

Restructuring Ni/Al₂O₃ by addition of Ga to shift product selectivity in CO₂ hydrogenation: The role of hydroxyl groups

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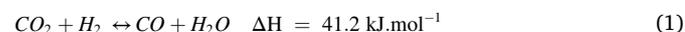
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ABSTRACT

Ni/Al₂O₃ is an active catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to both CH₄ and CO. By doping with Ga, we succeeded in shifting the selectivity of these catalysts almost completely toward CO. *In-situ* IR spectroscopy studies showed that the catalyst activity is directly related to the concentration of surface hydroxyl groups that are responsible for the adsorption of CO₂ and the formation of intermediate bicarbonates and formates on the catalyst surface. The addition of Ga improved the Ni dispersion which was concomitant with the formation of a Ni-Ga layer on the surface of alumina, thereby reducing the surface hydroxyl concentration. The reduced and weakened interaction between the intermediate products, i.e. bicarbonates and formates, and the catalyst surface, increased the CO selectivity from ~40 % to 98 %.

1. Introduction

CO₂ capture and utilization is an important option for a future carbon-neutral economy as excessive CO₂ emissions affect the climate and the environment [1,2]. The catalytic conversion of CO₂ to value-added chemicals is one of the most promising and researched approaches. In combination with renewable hydrogen, the conversion of CO₂ into fuels can help close the carbon cycle. Various products such as alcohols, acids, aldehydes, and olefins have been synthesized through thermal, electrical and photochemical CO₂ conversion [3–8]. Among such products, CO₂ hydrogenation to CO, also known as the reverse water-gas shift reaction (RWGS, Eq. 1), has attracted attention since CO is more active than CO₂ and can be further hydrogenated to variety of products [9–13].



After conversion to CO, CO₂ can be converted into light olefins as well as jet fuel through further hydrogenation in the Fischer-Tropsch reaction [14]. In addition, the RWGS is part of a pathway to form methanol as a CO₂ hydrogenation product [15–19]. Many catalysts have been used for CO₂ conversion to CO. In general, transition metals of the groups 8–10 such as Ni, Pd, Ru, and Rh have been shown to form both CO and CH₄, while group 11 metals such as Cu, Ag and Au produce CO

more selectively [20]. In particular, Cu-based and Mo-based catalysts were found to catalyze the almost exclusive formation of CO [9,21–25]. Metal-carbides, nitrides, and phosphides can also form active structures for CO₂ hydrogenation reactions [26–28]. Among various catalysts, certain patterns have been observed. For instance, although nanoparticles of group 8–10 transition metals form both CO and CH₄, atomic dispersion of the metals shifts their selectivity towards CO formation [29–31]. However, the oxidation state of the metal sites can also affect the product selectivity [32]. The addition of promoters to improve the catalyst activity and stability was also studied in detail [33–42]. Reina's group investigated the addition of Cu and Cs promoters to Mo₂C to increase the catalyst activity for the RWGS reaction [12,13]. The addition of Cu added more active sites, whereas the addition of electropositive Cs shifted the electron density favorably. The addition of alkali metals as electropositive elements has the same positive shifting effect on the electron density in the case of the RWGS reaction [43]. Other transition metals were used to form bimetallic catalysts, which promote the CO selectivity and/or catalyst activity for CO₂ hydrogenation [33,44]. Ni-based catalysts have been studied extensively for hydrogenation reactions, since they are relatively inexpensive and active materials. They tend to form both CO and CH₄, but are mostly used for catalyzing the CO₂ conversion to CH₄ (Sabatier reaction). If Ni-based catalysts could be tuned to selectively produce CO, they would be a favorable RWGS

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catalysts since they are more robust at higher temperatures compared to Cu-based catalysts [45]. This is an important property since the endothermic RWGS reaction requires high temperatures, at which Cu-based catalysts suffer from low stability [9]. There have been successful attempts to shift the selectivity of CO₂ hydrogenation toward CO on modified Ni-based catalysts. Le Saché et al. synthesized a Ru-Ni/CeO₂-ZrO₂ catalyst with which they achieved 91 % CO selectivity, but only at high temperatures (750 °C) [46]. Braga et al. also promoted Ni by addition of Pd. They managed to reach up to 45 % CO selectivity at 600 °C [47].

In this context, Cammarota et al. noticed that the addition of Ga to Ni can stabilize formate on Ni during the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction [48]. Formate has been reported to be one of the intermediates in the RWGS. Although this study was carried out with homogeneous catalysts and under high pressures (34 atm), it motivated us to consider the addition of Ga to Ni to form a Ni-based catalyst with potentially high selectivity towards CO. Following this concept, we prepared a Ni-Ga catalyst on an alumina support that produces CO almost completely selectively (98 % selectivity) at a relatively low temperature (400 °C). We also studied the reaction mechanism on both Ni/Al₂O₃ and Ni-Ga/Al₂O₃ using in-situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS), from which we concluded that the presence of hydroxyl groups on the surface strongly influences the activity of the catalyst in CO₂ conversion.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalysts synthesis

The supported Ni-Ga catalysts as well as the control catalyst (Ni/Al₂O₃) were synthesized by means of the incipient wetness impregnation method based on a previously published study [49]. The desired amounts of Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich) and Ga(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich) were used as metal precursors and γ -alumina (Merck) was used as the support. For instance, 2.48 g of nickel precursor and 3 g of gallium precursor was used for the preparation of 1Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃. The amount of Ni was constant for all catalysts while the amount of Ga was varied. The procedure for the synthesis of Ga/Al₂O₃ was the same as for the other catalysts except that no Ni was added to this catalyst. The actual loadings are presented in Table S1 in the Supporting information. The catalysts were dried at 120 °C overnight and calcined at 700 °C for 6 h with a temperature ramp of 5 °C min⁻¹.

2.2. Catalytic activity tests

The catalytic activity tests were performed using a laboratory test bench with a fixed-bed quartz tube reactor with heating wires and a temperature controller. The outlet stream was analyzed with an online MATRIX-MG01 FTIR spectrometer (Bruker) with a 10 cm gas cell, heated at 120 °C. The spectrometer was operated with the OPUS-GA software to evaluate the spectra. For each test, 100 mg of catalyst was fixed in the reactor using quartz wool. The catalyst was reduced at the desired temperature (heating ramp 10 °C min⁻¹) *in-situ* for 1 h under 20 % H₂ flow diluted in Ar prior to each test. After reduction, the temperature was set to 400 °C and a mixture of CO₂ and H₂ diluted in Ar was dosed into the reactor. The CO₂:H₂ ratio was set to 1:4 with a weight hourly space velocity (WHSV) of 30,000 mL·g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹.

For the OH passivation test on Ni/Al₂O₃, the same procedure as above was used. However, after reduction at 700 °C, the catalyst was exposed to 10 mL min⁻¹ of CO diluted in Ar. The temperature was set to 350 °C to avoid the formation of nickel tetracarbonyl (Ni(CO)₄), which forms at temperatures lower than 230 °C [50]. During CO introduction, the formation of CO₂ was monitored and when no more CO₂ was detected in the in-line FTIR, the reactor was purged with Ar for 30 min. The temperature was then set to 700 °C with a 10 °C min⁻¹ ramp to desorb potentially adsorbed CO from the surface of the catalyst. The temperature was set again to 400 °C and the same reaction mixture of

CO₂ and H₂ was used at the above mentioned conditions. At the end of the test, the Ni content of the sample was checked with ICP-OES to ensure no Ni was lost in form of Ni(CO)₄ during the passivation process (Table S1).

2.3. Catalyst characterization

Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) mesoporous volumes and Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas were calculated from N₂ physisorption isotherms collected with a Micromeritics 3Flex instrument. Before measurements, all materials were degassed overnight under vacuum (<10⁻³ mbar) at 120 °C (10 °C min⁻¹ ramp rate).

Hydrogen Temperature Programmed Reduction (H₂-TPR) profiles was recorded on a Micromeritics Autochem 2920 II instrument. Typically, the samples (~400 mg) were diluted with silicon carbide (~250 mg), loaded into a quartz U-shaped quartz cell, and dried under He (50 mL min⁻¹) at 150 °C. After cooling to 40 °C under He, the samples were heated to 900 °C at a ramp of 10 °C min⁻¹ under a flow of 10 % H₂ with balance Ar (50 mL min⁻¹). The effluent gasses were passed through a cold trap with a mixture of liquid N₂ and ethanol, and H₂ consumption was monitored with a TCD.

Additional H₂-TPR experiments were carried out using a slightly modified procedure. Fresh samples (~100 mg diluted in 500 mg silicon carbide) were dried and cooled under He as before. Then, the samples were heated to 700 °C (10 °C min⁻¹) and held at temperature for 1 h under a flow of dilute H₂ (10 % H₂, bal. Ar, 50 mL min⁻¹). The samples were cooled under He, and reheated again at 10 °C min⁻¹ to 900 °C under dilute H₂.

Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform (DRIFT) spectra were collected using a Bruker Vertex70 spectrometer equipped with a liquid nitrogen-cooled HgCdTe detector. The spectra were recorded from 4000 to 1000 cm⁻¹ at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ and scanner velocity of 80 kHz. The sample and background spectra resulted from averaging 10 and 100 scans, respectively. Approximately 30–40 mg of the catalyst sample were placed in a custom-built spectroscopic cell with a low void volume [51]. The cell was equipped with a 2-mm-thick CaF₂ window (Crystran) and attached to a Praying Mantis™ accessory (Harrick Scientific) in the compartment of the IR spectrometer. Prior to the *in-situ* experiments, the sample was activated under 80 vol% H₂/Ar flow for 30 min. The subsequent steps were as follows: (1) introduction of 7 vol% CO₂ at 250 °C; (2) removal of 7 vol% CO₂ at 250 °C with Ar; (3) ramp-up to 350 °C under Ar; (4) introduction of 7 vol% CO₂ and 30 vol% H₂ at 350 °C; (5) removal of 7 vol% CO₂ and 30 vol% H₂ at 350 °C.

The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were carried out on an Axis Supra (Kratos Analytical) using the monochromated K α X-ray line of an aluminum anode. The pass energy was set to 40 eV with a step size of 0.15 eV. The samples were electrically insulated from the sample holder and charges were compensated. Spectra were referenced at 284.8 eV using the C 1s orbital of the C—C bond. Before XPS measurements, the samples were reduced for 1 h at 700 °C with the same flowrates as indicated in the catalytic experiments. The samples delivered to the instrument were prepared using a glovebox to ensure no air exposure occurred.

Data for X-ray diffraction (XRD) were acquired using a D8 Bruker Discover diffractometer, which was equipped with a LynxEye XE detector as well as a non-monochromated Cu-source. The XRD patterns were measured for 2 θ between 10 ° and 80 ° with the step size of 0.01.

High-Angle Annular Dark-Field Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (HAADF-STEM) was conducted on a FEI Talos with 200 kV acceleration voltage in the Z contrast mode. Samples were dispersed in ethanol and placed on a carbon coated copper grid. Energy-Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDXS) analysis was performed using Bruker Esprit software.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalytic activity

While Ni nanoparticles tend to dissociate C and O on their surface, addition of Ga to Ni has been shown to suppress this effect [49]. In order to study the effect of Ga addition to Ni on its catalytic activity and product selectivity, we synthesized three alumina-supported catalysts with various Ni to Ga molar ratios, i.e. 1Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ (Ni:Ga = 1:1), 2Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ (Ni:Ga = 2:1), and 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ (Ni:Ga = 1:2), and tested them for CO₂ hydrogenation. The measured CO₂ conversions and the selectivities to CO and CH₄ are presented in Fig. S1 in the Supporting information. The CO selectivity of these catalysts followed the order: 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ \cong 1Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ > 2Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ (selectivities are reported in Table S2) and the CO₂ conversion was almost the same for all three, but was slightly higher for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ (9 %) and 2Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ (9.5 %) compared to 1Ni-1Ga/Al₂O₃ (7 %). This means that the overall best performing candidate in terms of both activity and selectivity was 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃, which was selected for further studies. The CO₂ conversion rate of these studied catalysts are presented in Table S2 for comparison. The structure of these catalysts as well as the reference Ni/Al₂O₃ catalysts were studied by X-ray Diffraction (XRD) and the patterns are presented in Fig. S2. No clear peaks of Ni or NiO were detected, which supports the high dispersion of Ni on all catalysts. Fig. 1 shows the CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ and Ni/Al₂O₃ as the reference catalyst. Ga/Al₂O₃ was also tested as a reference but only insignificant CO₂ conversion (<2 %) was detected on this catalyst. The low conversion of CO₂ on Ga/Al₂O₃ is caused by the lack of active nickel sites for H₂ adsorption and dissociation. While the CO₂ conversion was clearly higher using Ni/Al₂O₃ compared to 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ (~30 % as opposed to 10 %), its CO selectivity was significantly lower compared to 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ (~40 % as opposed to 98 %). The addition of Ga caused the shift of selectivity to CO, resulting in the observed decreased conversion level since the methanation reaction almost ceased. To compare the CO selectivity using various catalysts, they should be tested in the same range of CO₂ conversion. Therefore, we have decreased the WHSV for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ (Fig. S3), to bring its level of CO₂ conversion close to the one reported for Ni/Al₂O₃ in Fig. 1. We observed that the CO selectivity on this catalyst did not change compared to Fig. S1 despite its higher CO₂ conversion.

3.2. In-situ DRIFTS results

When using alumina-supported transition metals as catalysts, the RWGS reaction mechanism is known to proceed through CO₂ adsorption (forming carbonate or bicarbonate) followed by its reaction with

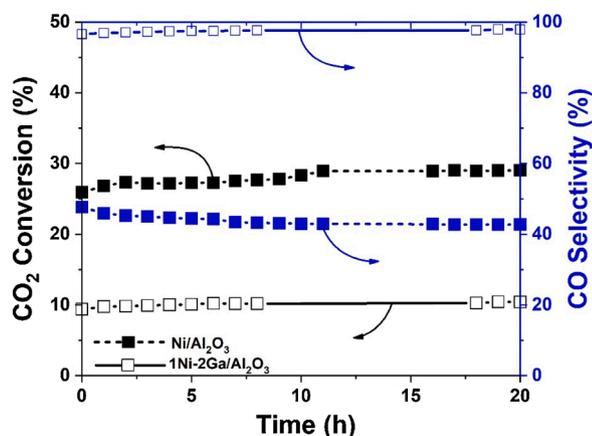


Fig. 1. CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity for Ni/Al₂O₃ and 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. Reduction T = 700 °C. Reaction T = 400 °C.

dissociated H atoms to form oxygenated intermediate products (formate or carboxylate). The formed intermediate product then decomposes to form CO and H₂O [52–55]. In order to understand the reasons behind the differences in the performance of the presented catalysts, we studied the reaction mechanisms by means of *in-situ* DRIFTS experiments. The IR spectra were collected when introducing and purging CO₂ as well as during the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction and reactant cut-off.

Fig. 2a and b shows the IR spectra obtained during the adsorption of CO₂ on 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ and Ni/Al₂O₃. The persistence of the peaks at 2344 and 2358 cm⁻¹ reflects the continuous presence of gas-phase CO₂. For both samples, we observed two peaks at 1649 cm⁻¹ and 1442 cm⁻¹, which together with the weak signal at 1220 cm⁻¹, are characteristic for the formation of bicarbonates [54] formed through the reaction of CO₂ with surface hydroxyl groups. However, the area of the bicarbonate peak at 1649 cm⁻¹ over Ni/Al₂O₃ was up to 23 % larger than that over 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃, suggesting that Ga incorporation results in less CO₂ uptake and adsorption (Fig. S4). Since bicarbonates are formed due to the interaction of CO₂ with surface hydroxyl groups, this observation points out that there are fewer hydroxyl species in the Ga-containing sample. Indeed, the single-beam spectrum of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ showed comparatively less hydroxyl groups than on Ni/Al₂O₃ (Fig. S5). Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that the surface hydroxyl groups control the adsorption CO₂ and the formation of bicarbonate as the intermediate product. This observation explains the lower activity of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ for CO₂ hydrogenation.

Fig. 2c and d shows the spectra obtained during desorption of CO₂ from 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ and Ni/Al₂O₃. The abrupt disappearance of the gas-phase CO₂ peaks was accompanied by a much slower extinction of the peaks at 1649 cm⁻¹ and 1442 cm⁻¹, which suggests the desorption of bicarbonate species. The bicarbonates almost fully desorbed from 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ after 10 min of purging while a significant portion remained bound to Ni/Al₂O₃. According to literature, stronger adsorption of the intermediate products results in their further hydrogenation to CH₄ [56]. This explains the increased CH₄ formation on Ni/Al₂O₃, where residual bicarbonate species persisted after CO₂ removal. In contrast, only weakly adsorbed CO₂ participates in the formation of CO through the RWGS [24]. Hence, the weaker interaction of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ with the bicarbonate species proved to be beneficial in driving the selectivity towards CO.

The weak adsorption of CO₂ on 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ can be explained by the structure of this catalyst. Fig. 3 shows the STEM images of the 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ catalyst. While both small and relatively large Ni nanoparticles were formed on Ni/Al₂O₃ (Fig. 4), a uniform dispersion of Ni and Ga was observed on 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. The STEM images in Fig. 3 suggest that Ni and Ga have mostly covered the surface of alumina since the blue color representing Al is not prominent on the edge of the STEM images on Fig. 3. Highly dispersed transition metals can only weakly adsorb the intermediate products of CO₂ hydrogenation and therefore, selectively form CO [31].

The aforementioned alumina surface coverage is also supported by N₂ physisorption results (Figs. S6 and S7 as well as Table 1). Through comparison of the BET surface area (S_{BET}) and pore volume (V_p), we noted that impregnation of Ni on alumina did not change the initial surface area (120 m² g⁻¹ for Al₂O₃ and 117 m² g⁻¹ for Ni/Al₂O₃) and pore volume (0.232 cm³ g⁻¹ for Al₂O₃ and 0.226 cm³ g⁻¹ for Ni/Al₂O₃) of alumina. However, for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃, both S_{BET} and V_p decreased to 102 m² g⁻¹ and 0.1798 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively. Although this decrease in surface area as well as pore volume is not very pronounced, it may be due to the formation of a Ni-Ga entities on the catalyst surface, which blocked some of the pores and consequently decreased the surface area. Therefore, we hypothesize that the formation of the Ni-Ga layer may have decreased the availability of the Al₂O₃ surface and caused the aforementioned decrease in hydroxyl group concentration. This hypothesis was also checked using Al 2p XPS spectra (Fig. S8). It can be noted that the signal intensity for Al 2p decreased for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ compared to Ni/Al₂O₃, which supports the formation of the Ni-Ga layer.

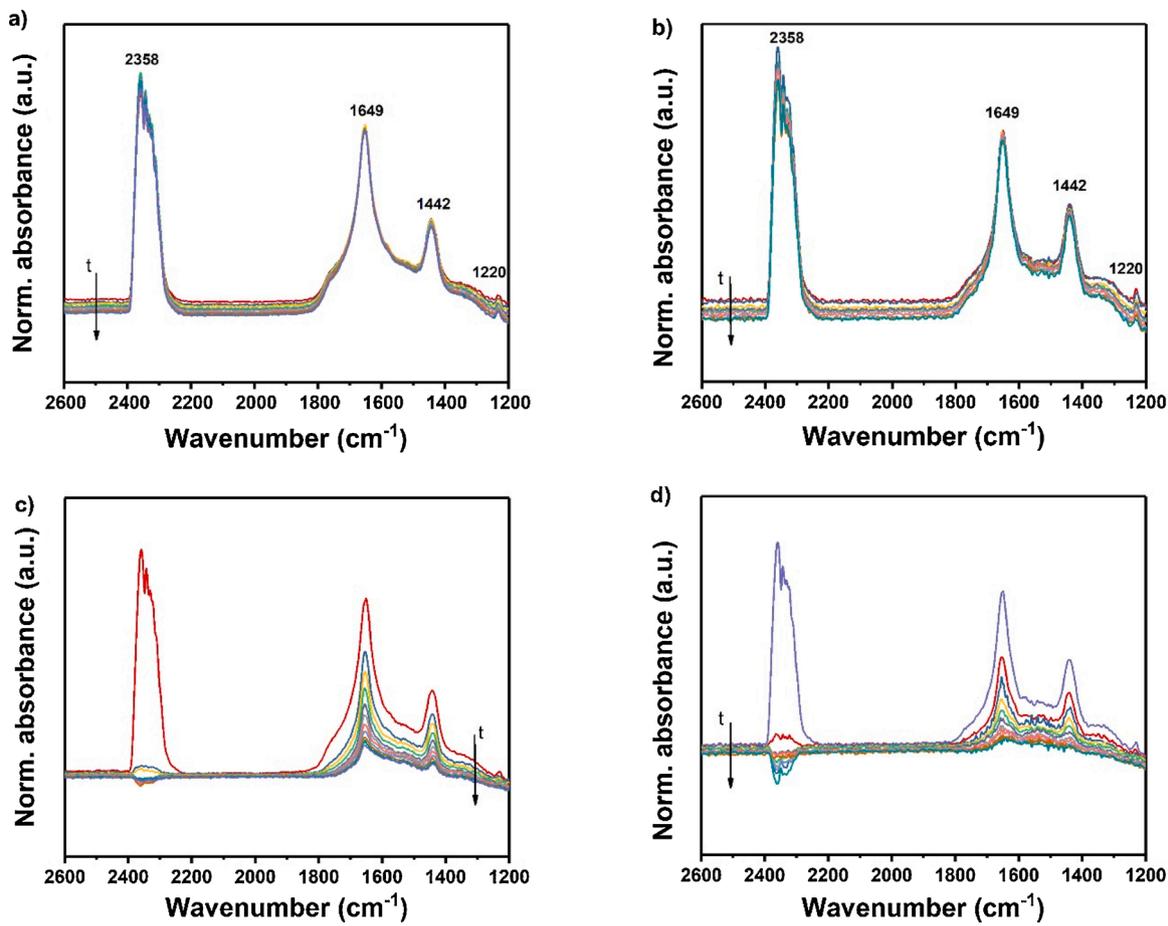


Fig. 2. Time series of IR spectra after the dosage of CO₂ on a) Ni/Al₂O₃ and b) 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. Time series of IR spectra during desorption of CO₂ from c) Ni/Al₂O₃ and d) 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. T = 250 °C. Total acquisition time for each spectral series was 10 min with 1 min intervals between the individual spectra.

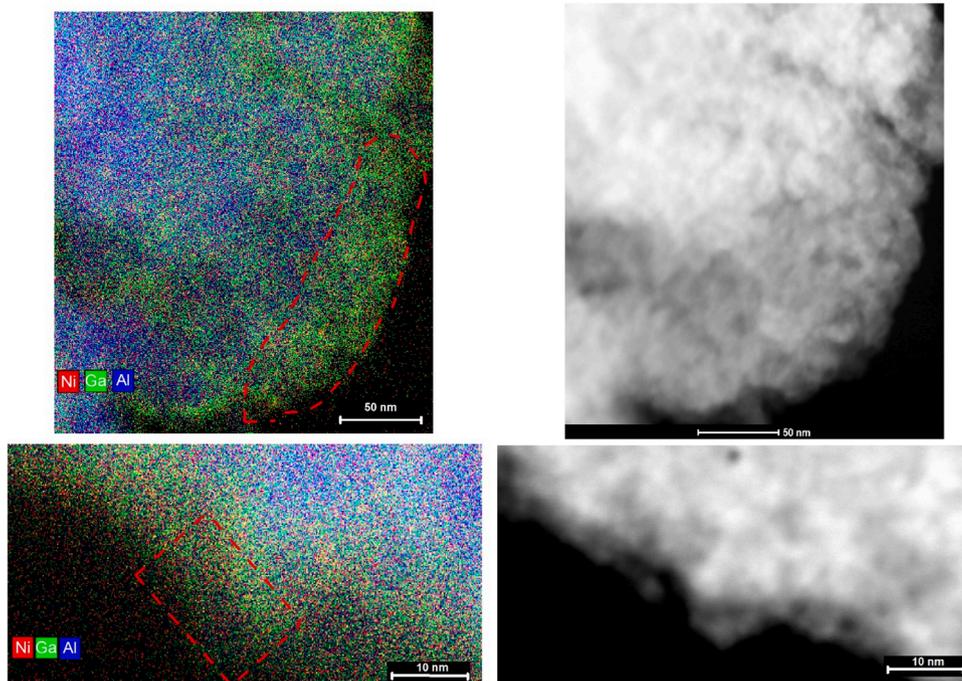


Fig. 3. STEM images of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃.

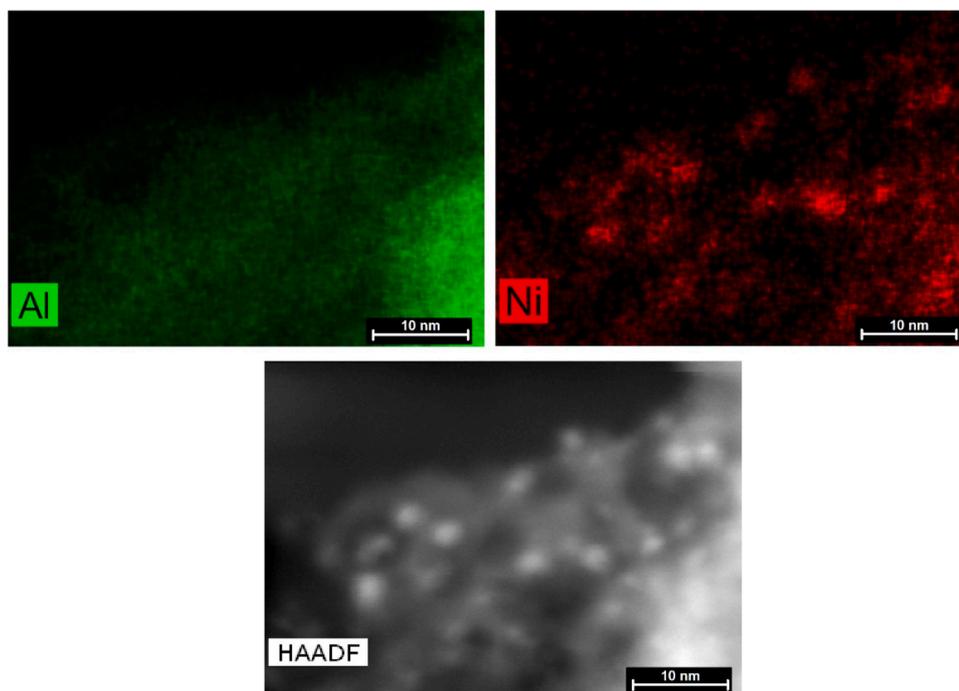


Fig. 4. STEM images of Ni/Al₂O₃.

Table 1

N₂ physisorption data for Ni/Al₂O₃, 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃, and Al₂O₃.

| Catalysts | S _{BET} (m ² ·g ⁻¹) | V _p (cm ³ ·g ⁻¹) |
|--|---|--|
| Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ | 117 | 0.226 |
| 1Ni-2Ga/Al ₂ O ₃ | 102 | 0.179 |
| Al ₂ O ₃ | 120 | 0.232 |

The CO₂ hydrogenation reaction was studied with IR spectroscopy and the results are shown below (Fig. 5). After introduction of H₂ on both catalysts, the peaks at 1649 cm⁻¹ and 1442 cm⁻¹ started to disappear and peaks at 1595 cm⁻¹, 1393 cm⁻¹ and 1375 cm⁻¹ formed, which indicate the presence of formate species [57]. We concluded that bicarbonate was hydrogenated to formate upon H₂ introduction, in line with previously reported CO₂ hydrogenation studies on Au/Al₂O₃ [52]. A higher formate concentration was detected on 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ compared to Ni/Al₂O₃, as evidenced by the higher ratio of the peak areas for formate (1595 cm⁻¹) and bicarbonate (1649 cm⁻¹). This means that nickel alone is more capable of activating adsorbed formate species than Ni-Ga, resulting in the observed higher concentration of surface formate on the Ga-treated catalyst. This explanation is also confirmed by the spectral response upon gas cut-off (Fig. 5c and d). When the gas flows were cut off, unreacted formate on both catalyst surfaces were observed, which suggests that at least some formate species remains on the catalyst surface as spectator species, most probably those formate species far distant from Ni. Formate is also known to be a potential intermediate for the methanation reaction [56]. Therefore, we propose that the formates that remain unreacted on the 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ surface, poisoned some of the active sites, which resulted in the lower activity of this catalyst. The same species react further to form methane on the Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst, which lowers the relative selectivity of this catalyst compared to those containing Ga.

3.3. Investigation of the effect of the hydroxyl groups

Based on the results obtained from the in-situ investigation of the catalysts, the concentration of hydroxyl groups were found to be correlated with the adsorption of CO₂. To further test the importance of

these surface groups for CO₂ hydrogenation, we passivated the hydroxyl groups on the surface of Ni/Al₂O₃ using an approach described by Yang et al. [58]. Their method consists of reacting the OH groups with CO to remove them from the catalyst surface through the water-gas shift reaction (WGS) (details are described in Section 2.2). Fig. 6 shows the activity of Ni/Al₂O₃ for CO₂ hydrogenation with and without passivation with CO. Importantly, the CO₂ conversion on the CO-passivated catalyst decreased compared to the non-passivated catalyst. This further confirms the effect of the hydroxyl groups on adsorption of CO₂. Both the IR spectroscopy results and the CO passivation results indicate that the presence of hydroxyl groups facilitates the CO₂ adsorption through formation of bicarbonate, which in turn results in higher CO₂ conversion. Al₂O₃ not only provides a large surface area for the dispersion of metallic active sites for the adsorption and dissociation of H₂, but also supports the presence of hydroxyl groups on the catalyst surface that can actively react with CO₂ and thus participate in the reaction.

3.4. Investigation of catalysts structure

To better understand the relationship of structure and activity, the surfaces of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ and Ni/Al₂O₃ were investigated by XPS. Since the catalysts were reduced *in-situ* before the catalytic tests, we reduced the catalysts under the same conditions before the XPS measurements. The Ni 2p spectra for both catalysts are presented in Fig. 7. The presence of Ga on the surface of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ is evident from the Ga 2p spectra (Fig. S9). Ni on the surface of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ appears to be mostly reduced and present in metallic form. However, the Ni 2p spectrum for Ni/Al₂O₃, shows that Ni was not fully reduced on this catalyst, where it was predominantly present as NiOOH and Ni(OH)₂. Ni 2p fitting was performed based on the approach of Biesinger et al. [59]. While CO₂ adsorption on Ni/Al₂O₃ could be facilitated due to the presence of the hydroxyl groups, H₂ adsorption and activation is less favorable in the absence of metallic Ni. Considering the similar Ni loading and the same reduction conditions, this observation demonstrates that Ga promotes the reducibility of Ni.

The reducibility of these catalysts were further studied in H₂-TPR experiments. In our first experiment, the calcined catalysts were reduced

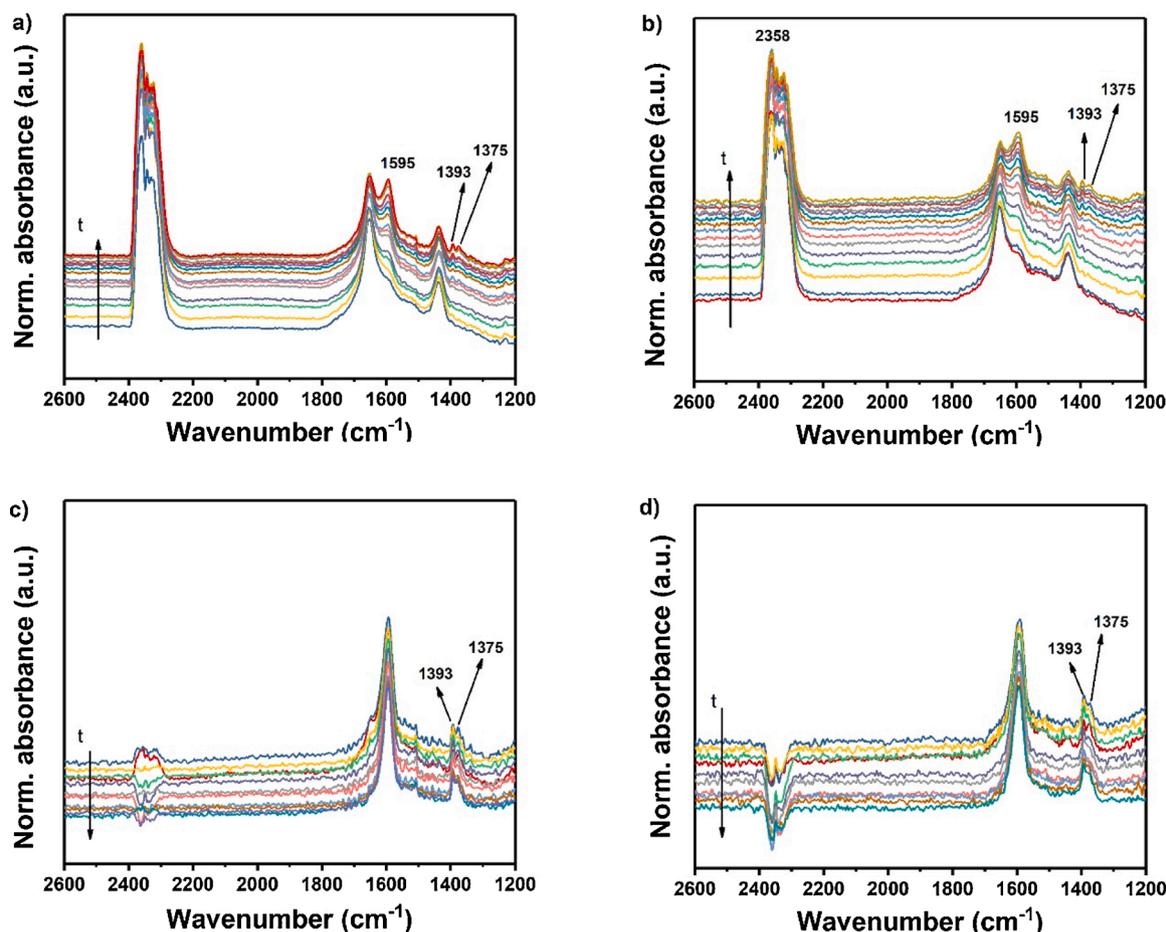


Fig. 5. Time series of IR spectra after CO₂ and H₂ reaction on a) Ni/Al₂O₃ and b) 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. Time series of IR spectra after gas flow cut-off on c) Ni/Al₂O₃ and d) 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. T = 350 °C. Total acquisition time for each spectral series was 15 min with 1 min intervals between the individual spectra.

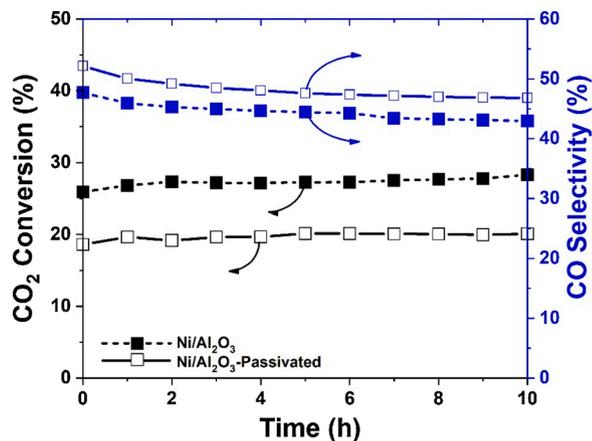


Fig. 6. CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity for Ni/Al₂O₃ and passivated Ni/Al₂O₃ using CO. Reduction T = 700 °C. Reaction T = 400 °C.

up to 900 °C. It is clearly visible from Fig. 8 that the reduction of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ starts at lower temperatures compared to Ni/Al₂O₃ (~520 °C as opposed to ~600 °C). This confirms the promoting role of Ga for the reducibility of Ni. In the second experiment, we conducted H₂-TPR on both catalysts after reducing them under the same conditions used during the catalytic tests (20 vol% H₂/He flow at 700 °C for 1 h). The results showed that both catalysts were partly reduced during this treatment (Fig. S10). However, by comparison with the H₂-TPR profiles for the calcined catalysts, we observed that most of the Ni on 1Ni-2Ga/

Al₂O₃ was already reduced during the pre-treatment, while a notable portion of the Ni sites of Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst remained unreduced after the pre-treatment. This is also in agreement with the aforementioned XPS results (Fig. 7).

As observed in the H₂-TPR profiles, the peak of H₂ consumption for both catalysts occurred at 830 °C, which ensured the full reduction of Ni sites. Since, based on XPS results, the Ni sites on the surface of 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ were mostly reduced, we did not expect much variation in catalyst activity after reduction at 830 °C. For Ni/Al₂O₃, however, a higher catalyst activity would be expected compared to the treatment at 700 °C, since metallic Ni has higher H₂ adsorption and dissociation activity. To study these effects, we performed the same catalytic test but with *in-situ* catalyst reduction at 830 °C for 1 h prior to the test (Fig. 9). The Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst activity increased after this treatment (initial CO₂ conversion was 33 % as opposed to 26 % in Fig. 1). As expected, for 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ catalyst, little change was observed. Our results and corresponding discussions in the literature confirm that two groups of active sites are required for the RWGS reaction. One serves for adsorption and dissociation of H₂ molecules, the other for adsorption of CO₂. The metal sites (e.g., on Ni/Al₂O₃ and 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃) are responsible for the adsorption and dissociation of H₂. A lack of these sites is the reason for the low activity of Al₂O₃ or Ga₂O₃/Al₂O₃. However, for high selectivity of Ni-based catalysts in CO formation, high dispersion of the metallic sites is required. Otherwise, accumulation of the metallic Ni sites may lead to the formation of CH₄. On the other hand, the presence of hydroxyl groups on the metal oxide (Al₂O₃ in this case) is required to adsorb CO₂, as shown by the DRIFTS study.

We did not observe any deactivation in any of the catalytic tests we performed. However, we investigated the spent catalysts with XRD for

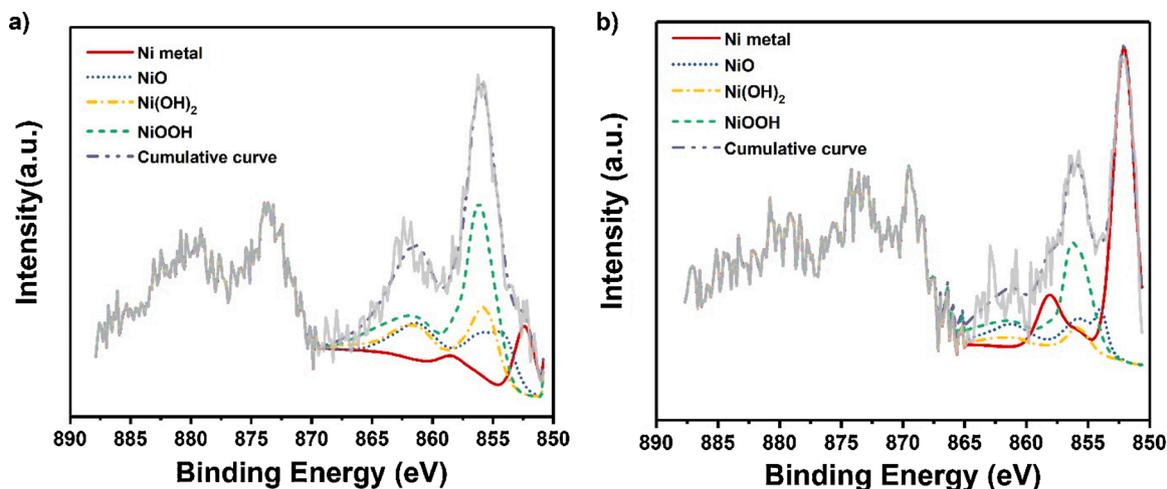


Fig. 7. Ni 2p spectra of a) Ni/Al₂O₃ and b) 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃.

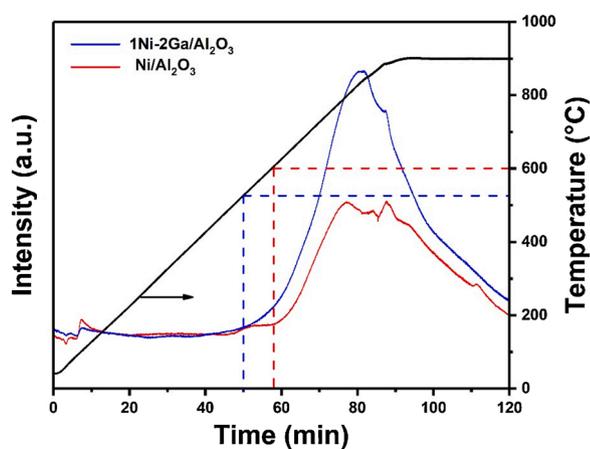


Fig. 8. H₂-TPR profiles for Ni/Al₂O₃ and 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. The dashed lines mark the approximate onset of the reduction peak.

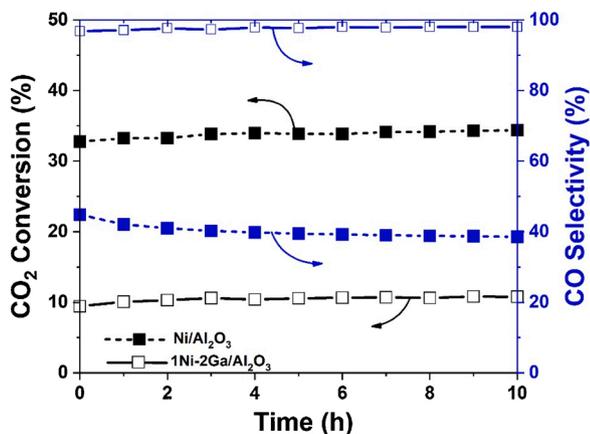


Fig. 9. CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity for Ni/Al₂O₃ and 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ at 400 °C upon in-situ catalyst reduction at 830 °C for 1 h prior to the test.

comparison. No diffraction peak for Ni or NiO was observed for both the fresh and spent catalysts (Fig. S11). For 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃, no sign of Ga was observed in the diffraction patterns. This suggests that no large crystalline nanoparticles (> 3 nm) of Ni, NiO or Ga₂O₃ were formed in the fresh or spent catalysts either during the calcination, reduction, or reaction. To confirm these observations, we also took STEM images of

the 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ after 20 h of reaction (Fig. S12). No sign of Ni and/or Ga agglomeration and sintering could be detected, confirming that 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃ did not sinter during the reaction.

4. Conclusions

Ni-based catalysts are known for their tendency to form CH₄ during the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction. Although they are usually more thermally robust compared to Cu-based catalysts, they are not used for the RWGS due to their low selectivity for CO. This was also confirmed by our experiments using a Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst. However, our present study showed that addition of Ga can restructure Ni particles on the surface of alumina in a way, which increased the selectivity for CO. Although this shift in selectivity came at the expense of lower catalyst activity, selective formation of CO eliminates the need for downstream separation processing in industrial applications. The lower CO₂ conversion could be compensated by recycling the unreacted gases to increase the overall conversion. Using in-situ DRIFTS studies as well as other catalyst characterization methods showed that the addition of alumina led to high dispersion of Ni and high surface coverage of alumina, which limited the availability of hydroxyl groups on the surface. Our results support the view that hydroxyl groups are crucial species in the CO₂ hydrogenation mechanism since they are the active sites for CO₂ adsorption and formation of bicarbonates and their presence contributed to the higher activity of Ni/Al₂O₃ compared to 1Ni-2Ga/Al₂O₃. Although Ga is more expensive compared to Ni and the addition of Ga does not seem economically promising, this disadvantage is compensated by the better temperature stability of these catalysts, which might help the process in the long run. Nevertheless, further studies will be required to increase their activity.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Ali M. Bahmanpour: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Validation, Writing – original draft, Data curation. **Rob Jeremiah G. Nuguid:** Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Louisa M. Savereide:** Investigation, Data curation, Validation, Writing – original draft. **Mounir D. Mensi:** Investigation, Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Davide Ferri:** Supervision, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Jeremy S. Luterbacher:** Supervision, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Oliver Kröcher:** Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

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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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2021.101881>.

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