Ambient sunlight-driven photothermal methanol dehydrogenation for syngas production with 32.9% solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency

HIGHLIGHTS
- Atomically substitutional Pt-doped CeO$_2$ is active and robust for CH$_3$OH dehydrogenation
- The photothermal conversion device can heat Pt$_x$-CeO$_2$ to 299°C under 1 sun irradiation
- The joint system achieves a one sun irradiated H$_2$ production rate of 481.1 mmol g$^{-1}$ h$^{-1}$
- This system delivers a high solar-to-H$_2$ efficiency of 32.9% under one sun irradiation
Ambient sunlight-driven photothermal methanol dehydrogenation for syngas production with 32.9 % solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency

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SUMMARY
Methanol dehydrogenation is an efficient way to produce syngas with high quality. The current efficiency of sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation is poor, which is limited by the lack of excellent catalysts and effective methods to convert sunlight into chemicals. Here, we show that atomically substitutional Pt-doped in CeO2 nanosheets (Pts-CeO2) exhibit excellent methanol dehydrogenation activity with 500-hr level catalytic stability, 11 times higher than that of Pt nanoparticles/CeO2. Further, we introduce a photothermal conversion device to heat Pts-CeO2 up to 299°C under 1 sun irradiation owning to efficient full sunlight absorption and low heat dissipation, thus achieving an extraordinarily high methanol dehydrogenation performance with a 481.1 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ of H₂ production rate and a high solar-to-hydrogen (STH) efficiency of 32.9%. Our method represents another progress for ambient sunlight-driven stable and active methanol dehydrogenation technology.

INTRODUCTION
Owing to the intermittent nature of energy production by renewable sources such as wind and solar energy, the new method to store and transport energy is significant for sustainable industrial implementation of renewable energy technologies. Reversible energy storage in the form of stable and transportable chemicals like methanol can address these challenges (Govindarajan et al., 2020). Methanol dehydrogenation can produce syngas (a mixture of H₂ and CO) that has diverse applications (Dry, 2002; Khodakov et al., 2007). Syngas can not only contribute to electricity generation, transportation fuel production, and replacement for gasoline (Asthana et al., 2017; Paulino et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020) but also serve as a vital chemical intermediate resource for the production of hydrogen via water-gas shift reaction, hydrocarbons via Fischer-Tropsch synthesis, ammonia via Haber-Bosch process, and higher chain alcohols/aldehydes via oxo-process (Huber et al., 2006). On the other hand, methanol dehydrogenation requires high operating temperatures due to the endothermic reaction nature, consuming a lot of energy restricting its application (Palo et al., 2007; Sordakis et al., 2018). As the most green and sustainable energy, solar-driven hydrogen generation from methanol is an attractive strategy to save the nonrenewable energy while storing solar energy (Huang et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2016, 2018; Wang et al., 2018b). So far, the efficiency of sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation via photocatalytic and photothermal synergistic strategies is difficultly improved due to the limitations in photogenerated carriers’ transfer (Liu et al., 2016), sunlight absorption, and reactivity (Chen et al., 2010; Kudo and Miseki, 2009; Xiao and Jiang, 2019). As far as we known, the state of the art of sunlight-driven hydrogen production rate from methanol dehydrogenation is ~0.2 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Pang et al., 2019), far behind the demands of industrialization. Therefore, it is a great challenge to develop an innovative and sustainable solar-driven system that is highly efficient, stable, and low-cost to generate H₂ and CO from methanol without additional energy input.

Except photocatalytic and photothermal synergic strategies (Chai et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018c), directly converting sunlight into thermal energy to drive catalytic reactions, namely sunlight-driven thermal catalysis, is another promising route to efficiently store solar energy into chemicals (Li et al., 2019; O’Brien et al., 2018), as black materials can absorb almost all the sunlight, from UV to infrared (IR) light, and convert it to thermal energy (Bae et al., 2015; Oara Neumann et al., 2013). However, the temperatures of black materials under natural sunlight irradiation are usually lower than 100°C due to the serious dissipation of sunlight into thermal energy (Bae et al., 2015; Oara Neumann et al., 2013), far behind the demands of industrialization. Therefore, it is a great challenge to develop an innovative and sustainable solar-driven system that is highly efficient, stable, and low-cost to generate H₂ and CO from methanol without additional energy input.

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thermal energy (Xu et al., 2017; Zeng et al., 2014), making it difficult to initiate methanol dehydrogenation (requiring 200°C to drive this reaction) (Brown and Guliani, 2004; Marbán et al., 2010; Mostafa et al., 2009). Our recent work of using selective light absorber to construct a photothermal conversion system is able to convert dispersed solar energy to high temperature (~288°C), which provides the potential of realizing natural sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation reaction (Li et al., 2019). Additionally, exploring efficient and stable catalysts to produce hydrogen from methanol dehydrogenation at mild operating temperatures is also crucial. Recently, single-atom catalysts have shown extraordinary activities in various reactions, e.g., CO2 reduction (Yang et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2017), oxygen reduction reaction (Chen et al., 2017), ethanol oxidation (Wang et al., 2017), owing to the maximum atom-utilization efficiency and unique electronic features. In order to make single-atom catalysts practical, the preparation of single atoms with high loading amounts is a basic factor. However, the dense single atoms in thermal catalysis are generally not stable under realistic reaction conditions due to their active nature (Qiao et al., 2011; Wei et al., 2014). Exploring highly stable and active dense single atom catalysts are thus the key to achieve practical solar-driven hydrogen generation from methanol.

In this work, in order to achieve efficient methanol dehydrogenation with high STH conversion efficiency under only one sun irradiation, we first developed a bimetal metal ions adsorption strategy to synthesize Pt single atoms on CeO2 nanosheets (PtCe- CeO2) with a high Pt content (7.4 at%) and a lattice substituted single atom structure. The experimental and theoretical results evidently showed that lattice confinement strategy leads to both high activity and robust structure stability for methanol dehydrogenation during long-term operation. Then an improved photothermal conversion device was constructed, which could heat PtCe- CeO2 to 299°C under one sun irradiation. As a result, the joint system gives rise to an unprecedented ambient sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation performance in terms of hydrogen production rate (481.1 mmol g\textsuperscript{-1} h\textsuperscript{-1}), solar-to-H\textsubscript{2} (STH) efficiency (32.9%), and stability (700 hr).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis of substitutional Pt single atoms in CeO\textsubscript{2} nanosheets

Pt single atoms have been demonstrated to be efficient for methanol dehydrogenation (Wang et al., 2018a). However, oxide-supported Pt single atoms synthesized by the impregnation method generally show the aggregation of Pt species to form Pt nanoparticles when annealing at high temperatures with high loading amounts. Figure S1A shows the atomic-scale scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) images of 7.1 at% Pt-loaded on CeO2 nanosheets prepared by impregnation method and annealed at 450°C. It is clear that the Pt species were aggregated as nanoparticles (5 nm, denoted as Pt/ CeO2 450) rather than Pt single atoms. To overcome this problem, we developed a bimetal deposition method with graphene oxides as the template to synthesize substitutional Pt-doped CeO2 nanosheets in single atomic form (PtCe- CeO2) (Gao et al., 2017). As shown in Figure 1A, graphene oxides nanosheets were first dispersed into the aqueous solution containing soluble Pt, Ce precursors. Then, the mixture was freeze-dried to deposit the Pt and Ce metal ions on the surface of graphene oxides (Figure 1A). As Pt and Ce precursors were uniformly deposited on graphene oxides, the sample was annealed at 450°C to remove the graphene oxides and form the Pt-doped CeO2 nanosheets (denoted as PtCe- CeO2) (see Figure S2). X-ray diffraction patterns show only diffraction peaks of CeO2, and no peak assigned to metallic Pt on PtCe- CeO2 (see Figure S3A) (Kong et al., 2020). Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) shows that the molar content of Pt was 7.4 at% (see Figure S3B). Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images reveal that PtCe- CeO2 had nanosheet morphology with a mesoporous structure (Figures 1B and 1C). Figure S4 illustrates 3.1-nm thickness of the nanosheet. STEM-EDS shows that Pt and Ce elements were uniformly distributed over nanosheets (Figure 1D). The atomic-scale STEM image in Figure 1E demonstrates that bright dots were distributed in CeO2. This suggests that the 7.4 at% of Pt maintained the single atomic form in PtCe- CeO2, revealing the capacity of this method for preparing dense Pt single atoms (Figure 1E).

We further characterized the structure difference between PtCe- CeO2 and Pt single atoms synthesized by surface impregnation method (PtCe- CeO2). Different from the random dispersion of Pt single atoms in PtCe- CeO2 (see Figure S1B), the STEM image in Figure 1E clearly shows that Pt atom was located in the lattice position of Ce atom, indicating a substitutional doping mode of Pt in PtCe- CeO2. To confirm the coordination structure of Pt in PtCe- CeO2, the extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) of Pt in PtCe- CeO2 was investigated, in comparison with PtCe- CeO2 and Pt/ CeO2 450. Fourier transformed EXAFS (FT-EXAFS) of the Pt L\textsubscript{3}-edge shows that the peak of Pt in PtCe- CeO2 was different from the curve of PtCe- CeO2 (Figure 1F and Table S1) and Pt/ CeO2 450, and was similar to the curve of Ce in PtCe- CeO2, suggesting the existence of Pt-O
and Pt-Ce coordination in Pt₅₋₋CeO₂. The EXAFS simulation (Table S1) shows that the coordination number of Pt-O in Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ was 7.3, larger than that of Pt in Pt₁₋₋CeO₂ (4.9). Further, Figure 1G shows that the simulated FT-EXAFS curve of proposed Pt-doped CeO₂ model was also well fitted to the curve of Pt₅₋₋CeO₂. These results confirm that Pt was indeed substitutionally doped in CeO₂ nanosheets in single atom form, agreeing well with the STEM result. Therefore, the lattice substitution structure was able to allow the high density of Pt single atoms in Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ to maintain good thermal stability. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller specific area of Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ was 278.5 m² g⁻¹ (see Figure S5), ensuring numerous active sites for methanol dehydrogenation. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis shows that the Pt 4f₇/₂ peak of Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ was at 72.3 eV (see Figure S6), higher than that of the normal metallic Pt⁰ 4f₇/₂ state (70.9 eV) (Qiao et al., 2011), indicative of the oxidation state of Pt single atoms in Pt₅₋₋CeO₂, which might be originated from the substitutional doped structure of single atoms.

**Hydrogen production performance from methanol dehydrogenation over Pt₅₋₋CeO₂**

As the catalytic activity of CeO₂ nanosheets can be neglected (see Figure S7), we tested the thermocatalytic methanol dehydrogenation (CH₃OH → 2H₂ + CO) performance of Pt species in Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ and Pt/CeO₂ 450. Compared with Pt/CeO₂ 450, Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ displayed considerably high catalytic performances (Figure 2A). At the temperature of 150 °C, the signals of carbon monoxide and hydrogen were detected over Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ but not over Pt/CeO₂ 450. As temperature was increased to 300 °C, the hydrogen generation rate was increased to 111.02 mol g⁻¹ Pt h⁻¹ over Pt₅₋₋CeO₂, equaling to H₂ turnover frequency (TOF) of 21,658 h⁻¹, which was approximately 11 times that of Pt/CeO₂ 450 (10.19 mol g⁻¹ Pt h⁻¹, 1988 h⁻¹ of TOF, see Figures 2A and S8). The generation rate of CO was 0.5 times of H₂ at different temperature over Pt₅₋₋CeO₂ and methanol.
conversion reached ~6.0% at 300°C (see Figure S9). The methanol dehydrogenation activity of dense Pt single atoms anchored on CeO2 nanosheets (Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2}) are reduced sharply at operating temperature of 300°C (see Figure S10A) and the Pt single atoms will be aggregated as Pt nanoparticles after long-term operation (see Figure S10B). Methanol dehydrogenation stability of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} was evaluated at 300°C for up to 504 hr. As shown in Figure 2B, the hydrogen generation rate of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} was slashed from 106.58 to 126.74 mol g\textsuperscript{-1} h\textsuperscript{-1}, with no obvious decay trend (Figure 2B). The atom scale STEM (inset image in Figure 2B) and XPS spectrum (see Figure S11) of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} after 504 hr reaction showed that the Pt single atoms were not precipitated and the chemical state of Pt remained stable. In addition, TEM image (see Figure S12) shows that Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} maintained the nanosheet structure after reaction. These results reveal the robust durability and stability of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} in methanol dehydrogenation.

The thermal stability and methanol dehydrogenation mechanism of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} was examined by density functional theory (DFT) theoretical simulations. The DFT results show that the formation energy of Pt single atoms anchored on CeO\textsubscript{2} (Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} mode) and doped in CeO\textsubscript{2} lattice (Pt\textsubscript{d}-CeO\textsubscript{2} mode) is −4.53 and −6.08 eV per Pt atom, respectively (see Figures 2C and S13). This confirms that the Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} is a more thermodynamically stable structure, which is the reason for robust of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} in methanol dehydrogenation. We also calculated the methanol dehydrogenation pathways of Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} in comparison with metallic Pt nanoparticles (see Figures S14 and S15). As the Pt atoms in Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} are coordinated to lattice oxygens, the electrons are accumulated to lattice oxygens, which results in the positive theoretical oxidation state (+2.7) of Pt, much higher than that of metallic Pt (+0.42). As shown in Figure 2D, the ability of Pt sites in Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} for adsorbing methanol (−1.27 eV) is higher than that in Pt nanoparticles (−0.71 eV), revealing the strong methanol adsorption ability of high valence Pt. Detailed decomposition-pathway calculations (Figure 2D) show that the energy barrier for complete CH\textsubscript{3}OH dissociation to CO*+4H* over Pt\textsubscript{a}-CeO\textsubscript{2} and Pt surface is 0.65 and 0.82 eV, respectively, and the rate-determining step is the decomposition of CH\textsubscript{3}OH* to CH\textsubscript{3}O*+H*. This result indicates that the CH\textsubscript{3}OH decomposition is kinetically more favorable...
on Pt₃-CeO₂. The high adsorption ability and low energy barrier lead to the high activity of Pt₃-CeO₂ for methanol dehydrogenation (Lin et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019).

Configuration of photothermal conversion device
Ambient sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation without additional heat energy input is a sustainable way to produce hydrogen and simultaneously solar energy into chemicals. However, the temperatures of catalysts were generally below 100°C under one sun irradiation (1 kW·m⁻²); such low temperatures were unable to drive catalytic methanol dehydrogenation. We have recently shown that the temperature of catalysts could amount to ~288°C under one sun irradiation with the assistance of a photothermal conversion device (Li et al., 2019). To obtain a high temperature under one sun irradiation, we further improved the photothermal conversion device. As shown in Figure 3A, the spectrally selective coating (TlONx) was coated on a quartz reaction tube (inner diameter: 7 mm, length: 500 mm) to construct a photothermal conversion device for the purpose of creating high temperature (see Figures S16–S18). Compared with the typical photothermal material graphene foam (see Figure S19) that absorb not only full spectrum of sunlight but also deep (IR) light ranging from 3 to 20 μm (Figure 3B) (Ren et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017),
spectrally selective coating could strongly absorb sunlight but few IR light (Figure 3B), indicating that it is able to fully absorb sunlight with little IR radiation (Li et al., 2019). Kirchhoff’s law illustrates that the IR absorptivity corresponds to the IR radiation capacity of materials (Dao et al., 2015). Therefore, most of heat energy originated from light is dissipated by IR radiation from graphene foam but not from spectrally selective coating (Ghasemi and Ranjbar, 2017). Moreover, a polished Cu film (see Figure S16) was also coated on the tube as shown in Figure 3A, aiming to reflect the IR radiation from the tube and catalysts to block thermal radiation output as shown in Figure 3C (Crawford and Treloar, 2004). In addition to inhibit IR radiation, a vacuum layer (1.7 × 10⁻³ Pa) was introduced to cover the whole reaction tube to eliminate the heat loss by conduction (Figure 3A). As a result, the inner temperatures of this device (Figure 3D) were consistently much higher than graphene foam under irradiation of sunlight with different intensities (the ambient temperature was 30°C, unless otherwise stated). The maximum inner temperature of this device reached 305°C under 1 sun irradiation (Figure 3E), while only 86°C was obtained from graphene foam by same light irradiation (Figure 3D). In addition, the maximum temperature of this device is around 180°C under 1 sun irradiation without coating Cu film.

Ambient sunlight-driven hydrogen production from methanol

We loaded Pt₃-CeO₂ in the photothermal conversion device and tested the sunlight-driven methanol dehydrogenation performance. As shown in Figure 4A, the new photothermal conversion device can heat Pt₃-CeO₂ to 299°C under one sun irradiation (1.0 kW·m⁻²) (see Figures S20 and S21), while the temperature of Pt₃-CeO₂ was only 78°C when it was directly irradiated by the same light intensity. The high temperature ensures the operation of methanol dehydrogenation. Hydrogen was even detected under only 0.2 kW·m⁻² of sunlight irradiation and hydrogen production rate reached 481.1 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ under 1.0 kW·m⁻² of sunlight irradiation with methanol conversion (see Figure S22), corresponding to 1964.6 L m⁻² h⁻¹ hydrogen output (Figure 4B), whereas the Pt₃-CeO₂ cannot decompose the methanol directly irradiated by one sun (see Figure S23). The STH conversion efficiency gradually increased with the intensity of sunlight irradiation and amounted to 32.9% under one sun irradiation (see Figures 4C, S24, and S25). The high STH conversion efficiency obtained at 30°C under 1 sun irradiation is higher than that of other photothermal catalytic systems and was even higher than the value of photovoltaic energy conversion efficiency of benchmark Si solar cell (~26%) (Bi et al., 2016). The durability of this photothermal conversion device-supported Pt₃-CeO₂ system was tested under one solar irradiation. Figure 4D
shows that the hydrogen production rate fluctuated between 1736 L m⁻² h⁻¹ and 2186 L m⁻² h⁻¹ without downward trend for as long as 744 hr, demonstrating excellent long-term stability. The morphology of Pt₅-CeO₂ nanosheets also remained stable after reaction (see Figure S26).

Conclusion
In this work, we developed a bimetal deposition method with graphene oxides as the template to synthesize 7.4 at% of Pt single atoms substitutional doped CeO₂ nanosheets (Pt₅-CeO₂). Pt₅-CeO₂ showed a high hydrogen generation rate of 111.02 mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ from methanol dehydrogenation at 300°C, excellent thermal stability and 500 hr level catalytic stability due to the lattice substitution structure of Pt single atoms. Further, a novel photothermal conversion device constructed by Cu film to block IR radiation output, spectrally selective coating to absorb sunlight with little IR radiation and vacuum layer to minimum heat conduction loss, were used to heat Pt₅-CeO₂ to 299°C under one standard solar irradiation at 30°C of ambient temperature. Under 1 sun irradiation, the new photothermal conversion device supported Pt-CeO₂ showed a hydrogen production rate of 476.6 mmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ or 1946 L m⁻² h⁻¹ from methanol with a month level stability, corresponding to STH efficiency of 32.9%. Our strategy of combining efficient single atom catalysts and photothermal conversion device demonstrates a potential efficient ambient sunlight-driven hydrogen generation strategy from methanol without additional energy input and may be applicable to other catalytic reactions to realize efficient solar to chemical energy conversion.

Limitations of the study
Here, we carried out experiments of sunlight-driven photothermal methanol dehydrogenation for syngas production with 32.9% STH conversion efficiency in our laboratory, where the produced toxic CO can be well handled. Due to the concerns about producing large amounts of toxic CO, it is unfeasible for us to perform the outdoor experiments using the current photothermal device. However, considering that the production of syngas is already very mature in industry, we believe that the outdoor experiments could be viable by improving the experimental equipment.

Resource availability
Lead contact
Further information and requests for resources and materials should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Jinhua Ye (Jinhua.YE@nims.go.jp).

Materials availability
All chemicals were obtained from commercial resources and used as received.

Data and code availability
There is no data set or code associated with this work.

METHODS
All methods can be found in the accompanying Transparent methods supplemental file.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION
Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2021.102056.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, Y. G. Li, H. Song and J. H. Ye.; Resources, Y. G. Li, X. H. Bai and D. C. Yuan Investigation, X. H. Bai; Formal Analysis, J. M. Lu, Y. F. Lu and X. Y. San; Writing—Original Draft Y. G. Li and H.S.; Writing—Review & Editing Y. G. Li, H. S., F. Wang and G. S. Fu. Supervision, J. H. Ye.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supplemental Information

Ambient sunlight-driven photothermal methanol dehydrogenation for syngas production with 32.9 % solar-to-hydrogen conversion efficiency

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Transparent Methods

Materials

Commercial cerium nitrate hydrate (Ce(NO₃)₂·6H₂O), chloroplatinic acid hydrate (H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O) were bought from Sinopharm Co., Ltd. Graphene oxides (GO) were synthesized by hummers method (Chen et al., 2013). Xicheng Special Gas Co., Ltd provided the liquid nitrogen. The chemicals were all used without any further treatment. Hebei scientist research experimental and equipment trade Co., Ltd provided spectrally selective coating and synthesized the new photothermal device shown in Figure 3A and Figure S16-18. The emissivity of this device is 0.03.

Synthesis of Pt₃-CeO₂

200 mg GO was added into 200 mL water and was stirred for 1 h. Then, 100 mg Ce(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 9 mg H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O were added into the above solution. After stirring for 15 mins, the solution was added into the liquid nitrogen in 1 minute and freeze-dried for 5 days by freeze dryer (FD-1A-50). The Pt₃-CeO₂ was obtained by annealing the above sample at 450 °C in air for 12 hours with heating rate of 2 °C min⁻¹.

Synthesis of CeO₂ nanosheets, Pt₃-CeO₂ and Pt/CeO₂

The synthesis of CeO₂ nanosheets was similar to the procedures of Pt₃-CeO₂ except that the Pt precursor was not added.

For the synthesis of Pt₃-CeO₂, 100 mg CeO₂ nanosheets and 23 mg H₂PtCl₆·6H₂O were mixed with 5 mL of water for 10 minutes to form a uniform mud. Then the mud was freeze as ice and freeze-dried for 2 days to remove the water. Finally, the dried sample was annealed at 200 and 450 °C in air for 12 hours with heating rate of 2 °C min⁻¹ to form the Pt₃-CeO₂, Pt/CeO₂ 450, respectively.

Synthesis of graphene foam.

20 mL aqueous solution containing 100 mg GO was stirred for 1 h, and then was frozen by refrigerator. The sample was freeze-dried for 5 days. Then the dried sample was reduced by 1 mL of hydrazine hydrate at 100 °C for 12 hours to obtain the graphene foam.

Characterizations.

XRD was characterized by a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer with a Cu Ka radiation (λ= 1.541 Å) at 20 kV. ARM 200F and JEOL F200+ were applied for the TEM, STEM and elemental mapping. The optical properties were investigated by a Shimadzu UV3600 UV–Vis spectrophotometer and a FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, VERTEX 70 FT-IR). Fluke Ti300 IR camera (America) was used to take IR picture. Platinum resistance thermometer (M363886) was used for detecting the data of temperatures. Thermo ESCALAB-250 spectrometer with a monochromatic Al Ka radiation source (1486.6 eV) was used to detect valence state of materials. Micromeritics Tristar 3020 system was used to test the specific surface area of catalysts. The Pt L₃-edge, Ce K-edge extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) data were tested by the BL14W1 beamline of Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF). Athena software was used to calibrate the energy scale, correct the background of signals, normalize intensity of signals and fourier transformed the data in k-space. Atomic force microscopy (AFM, Cypher ES) was used to detect the thickness of samples.
**Thermal catalytic test of hydrogen production from methanol**

The thermal catalytic activity of hydrogen generation from methanol was tested by the fixed-bed reactor (XM190708-007, DALIAN ZHONGJIARUIJIN LIQUID TECHNOLOGY CO., LTD) in continuous flow reactor. Typically, 2 mg catalyst was placed in a quartz flow reactor. 0.1 mL min⁻¹ of methanol controlled by the peristaltic pump with 100 mL min⁻¹ Ar as carrier was used as the feed gas for methanol dehydrogenation. The outlet gases were tested by gas chromatograph (GC, Agilent 7890A) equipped with FID and TCD detector (Column: TDX-01, 2 m; Column temperature: 150 °C, TCD detection temperature: 230 °C, FID detection temperature: 270 °C). The turnover frequency (TOF) was calculated according to the following equation: TOF = (number of mole of H₂)/(number of moles of Pt×time).

**Sunlight-driven hydrogen production from methanol**

The laboratory light source used for photothermal test was a customized product (HP-2-4000, provided by Hebei scientist research experimental and equipment trade Co., Ltd). The light spectrum was similar to AM 1.5 G as shown in Figure S20.

40 mg prepared catalysts were loaded in a quartz tube or the photothermal conversion device (irradiation area 2.4 cm², Figure S24) irradiated by HP-2-4000. The irradiation intensity was tuned from 0.1 kW m⁻² to 1 kW m⁻². The mixture of 150 mL min⁻¹ Ar and 0.15 mL min⁻¹ methanol was introduced into the reactor. The light source HP-2-4000 was used to full irradiate the reactor and the ambient temperature was constant at 30 °C. The outlet gases were tested by gas chromatograph (GC, Agilent 7890A) equipped with FID and TCD detector (Column: TDX-01, 2 m; Column temperature: 150 °C, TCD detection temperature: 230 °C, FID detection temperature: 270 °C).

1. The H₂ generation rate for per gram of catalyst (δ, mmol g⁻¹ cat h⁻¹) was calculated as follows:
   \[ \delta = \frac{1000 \times K \times L \times 60}{24.5 \times G} \]  
   where K is the H₂ concentration detected by GC, L is the gas flow rate (0.15 L min⁻¹), G was the weight of catalysts (0.04 g).

2. The plate form H₂ generation rate (η, L m⁻² h⁻¹) was calculated as follows:
   \[ \eta = \frac{K \times L \times 60}{S} \]  
   where K is the H₂ concentration detected by GC, L is the gas flow rate (0.15 L min⁻¹), S was the irradiated area of catalysts (0.00024 m²).

3. The STH efficiency of hydrogen generation from methanol was calculated as follows:
   \[ \text{STH} = \frac{\text{Output energy as } H_2}{\text{Energy of incident sunlight}} \times 100\% = \frac{(R(H_2) \times \Delta G)}{(I \times S)} \times 100\% = \frac{((K \times L \times 24.5) \times \Delta G)/(I \times S)} \]  
   \[ \Delta G \] is the reaction Gibbs energy of methanol dehydrogenation (1/2 CH₃OH (l) → H₂ (g) + 1/2 CO (g), \[ \Delta G = 14.77\, \text{kJ mol}^{-1} \]); R(H₂) is the H₂ production rate; I is the light intensity (kW m⁻²); S is the irradiated area of catalysts (0.00024 m²); K is the H₂ concentration detected by GC (%); L is the gas flow rate (0.0025 L s⁻¹); 24.5 L mol⁻¹ is the molar volume under ambient conditions. According to Figure S25 A and C, under 1.0 kW m⁻² of sunlight irradiation, K=70804/13511=5.24%. Therefore, \[ \text{STH} = \frac{(5.24 \times \text{0.0025} \times 24.5) \times 14.77)}{(I \times 0.00024)} = 32.9\% \]
The Vienna Ab Initio Package (VASP) was used to conduct all the DFT calculations within the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) using the PBE formulation (Perdew et al., 1996). The projected augmented wave (PAW) potentials (Blöchl, 1994; Kresse and Joubert, 1999) were chosen to describe the ionic cores and take valence electrons into account using a plane wave basis set with a kinetic energy cutoff of 400 eV. Partial occupancies of the Kohn–Sham orbitals were allowed using the Gaussian smearing method and a width of 0.05 eV. The electronic energy was considered self-consistent when the energy change was smaller than $10^{-7}$ eV. A geometry optimization was considered convergent when the energy change was smaller than $10^{-6}$ eV. Grimme’s DFT-D3 methodology (Grimme et al., 2010) was used to describe the dispersion interactions among all the atoms in the bulk unit cells and surface models of interest. The transition states were calculated by the climbing image nudged elastic band method (CI-NEB) (Henkelman et al., 2000). The adsorption energy ($\delta$) shown in Figure 2d (The energy of CH$_3$OH$_{\text{g}}$, CH$_3$OH, CH$_3$O$+$$H$, CH$_2$O$+2$$H$, CHO$+3$$H$, CO$+4$$H$) was calculated by the equation of

$$\delta = E_{c/\text{slab}} - (E_{\text{slab}} + E_c)$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

In this equation, $E_{c/\text{slab}}$ and $E_{\text{slab}}$ was the total energy of slab with and without alien adsorbed species in equilibrium geometry, respectively. $E_c$ was the total energy of CH$_3$OH in gas phase. Consequently, the more negative value of adsorption energy means the stronger of adsorption.

The reaction barrier energy ($E_b$) was calculated by

$$E_b = E_{c/\text{slab}} - E_{TS}$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$E_{TS}$ was the energy of the TS$_1$, TS$_2$, TS$_3$, TS$_4$. And the $E_{c/\text{slab}}$ only subtracts the followed $E_{TS}$ shown in Figure 2d. The equilibrium lattice constant of Pt cell was 3.918 Å and the bond of Pt-Pt is in the length of 2.768 Å. The lattice constant of cubic CeO$_2$ was calculated to be 5.418 Å. The cleave surface models were CeO$_2$ (100) and Pt (111). Totally, the CeO$_2$ (100) surface had 72 Ce and 144 O, where 54 Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed; the Pt (111) has 108 Pt atoms, and 72 of them were fixed; the Pt-CeO$_2$ (100) had 1 Pt, 71 Ce and 144 O atoms, of which 54 Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed, and the pt coverage was 1/18.
Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. (A) Atomic scale STEM image of Pt/CeO$_2$ 450. (B) Atomic scale STEM image of Pt$_5$-CeO$_2$. 
Figure S2. Related to Figure 1. TGA of Pt-CeO$_2$ precursor. The weight loss above 200 °C is attributed to burning of GO.
Figure S3. Related to Figure 1. (A) XRD patterns of Pt₅-CeO₂ and CeO₂ nanosheets. (B) EDS and Pt, Ce ratio in Pt₅-CeO₂.

The phase card of Pt₅-CeO₂ and CeO₂ nanosheets is PDF# 43-1002.
Figure S4. Related to Figure 1. The AFM image of Pt₃-CeO₂.
Figure S5. Related to Figure 1. (A) N$_2$ adsorption-desorption isotherm of Pt$_x$-CeO$_2$. (B) Pore size distribution of Pt$_x$-CeO$_2$. The pore size distribution was obtained using adsorption branch via N$_2$- DFT model.
Figure S6. Related to Figure 1. The XPS spectra of Pt 4f in (A) Pt₅-CeO₂, (B) Ptₓ-CeO₂, (C) Pt/CeO₂ 450. As shown in Figure S6, the Pt 4f/2 XPS peaks of Pt₅-CeO₂ and Ptₓ-CeO₂ is at 72.3 eV and 72.3 eV, respectively, higher than that of Pt/CeO₂-450 (71.2 eV).
Figure S7. Related to Figure 2. Hydrogen production rate from methanol in terms of CeO$_2$ nanosheets at different temperature.
Figure S8. Related to Figure 2. Turnover frequency (TOF) of H\textsubscript{2} from methanol in terms of H\textsubscript{2} production per Pt site of Pt\textsubscript{t}-CeO\textsubscript{2} and Pt-CeO\textsubscript{2} 450 at different temperatures.
Figure S9. Related to Figure 2. CO production rate and methanol conversion over Pt₅-CeO₂ at different temperature.
Figure S10. Related to Figure 2. (A) Methanol dehydrogenation stability of Pt₃-CeO₂ at 300 °C. (B) The HRTEM images of Pt₃-CeO₂ after 24 hours of thermal methanol dehydrogenation at 300 °C. As shown in Figure S10A, Pt₃-CeO₂ showed unstable performance and the Pt species aggregated into nanoparticles (Figure S10B), indicating the instability of Pt₃-CeO₂ in thermal methanol dehydrogenation.
Figure S11. Related to Figure 2. The Pt 4f XPS spectra of Pt₅-CeO₂ after 504-hours methanol dehydrogenation.
Figure S12. Related to Figure 2. The TEM image of Pt₅-CeO₂ after 504-hours methanol dehydrogenation.
Figure S13. Related to Figure 2. The atomic structures of used for calculating the formation energy of Pt single atoms in Pt₅-CeO₂ and Pt₉-CeO₂.

The formation energy (Eₕ) of per Pt in Pt₅-CeO₂ was calculated by the equation of

$$E_h = \frac{E_{Pt_5-CeO_2}}{14} - \frac{E_{Pt} + E_{Pt}/14}{2}$$

The formation energy (Eₕ) of per Pt in Pt₉-CeO₂ was calculated by the equation of

$$E_h = \frac{E_{Pt_9-CeO_2}}{14} - \frac{E_{Pt} + E_{Pt_{14}/CeO_2}}{2}$$

In the equations, E_{Pt₅-CeO₂}, E_{Pt₉-CeO₂}, E_{CeO₂}, E_{Pt}, E_{Pt₁₄/CeO₂} and E_{O₂} were the total energies of slabs shown in Figure S13. The cleave surface model was CeO₂ (100). As shown in Figure S8, the CeO₂ had 72 Ce and 144 O, where 54 Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed; the Pt had 14 Pt atoms, and 9 of them were fixed; Pt₁₄/CeO₂ had 14 Pt, 72Ce, 144 O atoms, where 9 Pt, 54Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed; the Pt₅-CeO₂ had 1 Pt, 71 Ce and 144 O atoms, of which 54 Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed; the Pt₉-CeO₂ had 1 Pt, 72 Ce and 144 O atoms, of which 54 Ce and 108 O atoms were fixed; the O₂ was a free O₂ molecule.
Figure S14. Related to Figure 2. The atomic structures of methanol decomposition on Pt-CeO$_2$ (100).
Figure S15. Related to Figure 2. The atomic structures of methanol decomposition on Pt (111) surface.
Figure S16. Related to Figure 3. Photograph of new photothermal device illustrated in Figure 3A.
Figure S17. Related to Figure 3. TEM image of TiON$_x$. 
Figure S18. Related to Figure 3. XRD pattern of TiONx.
Figure S19. Related to Figure 3. Photograph of graphene foam.
Figure S20. Related to Figure 4. The light spectrum of HP-2-4000. The spectrum of HP-2-4000 in UV-VIS region (250-800 nm) is very similar to that of AM 1.5G, while the parts of spectrum in 800-1000 nm are heightened and the parts of spectrum in IR light (λ > 1000 nm) are missing. However, we think that the difference between the spectrum of HP-2-4000 and AM 1.5G cannot significantly affect the results in this manuscript, because the missing IR light in the spectrum of HP-2-4000 is actually not conducive to photothermal conversion.
Figure S21. Related to Figure 4. The photo of the entire photothermal setup.
Figure S22. Related to Figure 4. CO production rate and methanol conversion of Pt₅-CeO₂ + device under different sunlight irradiations.
Figure S23. Related to Figure 4. Hydrogen generation rate from methanol over Pt₅-CeO₂ loaded in quartz tube under one sun irradiation.
Figure S24. Related to Figure 4. The irradiated area of catalyst powder in photothermal methanol dehydrogenation. It should be noted that the irradiated area coated with catalyst may absorb heat from the other area of Cu-coated quartz exposed to sunlight yet without catalyst coverage.

Irradiated area = $0.034 \times 0.007 = 0.00024 \, \text{m}^2$
Figure S25. Related to Figure 4. The calibration curve of H₂ (A) and CO (B). C. The GC curve of Pt₅-CeO₂ in methanol dehydrogenation reaction under 1.0 kW·m⁻² of sunlight irradiation.
Figure S26. Related to Figure 4. The TEM image of Pt₅-CeO₂ after 744-hours photothermal methanol dehydrogenation.
Table S1. EXAFS fitting parameters of Pt from Pt₅-CeO₂ and Pt₆-CeO₂ extracted from the Pt L₃-edge. CN was the coordination number. $\sigma^2$ is the Debye–Waller factor to account for both thermal and structural disorders. R was the distance between absorber and backscatter atoms. $\Delta E_0$ was the inner potential correction. Related to Figure 1.

| sample     | Path | CN | $\sigma^2 (10^{-3} \text{ Å}^2)$ | R(Å) | $\Delta E_0$(eV) |
|------------|------|----|----------------------------------|------|------------------|
| Pt₅-CeO₂   | Pt-Pt|     |                                  |      | 7.1              |
|            | Pt-O | 7.3 | 9.3                              | 2.02 |                  |
| Pt₆-CeO₂   | Pt-Pt|     |                                  |      | 6.7              |
|            | Pt-O | 4.9 | 7.5                              | 1.99 |                  |
Table S2. The ICP-AES data of Pt₅-CeO₂. The actual atomic ratio of Pt to Ce is estimated to be 7.2 at.%, which is almost the same as the theoretical value (7.1 at.%). Measurement condition: The catalyst was dissolved by 4 M HNO₃ at 150 °C for 6 hours; ICP model: Thermo ICAP 6300. Related to Figure 1.

| Analyte | Concentration (mg L⁻¹)ᵃ | RSDᵃ |
|---------|--------------------------|------|
| Pt      | 0.057                    | 1.02 % |
| Ce      | 0.570                    | 0.36 % |

ᵃRelative standard deviation
Table S3. Comparison of solar-to-fuel conversion efficiency in solar-driven catalytic reactions. Related to Figure 4.

| Entry | Reaction                        | Light source                                | Solar-to-fuel conversion efficiency | Ref.              |
|-------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1     | CH$_3$OH $\rightarrow$ 2H$_2$ + CO | Simulated AM 1.5G illumination at 1 Sun     | 32.9%                              | This work         |
| 2     | CO + H$_2$O $\rightarrow$ H$_2$ + CO$_2$ | 300 W Xe lamp illumination at 8.5 Suns     | 1.1%                               | (Zhao et al., 2019) |
| 3     | CH$_4$ +CO$_2$ $\rightarrow$ 2H$_2$ + 2CO | 500 W Xe lamp illumination at 343.6 Suns | 10.3%                              | (Huang et al., 2018) |
| 4     | CH$_4$ +CO$_2$ $\rightarrow$ 2H$_2$ + 2CO | 500 W Xe lamp illumination at 371.1 Suns | 12.5%                              | (Li et al., 2018)  |
| 5     | C$_2$H$_5$OH $\rightarrow$ H$_2$ + CH$_3$CHO | Simulated AM 1.5G illumination at 5.7 Suns | 3.8 %                              | (Luo et al., 2020) |
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