of each TS structure and found that no spin density is localized at the carbon atom (Figure S9).
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9 Therefore, these TS structures are not radicals, different to what is assumed in the well-accepted
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11 C-H activation scaling relationship.² We also analyzed the bond lengths and Bader charges of
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13 the TS structures (Table 1). In contrast to the conventional radical-like TS² where the CH₃-
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15 group (or CH₂OH-group for the TS of CH₃OH) is only tethered to one surface oxygen atom,
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17 the CH₃ (CH₂OH) of the TSs of the present study are stabilized by both the surface oxygen and
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19 the neighboring Rh with the Rh-C distance being ~2.4 Å. As revealed by Bader analysis, both
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21 C-H dissociation TS structures for CH₃OH have a slightly positively charged carbon atom due
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23 to the neighboring OH group. In contrast, both C-H dissociation TS structures for CH₄ have a
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25 negatively charged carbon atom of ca. -0.5 |e⁻| since carbon is more electronegative than
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27 hydrogen. The repulsive electrostatic C-Rh interactions for the CH₃OH TS and attractive C-Rh
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29 interactions for the CH₄ TS lead to a significantly narrowed energy difference between the
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31 CH₃OH and CH₄ TSs. This observation is also consistent with the shorter C-Rh distance for the
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33 two CH₄ TS structures. Here, we note that the O₂-H₂ (see Figure 3) bond distances for both
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35 CH₃OH TS structures are ~2 Å such that also the hydrogen bond stabilization in the CH₃OH
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37 TS structures is very weak. Overall, the synergy of the oxygen and the neighboring cationic Rh
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39 leads to the stabilization (destabilization) of the TS for CH₄ (CH₃OH).
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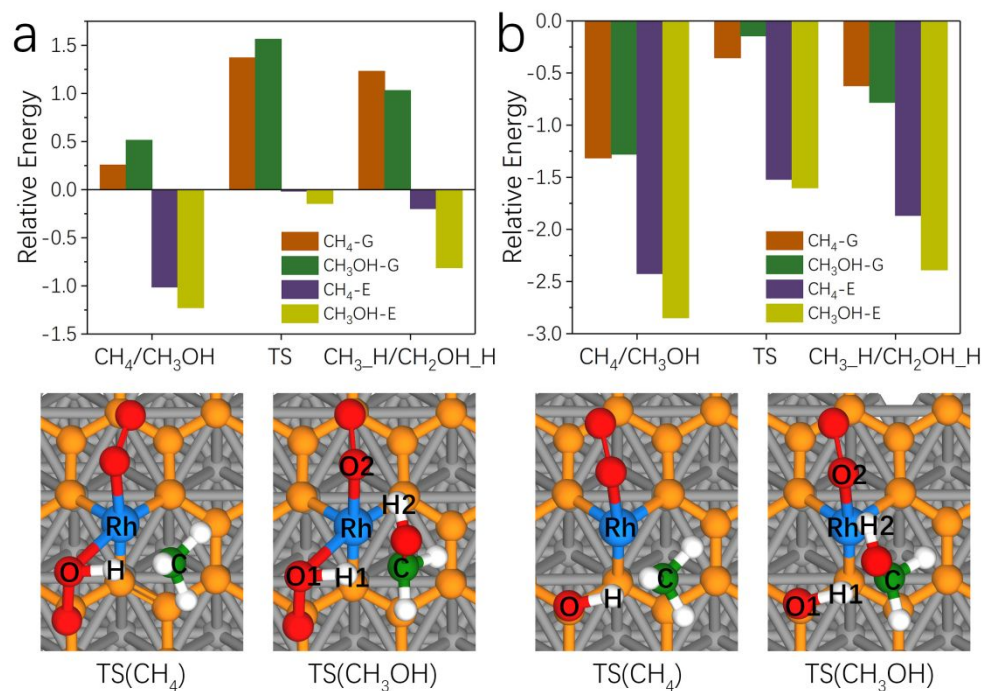


Figure 3. DFT energy and free energy ($T = 473$ K, $P_{O_2} = 1$ bar, $P_{CH_4} = 50$ bar, $P_{CH_3OH} = 1$ bar) profile for CH_4 and CH_3OH C-H breaking by the first (a) and second (b) surface oxygen on GR-Rh/Ni(111). G denotes free energy and E denote DFT energy. The reference states are set to be the **IS** in Figure 2 and the corresponding gas molecules.

Table 1.

Bond lengths and Bader charges of $TS(CH_4)$ and $TS(CH_3OH)$ on the first and second surface oxygen on GR-Rh/Ni(111). Atoms are labelled identically to those in Figure 3.

	First oxygen				Second oxygen			
	$TS(CH_4)$		$TS(CH_3OH)$		$TS(CH_4)$		$TS(CH_3OH)$	
Bond Length(\AA)	O-H	1.185	O1-H1	1.204	O-H	1.208	O1-H1	1.246
	C-H	1.498	C-H	1.476	C-H	1.478	C-H	1.443
	Rh-C	2.340	Rh-C	2.418	Rh-C	2.346	Rh-C	2.423
			O2-H2	2.001			O2-H2	1.979
Bader Charge($ e^- $)	Rh	0.76	Rh	0.75	Rh	0.70	Rh	0.67
	C	-0.50	C	0.17	C	-0.52	C	0.15
			O2	-0.29			O2	-0.28
			H2	0.74			H2	0.67

Tuning the adsorption energies of probe molecules by EAMSI

We further explored the universality of changing the adsorption strength of various molecules on TM-doped 2D materials by chemisorption on Ni(111). Cu, Fe, Ir, Mn and Rh are common active elements in heterogeneous catalysis and were therefore tested for doping graphene, hBN, and N-doped graphene featuring a MN_4 motif (Figure 4d). The study of TM-atoms immobilized in N-doped graphene featuring a MN_4 motif is a recently emerging topic in single-atom electrocatalysis.^{27, 41} Figure 4a lists the adsorption energies of these TM-doped monolayers on Ni(111). Next, the adsorption strength of CO, C_2H_4 , and OH were examined for TM-doped GR (Figure 4b). In general, the presence of the Ni(111) support has a noticeable effect on the adsorption energy. For example, the E_{ads} of CO on GR-Cu/Ni(111) and GR-Cu are -1.87 and -1.34 eV, respectively. Also, the E_{ads} of C_2H_4 on GR-Ir/Ni(111) is -1.62 eV compared with -1.36 eV on GR-Ir. The fact that Ni(111) can regulate the adsorption energies of OH also has important implications for the design of ORR catalysts, where the OH adsorption energy is a common descriptor of ORR activity.⁴² This is consistent with a very recent study by Mao et al.³⁰ The adsorption of CO is used to probe the properties of Ni(111)-supported and free-standing TM-doped hBN (Figure 4c) and graphene- MN_4 (Figure 4d). All of these results suggest that the presence of a metal support that forms covalent bonds with the TM-doped atomic monolayer can regulate the adsorption energy of small molecules on the TM-dopant. Therefore, it is possible to tune the catalytic properties of SACs by harnessing EAMSI that could possibly modify the adsorption strength of intermediate and transition state structures. Up to now, we only considered the cases of monometallic Ni(111)-supported monolayers. The

adsorption energy of a molecule can also be tuned by doping Ni(111) with a heteroatom. When a Ni atom underneath a dopant-bonded N in hBN is replaced with Cu (Figure S10), the E_{ads} for CO on hBN-Cu/Ni(111) is -1.82 eV, as compared with the pristine Ni(111) case of -2.00 eV. The diversity of atomic monolayers, TM dopants, and metal supports opens enormous opportunities for design of SACs.

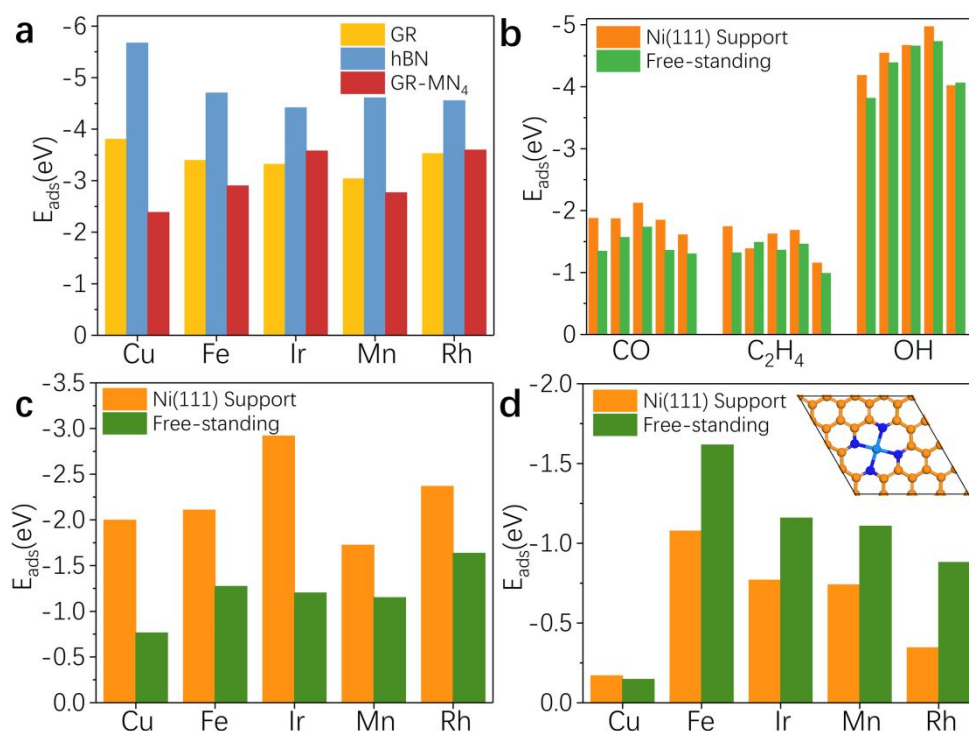


Figure 4 a. Adsorption energies of Cu, Fe, Ir, Mn, and Rh-doped GR, hBN and GR-MN₄ on (4×4) Ni(111). b. Adsorption energies of CO, C₂H₄, and OH on Ni(111) supported Cu, Fe, Ir, Mn and Rh-doped GR as well as the free-standing ones. c. Adsorption energies of CO on TM-doped hBN. d. Adsorption energies of CO on MN₄-embedded graphene. The insets in d display the configuration of RhN₄-graphene.

Conclusions

We propose a novel electronic atomic monolayer-metal support interaction (EAMSI) that enables the activation of dioxygen upon adsorption, which in turn leads to the activation of

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4 methane through an Eley-Rideal reaction mechanism. GR-Rh/Ni(111) exhibits a high activity
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6 for methane partial oxidation. The high activity can be traced back to the presence of interfacial
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8 oxygen on GR-Rh/Ni(111), which is activated by Rh and graphene C atoms. The conventional
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10 C-H activation scaling relationship that predicts a TS energy difference of ~ 0.55 eV between
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12 CH₄ and CH₃OH is broken, leading to a significantly narrowed energy difference. The breaking
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14 of the scaling relationship is due to the synergy of adsorbed activated oxygen atoms on the
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16 surface and a neighboring cationic Rh atom that electrostatically attracts (repels) the methane
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18 (methanol) carbon atom in the C-H transition state, a mechanism that can likely more generally
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20 be used for the design of MTM catalysts with minimal overoxidation of methanol.
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27 Overall, the proposed GR-Rh/Ni(111) catalyst can potentially overcome various issues of
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29 typical Cu-exchanged zeolite MTM catalysts such as the necessity of catalyst pre-oxidation,
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31 low activity and methane conversion as well as strong adsorption of methanol. Finally, the
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33 properties of Ni(111)-supported monolayers and free-standing 2D materials were probed with
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35 the adsorption of several small molecules. The feasibility of tuning the adsorption energy of
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37 various probe molecules with EAMSI represents a new paradigm for tuning the properties of
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39 atomic monolayer-based single-site catalysts that have great structural and compositional
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41 diversity.
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50 **Methods**

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53 First-principles calculations were performed using periodic density functional theory (DFT),
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55 as implemented in the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP 5.4.4).⁴³⁻⁴⁴ The spin-polarized
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57 generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the PBE functional⁴⁵ was used to treat
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4 exchange–correlation effects. A plane wave basis set with a cutoff energy of 400 eV was selected
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6 to describe the valence electrons. The electron–ion interactions were described by the projector
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8 augmented wave (PAW)⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷ method. The Brillouin zone integration was performed with a 3×3×1
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10 Monkhorst–Pack⁴⁸ (MP) k-mesh and Gaussian smearing ($\sigma=0.1$ eV). We used Grimme’s DFT-D3⁴⁹
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12 scheme to include the van der Waals interactions semi-empirically. The SCF and force convergence
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14 criteria for structural optimization were set to 1×10^{-5} eV and 0.01 eV/Å, respectively. The climbing
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16 image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB)⁵⁰ and dimer methods⁵¹⁻⁵² were used to optimize the transition
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18 state structures. The force convergence criterion for transition state optimization was set to be 0.03
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20 eV/Å. A five-layer 4×4 Ni(111) slab was used to describe the Ni slab and neighboring slabs were
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22 separated by a 13 Å vacuum. Harmonic transition state theory was used to calculate all elementary
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24 rate constants of surface processes. Collision theory with a sticking coefficient of 1 was used to
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26 estimate the rate constants for adsorption processes. Details of rate constant calculations and the
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28 microkinetic model are provided in the supporting information. In all models, we applied the
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30 standard correction to the O-O bonding energy⁵³ as detailed in the Supporting Information. The
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32 adsorption energy of a gas phase molecule is defined as $E_{\text{ads}}=E(\text{surface+adsorbent})- E(\text{surface})-$
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34 $E(\text{adsorbent})$. The adsorption energy of a metal atom is defined as $E_{\text{ads}}=E(\text{surface+atom})-$
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36 $E(\text{surface})-E(\text{atom from bulk metal})$.
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50 **Associated content**

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53 Supporting Information

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56 Alternative energy profiles of methane partial oxidation over GR-Rh/Ni(111); methane C-H
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58 activation over GR-Cu/Ni(111); methane partial oxidation over hBN-Rh/Ni(111); Arrhenius
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4 plot; transition state free energies of C-H breaking for CH₄ and CH₃OH at various pressures;
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6 spin density of transition states for CH₄ and CH₃OH C-H bond breaking; CO adsorption on Cu-
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8 doped hBN supported on Cu-doped Ni(111); details of the microkinetic model; atomic
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10 coordinates of each transition and intermediates for reaction over GR-Rh/Ni(111).
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21
22 Author contributions

23
24 Y. X. performed the DFT calculations. Both Y.X. and A.H. participated in the discussion of the
25
26 results and writing of the manuscript.
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28

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30 Notes

31
32 The authors declare no competing financial interest.
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34

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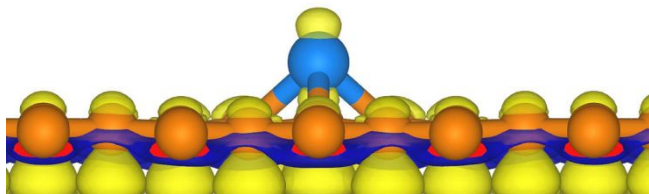
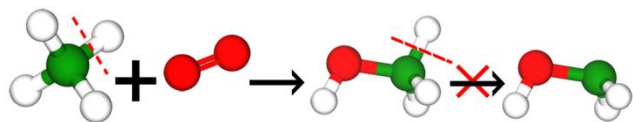
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