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HYDROGENATION OF CARBON DIOXIDE ON IRON-BASED CATALYSTS
FOR LIQUID FUEL SYNTHESIS

Miss Ratchprapa Satthawong



A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
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Department of Chemical Technology

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รัชชประภา สัตถาวงษ์ : ไฮโดรจิเนชันของคาร์บอนไดออกไซด์บนตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาฐานเหล็ก สำหรับการสังเคราะห์เชื้อเพลิงเหลว (HYDROGENATION OF CARBON DIOXIDE ON IRON-BASED CATALYSTS FOR LIQUID FUEL SYNTHESIS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์
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ไฮโดรจิเนชันเชิงเร่งปฏิกิริยาของ CO₂ เพื่อสังเคราะห์สารเคมีและเชื้อเพลิงได้รับความสนใจเป็นอย่างมากเนื่องจากสามารถลดการปลดปล่อย CO₂ และการพึ่งพาเชื้อเพลิงฟอสซิล งานวิจัยนี้เป็นการพัฒนาตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาที่มีประสิทธิภาพสำหรับการสังเคราะห์ไฮโดรคาร์บอนตั้งแต่ C₂ ขึ้นไป (C₂⁺) จากไฮโดรจิเนชัน CO₂ โดยการดัดแปรสมบัติการดูดซับ CO₂ และ H₂ บนพื้นผิวตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา งานวิจัยนี้ได้เตรียมตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาโลหะเดี่ยวและโลหะคู่ Fe-M (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Pd) บนตัวรองรับอะลูมินาและทดสอบไฮโดรจิเนชัน CO₂ ที่ 573 เคลวิน และ 1.1 เมกะพาสคัล เมื่อเปรียบเทียบตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยาโลหะเดี่ยวมีเพียงตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา Fe เท่านั้นที่สามารถสังเคราะห์ไฮโดรคาร์บอนสายยาวได้ ในขณะที่ตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา Co และ Ni มีความจำเพาะเลือกเกิด CH₄ การผสม Fe กับ M (M/(M + Fe) = 0.10 โดยอะตอม) ส่งผลให้เกิดการส่งเสริมการเกิดไฮโดรคาร์บอนสายยาว จากการวิเคราะห์ H₂-TPR และ H₂-TPD พบว่าความสามารถในการดูดซับและสมบัติการดูดซับ H₂ ของตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ ขึ้นอยู่กับอัตราส่วน Co/(Co + Fe) อย่างมาก งานวิจัยนี้พบความสัมพันธ์เชิงเส้นระหว่างปริมาณ H₂ ที่ถูกดูดซับด้วยแรงปานกลางและ space-time yield ของไฮโดรคาร์บอนสายยาว ซึ่งชี้ให้เห็นถึงความสำคัญของ H₂ ชนิดนี้ต่อการเกิดไฮโดรคาร์บอนสายยาว การเติมโพแทสเซียม (K) ให้แก่ตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ สามารถเพิ่มการเกิดไฮโดรคาร์บอนสายยาวได้อย่างชัดเจนโดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งโอเลฟินส์โดยตรง ในขณะที่ลดการเกิด CH₄ สำหรับตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา Fe-Co ที่มี K เป็นตัวส่งเสริมนั้น ไฮโดรจิเนชัน CO₂ เกิดผ่านปฏิกิริยาสองขั้นตอนคือปฏิกิริยา reverse water-gas shift ตามด้วยการสังเคราะห์ฟิสเซอร์-ทรอปส์ ซึ่งโอเลฟินส์และพาราฟินส์เกิดขึ้นในเวลาเดียวกัน แต่โอเลฟินส์ที่เกิดขึ้นบางส่วนอาจถูกไฮโดรจิเนตอีกครั้งไปเป็นพาราฟินส์ขึ้นอยู่กับปริมาณไฮโดรเจนที่ถูกดูดซับบนพื้นผิวตัวเร่งปฏิกิริยา การวิเคราะห์ H₂-TPD ชี้ให้เห็นว่าการเติม K เป็นการลดการดูดซับ H₂ บนตำแหน่งของโลหะ ส่งผลให้ปริมาณโอเลฟินส์เพิ่มขึ้น

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RATCHPRAPA SATTHAWONG: HYDROGENATION OF CARBON DIOXIDE ON IRON-BASED CATALYSTS FOR LIQUID FUEL SYNTHESIS. ADVISOR: PROF. PATTARAPAN PRASASSARAKICH, Ph.D., CO-ADVISOR: PROF. CHUNSHAN SONG, Ph.D., 122 pp.

Catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to chemicals and fuels has attracted great attention since it can reduce both CO₂ emission and dependence on fossil fuels. This research, the efficient catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher (C₂⁺) hydrocarbons was developed by tailoring the adsorption properties for CO₂ and H₂ on the catalyst surfaces. The alumina supported monometallic and bimetallic Fe-M (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Pd) catalysts were prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa. Among the monometallic catalysts, only Fe catalyst could synthesize C₂⁺ hydrocarbons, while Co and Ni catalysts showed high CH₄ selectivity. The combination of Fe and M (M/(M + Fe) = 0.10 atom atom⁻¹) led to significant bimetallic promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation. H₂-TPR and H₂-TPD analyses suggested that the reducibility and H₂ adsorption properties of the Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst sensitively changed with the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio. A linear relationship between the amount of moderately adsorbed H₂ and the space-time yield (STY) of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons was observed, indicating an importance of this adsorbed H₂ specie on the formation of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons. This research also discovered that potassium (K) addition to Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst significantly enhanced C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation, particularly linear olefins, while it suppressed CH₄ formation. H₂-TPD experiments revealed that K addition suppressed the hydrogen adsorption on metal sites, leading to an increase in the olefin content.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

α	:	Chain growth probability
ASF	:	Anderson–Schulz–Flory
BET	:	Brunauer-Emmett-Teller
BJH	:	Barrett-Joyner-Halenda
CCS	:	Carbon Capture and Storage
DME	:	Dimethyl ether
DRIFTS	:	Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy
FTIR	:	Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy
FTS	:	Fischer-Tropsch Synthesis
GTCC	:	Gas Turbine Combined Cycle
$\Delta G_{298\text{ K}}$:	Gibb Free Energy
$\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$:	Heat of Reaction
IGCC	:	Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle
MS	:	Mass Spectrometry
MWCNTs	:	Multi-Walled Carbon Nanotubes
NIST	:	National Institute of Standards and Technology
ppm	:	Parts-Per-Million
RWGS	:	Reverse Water–Gas Shift
SNG	:	Synthetic Natural Gas
SSITKA	:	Steady-state Isotopic Transient Kinetic Analysis
STY	:	Space-Time Yield

TOF	:	Turnover-Frequency
TOS	:	Time-On-Stream
TPD	:	Temperature-Programmed Desorption
TPR	:	Temperature-Programmed Reduction
WGS	:	Water-Gas Shift
XPS	:	X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy
XRD	:	X-Ray Diffraction



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation

Nowadays, many global issues originate from the pollutant emissions of fossil fuel combustion (coal, petroleum, and natural gas) in various stationary and mobile energy systems such as manufacturing industries and transportations. The pollutants are not limited to only NO_x , SO_x , and particulate matter (PM). Carbon dioxide (CO_2) emission has also become a major global problem due to its culpability to the greenhouse effect and global warming [1-4]. The atmospheric CO_2 concentration has increased steadily during the last 200 years from approximately 270 ppm to 385 ppm [5,6]. It should be mentioned that the atmospheric CO_2 also has important and positive roles in the ecological system, since it is a carbon source for photosynthesis and food production, and also an original carbon source of the fossil fuels used today. However, too high a CO_2 concentration could prevent the re-emission of an infrared, leading to an increase in the atmospheric temperature and a global climate change [7].

Currently, an ongoing research aiming to find ways for reducing CO_2 emission in the atmosphere such as capturing the CO_2 released from combustion of fossil fuels and sequestration of the CO_2 . Since 2006, more than 30 billion tonnes of CO_2 is discharged into the atmosphere every year [8], but less than 100 million tonnes is utilized (2010) [9]. The consumption of the fossil hydrocarbon resources worldwide also continuously increase. Over 80 percent of the current energy demands are met by the combustion of coal, oil and natural gas, with the unavoidable production and emission of CO_2 [10,11]. The representation of a current global energy scenario based on fossil fuels and the distribution of energy source consumption is shown in Figure

1.1 [12]. A rapid consumption of the fossil hydrocarbon resources worldwide has become a major challenge. Although coal resources are more abundant which could last for several hundred years based on a current consumption rate, but they are still limited [13,14]. Weisz has pointed out that the energy demand and the population growth are exhausting the world's supplies of oil, gas and coal [15,16]. Although other nonconventional fossil fuels such as tar sands, oil shale, and natural gas hydrates are also being considered, all of these hydrocarbon resources are still non-renewable, so they can be exhausted [16]. Therefore, utilization of CO₂ to produce energy-rich compounds has attracted great attention since this could mitigate both the current CO₂ emission levels and the dependence on the depleting non-renewable fuels [4,10,16-18].

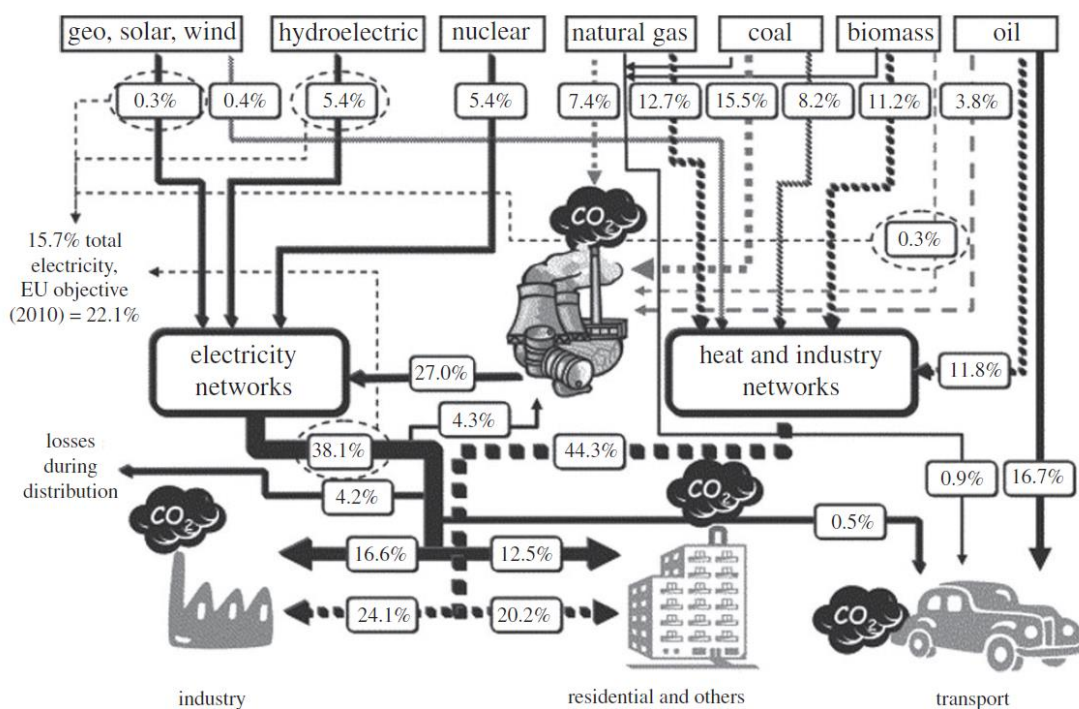


Figure 1.1 Current global energy scenario based on fossil fuels [12].

So far, CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons has been studied mainly on traditional catalysts for Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS) such as Fe, Ni, Co and Ru catalysts. Attention has been paid on improving the catalytic performances of Fe-based catalysts since the higher hydrocarbons could be synthesized from CO₂ hydrogenation [19-22]. Though the K promoted Fe/Al₂O₃ catalysts are known to show activity for higher hydrocarbons synthesis from CO₂ but their activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons are still very low [19,20]. How to achieve the substantial activity improvement in synthesis of higher hydrocarbons remains a major challenge.

1.2 Carbon Dioxide Control and Utilization

Controlling CO₂ is a major challenge and long-term task. There are five possible technical options for reducing the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere including energy choices, energy efficiency, CO₂ capture, CO₂ sequestration, and CO₂ utilization [16]. Energy choices can be performed by selecting the primary energy input for new installations of energy systems or switching from a carbon-rich energy carrier (coal) toward less carbon intensive energy sources (oil or natural gas) for decreasing the produced CO₂. The large reduction of CO₂ would be achieved by changing an energy input from fossil fuels to the non-fossil fuels such as renewable energy i.e. hydropower, solar energy, wind energy, and biomass [16,18].

The second option is to improve the energy efficiency of energy utilization systems, which has a strong influence on CO₂ reduction [5,16,18]. An average efficiency of the existing energy systems in the fossil fuel-based electricity generators in the United States is about 35%, while that for the automobiles is less than 20% [16,23]. The energy efficiencies could be notably increased by developing and implementing the new energy utilization systems such as an integrated gasification combined cycle (IGCC) for coal-based power plants, a gas turbine combined cycle (GTCC) for natural gas-based power plants, or fuel cell-based hybrid motors for

transportation. For the chemical industry, more efficient process or more selective catalyst can make a process such as oxidation reaction more selective, resulting in a minimization of CO₂ formation at the source, which improve the process efficiency and conserve hydrocarbon resources [4,24].

To reduce the amount of CO₂ emitted from large-scale fossil fuel based facilities such as power stations and cement works, carbon capture and storage (CCS) are primarily focused [12]. There are three generic options for CCS being proposed: pre-combustion capture, post-combustion capture, and oxy fuel combustion, which are based on different physical and chemical processes involving absorption, adsorption and cryogenic capture of CO₂. [25,26].

Recently, utilization of CO₂ has gained great attention worldwide since it can turn CO₂ to hydrocarbon fuels which are still compatible with the current facility infrastructure. Due to the high stability of CO₂, a large amount of energy, effective reaction conditions, and active catalysts, are necessary for CO₂ conversion [16]. However, the thermodynamic considerations reveal that high energy is required if only CO₂ is used as a single reactant, but it becomes thermodynamically easier if CO₂ is used as a co-reactant with another molecule that has higher Gibbs free energy, such as CH₄ and H₂. CO₂ Hydrogenation is one of the interesting routes for synthesizing hydrocarbon fuels using CO₂ as a carbon source [16-18]. Moreover, it is also possible to convert CO₂ using the energy from renewable, carbon-free sources (e.g. electricity derived from solar, wind, wave or nuclear, associated with hydrogen or methane), which make this process sustainable [17,27,28].

1.3 Reverse Water-Gas Shift Reaction

The reverse water–gas shift (RWGS) reaction is also a reaction in the catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation process. It is the first step in the hydrogenation of CO₂ into fuels. The RWGS reaction is a mildly endothermic reaction with heat of reaction ($\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$) of

41.2 kJ mol⁻¹ and Gibbs free energy ($\Delta G_{298\text{ K}}$) of 28.6 kJ mol⁻¹ [17]. The RWGS reaction is shown in Eq. (1.1).

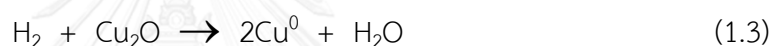


The equilibrium of this reaction can be shifted to the right by increasing the concentration of CO₂ or H₂ to force the complete consumption of the other reactant or removing water vapor from the reactor [17]. The water vapor could be removed using a desiccant bed, or a membrane permeoselective to water. In the FTS, water formed as a by-product during the reaction can deactivate the FT catalysts and also inhibit the reaction rate. Therefore, various types of membranes such as silico-alumina or zeolitic membranes are applied for the selective H₂O removal during the FTS [29,30]. The same concept might possibly be applied for the RWGS reaction to shift the reaction equilibrium [17].

Since the RWGS reaction is a reversible reaction, the active catalysts in the water gas shift (WGS) reaction (such as copper- and cerium-based catalysts) are frequently active in the reverse reaction as well [17,31,32]. The copper-based (Cu-based) bimetallic catalyst such as Cu–Ni catalysts supported on gamma alumina have also been tested for CO₂ hydrogenation [33]. The ratio of Cu/Ni strongly affected the conversion and product selectivity, since Cu favors CO formation, while Ni is active for CO₂ methanation. The Cu-based catalysts used for methanol synthesis such as CuO/ZnO and Cu–Zn/Al₂O₃ with various Cu/Zn ratio have also been applied for the RWGS reaction and the results showed that the alumina supported Cu rich (Cu/Zn > 3) catalyst was the most active one for this reaction. A linear relationship between the activity of the catalyst and the surface area of metallic Cu was proposed [34]. Potassium (K) was also used as a promoter for Cu catalyst. The K-promoted Cu/SiO₂ catalyst showed higher CO₂ conversion (12.8%) than the unpromoted catalyst (5.3%) at 600 °C, since K enhanced CO₂ adsorption and provided the additional active sites for the decomposition of formate species, which is the intermediate of RWGS reaction [18,35].

The ceria-supported Ni catalyst (2 wt% Ni) also showed high activity, selectivity and stability for the RWGS reaction, with CO yield $\sim 35\%$ at 600 °C, while the bulk Ni favors the CO₂ methanation [36]. The active components for the reaction over Ni/CeO₂ catalyst are the oxygen vacancies formed in the lattice of CeO₂ and highly dispersed Ni. However the CeO₂-supported catalysts are easily suffer from a deposition of carbon, leading to strong deactivation of the catalyst [18,37].

Two main reaction mechanisms of the RWGS reaction have been proposed, namely redox and formate mechanisms, but it is still controversial [38,39]. The redox mechanism for the RWGS reaction over Cu-based catalyst can be written as shown in Eq. (1.2) and (1.3).



In the redox mechanism, CO₂ dissociatively adsorbs on the metallic Cu sites to form CO. The oxidized Cu (Cu₂O) is subsequently reduced by H₂ back to the metallic state (Cu⁰). Hydrogen is proposed to be a reducing reagent without direct participation in the formation of intermediates in the RWGS reaction [40,41]. In the case of formate mechanism, the main reaction intermediate is a bidentate formate formed from the reaction between CO₂ and H₂, suggesting that CO is formed from decomposition of the formate intermediates [17,18,35,42].

Another RWGS mechanism over a Pt/CeO₂ catalyst was also proposed [43]. The results from a detailed spectrokinetic analysis, monitored by diffuse reflectance Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (DRIFTS) and mass spectrometry (MS) using steady-state isotopic transient kinetic analysis (SSITKA) suggest that CO formation over Pt/CeO₂ catalyst proceeds via three kinds of mechanism as showed in Figure 1.2. CO was mainly formed via surface carbonate intermediates, including reaction between the surface carbonates and oxygen vacancies or the diffusion of the vacancies in the CeO₂. However, the formates and Pt-bound carbonyls species were also observed, but at lower extent compared with the carbonate intermediates [18,43].

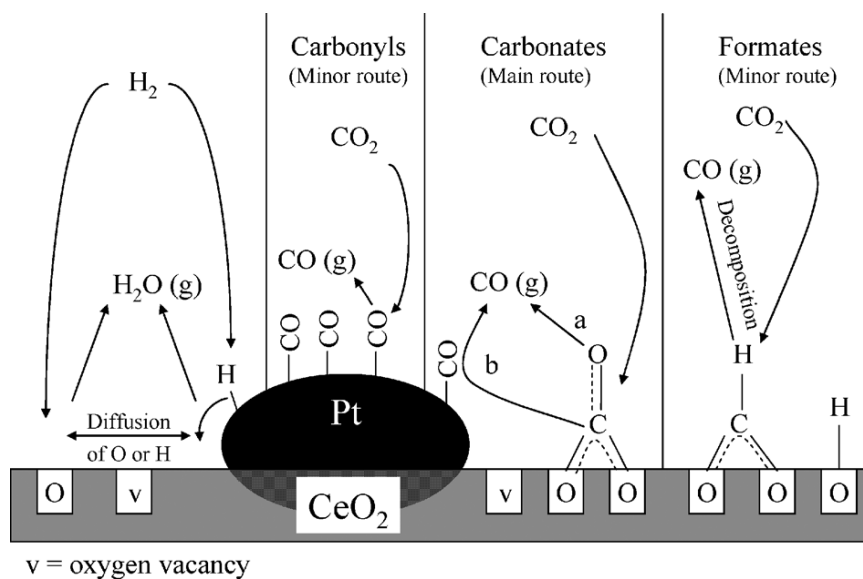
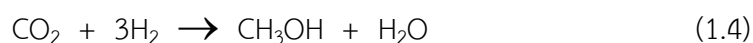


Figure 1.2 The proposed model for the reaction mechanism of the RWGS reaction over Pt/CeO₂ [43].

1.4 CO₂ Hydrogenation to Alcohol

1.4.1 Synthesis of Methanol

Methanol is a common solvent, a starting material in chemical industry and also an alternative fuel. Methanol could be synthesized via CO₂ hydrogenation using a single or two step approaches. The RWGS reaction and the methanol synthesis are integrated in a single reactor for the single step approach, while they are separated into two reactor for the two step approach [17]. Methanol synthesis via CO₂ hydrogenation is an exothermic reaction with $\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$ of -49.5 kJ mol^{-1} and can be written as shown in Eq. (1.4) [18].



From the thermodynamic point of view, the synthesis of methanol could be driven by decreasing the reaction temperature or increasing the reaction pressure. However, since CO₂ has low reactivity, the reaction temperature need to be higher than 513 K in order to activate CO₂ for the methanol formation [44]. In addition, the side reaction such as RWGS reaction, higher alcohols or hydrocarbon

formations also consume H_2 , resulting in a reduction of the methanol formation. The water formed during methanol synthesis and side reactions should also be considered, since water can deactivate the catalysts or inhibit the methanol formation [17,44]. To avoid the formation of undesired by-products, the highly selective catalysts are crucial for methanol synthesis via CO_2 hydrogenation.

Until now, most catalysts used for CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol are the modified catalysts used for methanol synthesis from CO hydrogenation. They are based on Cu/ZnO catalysts containing various additives such as Zr, Ga, Si, Al, B, Cr, Ce, V, Ti [45,46]. The addition of these additives to the Cu/ZnO -based catalysts could improve the dispersion and stability of Cu particles significantly, leading to an increase in the total surface area of the metal phase, thus CO_2 conversion and methanol yield were enhanced [46-49]. Furthermore, the crystal types of ZrO_2 also affected performance of the catalysts, i.e., the activity of Cu supported on $m-ZrO_2$ was higher than that of the $Cu/t-ZrO_2$, due to the higher concentration of adsorbed active intermediates such as $HCOO$ and CH_3O [18,50,51]. A simplified reaction pathway for CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol over the Cu/ZrO_2 catalyst surface was proposed as shown in Figure 1.3 [18,52]. Hydrogen dissociatively adsorbed on the Cu surface, while CO_2 adsorbed on the surface of ZrO_2 formed bicarbonate species. The bicarbonate species are then hydrogenated by the adsorbed hydrogen on metallic Cu (spillover) to form formate intermediate species, which subsequently hydrogenated to methanol [53,54].

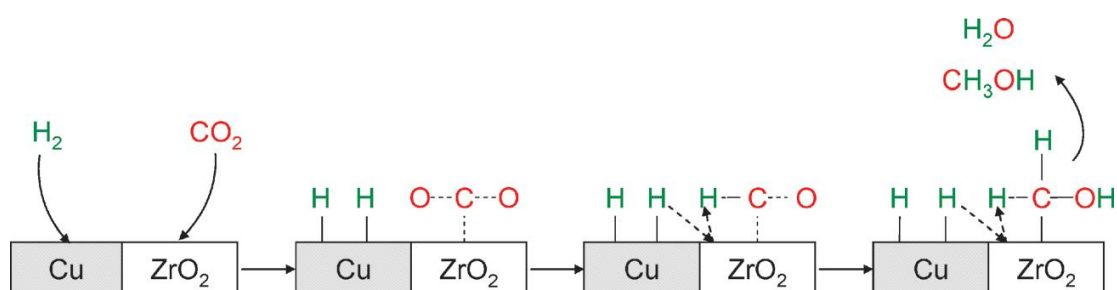


Figure 1.3 Proposed reaction pathway of the methanol formation from CO_2 hydrogenation over Cu/ZrO_2 catalyst [18,52].

Ga or Cr could increase the specific activity per unit Cu surface area of the catalysts, and Ga, Al or B can also decrease the adsorption rate of water that inhibits the methanol formation [46,55,56]. Further studies demonstrated that the Cu/ZnO-based multicomponent catalysts such as Cu/ZnO/ZrO₂/Al₂O₃, Cu/ZnO/ZrO₂/Al₂O₃/SiO₂ and Cu/ZnO/ZrO₂/Al₂O₃/Ga₂O₃ showed better performances for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol. The addition of a small amount of SiO₂ significantly improved the long-term stability of the multi-component catalysts during the reaction [57].

In addition to the Cu/ZnO-based catalysts, the noble metal-based catalysts also exhibit high activity for methanol synthesis via CO₂ hydrogenation. The supported Pd catalysts are the most commonly used catalysts due to their high activity and selectivity for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol. Several researchers reported that support materials also play a crucial role on the performance of Pd catalyst [44,58,59]. The La₂O₃ supported Pd catalyst could synthesize methanol with more than 89% selectivity at 623 K and 12 MPa, while methane (CH₄) was the major product when the acidic supports (e.g. SiO₂, Al₂O₃) were used [44]. The multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) were also used as a support for Pd-ZnO catalysts. The 16% Pd_{0.1}Zn₁/CNTs(h-type) catalyst showed high efficiency for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol at 523 K and 3.0 MPa with the observed turnover-frequency (TOF) of $1.15 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ [58]. Recently, Koizumi et al. [59] investigated the effect of the pore size and pore structure of the SiO₂ support (amorphous SiO₂, MCM-48, MCM-41, SBA-15 and MSU-F) on the catalytic activity of alkali promoted Pd catalysts for methanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation. The alkali promoted Pd supported on MCM-41 and SBA-15 exhibited high activity for methanol synthesis at 523 K and 4.1 MPa, due to that the small Pd⁰ nanoparticles can be formed in the small mesopores of MCM-41 and SBA-15 which confine the nanoparticle growth [59].

1.4.2 Synthesis of Higher Alcohol

Higher alcohols are preferable to methanol as products from CO₂ hydrogenation in terms of easier transport/storage and excellent compatibility to gasoline [17,18]. Higher alcohol synthesis from CO₂ could be proceed via two-step reaction; RWGS reaction (for producing syngas) and subsequent hydrogenation of CO to higher alcohols [17]. Therefore, a catalyst that is active for both reactions under the same condition (ie. Fe-based and Rh-based catalysts) would be favorable for the overall reaction [18,60-63]. Catalysts for higher alcohol synthesis should provide active sites for promoting several reactions including partial reduction of CO₂ to CO, C-C bond formation, and OH group insertion, such as the combination of Cu-based catalysts, which has the RWGS ability, and Fe-based catalysts with the FTS ability [18,62,63]. The addition of alkaline promoter such as K to the Fe-based FT catalysts could promote the C-C bond formation, leading to an increase in C₂⁺-alcohols formation [63]. The ethanol selectivity from CO₂ hydrogenation at 300 °C and 7 MPa was increased from 6% to 20% by adding K₂CO₃ to a Cu/Fe/ZnO catalyst. However, the major products were C₂⁺ hydrocarbons and the deactivation rate was relatively high [17,64,65].

Rh-based catalyst is also known as an efficient catalyst for ethanol synthesis from CO hydrogenation [60]. By modifying this catalyst, ethanol can be synthesized from CO₂ hydrogenation. The Li promoted Rh/SiO₂ catalyst could yield ethanol with 15.5% selectivity and 7.0% CO₂ conversion. In situ FTIR analysis suggested that CO₂ was hydrogenated to ethanol via CO intermediate and the addition of Li could increase CO formation [60]. An ethanol selectivity of 16% with 26.7% CO₂ conversion were obtained using SiO₂ supported Rh-Fe catalyst (5 wt%) [61]. According to the XPS and in situ FTIR analyses, the authors have concluded that the electronic states of Rh was changed by Fe³⁺, and the presence of Fe⁰ promotes methanation and prevented the formation of methanol, ethanol, and CO [61]. Rh-Fe-Li(1:1:1)/SiO₂ catalyst (5 wt%) gave high ethanol selectivity (14%) at 34% CO₂ conversion at 260 °C [18,64].

The carbon nanotubes (CNTs) were also used as a support for the Rh-based catalysts for CO hydrogenation [66,67]. Rh and Mn nanoparticles with Li and Fe as the additives (Rh:Mn:Li:Fe was 1:1:0.075:0.05 by weight; denoted as RMLF), were deposited on the inner (RMLF-in-CNTs) or outer (RMLF-out-CNT) surface of the CNTs (4-8 nm inner diameter and 250-500 nm length; 1.2 wt% Rh loading). The results showed a significantly different behavior between RMLF-in-CNT and RMLF-out-CNT catalysts in the formation of C₂ oxygenates from CO hydrogenation (Figure 1.4). The C₂ oxygenates yield with more than 76% ethanol was obtained from RMLF-in-CNTs, which is about one order of magnitude higher than that of the analogous RMLF-out-CNT sample, and also larger than that of similar catalysts prepared supported on silica [17,66].

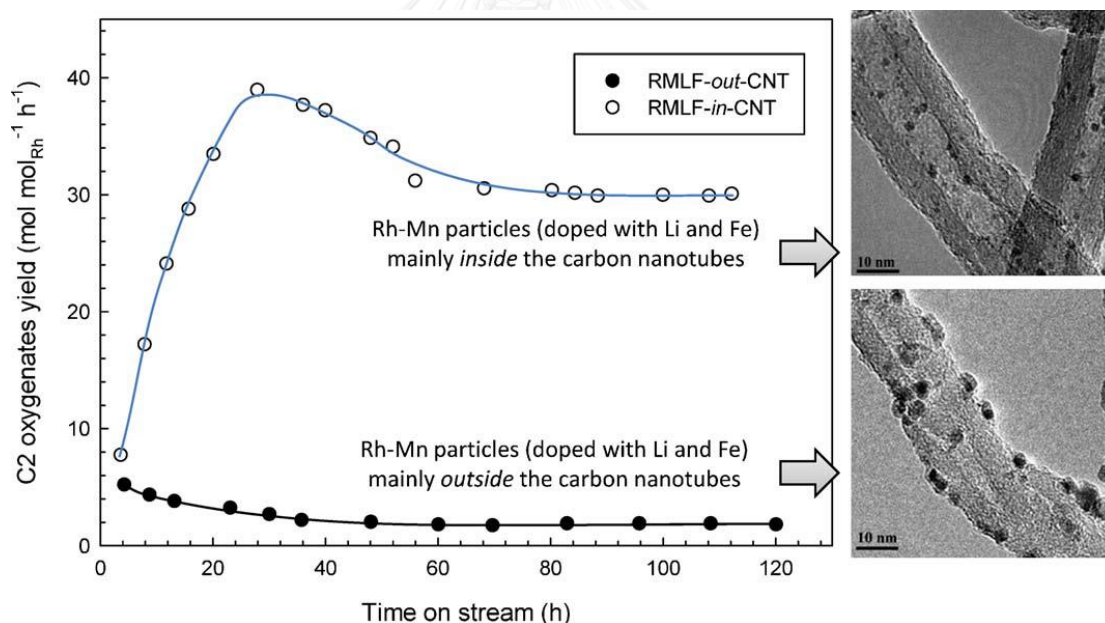
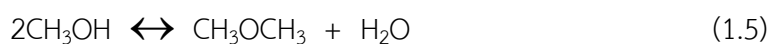


Figure 1.4 Time-on-stream profiles of C₂ oxygenate yield from CO hydrogenation at 320 °C over RMLF-in-CNT and RMLF-out-CNT catalysts, accompanied with the transmission electron microscopy images of the respective fresh samples [17,66].

The effects of different carbon support materials; carbon black (CB), CMK-3 and activated carbon (AC); on the catalytic activity of C₂ oxygenate synthesis from syngas were also studied by the same authors [67]. Among the four catalysts with different carbon supports, RMLF/CNTs exhibited the highest activity. Even though Rh is very well dispersed on the AC with high surface area, this catalyst showed the lowest overall activity and C₂ oxygenate yield. These results suggest that the combination of the nanochannels and graphitic structure may be crucial in promoting this reaction in addition to the metal dispersion, particle size and presence of dopants [17,67]. These results could provide a direction for the direct synthesis of ethanol from CO₂ hydrogenation in addition to the CO hydrogenation.

1.5 CO₂ Hydrogenation to Dimethyl Ether

Dimethyl ether (DME) is a clean-burning substitute for diesel oil due to its high-efficiency for compression ignition with reduced NO_x, SO_x, and particulate matter [68,69]. Though, it is a volatile organic compound, but it is non-toxic, non-carcinogenic non-mutagenic, and non-teratogenic [68]. There are two routes for synthesizing DME from hydrogenation of CO₂, namely a two-step process and a single-step process [70,71]. For the two-step process (traditional route), CO₂ is firstly hydrogenated to methanol (Eq. (1.4)) on a metallic catalyst (Cu-based catalyst is commonly used) followed by the dehydration of methanol (Eq. (1.5); $\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$ of 23.4 kJ mol⁻¹ [68]) on an acid catalyst [72].



The bifunctional catalyst is used in the single-step process to perform the two steps simultaneously. The favorable thermodynamics of the dehydration reaction can drive the methanol synthesis reaction, leading to an increase in the reactor productivity [17,70,71]. Therefore, selection of acidic support is greatly important.

The water formed during the reaction also needs to be considered, since it could decrease the activity of the acid supports [73]. Furthermore, the water formed from CO₂ hydrogenation (RWGS or methanol synthesis) is more than that from the CO hydrogenation. HZSM-5 zeolite has been chosen as a part of the bifunctional catalyst, since it is not sensitive to the water concentration [74-76]. However, the drawback of using HZSM-5 zeolite is that it also catalyzes DME conversion into hydrocarbons. Some of these hydrocarbons are considered as precursor for coke formation that could deactivate the zeolite by blocking its pores [77]. The addition of an appropriate amount of Na to the HZSM-5 zeolite could prevent the hydrocarbons formation from DME by decreasing number and strength of the Brønsted acid sites of the zeolite [78]. There is no irreversible deactivation observed for Cu-Zn-Al/NaHZSM-5 catalysts at the temperature below 300 °C [18,73]. A suitable amount of La in the CuO-ZnO-Al₂O₃-La₂O₃/HZSM-5 catalyst could enhance the dispersion of Cu on the surface by reducing the crystallite size of CuO, which resulted in an increase of CO₂ conversion [79]. However, according to the thermodynamic analysis, the DME synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation is a less worthy alternative compared to that using syngas, due to the greater thermodynamic stability of CO₂ as compared to H₂O [17].

1.6 CO₂ Hydrogenation to Formic Acid

Formic acid synthesis is an alternative to convert CO₂ to liquid products that can be used as both fuels and chemicals. Formic acid is widely used in many fields such as the leather and rubber industries [80]. Since the early 1990s, attentions have been paid on the hydrogenation of CO₂ to formic acid and formates [81]. Recently, formic acid has also been considered as hydrogen storage material by combining CO₂ hydrogenation with selective decomposition of formic acid, resulting in a continuously study on an improvement of the catalyst activity and stability [18,81,82]. Synthesis of formic acid via CO₂ hydrogenation is shown in Eq. (1.6).



To shift the reaction equilibrium, it is necessary to add an inorganic or organic base to the reaction system [80]. By adding an inorganic base, formate is formed which subsequently needs strong acid for converting formate to formic acid, while in the case of an organic base, recovery of formic acid is complicated and consume high energy because of the volatility of the base [18,80].

CO₂ hydrogenation to formic acid and formates typically use organometallic complexes such as the transition-metal catalysts based on rhodium, ruthenium, and iridium at low temperatures, rather than the heterogeneous systems [81,83]. By using RhCl(PPh₃)₃ catalyst (Wilkinson catalyst) for CO₂ hydrogenation, formic acid was formed in the presence of rhodium complexes with a phosphine ligand [84,85]. The catalyst activity is strongly dependent on the solvent nature, where high rates can be achieved using polar solvents such as DMSO and MeOH. The beginning and the end of CO₂ hydrogenation is corresponded to the presence of RhCl(PPh₃)₂(NEt₃), which is a precursor of the catalytically active complex. An excess of PPh₃ could inhibit the reduction of the complex to metallic Rh, leading to a significant increases in the yield of formic acid [18].

Addition of a small amount of water can improve the catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to formic acid effectively [86,87]. It was suggested that hydrogen-bonding interaction between a hydrogen atom of H₂O and an oxygen atom of CO₂ enhanced the electrophilicity of carbon and facilitated its insertion into the metal-hydride bond [87,88]. Water can also be used as the solvent for synthesizing formic acid, especially for the formation of formate, since it is an inexpensive, abundant, and innocuous solvent, and also provide many advantages such as high absorption for some gases, amphoteric behavior in Brønsted sites, and easily to be separated from a polar compounds [89]. However, catalysis in water system requires the catalysts with water-soluble ligands such as Ir and Ru complexes [18].

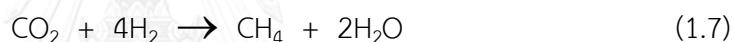
Although homogeneous catalysts have been proved to be efficient catalysts for the synthesis of formic acid from CO₂ hydrogenation, but they still have some drawbacks in terms of product separation and recycle of the catalyst. These

problems are possibly solved by immobilizing a complex onto a support material to improve the reusability and stability of the catalyst. Ruthenium complexes immobilized on amine-functionalized-silica prepared by an in situ synthetic approach exhibited high activity and 100% selectivity for the formic synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation, and this catalyst was also easily to be separated and recycled [18,90].

1.7 CO₂ Hydrogenation to Hydrocarbons

1.7.1 Methanation of Carbon Dioxide

The methanation of CO₂ has a wide range of applications including the production of syngas and the formation of compressed natural gas. Catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂ to methane or Sabatier reaction (Eq. (1.7); $\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$ of -252.9 kJ mol⁻¹) is an important catalytic process [18].



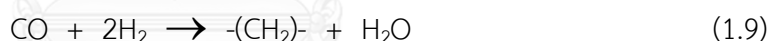
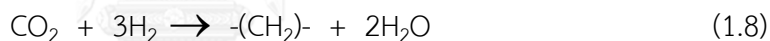
Although, CO₂ methanation is a thermodynamically favorable reaction ($\Delta G_{298\text{ K}} = -130.8$ kJ mol⁻¹); the reduction of the stable CO₂ molecule to CH₄ is an eight-electron process with significant kinetic limitations, which requires a catalyst that can offer acceptable activity and selectivity [18,91]. The metal-based heterogeneous catalysts have been studied extensively for the CO₂ hydrogenation to methane, especially Ni and VIII B metals (such as Ru and Rh) supported on various oxides. The nature of support plays an important role in the interaction between nickel and support, which determines the catalytic activity and selectivity of CO₂ methanation [92]. Ni catalysts supported on amorphous silica are active for CO₂ methanation, and more active than Ni on silica gel support [93,94]. Since the dispersion of the active phase depends on the support, many researches have focused on preparation of highly dispersed metal supported catalysts. Ni/MCM-41 catalysts with different amount of Ni was studied for CO₂ methanation, and the activity and selectivity of Ni/MCM-41 with 3 wt% Ni loading were higher than those of Ni/SiO₂ catalysts and comparable to that of Ru/SiO₂ catalysts [18,95,96].

However, Ni-based catalysts would deactivate at low temperature due to the interaction of the metal particles with CO and the mobile nickel subcarbonyls formation [97]. In contrast, VIII B metals such as Ru, Pd, and Pt are stable at operating conditions and could provide higher activity for CO₂ methanation than Ni [98]. The reaction rate of Ru/Al₂O₃ (15 wt% Ru loading) at steady-state was about 10 times higher than that of the Ni-based catalysts. The turnover frequency (TOF) of Ru-based catalysts were dependent on the Ru dispersion and the type of supports (metal-support interaction). The TOF of Ru/Al₂O₃ was $16.5 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is higher than those of Ru/MgAl₂O₄ ($8.8 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), Ru/MgO ($7.9 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and Ru/C ($2.5 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) [99]. The low activity of Ru/C catalyst could be explained by decrease in active sites due to the partial covering of metal surface by carbon [99]. Highly dispersed Ru nanoparticles were also synthesized on TiO₂ prepared by a barrels-sputtering method, which could provide higher yield (100% yield) at 433 K compared to that of the catalyst prepared by conventional wet impregnation method [100]. Moreover, the addition of yttrium (Y) to Ru-based catalysts could increase the active surface area, Ru dispersion and also catalytic activity [18,101].

Although the CO₂ methanation is a simple reaction, but its reaction mechanism is somewhat difficult to establish and still controversial. Two mechanisms for CO₂ methanation have been proposed with different intermediates. For the first mechanism, CO₂ is first converted to CO via RWGS reaction, and the formed CO is then hydrogenated to CH₄ following the same mechanism as CO methanation [102-104]. Another mechanism is the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₄ via the formation of the formate through a carbonate species, without forming CO as an intermediate [103,105,106].

1.7.2 Synthesis of C₂⁺ Hydrocarbons

CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons is basically a modification of the FTS, where CO₂ is used as a carbon source instead of CO, and in which the catalyst composition is tailored to maximize the production of hydrocarbons [18]. Hydrocarbons can be synthesized from hydrogenation of CO₂ either by direct or indirect routes (via CO and/or CH₃OH intermediate formation) [17]. For the indirect route, a multistage approach using separated reactors or a single-stage approach using hybrid catalysts which are able to perform simultaneously the multi-step transformation, can be applied [17,18]. Many researchers reported that the hydrogenation typically takes place via the formation of CO intermediate, while the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to hydrocarbons (Eq. (1.8)) rarely occurs. The possible pathway was proposed; CO₂ is first converted to CO via RWGS reaction (Eq. (1.1)), and the formed CO is subsequently hydrogenated to form the monomers (CH_x species) (Eq. (1.9)), which finally form the different hydrocarbons via a FT mechanism [107].



Until now, the catalysts used for CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons are based-on those for FTS such as Fe, Co, Ni and Ru catalysts [108]. However, when supported Co, Ni and Ru catalysts are used for CO₂ hydrogenation, CH₄ becomes a major product with only small amounts of higher hydrocarbons are observed [109-111]. During CO₂ hydrogenation, C/H ratio on the catalyst surface is low due to the slow CO₂ adsorption rate, which favors the hydrogenation of surface-adsorbed intermediates to form CH₄ [112]. Riedel et al. [113] and Gnanamani et al. [114] studied the activities and selectivities for the hydrogenation of CO, CO₂ and their mixtures over Co and Fe catalysts. In the case of Co-based catalyst, by increasing partial pressure of CO₂ (CO partial pressure decreased), the product composition was shifted from an FT synthesis type to almost only CH₄, while the product composition was only slightly changed when Fe catalyst was used. Different behaviors of Fe and

Co catalysts are explained in terms of different types of the kinetic regime of FTS, where strong CO adsorption is crucial for Co catalysts, while carbide formation is important for Fe catalysts [113,115].

As a consequence of the prior studies including those mentioned above, attentions have been paid on improving the catalytic performances of Fe-based catalysts to increase the yield of higher hydrocarbon products, by adding some promoters such as Li, K and Mn or selecting the proper support materials [19-22,116-118]. The addition of K to Fe-based catalysts increased CO₂ conversion and higher hydrocarbon selectivity, while decreased CH₄ selectivity. Olefin content in the products were also increased with K content, since K could suppress further hydrogenation of the produced olefins [20]. Many researchers reported that the addition of K to Fe catalysts increased CO₂ adsorption, while it suppressed H₂ adsorption [19,35,119-122]. K also facilitated the formation of iron carbide, which is believed as the active sites for the formation of higher hydrocarbon in FTS and CO₂ hydrogenation [119,120,123]. Mn could perform as both structural promoter and electronic modifier for Fe-based catalysts. It enhanced the reduction and carburization of iron oxides and increased the dispersion of Fe₂O₃ [118,124]. The addition of Mn also increased surface basicity of the catalysts, resulting in a decrease in CH₄ formation and increase in an olefin/paraffin ratio in FTS and CO₂ hydrogenation [20,118,124]. Cu could also promote CO₂ hydrogenation as well, by facilitating the catalyst reduction and providing the active sites for H₂ dissociation [118,125].

The product distributions from CO₂ hydrogenation are also dependent on type of support materials, where it affects the dispersion of the active metals and prevents the sintering of the metals during the reaction [126]. Al₂O₃ is known as a good support, since it could prevent sintering due to the strong metal-support interaction, followed by SiO₂ and TiO₂ [113,119,126]. Different type of zeolites with characteristic pore structures and acidity strongly affected the catalytic performances of the catalysts and the distribution of hydrocarbon products [127,128].

Though K promoted Fe/Al₂O₃ catalysts ($K \geq 0.5 \text{ mol-K mol}^{-1}$ of Fe) are viewed as most promising catalysts for higher hydrocarbons synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation so far, these catalysts still have low performances for converting CO₂ [16-19]. How to achieve substantial activity improvement in synthesis of higher hydrocarbons remains a major challenge.

1.8 Objectives and Scope of Dissertation

The principle objective of this research is to develop efficient catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher (C₂⁺) hydrocarbons. One approach is to tailor the adsorption properties of CO₂ and H₂ on the catalyst surfaces using various catalyst formulations, for facilitating the carbon-carbon bond formation. The effects of catalyst formulations on the physical and chemical properties of the catalysts were also investigated.

Chapter I of this thesis provides a review of the global challenges and strategies for control, conversion and utilization of CO₂ with focusing on the catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂.

The experimental procedures for the catalyst preparation as well as the CO₂ hydrogenation and the various techniques used for the catalyst characterization are given in Chapter II.

The catalytic activities and selectivities of the monometallic (Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Pd) catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation are reported in Chapter III. The effect of combining Fe with the second metal (M; Co, Ni, Pd, Cu) at the same M/(M + Fe) atomic ratio, on the catalytic properties are also studied, accompanied with an investigating the effect of Ni/(Ni + Fe) atomic ratio on the bimetallic promotion of higher hydrocarbons.

In Chapter IV, the Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were studied in more details to understand the bimetallic promotion in CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons. The Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were prepared at various Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio from 0 -1 and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation. The effect of K promoter is also investigated.

To investigate the physical and chemical properties of Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts, these bimetallic catalysts were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), temperature-programmed reduction (TPR), diffuse reflectance Infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) and temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), and their results are reported in Chapter V. To clarify the influence of Fe and Co combination on the adsorption properties of H₂ and CO₂, and their impact on the CO₂ hydrogenation activities, the in-situ and quasi in-situ techniques were used to characterize the catalysts after H₂ reduction and CO₂ hydrogenation at high-pressure conditions, respectively.

In Chapter VI, the pathway for light olefin (C₂-C₄) formation from CO₂ hydrogenation over K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst was investigated. The influence of K-promoter on adsorption properties of H₂ and CO₂ and their impact on the CO₂ hydrogenation activities of the Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with different K/Fe atomic ratios were also studied by N₂ adsorption-desorption, TPR, TPD and DRIFTS.

Finally, the conclusions from this research and recommendations for future work are provided in Chapter VII. The results of this research will contribute the understanding and useful guidance to the development of Fe-based bimetallic catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons.

CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENTAL AND CHARACTERIZATION

2.1 Materials

Gamma-alumina (γ -Al₂O₃, PURALOX TH 100/150, BET surface area = 150 m² g⁻¹, average pore diameter = 22 nm) was purchased from Sasol North America Inc. and was calcined at 823 K for 2 h before being used. Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (99.99%), Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (≥ 98%), Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (99.999%), K₂CO₃ (99.995%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Chemical Company. Cu(NO₃)₂·2.5H₂O (98-102%) and (NH₃)₄Pd(NO₃)₂ (99.9%) were purchased from Alfa-Aesar Chemical Company. All of the precursors were used without further purification. Mixed gas of 24 vol% CO₂/ 72 vol% H₂/ 4 vol% Ar (purity > 99.999%), H₂ gas (99.999%) and He (99.999%) were supplied by Praxair Inc.

2.2 Catalyst Preparation

2.2.1 Unpromoted Catalyst

Gamma-alumina was used as support material. The total metal loading was kept constant at 15 wt% (support weight basis) except Pd catalyst (5 wt% metal loading). Supported monometallic catalysts (Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Pd) were prepared by incipient wetness impregnation method using aqueous solutions containing Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O, Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, Cu(NO₃)₂·2.5H₂O and (NH₃)₄Pd(NO₃)₂ as a precursor, respectively. The impregnated sample was dried at 333 K in a rotary evaporator for 2 h, and then dried in an electrical oven at 383 K for 3 h in ambient air followed by calcination at 623 K for 2 h under flowing dry air (ca. 100 mL (NTP) min⁻¹) (Figure 2.1).

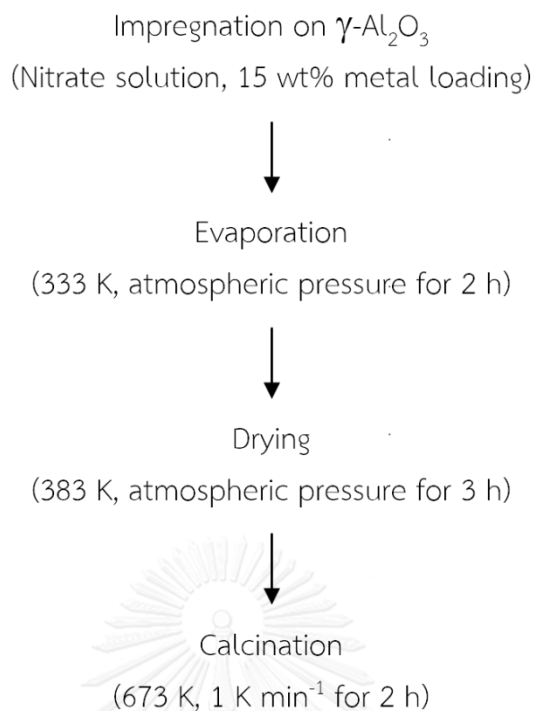


Figure 2.1 Procedure for preparation of supported Fe-based catalysts.

The supported bimetallic catalysts Fe-Co/Al₂O₃, Fe-Ni/Al₂O₃, Fe-Cu/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Pd/Al₂O₃ were prepared by co-incipient wetness impregnation method using the aqueous solution containing both bimetallic precursor Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and Cu(NO₃)₂·2.5H₂O, Fe(NO₃)₃·9H₂O and (NH₃)₄Pd(NO₃)₂, respectively and prepared in accordance with the procedures used for supported monometallic catalysts. The total metal (Fe + Co, Fe + Ni, Fe + Cu and Fe + Pd) loading was also kept constant at 15 wt% (support weight basis). The Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio and Ni/(Ni + Fe) were varied in the range of 0.0-1.0, while Cu/(Cu + Fe) and Pd/(Pd + Fe) were fixed at 0.10 atomic ratio.

2.2.2 K-promoted Catalyst

K promoted catalysts were prepared by a two-step impregnation method; an aqueous solution of K₂CO₃ was impregnated onto the alumina support in the first step and the sample was dried in a rotary evaporator at 333 K for 2 h

followed by drying in an electric oven at 383 K overnight. This sample was then impregnated with the mixed metal nitrate solution (Fe-Co, Fe-Ni, Fe-Cu and Fe-Pd) followed by drying and calcination under the same conditions mentioned in section 2.2.1 (Figure 2.2). The catalysts prepared in this work are denoted as Fe-M(X)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃; M = Ni, Cu, Pd, Co, where X and Y represent the M/(M + Fe) and K/Fe atomic ratios, respectively. Loadings of metal and K of prepared catalysts are listed in Table 2.1.

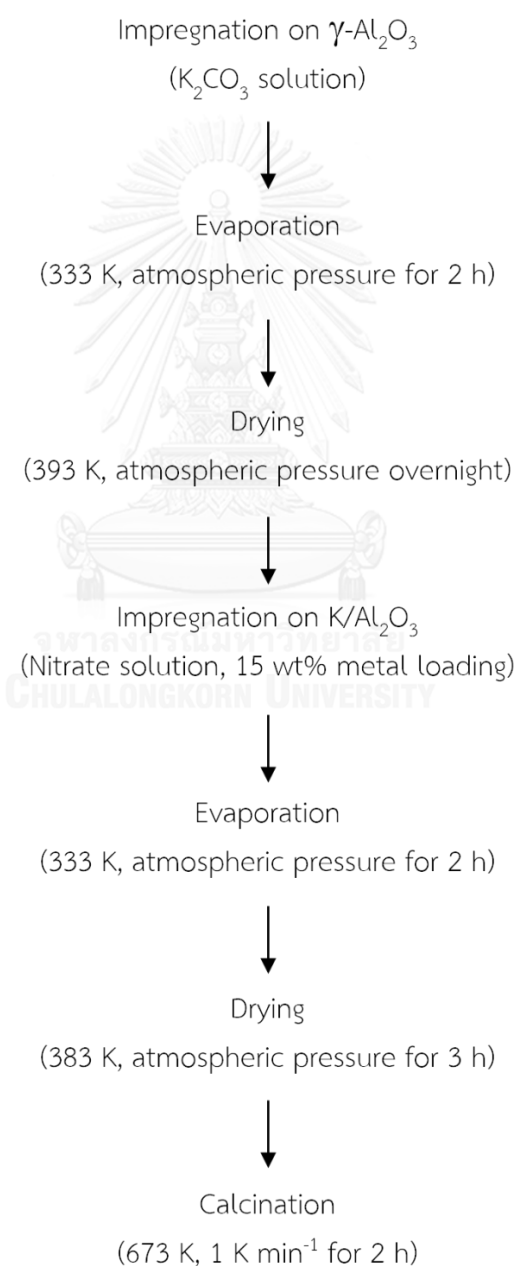


Figure 2.2 Procedure for preparation of K-promoted Fe-based catalysts.

Table 2.1 Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Pd and K loadings of unpromoted and K-promoted Fe-M/Al₂O₃ catalysts (M = Ni, Cu, Pd, Co).

Catalyst	Loading / wt% (support weight basis)					
	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Pd	K
Fe	15.0	-	-	-	-	-
Co	-	15.0	-	-	-	-
Ni	-	-	15.0	-	-	-
Cu	-	-	-	15.0	-	-
Pd	-	-	-	-	5.0	-
Fe-Co(0.10)	13.4	1.6	-	-	-	-
Fe-Co(0.17)	12.4	2.6	-	-	-	-
Fe-Co(0.25)	11.1	3.9	-	-	-	-
Fe-Co(0.50)	7.3	7.7	-	-	-	-
Fe-Ni(0.03)	14.5	-	0.5	-	-	-
Fe-Ni(0.10)	13.4	-	1.6	-	-	-
Fe-Cu(0.10)	13.3	-	-	1.7	-	-
Fe-Pd(0.10)	12.4	-	-	-	2.6	-
Fe/K(0.3)	15.0	-	-	-	-	3.2
Co/K(0.3)	-	15.0	-	-	-	3.0
Fe-Co(0.10)/K(0.3)	13.4	1.6	-	-	-	2.8
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)	12.4	2.6	-	-	-	2.6
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.5)	12.4	2.6	-	-	-	4.3
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)	12.4	2.6	-	-	-	8.7
Fe-Co(0.25)/K(0.3)	11.1	3.9	-	-	-	2.3
Fe-Co(0.50)/K(0.3)	7.3	7.7	-	-	-	1.5
Fe-Ni(0.03)/K(0.3)	14.5	-	0.5	-	-	3.0
Fe-Ni(0.10)/K(0.3)	13.4	-	1.6	-	-	2.8
Fe-Cu(0.10)/K(0.3)	13.3	-	-	1.7	-	2.8
Fe-Pd(0.10)/K(0.3)	12.4	-	-	-	2.6	2.6

2.3 Catalyst Evaluation

The performance of catalysts on CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons was carried out in a high-pressure fixed-bed flow reactor system (Figure 2.3). Typically, about 0.2 g of catalyst was mixed with amorphous SiO₂ (75-250 μm particle size) in order to dilute the heat generated from the exothermal reaction and maintain an aspect ratio. The diluted catalyst was charged into a stainless steel reactor (internal diameter = 6 mm) between two glass wool layers. The upper part of the catalyst bed was packed with SiO₂ glass ball (2 mm diameter) as a pre-heating zone. The catalyst was reduced under a 50 mL (STP) min⁻¹ H₂ flow (purity > 99.999%) at 673 K for 2 h, and then cooled down to 573 K before CO₂ hydrogenation reaction. The feed gas, 24 vol% CO₂/ 72 vol% H₂/ 4 vol% Ar (purity > 99.999%), was then fed into the system. The reaction conditions are 573 K and 1.1 MPa with GHSV of 3600 mL (STP) g⁻¹ h⁻¹, unless otherwise stated.

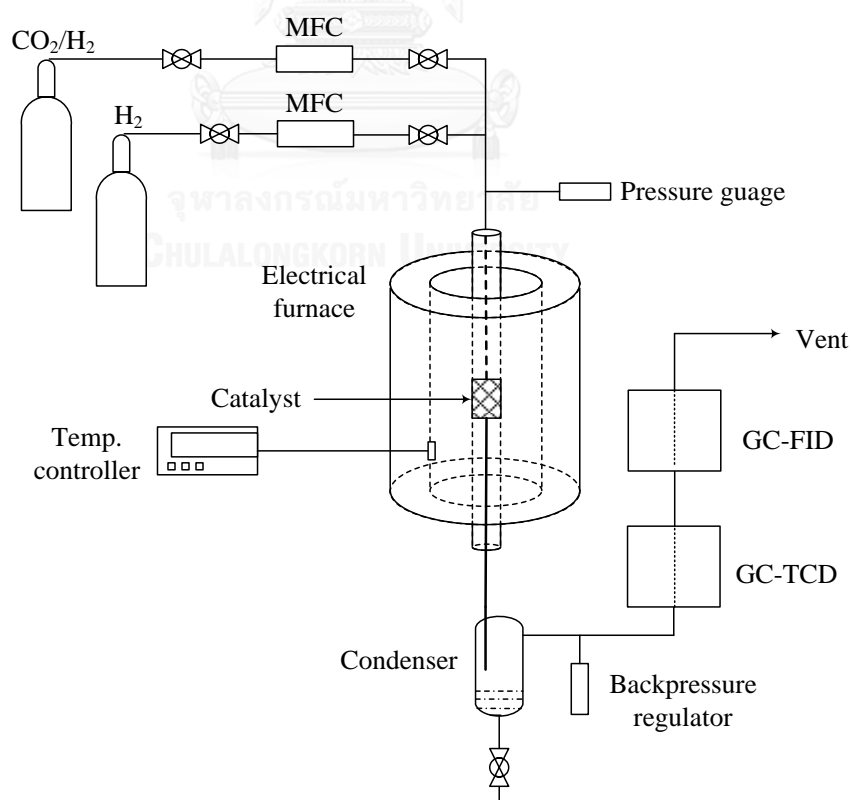


Figure 2.3 High-pressure fixed-bed flow system for CO₂ hydrogenation.

2.4 CO₂ Hydrogenation Product Analysis

2.4.1 Gas Product

The gas products including Ar, CO, CH₄ and CO₂ were analyzed online using an Agilent 3000 micro Gas Chromatography (GC) with molecular sieve type column for Ar, CO, CH₄ and Plot-Q column for CO₂. The gas-phase hydrocarbon products were analyzed online using SRI 8610C GC equipped with Flame Ionization Detector (GC-FID) (Porapak Q column). The condition and temperature program used for micro GC and GC-FID are described in detail in Appendix A.

2.4.2 Liquid Hydrocarbon Products

The liquid hydrocarbons were collected in an ice trapped condenser connected to the reactor and analyzed after the reaction with Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) (Shimadzu, QP-5000) with a capillary column Rxi[®]-5HT (Crossbond[®] 5% diphenyl/ 95% dimethyl polysiloxane, 30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.25 μm film thickness) and a split mode injector (ratio 20:1) was used with ultra-high purity helium as a carrier gas. The condition and temperature program for GC/MS are described in Appendix B.

2.5 Catalyst Passivation

After CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa for 15-16 h, the catalyst was cooled down to 298 K under flowing 24 vol% CO₂/ 72 vol% H₂/ 4 vol% Ar and subsequently passivated using 0.95 vol % O₂/He (purity > 99.999%) at a flow rate of 30 mL min⁻¹. An area of O₂ peak (effluent of O₂) observed by Micro GC equipped with TCD was used as a mark for the catalyst passivation. The passivation finished after the O₂ peak area became constant and the catalyst then collected from the reactor for characterizations, hereafter simply denoted as *spent catalyst*.

2.6 Adsorption/Desorption of N₂

The physical properties of catalyst were measured using a fully automated TriStar II (Micromeritics) surface area and porosity analyzer. The catalyst surface area (SA), pore volume (PV) and average pore diameter (D_p) were determined from the nitrogen (N₂) adsorption/desorption isotherms measured at 77 K. Before analysis, all the samples (ca. 0.20–0.25 g) were degassed under a N₂ flow at 363 K for 1 h and 473 K for 12 h. The isotherms were elaborated according to the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method for surface area calculation, while Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) model was used to obtain pore volume and average pore diameter of the catalysts.

2.7 Temperature-Programmed Reduction

2.7.1 Calcined Catalyst

Temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) experiments were carried out at ambient pressure in a Micromeritics AutoChem 2910 Automated Catalyst Characterization System using hydrogen (H₂-TPR) as reducing agent. About 100 mg of catalyst was introduced in a U-shaped quartz tube reactor (held by quartz wool). To remove adsorbed species on the catalyst surface, the catalyst was heated *in situ* to 393 K (10 K min⁻¹) under Ar (purity > 99.999%) flow (25 mL min⁻¹) for 1 h prior to reduction process. The catalyst was then cooled down to 323 K and the flowing gas was subsequently switched to 5.04 vol% H₂/Ar at 20 mL min⁻¹ and sustained throughout the analysis. After a baseline was established, the temperature program started by a ramp of 10 K min⁻¹ up to 1173 K and held at 1173 K for 30 min. The effluent gas was cooled down by a viscous solution of isopropanol mixed with liquid N₂ located between a reactor and detector to trap the water formed during the reduction process. The gas was then analyzed using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

2.7.2 Pre-reduced Catalyst

About 100 mg of catalyst was charged to the U-shaped quartz tube reactor and pre-reduced *in situ* at 673 K at the ramp rate of 5 K min⁻¹ under a 50 mL min⁻¹ H₂ flow (purity > 99.999%) for 2 h prior to the TPR experiment. After pre-reduction process, in order to remove H₂ gas that might be remained in the reactor, the catalyst was cooled down to 423 K under flowing 20 mL min⁻¹ Ar (purity > 99.999%) for 30 min. The gas was then switched to 5.04 vol% H₂/Ar at 20 mL min⁻¹ and followed the same procedures used for calcined catalyst in section 2.7.1.

2.8 Temperature-Programmed Desorption

Temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) experiments were conducted using the same instrument as TPR experiments.

2.8.1 H₂-TPD

In a typical experiment, about 150 mg of catalyst was placed in a U-shaped quartz tube reactor and pre-reduced *in situ* before the H₂-TPD experiment, at 673 K (5 K min⁻¹) for fresh catalyst or 573 K (5 K min⁻¹) for spent catalyst under a 50 mL min⁻¹ H₂ flow (purity > 99.999%) for 2 h. The catalyst was then cooled down to 200 K under flowing H₂ using an isopropanol-liquid N₂ mixture in order to prevent desorption of weakly adsorbed hydrogen from the catalyst surface. To remove H₂ gas that might be remained in the reactor, the catalyst was purged by 30 mL min⁻¹ 0.95 vol% Ar/He (purity > 99.999%) flow until H₂ pressure (observed from Mass Spectrometer) became constant. The TPD experiment was started by heating at a ramp of 10 K min⁻¹ to 1173 K under 30 mL min⁻¹ 0.95 vol% Ar/He (purity > 99.999%) flow, Ar was used as an internal standard. The temperature program was started at around 280 K. The effluent gas was analyzed using a Dycor Dymaxion Mass Spectrometer DM200M (AMETEK).

2.8.2 CO₂-TPD

About 150 mg of catalyst was placed in a U-shaped quartz tube reactor and pre-reduced *in situ* before the CO₂-TPD experiment at 673 K (5 K min⁻¹) for fresh catalyst or 573 K (5 K min⁻¹) for spent catalyst, under a 50 mL min⁻¹ H₂ flow (purity > 99.999%) for 2 h. The catalyst was then purged with 0.95 vol% Ar/He (purity > 99.999%) at a flow rate of 30 mL min⁻¹, at 573 K for 30 min to remove H₂ gas that might be remained in the reactor. The catalyst was subsequently dosed with 15 vol% CO₂/He (at 573 K) at a flow rate of 30 mL min⁻¹ for 1 h, followed by cooling down to room temperature. The catalyst was then purged with 30 mL min⁻¹ 0.95 vol% Ar/He (purity > 99.999%) to remove any trace of CO₂ until CO₂ pressure (observed from Mass Spectrometer) became constant. The TPD experiment was performed by following the same procedures used for H₂-TPD in section 2.8.1.

2.9 In situ Diffuse Reflectance Infrared Fourier Transform Spectroscopy (DRIFTS)

The surface species formed during CO₂ hydrogenation on the spent catalysts were characterized by Fourier transform infrared (FTIR), using a Thermo Nicolet NEXUS 470 FTIR spectrometer equipped with a diffuse reflectance cell (Spectra Tech), an mercury cadmium telluride (MCT-A) detector cooled by liquid N₂ and a KBr beamsplitters. The infrared cell with a ZnSe window was employed at high temperatures. The cell was directly connected to a gas flow system, equipped with rotameter and a set of valves to choose gas type and control gas flow rate. The temperature of the catalyst was monitored by a K-type thermocouple placed 2 mm underneath the crucible surface.

Before the experiment, about 50 mg of the spent catalyst was gently mixed and grinded with 50 mg of NaCl powder until homogeneous since the color of all the spent catalysts was black. The mixed powder of spent catalyst and NaCl was then charged into the sample holder and was purged in N₂ (purity > 99.999%) at 298 K for

1 h to remove any moisture and gases, before recording the DRIFT spectrum. Successively, the catalyst was pre-reduced *in situ* at 573 K (10 K min^{-1}) under H_2 flow (purity > 99.999%) for 2 h, and then cooled down to 310 K under a H_2 flow. The DRIFT spectrum was then recorded after flushing the catalyst with N_2 for 30 min. These spectra were transformed to Kubelka-Munk functions using a NaCl background spectrum measured under a N_2 flow at ambient temperature.

The adsorption states of CO_2 on the reduced catalysts were also studied by DRIFTS coupled with CO_2 adsorption. The calcined catalyst was charged into the sample holder and then pre-reduced *in situ* at 573 K (heating at 10 K min^{-1}) under a H_2 flow for 1 h, followed by flushing with N_2 at this temperature for 30 min. Background was collected at this temperature after the system was equilibrated for 30 min. The *in situ* DRIFT spectra of the adsorbed CO_2 were recorded at 573 K under a 10 vol% CO_2/Ar flow through the cell after reaction times of 10 and 20 min, and then a final spectrum was collected after flushing with N_2 . The total flow of all gases through the Infrared cell was kept constant at 50 mL min^{-1} .

2.10 X-ray Diffraction

XRD patterns of calcined and spent catalysts were obtained using a PANalytical Empyrean X-Ray Diffractometer with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ ($\lambda = 0.154059 \text{ nm}$) radiation, fixed slit incidence (0.25° divergence, 0.5° anti-scatter, specimen length 10 mm) and diffracted (0.25° anti-scatter, 0.02 mm nickel filter) optics. Samples were prepared by the back-loading method in which a powder sample was pressed into the cavity of a quartz low-background support. Data was obtained at 45 kV and 40 mA from 30 - 90 (2θ) using a PIXcel detector in scanning mode with a PSD length of 3.35° (2θ), and 255 active channels for a duration time of 20-40 min. Resulting patterns were adjusted for 2θ position using NIST 640c silicon and analyzed with Jade+9 software by MDI of Livermore, CA.

CHAPTER III

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF Fe-BASED BIMETALLIC CATALYSTS FOR CO₂ HYDROGENATION TO HIGHER HYDROCARBONS

3.1 Introduction

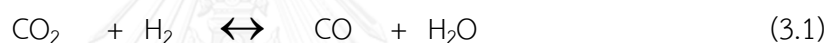
Until now, traditional Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS) catalysts such as Fe, Co, Ni and Ru catalysts have been applied for CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons. However, CH₄ was the main product from CO₂ hydrogenation over supported Ni and Ru catalysts [109-111,129,130]. Riedel et al. [113] and Gnanamani et al. [114] made a comparative study of the hydrogenation of CO, CO₂ and their mixtures on Co and Fe catalysts, and reported that the product composition from hydrogenation using Co-based catalyst shifted from an FTS type to CH₄ with increasing partial pressure of CO₂, while it was almost not changed in the case of Fe catalyst. Therefore, attentions have been paid on improving the catalytic performance of Fe catalyst by adding promoters such as K and Mn or using various types of support materials [19,20,22]. Recently, Fe/Al₂O₃ catalysts with these promoters have been viewed as one of the promising catalysts for higher hydrocarbons synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation [19,20,116]. However, these catalysts still have low activities for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons.

In this chapter, a comparative study on the CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbon over several Fe-based bimetallic catalysts was conducted. Al₂O₃ supported Fe-M (M = second metal) bimetallic catalysts were prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation. Co, Ni, Cu and Pd as second metal with different abilities for activating H₂ were selected. The activities and selectivities of these monometallic catalysts were investigated. The effect of K addition to the bimetallic catalysts was also studied.

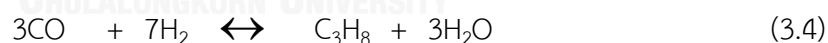
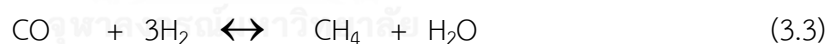
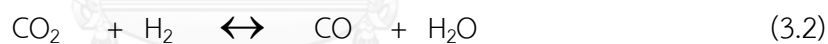
3.2 Equilibrium Conversion of CO₂ Hydrogenation

Before starting CO₂ hydrogenation experiments, the equilibrium CO₂ conversion and composition at various reaction temperature were calculated using Aspen HYSYS 3.2 (molar ratio of H₂/CO₂=3 and 1.0 MPa total pressure) as shown in Figure 3.1. Equations (3.1) - (3.6) were used for calculating the equilibrium CO₂ conversion as curves (a), (b) and (c). CH₄ as the most stable product and C₃H₈ as relatively stable species of the organic components were selected for being the representatives of the hydrocarbon products.

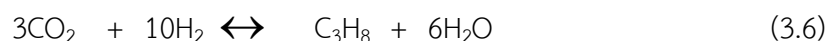
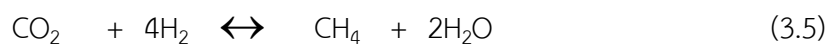
Curve (a): CO₂ hydrogenation to CO (RWGS)



Curve (b): CO₂ hydrogenation to CO and hydrocarbons



Curve (c): CO₂ hydrogenation to hydrocarbons



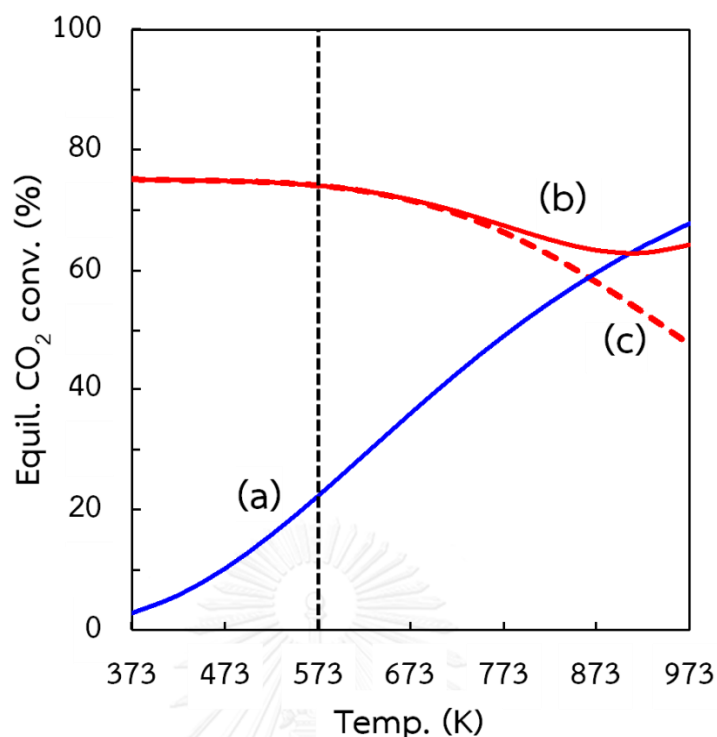


Figure 3.1 Equilibrium CO₂ conversions for a molar ratio of H₂/CO₂=3 as a function of reaction temperature (1.0 MPa total pressure).

3.3 Monometallic Catalysts

To investigate the unique catalytic properties of each monometallic catalyst (Fe, Co, Ni, Cu and Pd), the Al₂O₃ supported monometallic catalysts were prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa. The fairly constant CO₂ conversions were obtained after 4-5 h on stream for all catalysts. Time-on-stream (TOS) stabilities of CO₂ conversions on Ni and Cu catalysts are shown in Figure 3.2 as examples. The conversions and product yields at about 15-16 h on stream were chosen for evaluating the catalytic activity and selectivity.

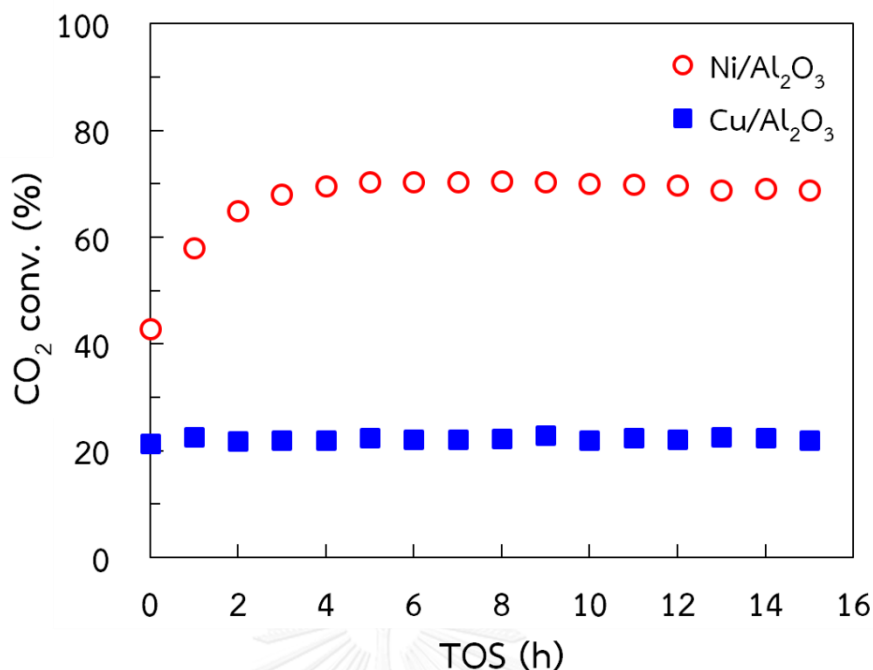


Figure 3.2 Time-on-stream stabilities of CO₂ conversions over Ni/Al₂O₃ and Cu/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivities of monometallic catalysts are presented in Table 3.1. The results show that among the monometallic catalysts studied here, only Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst could yield C₂⁺ hydrocarbons (38% selectivity) from CO₂ hydrogenation, but with lower CO₂ conversion (12.1%) compared to other catalysts. Riedel et al. [113] suggested that C₂⁺ hydrocarbons could be formed on Fe catalyst via the irreversible carbide (active phase) formation on the catalyst surface. This carbide species was a prerequisite for carbon-carbon bond formation. On the contrary, Co/Al₂O₃ and Ni/Al₂O₃ catalysts provided higher CO₂ conversion at 49% and 70%, respectively, but yielded almost only CH₄ as the hydrocarbon products. This suggests that Co and Ni catalysts have strong ability to dissociate H₂, resulting in a high coverage of hydrogen on the catalyst surface, which promoted CH₄ formation. It is also worth noting that CO₂ conversion on Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst approached the equilibrium value for CO₂ methanation at this reaction condition (ca. 74%), which makes this catalyst suitable for synthesizing the SNG from CO₂ hydrogenation.

Table 3.1 CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivities of the monometallic catalysts.

Catalyst	CO ₂ conv. (%)	HC selectivity (%, carbon based)		STY ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$)		
		CH ₄	C ₂ -C ₅₍₇₎	CH ₄	C ₂ -C ₅₍₇₎	CO
Fe/Al ₂ O ₃	12.1	62	38	0.54	0.13	0.65
Co/Al ₂ O ₃	48.8	99	1	3.61	0.01	0.07
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	70.1	100	0	6.57	0	0.01
Cu/Al ₂ O ₃	22.6	0	0	0	0	2.33
Pd/Al ₂ O ₃ *	12.5	100	0	0.22	0	1.18

Total metal loading = 15 wt% (support weight basis) (* Pd = 5 wt%)

Pretreatment: H₂ red. at 673 K, 2 h

Operating cond: 573 K, 1.1 MPa, 3600 mL (STP) g⁻¹ h⁻¹

In the case of Cu/Al₂O₃ catalyst, CO was the main product from CO₂ hydrogenation, and the conversion (22.6%) was nearly the same as the equilibrium one for the RWGS reaction at this reaction condition, indicating the high activity for RWGS reaction of Cu catalyst. Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst also yielded CO selectively with small amount of CH₄ formation. The selective CO formation over Cu/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ catalysts is possibly due to that CO adsorbs molecularly on the Cu and Pd surfaces [131,132]. However, the lower abilities of Cu and Pd for CO and CO₂ dissociation compared to Co and Ni catalysts would result in the less CH₄ formation, even though Pd has higher ability for H₂ dissociation. These results suggested that the nature of active phase on monometallic catalysts possibly depended on the nature of the individual transition metals.

3.4 Bimetallic Catalysts

3.4.1 Unpromoted Bimetallic Catalyst

As mentioned in section 3.3, Fe catalyst exhibited highest C_2^+ hydrocarbons formation from CO_2 hydrogenation but the conversion was very low (12.1%). To improve the CO_2 hydrogenation activity of Fe catalyst, the Al_2O_3 supported Fe-based bimetallic catalysts (Fe-M; M = Co, Ni, Cu or Pd) with 15 wt% total metal loading (Fe + M) (support weight basis) were prepared and tested under the same reaction condition. The M/(M + Fe) was kept constant at 0.10 atomic ratio for all bimetallic catalysts.

The CO_2 hydrogenation activities and selectivities of Fe/ Al_2O_3 and Fe-M(0.1)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts are shown in Figure 3.3 and also summarized in Table 3.2. The results show that combining Fe and the second metal (Co, Ni, Cu or Pd) could enhance the CO_2 conversion of Fe catalyst significantly (from 12.1 to 20.4 - 37.6%). C_2^+ hydrocarbon yields also notably increased by combining Fe with Co, Cu or Pd at this ratio.

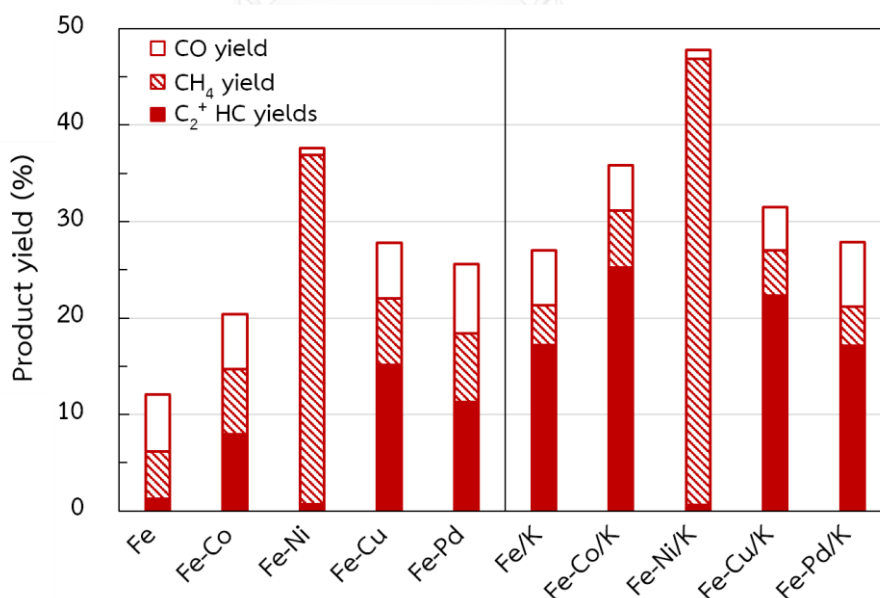


Figure 3.3 Product yields from CO_2 hydrogenation over unpromoted and K-promoted Fe/ Al_2O_3 and Fe-M(0.1)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts.

Table 3.2 CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivities of Al₂O₃ supported bimetallic catalysts.

Catalyst	CO ₂ conv. (%)	HC selectivity (%, carbon based)		STY ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)			Alpha ^{a)}
		CH ₄	C ₂ -C ₇	CH ₄	C ₂ -C ₇	CO	
Fe	12.1	62	38	0.54	0.13	0.65	0.27
Fe-Co(0.1)	20.4	52	48	0.67	0.22	0.65	0.37
Fe-Ni(0.1)	37.6	98	2	3.53	0.03	0.07	0.07
Fe-Cu(0.1)	27.8	41	59	0.78	0.37	0.66	0.43
Fe-Pd(0.1)	25.6	48	52	0.77	0.29	0.78	0.44
Fe/K	27.0	29	71	0.46	0.34	0.63	0.55
Fe-Co(0.1)/K	35.8	34	66	0.68	0.44	0.53	0.48
Fe-Ni(0.1)/K	47.8	87	13	3.94	0.26	0.10	0.18
Fe-Cu(0.1)/K	31.5	29	71	0.55	0.42	0.52	0.54
Fe-Pd(0.1)/K	27.9	30	70	0.46	0.34	0.79	0.53

Total metal loading = 15 wt% (support weight basis), K/Fe = 0.3

Pretreatment: H₂ red. at 673 K, 2 h

Operating cond: 573 K, 1.1 MPa, 3600 mL (STP) g⁻¹ h⁻¹

^{a)} Alpha (chain growth probability) were calculated from mass fractions of C₁-C₇ HCs hydrocarbons

According to section 3.3, the monometallic Co, Cu and Pd did not yield any C₂⁺ hydrocarbons at this reaction condition, so these results indicated the synergistic promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation by combining Fe and the second metal. The effectiveness of the second metals at X = 0.1 atom atom⁻¹ (without K-promoter) in terms of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation is Cu > Pd > Co >> Ni (Figure 3.3). The promoting effects of Cu and Pd could be explained by their selectivity for RWGS reaction, which provided CO for further hydrogenation to C₂⁺ hydrocarbons by FTS over the Fe surface. The promotion effect of Co is more interesting, since Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst alone only catalyzed CO₂ methanation as shown in Table 3.1. This

promoting effect is possibly due to an enhancement of hydrogen coverage on the catalysts surfaces. Though the combination of Fe and Ni at the X of 0.1 atom atom⁻¹ provided the strongest enhancement of CO₂ conversion, in contrast to other bimetallic catalysts, Fe-Ni catalyst selectively produced CH₄ from CO₂ hydrogenation.

3.4.2 K-Promoted Bimetallic Catalyst

The addition of K (K/Fe=0.3 atom atom⁻¹) to the Fe-Co, Fe-Ni, Fe-Cu and Fe-Pd catalysts with $M/(M + Fe) = 0.1$ atom atom⁻¹ enhanced both the CO₂ conversion and C₂⁺ hydrocarbon yields irrespective of the combination of metals (Table 3.2 and Figure 3.3). The chain growth probability of hydrocarbons was also improved since K addition significantly suppressed the CH₄ selectivity (Table 3.2). The K promoter effectively increased the CO₂ conversions and C₂⁺ hydrocarbon formation on the Fe-Co (35.8%) and Fe-Ni (47.8%) bimetallic catalysts, while it had weaker effects on the activities and selectivities of the Fe-Cu and Fe-Pd catalysts. In the presence of K-promoter, the C₂⁺ hydrocarbon yield is followed this order: Fe-Co > Fe-Cu > Fe-Pd >> Fe-Ni. These results indicated that K could enhanced the CO₂ hydrogenation activity to higher hydrocarbons for all catalysts, but the extent of K promotion still depended on the combination of metals.

Choi et. al. and Cubeiro et. al. [19,120] studied the effect of K addition to Fe-based catalysts by chemisorption experiments and reported that the addition of K decreased H₂ chemisorption capacity of Fe based catalyst, while it enhanced CO₂ adsorption. This indicated that K addition performed different manner compared to that by the combination of Fe and other transition metals, which enhanced hydrogen coverage. Thus, relatively lower activities of K-promoted Fe-Cu and Fe-Pd bimetallic catalysts might be due to that the bimetallic promotion effects are partly suppressed by K addition since Cu and Pd have lower hydrogenating abilities compared to Co and Ni.

Among the K-promoted catalysts, Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Cu/Al₂O₃ catalysts were the most effective ones in terms of higher hydrocarbon formation from CO₂ hydrogenation. These bimetallic catalysts could yield C₂⁺ hydrocarbons more effectively than K-promoted Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst which is known as one of most promising catalysts so far.

3.5 Fe-Ni Bimetallic Catalysts

As mentioned in section 3.3, Fe-Ni(0.1)/Al₂O₃ catalyst yielded higher CH₄ selectivity (98%) compared to other bimetallic catalysts (41-62%). This might be due to that the surface of Fe-Ni catalyst has much stronger ability for activating hydrogen compared to others, so it is difficult for carbon-carbon bond to be formed. Furthermore, the surface carbon species from dissociative chemisorption of CO₂ was favorably hydrogenated to CH₄. Therefore, it might be possible to synthesize higher hydrocarbons from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Ni catalyst if the hydrogenating ability of this catalyst could be suppressed. To confirm this idea, the Fe-Ni bimetallic catalyst with low Ni loading (Ni/(Ni + Fe)=0.03 atom atom⁻¹) was prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation.

Figures 3.4a and 3.4b illustrate CO₂ conversion and STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons over the Fe-Ni bimetallic catalyst as a function of the Ni/(Ni + Fe) atomic ratio, respectively. As shown in these figures, CO₂ conversion increased with increasing Ni/(Ni + Fe) atomic ratio, and the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons of the Fe-Ni(0.03)/Al₂O₃ catalyst (0.30 μmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹) was higher than that of the monometallic Fe catalyst (0.13 μmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹). The addition of K (K/Fe=0.3 atom atom⁻¹) to this catalyst further increased the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons to 0.41 μmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹, which was comparable to that of the Fe-Co(0.1)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst (0.44 μmol g⁻¹ s⁻¹) (section 3.4.2). These results support the idea that controlling adsorption properties of hydrogen on the catalyst surface is important for enhancing higher hydrocarbons formation and suppressing CH₄ formation in CO₂ hydrogenation reaction.

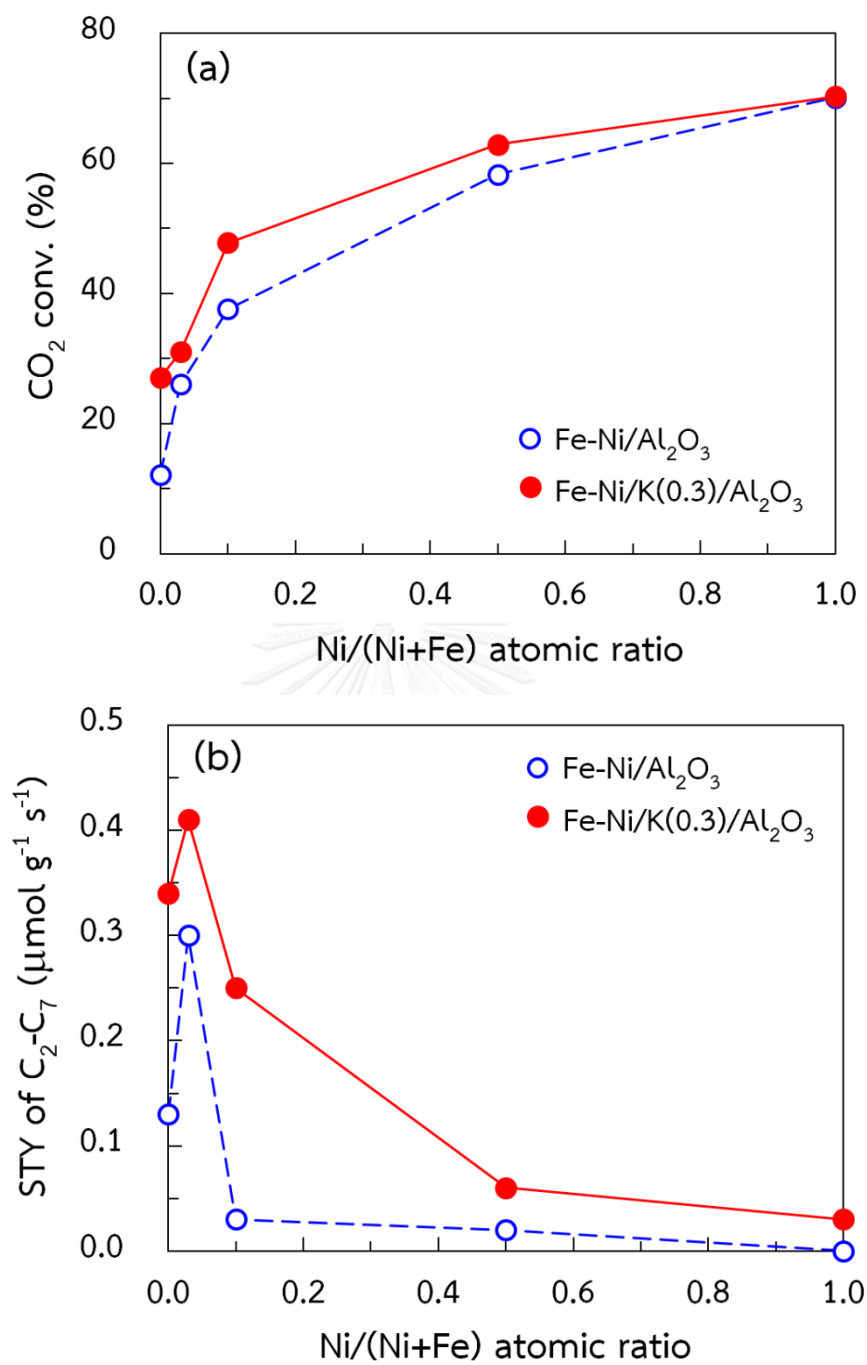


Figure 3.4 (a) CO₂ conversion and (b) STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons as a function of Ni/(Ni+Fe) atomic ratio over Fe-Ni/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Ni/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

3.6 Physical Properties of Fe-M Bimetallic Catalysts

To investigate a correlation of the catalytic activity to the physical properties of the catalysts, the N₂ adsorption-desorption analyses of the monometallic and bimetallic catalysts were performed. The physical properties of all catalysts are summarized in Table 3.3. According to the results in Tables 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3, there is no relation between physical properties of the catalysts and CO₂ conversions. Without the K promoter, BET surface area of monometallic Fe (137 m² g⁻¹) and Fe based bimetallic catalysts (129-145 m² g⁻¹) were larger than those of other catalysts (115-121 m² g⁻¹). The addition of K to the bimetallic catalysts slightly decreased BET surface area (124-130 m² g⁻¹) of the catalysts but strongly increased CO₂ conversion (Table 3.2). These results suggest that the selection of combining the transition metals significantly affects the nature of the active phase or active site(s) of the catalysts.

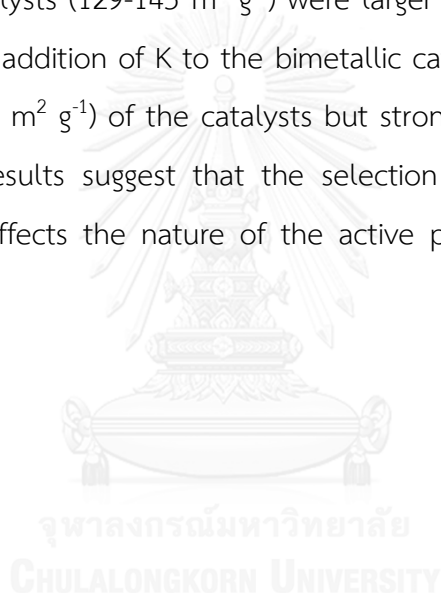


Table 3.3 The physical properties of Al₂O₃ supported monometallic and bimetallic catalysts prepared in this work.

Catalyst	SA ^{a)} (m ² g ⁻¹)	PV ^{b)} (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	D _p ^{c)} (nm)
Al ₂ O ₃	139	1.03	24
Fe	137	0.71	18
Co	121	0.86	23
Ni	117	0.84	23
Cu	115	0.87	24
Pd	138	1.03	24
Fe-Co(0.10)	145	0.75	18
Fe-Ni(0.03)	141	0.70	18
Fe-Ni(0.10)	143	0.73	18
Fe-Ni(0.50)	129	0.77	20
Fe-Cu(0.10)	143	0.74	19
Fe-Pd(0.10)	141	0.77	19
Fe-Co(0.10)/K	130	0.63	17
Fe-Ni(0.03)/K	125	0.64	18
Fe-Ni(0.10)/K	128	0.60	16
Fe-Ni(0.50)/K	127	0.73	20
Fe-Cu(0.10)/K	127	0.66	18
Fe-Pd(0.10)/K	124	0.67	19

^{a)} BET surface area

^{b)} BJH desorption cumulative pore volume

^{c)} BJH desorption average pore diameter

CHAPTER IV

CO₂ HYDROGENATION TO HIGHER HYDROCARBONS OVER Fe-Co BIMETALLIC CATALYSTS

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in section 3.1, the comparative studies of the hydrogenation of CO, CO₂ and their mixtures on Co and Fe catalysts demonstrated that the product composition with Co-based catalyst shifted from an FTS type to CH₄ with increasing CO₂ partial pressure, while it was barely changed in the case of using Fe catalyst [113,114]. These dramatically different catalytic properties of Co and Fe catalysts imply the importance of controlling CO₂ and H₂ coverage over active metal surface for carbon – carbon bond formation.

The idea behind this work is that surface chemisorption properties of H₂ and CO₂ could be tailored over bimetallic surface involving Fe and Co by changing their composition for enhancing higher hydrocarbons [133]. Several research groups have studied bimetallic effect on CO hydrogenation in Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS) and suggested that bimetallic alloy formation was associated with their improved activities and selectivities [134-141]. Systematic study on the effect of the catalyst composition (Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio) on the CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity has not been reported and the effect of K addition on the activity and selectivity of the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst is still unknown.

In this work, a series of Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts with a wide range of Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios were prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation. The effect of K content on the CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons over Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts was also studied. K-promoted Fe-Mn catalyst as a reference catalyst was also prepared and tested, since this catalysts has been known

as one of the promising catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons [19,20].

4.2 Time-On-Stream Stabilities of Fe-Co Catalysts

The time-on-stream (TOS) stabilities of CO₂ conversions and product yields on Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalysts are shown in Figures 4.1a and b respectively, as examples. The stable CO₂ conversion and selectivities were obtained after 3-4 h on stream for the Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with low Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (≤ 0.25), and no deactivations of the catalysts were observed for more than 50 h. However, the time-dependent behaviors of the catalysts with higher Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (≥ 0.5) were slightly different (see Appendix E). CO₂ conversion over these catalysts slightly decreased with time on stream, but the decreasing rates were less than 0.4% per hour at 15-16 h on stream. In addition, these catalysts produced almost only CH₄ and their product selectivities did not change with TOS.

4.3 Effect of Co/(Co + Fe) Atomic Ratios

4.3.1 CO₂ Conversions

From Chapter III, Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts showed high activity for CO₂ hydrogenation to C₂⁺ hydrocarbons compared to other bimetallic catalysts. In this chapter, the Al₂O₃ supported Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with various Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios were prepared and tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa to investigate their activities and selectivities in more details.

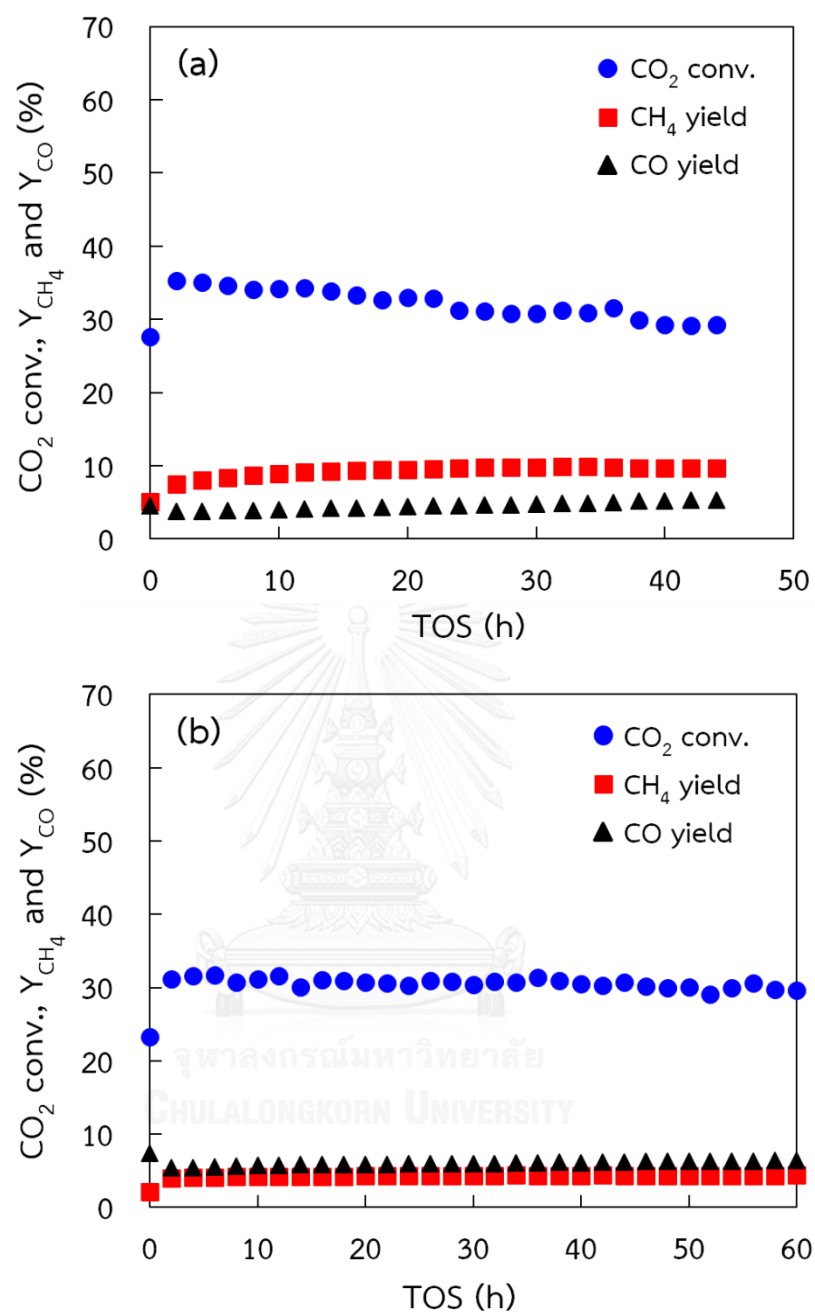


Figure 4.1 Time-on-stream stabilities of CO₂ conversions and product yields over (a) Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and (b) Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

The change in CO₂ conversion over Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ bimetallic catalysts as a function of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio is shown in Figure 4.2. CO₂ conversion over Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst (15 wt% Fe loading) was 12% at this reaction condition. Riedel et al. [113] reported the relatively similar activity of Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst with 20 wt% Fe loading, where CO₂ conversion was about 23% at the same reaction temperature and pressure but nearly half of GHSV (~1900 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹). The combination of Fe and a small amount of Co (Co/(Co + Fe) = 0.17 atom atom⁻¹) increased the conversion almost twice compared to that of monometallic Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst. The conversion increased almost linearly with further increase in the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio, and reached almost 50% at Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio of unity, namely Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

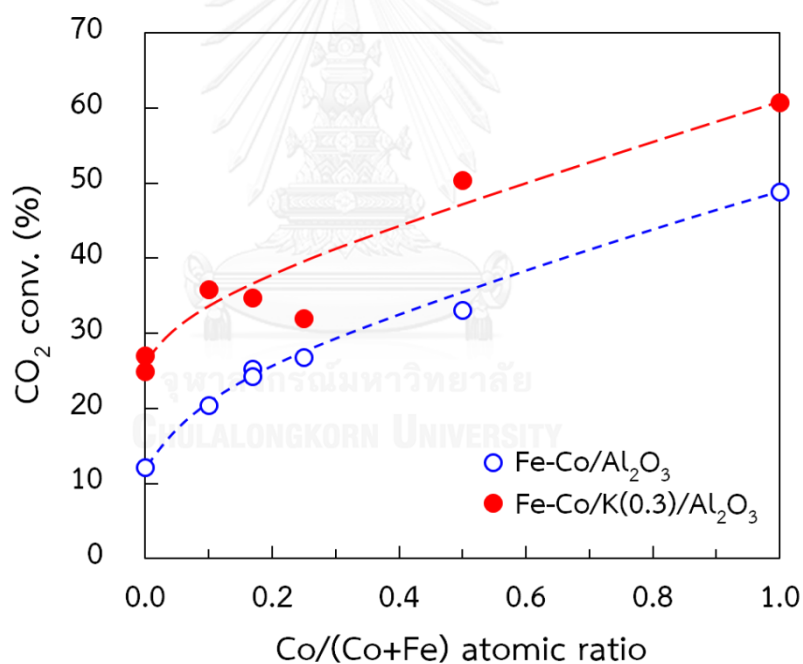


Figure 4.2 CO₂ conversion over Fe-Co(X)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts as a function of Co/(Co+Fe) atomic ratio.

4.3.2 Hydrocarbon Product Yields

The influence of Co content on space-time yields (STYs) of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons and CH₄ over Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts are illustrated in Figures 4.3a and 4.3b, respectively. As shown in these figures, the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons showed a maximum value at the Co/(Co + Fe) ~ 0.17 atom atom⁻¹, while that of CH₄ increased almost linearly with increasing the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio up to 0.50. The maximum STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons is clearly much higher than the simple summation of those over the monometallic Fe/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts (Figure 4.3a), which indicated that combining Fe and a small amount of Co led to significant bimetallic promotion of CO₂ hydrogenation to C₂⁺ hydrocarbons. Furthermore, the STYs of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons and CH₄ increased at similar rates (2-3 folds) at the Co/(Co + Fe) ≤ 0.17 atom-Co atom⁻¹. These results revealed that the Fe-Co bimetallic formulation with a low Co content enhanced the CO₂ conversion without losing an ability for carbon - carbon bond formation for synthesizing the higher hydrocarbons. However, further increasing Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (≥ 0.5 atom-Co atom⁻¹) resulted in a significant decrease of the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons. Only small amounts of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons were observed in the product stream from hydrogenation using high Co loading catalysts, and CH₄ formation accounted for 90-99% of the total hydrocarbons product. These results are similar to the previous work by Park et al. [142], in which they reported that Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst with 5 wt% Fe and 5 wt% Co loading showed higher CO₂ conversion, but lower selectivity for C₂-C₅ hydrocarbons compared to 10 wt% Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst. Therefore, these results clearly demonstrated an importance of Fe-Co combination with high Fe concentration for C₂⁺ hydrocarbons synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation, which has never been reported previously. The high activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons of the bimetallic catalyst suggested that the combination of Fe and Co made the surface adsorption properties for CO₂ and H₂ suitable for facilitating the carbon chain growth thus leading to an increase in the higher hydrocarbon yield.

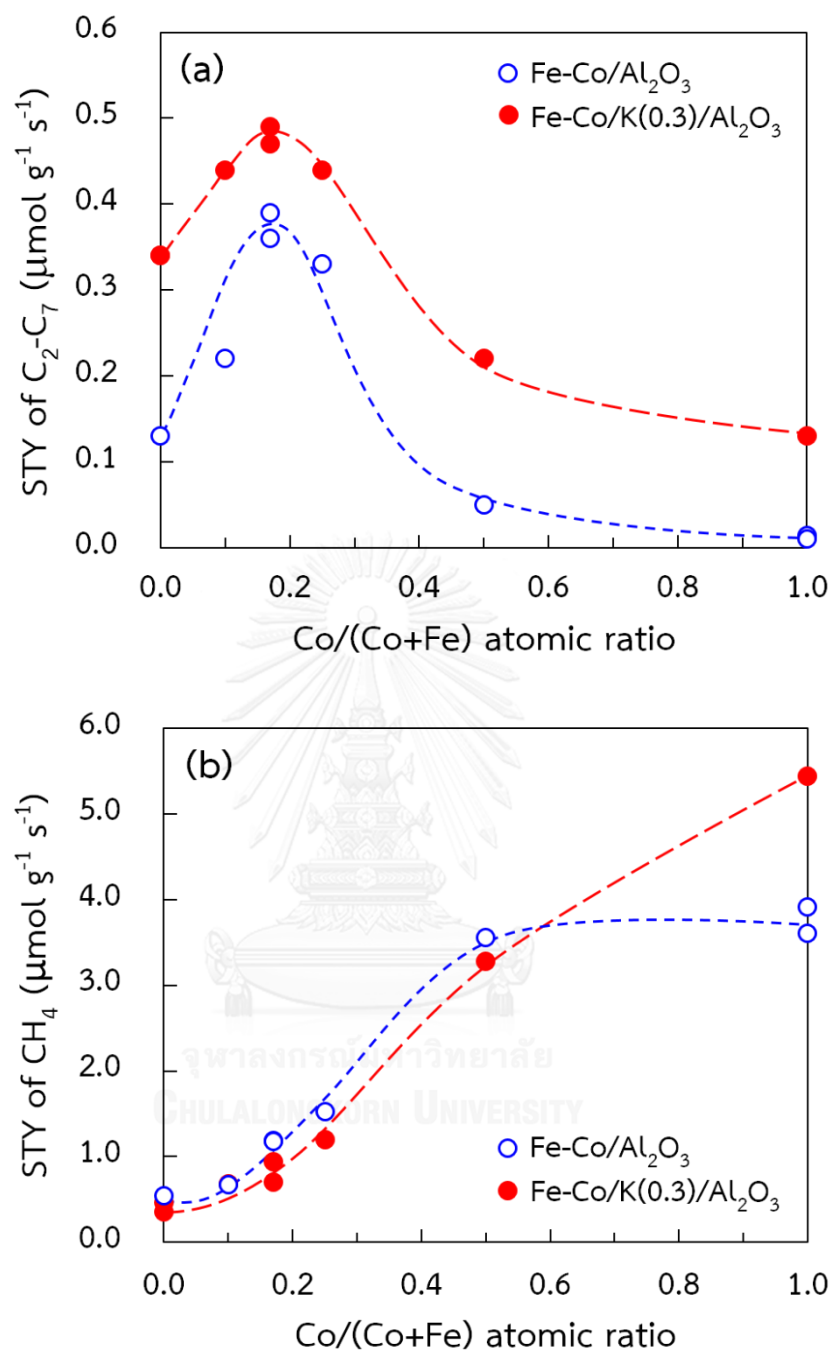


Figure 4.3 Effect of Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio on STY of (a) C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons and (b) CH₄ over Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts.

It should also be noted that Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were used for CO hydrogenation and the optimum Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio was 0.5-0.75 [134,137], which was different from the optimum ratio for CO₂ hydrogenation reported in this work. This was possibly due to the different site requirements for CO and CO₂ hydrogenation. Hence, the optimum catalyst composition for CO₂ hydrogenation cannot be simply predicted from the previous studies on CO hydrogenation.

The conversions and selectivities of all monometallic and bimetallic catalysts are summarized in Table 4.1. Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst exhibited more than 4 times higher C₂⁺ selectivity than the monometallic Fe catalyst with significantly lower CO selectivity, and rarely change in CH₄ selectivity. For the unpromoted Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ bimetallic catalysts, CH₄ selectivity was quite high (30-40%) even at the low Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios compared to that in typical Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS). However, these bimetallic catalysts, in particular monometallic Co catalyst, are still useful for fuel production from CO₂ hydrogenation since CH₄ can be used as synthetic natural gas. No olefins were observed in the gas phase hydrocarbons with these unpromoted monometallic and bimetallic catalysts.

4.4 Effect of K Addition

The effect of K addition on the activities and selectivities of Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were also studied. CO₂ conversions over K-promoted (K/Fe = 0.3 atom atom⁻¹) and unpromoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts are compared as illustrated in Figure 4.2. K-promoted catalyst exhibited higher CO₂ conversion than the unpromoted catalysts regardless of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios. The addition of K also improved the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons over bimetallic catalysts without changing the overall trend (Figure 4.3a), while it suppressed CH₄ formation when the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio was less than 0.5 (Figure 4.3b).

Table 4.1 CO₂ conversion and product selectivities of unpromoted and K-promoted Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ in comparison to monometallic catalysts [115].

Catalyst	CO ₂ conversion (%)	Selectivity (%, carbon based)			O/P ^{a)}	Alpha ^{b)}
		CO	CH ₄	C ₂ ⁺ ^{d)}		
Fe	12.1	49	41	10	0.0	0.27
Fe-Co(0.10)	20.3	28	33	39	0.0	0.37
Fe-Co(0.17)	25.2	13	44	43	0.0	0.36
Fe-Co(0.17) ^{c)}	25.7	12	44	44	0.0	0.40
Fe-Co(0.25)	26.8	10	54	36	0.0	0.31
Fe-Co(0.50)	33.1	1	87	12	0.0	0.04
Co	48.8	2	97	1	0.0	0.00
Fe/K(0.3)	27.0	21	15	64	1.1	0.55
Fe-Co(0.10)/K(0.3)	35.8	13	16	71	0.6	0.57
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)	33.7	14	18	68	0.7	0.52
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.5)	33.6	13	19	68	1.5	0.50
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)	31.0	18	13	69	5.2	0.53
Fe-Co(0.25)/K(0.3)	32.0	38	15	47	0.2	0.40
Fe-Co(0.50)/K(0.3)	50.3	1	63	36	0.0	0.20
Co/K(0.3)	60.6	1	96	3	0.0	0.10
Fe-Mn-K ^{c)}	19.4	50	7	43	5.1	0.51

^{a)} Olefin to paraffin ratio of C₂ – C₄ hydrocarbons

^{b)} Alpha (chain growth probability) were calculated from mass fractions of C₁-C₇ hydrocarbons

^{c)} Prepared by a wet co-impregnation method (Fe = 17 wt%, K = 8wt% and Mn = 12 wt%, support weight basis)

^{d)} Including small amounts of alcohols

The product selectivities of K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with different Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios are also summarized in Table 4.1. The C₂⁺ hydrocarbon selectivity and chain growth probability of gas-phase hydrocarbons were notably enhanced by the addition of K, while CH₄ selectivity drastically decreased. CH₄ selectivity of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst was relatively similar to that of Fe/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst, but the former catalysts exhibited higher C₂⁺ hydrocarbons selectivity compared to the latter one. Furthermore, the Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst showed higher CO₂ conversions and C₂⁺ selectivity than the K-promoted Fe-Mn catalyst with higher Fe loading as shown in Table 4.1. The influence of the catalyst preparation methods, namely pore-filling incipient wetness impregnation and wet co-impregnation methods was also investigated. The result showed that the CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivities of Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst were hardly dependent on the preparation methods (Table 4.1). Hence, these results revealed the effectiveness of Fe-Co-K combination than Fe-Mn-K for CO₂ hydrogenation to C₂⁺ hydrocarbons.

4.5 Effect of K/Fe Atomic Ratios

To study the effect of K content on the activities and selectivities of Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts in more details, the K concentration was adjusted to obtain wide range of K/Fe atomic ratios (0.0 - 1.0). The catalysts were tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa and the results are shown in Figure 4.4. The addition of K (K/Fe = 0.3 atom atom⁻¹) to Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ increased the C₂-C₇ STY significantly, but further increasing K loading did not cause clear changes in the C₂-C₇ STY, while CH₄ STY decreased linearly with an increase in the K loading. These results revealed that the addition of K to Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts enhanced the chain propagation of hydrocarbons.

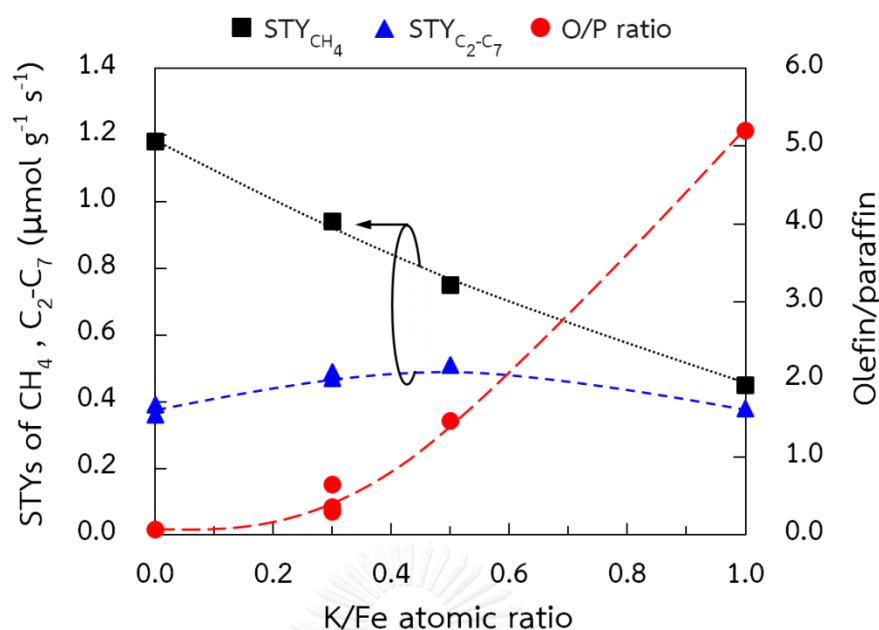


Figure 4.4 Effect of K/Fe atomic ratio on STYs of CH₄ and C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons and the olefin to paraffin ratio of C₂-C₄ hydrocarbons over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

The addition of K also increased olefin to paraffin ratio (O/P) of C₂-C₄ hydrocarbons for all catalysts as summarized in Table 4.1. Olefin contents increased with increasing K loading, and olefins predominated in C₂⁺ hydrocarbons when the catalysts were heavily alkylized (K/Fe ≥ 0.5 atom atom⁻¹). O/P ratio reached approximately 5 at the K/Fe atomic ratio of unity (see also Figure 4.6).

The liquid products were also analyzed after CO₂ hydrogenation using the Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS). Figures 4.5a and 4.5b illustrate GC/MS total ion chromatograms of liquid products from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalyst, respectively. Since hexadecane (C₁₆H₃₄) was used for extracting the hydrocarbon products from the liquid products from CO₂ hydrogenation, the mass spectrometer filament was turned off at its retention time in order to protect the instrument.

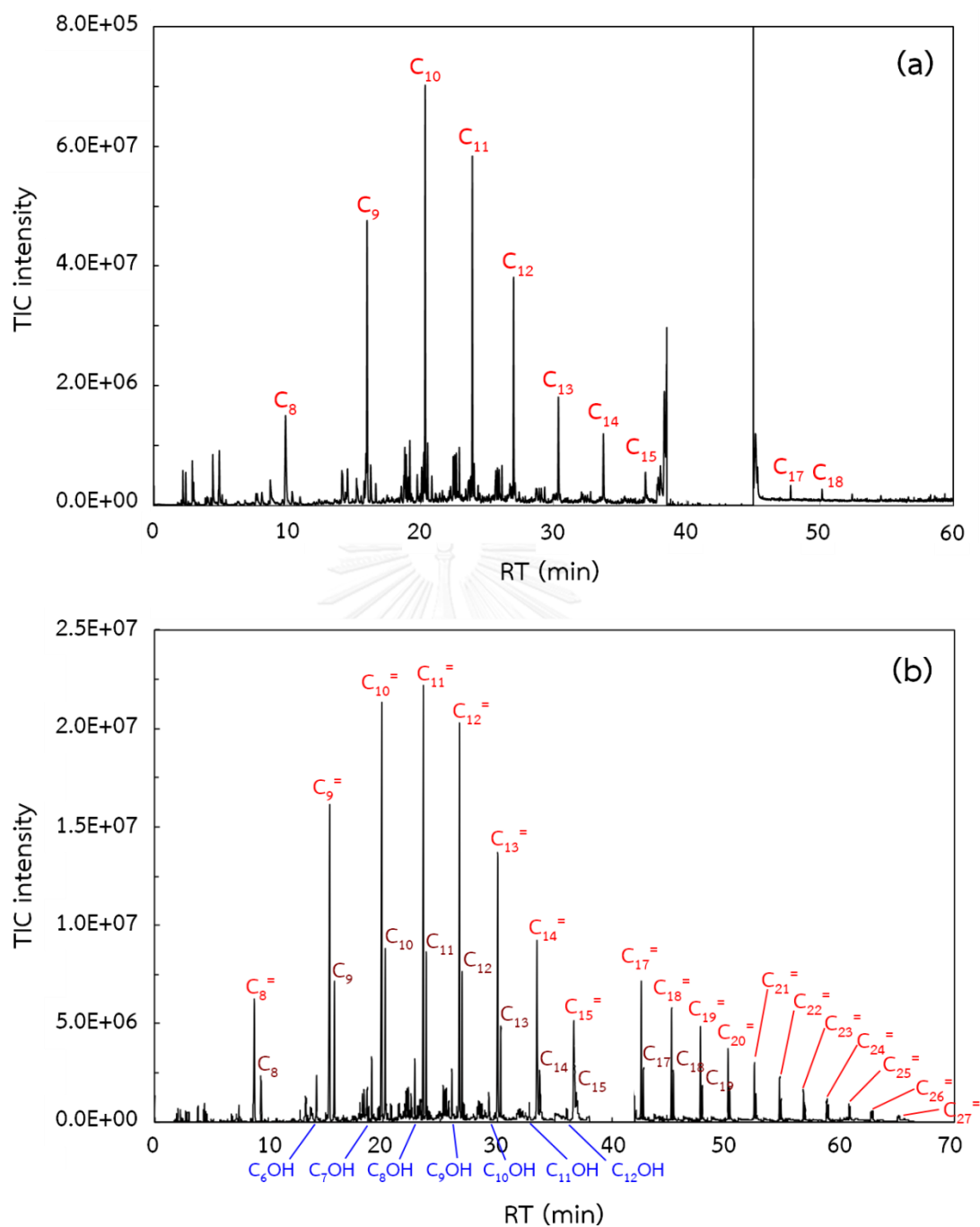


Figure 4.5 GC/MS total ion chromatogram of liquid products from CO₂ hydrogenation over (a) Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and (b) Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

The hydrocarbon compounds from octane to octadecane were observed in the liquid product of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst without olefin products (Figure 4.5a). This carbon number range was approximately corresponding to gasoline and jet fuel. In the case of highly alkaliized Fe-Co catalyst (K/Fe = 1.0 atom atom⁻¹), the linear alpha olefins were main products with carbon numbers up to 27 (Figure 4.5b). The carbon number range of this liquid product was corresponding to gasoline, jet fuel (main) and also diesel fuel. Small amount of alcohols were also observed in the products.

From the Anderson–Schulz–Flory (ASF) distribution, where $\ln(M_N)$ (the mole fraction of hydrocarbons containing N carbon) is plotted with carbon number (N), the chain growth probability (α) could be derived from the slope of the line fitted to the data. The ASF plots of the liquid products were illustrated in Figure 4.6. The chain growth probability of liquid product from hydrogenation using Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalyst was 0.8, which higher than that from Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst (0.67), suggesting that chain growth probability of the liquid hydrocarbon products increased with K content. The chain growth probability of liquid product from hydrogenation using Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ was relative similar to those typically observed in FTS using Fe-based catalysts.

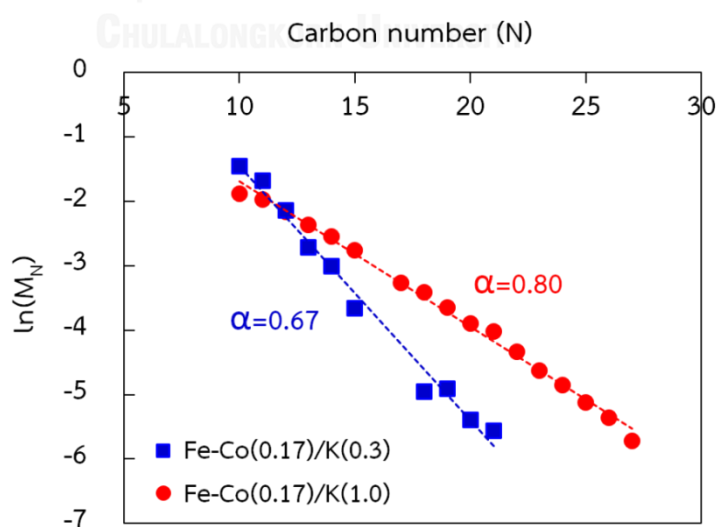


Figure 4.6 ASF plot of the liquid hydrocarbon products for the Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

CHAPTER V

H₂ AND CO₂ ADSORPTION PROPERTIES OF Fe-Co BIMETALLIC CATALYSTS AND THEIR ACTIVITIES FOR CO₂ HYDROGENATION TO HIGHER HYDROCARBONS

5.1 Introduction

Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts have been used for CO hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons for long time, and their physical and chemical properties have been studied in relation to their catalytic ability for CO hydrogenation [134,136,139,141,143-145]. However, these studies have mainly dealt with Co- (or Ni-) rich bimetallic catalysts [134,135,137]. In our work (Chapter IV), a significant promotion of higher hydrocarbon synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation was observed over Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ bimetallic catalysts with a low Co content (Co/(Co + Fe) = 0.17 atom-Co atom⁻¹). The effect of combining Fe and a small amount of Co on the physicochemical properties of the catalysts has never been elucidated. In addition, there are only a limited number of studies that have evaluated the H₂ and CO₂ adsorption properties on these bimetallic catalysts. To develop a fundamental understanding of the Fe-Co bimetallic promotion of CO₂ hydrogenation, a systematic study of H₂ and CO₂ adsorption properties, and their relationship with CO₂ hydrogenation activities, is important.

In this work, Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with different Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (X) were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), temperature-programmed reduction (TPR), temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) and diffuse reflectance Infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) in order to clarify the effect of combining Fe and Co on H₂ and CO₂ adsorption properties of the Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts, and their impact on the CO₂ hydrogenation activities.

5.2 Physical Properties of Calcined Catalysts

The physical properties of the calcined Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts (X represents Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio) are summarized in Table 5.1. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area (SA) of the calcined Fe and Fe-rich Fe-Co (X ≤ 0.25) catalysts (137–145 m² g⁻¹) were somewhat close to that of the γ-Al₂O₃ support (139 m² g⁻¹), while the Co-rich Fe-Co(0.50)/Al₂O₃ SA was about 1.05-fold lower. In the presence of the metal oxides, the pore volume (PV) and average pore diameter (D_p) were dramatically decreased from 1.37- to 1.45-fold and 1.33-fold, respectively. However, the BET SA and PV of the calcined Co catalyst were 10–20% smaller than those of the γ-Al₂O₃ support. The average D_p of the support was reduced 1.33-fold with the addition of Fe, but was barely changed with the incorporation of Co oxide. The physical properties of the calcined Fe and Fe-rich Fe-Co catalysts suggested that small metal oxide particles were well dispersed inside the pores of the γ-Al₂O₃ support, while the Co oxide particles agglomerated to some extent in the calcined Co catalyst. This was supported by the XRD analysis, where agglomerated Co₃O₄ species was detected in the calcined Co catalyst but no polycrystalline phases of Fe and Co species were observed for the calcined Fe and Fe-Co (X ≤ 0.25) catalysts (Figure 5.2, see section 5.4).

Table 5.1 Metal loadings, physical properties and CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivity's of Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

Catalyst	Loading ^{a)} (wt%)		SA (m ² g ⁻¹)	PV (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	D _p (nm)	STY ^{b),c)} (μmol g ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)				Selectivity ^{b)} (%, carbon based)		
	Fe	Co				CH ₄	C ₂₋₇	CO	CH ₄	C ₂ ^{+d)}	CO	
												CH ₄
Al ₂ O ₃	-	-	139	1.03	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fe/Al ₂ O ₃	15.0	0	137	0.71	18	0.68	0.26	0.44	26	59	16	16
Fe-Co(0.10)/Al ₂ O ₃	13.4	1.6	145	0.75	18	0.67	0.22	0.65	33	39	28	28
Fe-Co(0.17)/Al ₂ O ₃	12.4	2.6	138	0.72	18	1.18	0.39	0.48	44	43	13	13
Fe-Co(0.25)/Al ₂ O ₃	11.1	3.9	140	0.74	19	1.53	0.33	0.28	54	36	10	10
Fe-Co(0.50)/Al ₂ O ₃	7.3	7.7	132	0.77	20	3.56	0.05	0.02	87	12	1	1
Co/Al ₂ O ₃	0	15.0	121	0.86	23	3.91	0.01	0.10	97	1	2	2

a) Support weight basis

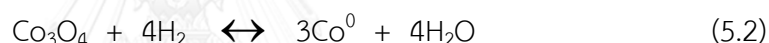
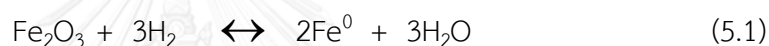
b) From ref. [115]

c) Space-time yield (μmol of product formed per g-cat per second)

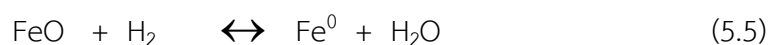
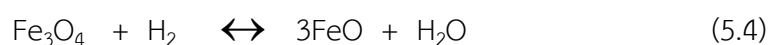
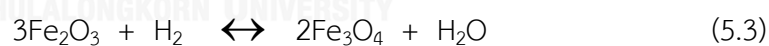
d) Including small amounts of alcohols

5.3 Reducibility of Supported Metal Oxides

The TPR profiles of the calcined Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts with various Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (X), along with the degree of reduction (DR) of the supported metal oxides are shown in Figure 5.1. The DR of the supported metal oxides was defined as the ratio of the measured H₂ consumption from TPR analysis to the theoretical H₂ consumption. The measured H₂ consumption was calculated by integrating the whole TPR profile, while the theoretical H₂ consumption was the amount of H₂ required for the reduction of the supported Fe and Co oxides to their metallic states according to the stoichiometry of the Eq. (5.1) and (5.2). Calibration of the H₂ consumption was done by reduction of Co₃O₄ powder (99.5%).



A major reduction peak was observed at 618 K for the calcined Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst (X = 0) with much two smaller peaks at 780 K and 987 K. These three peaks were attributed to the sequential reduction steps of Fe₂O₃ to Fe⁰ via Fe₃O₄ and FeO (Eq. (5.3) - (5.5)) [143,146].



However, the DR of the supported Fe oxide was only 41%. The less intense peaks at higher temperatures (780 K and 987 K) indicated that the reduction of Fe₃O₄ to Fe⁰ was strongly suppressed in the calcined Fe catalyst. This suggests that the intermediate Fe₃O₄ and/or FeO reacted with the Al₂O₃ surface during the TPR of calcined Fe catalyst, resulting in the formation of large amount of reduction-resistant Fe-Al-O species [143].

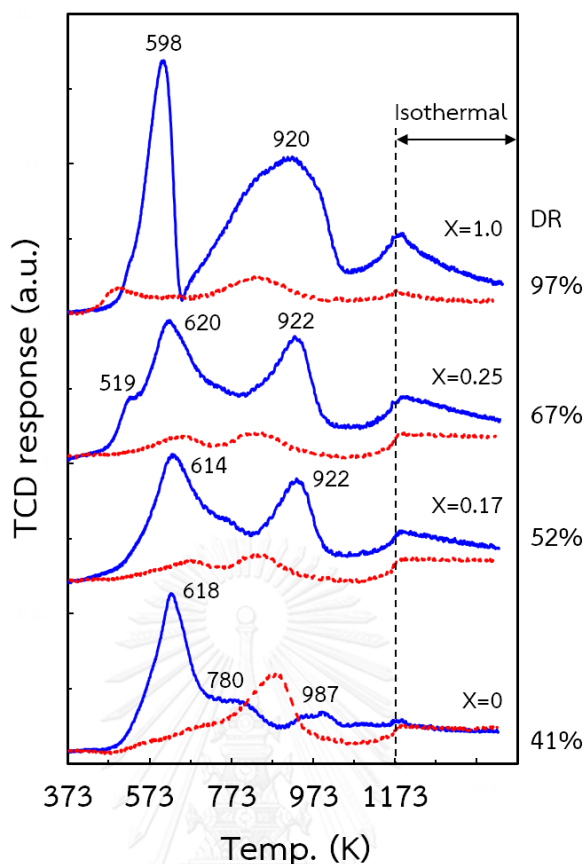


Figure 5.1 Effect of combining Fe and Co on the H₂-TPR profiles of the calcined (—) and reduced (-----) Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts. The degree of reduction (% DR) of the supported metal oxides is also indicated.

The TPR profile of Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst was obviously changed by combining Fe and Co. The second peak at 920 K was clearly observed in the Co-containing catalysts and was accompanied by a significant increase in the DR of the supported metal oxides (Figure 5.1). If the Fe/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts were physically mixed, the calculated DR would be 50% and 55% for X = 0.17 and 0.25, respectively. Since the measured DR of Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.25)/Al₂O₃ were higher than those calculated values, the supported metal oxides possibly become reducible by alloying with Fe and Co [134,143]. However, the DR of the calcined Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst was still 52%, indicating that a certain amount of reduction-resistant metal oxide was still present in this catalyst.

To investigate the extent of the reduction of the supported metal oxides after isothermal H₂ reduction, the calcined catalyst was pre-reduced in situ with H₂ at 673 K for 2 h before the TPR analysis. A clearly visible broad peak was observed in the TPR profiles of the reduced Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst (Figure 5.1), indicating the presence of a large amount of unreduced Fe oxides. However, much lower intensity peaks were observed for the Co-containing catalysts. Moreover, the combination of Fe and Co also increased the extent of reduction of the supported metal oxides after isothermal reduction. In other words, more metallic sites were formed after H₂ reduction by combining Fe and Co.

5.4 Phases of Calcined and Spent Fe and Co Catalysts

XRD patterns of calcined and spent catalysts are illustrated in Figure 5.2. Diffraction peaks of γ -Al₂O₃ phase were solely observed in the XRD pattern of calcined Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst. However, the formation of polycrystalline α -Fe₂O₃ in similar Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst with 12 wt% Fe loading was reported earlier by Lögberg et al. [143]. Hence, the absence of polycrystalline α -Fe₂O₃ in Fe catalyst in this work indicating a good dispersion state of Fe₂O₃ on the γ -Al₂O₃ support. The diffraction pattern of calcined catalyst was not changed by combining Fe and a small amount of Co (X=0.17) as shown in Figure 5.2. For the calcined Fe-Co(0.5)/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts, polycrystalline Co₃O₄ was detected, which indicated that Co oxide particles agglomerated on the high Co-containing catalysts.

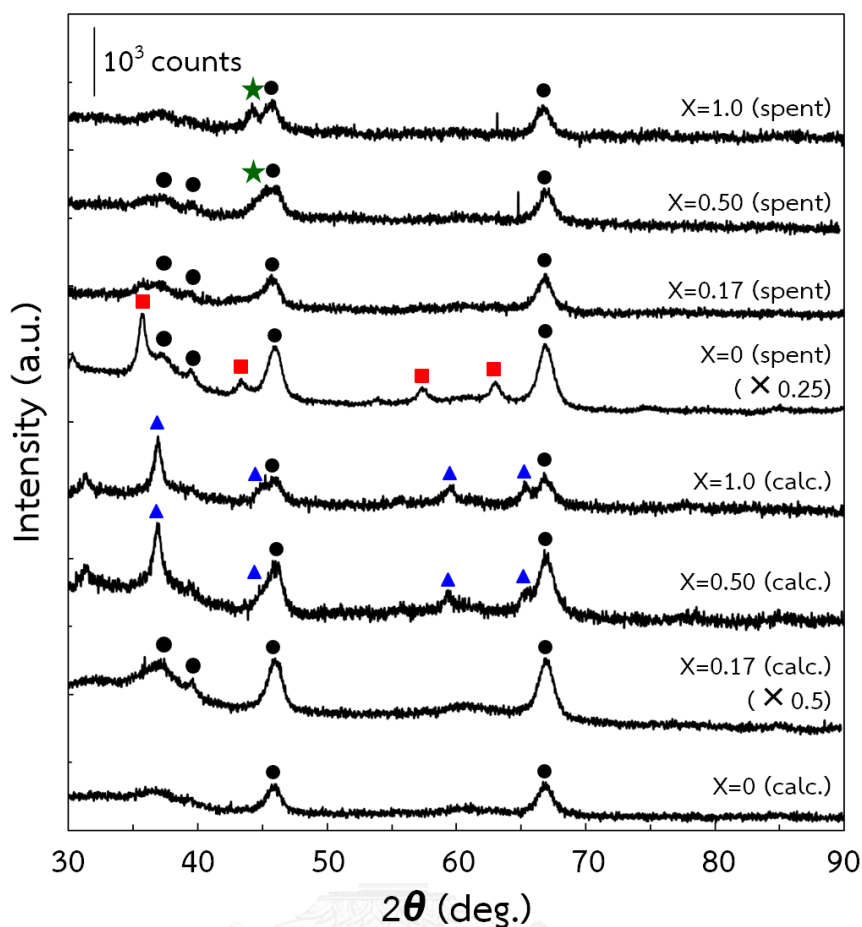


Figure 5.2 XRD patterns of calcined and spent Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts. ● γ -Al₂O₃, ■ Fe₃O₄ (or Fe₂AlO₄), ▲ Co₃O₄, ★ Co⁰

For spent catalyst, several new peaks emerged in the XRD pattern of Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst at $2\theta = 36, 43, 51$ and 63° . These peaks are ascribed to polycrystalline Fe₃O₄ (or Fe₂AlO₄ [143]), while metallic and carbidic phases were not detected. However, the diffraction peaks of polycrystalline Fe oxide were completely disappeared from the XRD patterns of spent Fe-Co and Co catalysts. Furthermore, polycrystalline Co⁰ was observed in spent Fe-Co(0.5)/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst without Co₃O₄ being detected, implying that bulk oxidation of Fe and Co species unlikely occurred during CO₂ hydrogenation and passivation of the spent catalyst. Therefore, polycrystalline Fe oxide observed in spent Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst could be resulted from incomplete reduction of Fe₂O₃ as confirmed by the TPR experiment of reduced Fe catalyst,

rather than oxidation of metallic and/or carbidic phases during CO₂ hydrogenation and the subsequent passivation process. This result could be explained by the TPR results that the combination of Fe and Co improved the reduction degree of supported metal oxide, leading to disappearance of the diffraction peaks of Fe oxides.

For spent Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst, the peak of Fe and Co phases was not observed in the XRD pattern, although the results of TPR suggested Fe-Co alloy formation in this catalyst. This is possibly due to that Fe-Co alloy is in a highly dispersed state in this bimetallic catalyst, and could not be detected by XRD analysis.

5.5 Surface Adsorbed Species on the Spent Catalyst

The surface adsorbed species formed during CO₂ hydrogenation were studied by DRIFTS analysis of the spent catalyst. The DRIFT spectra of the spent Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts after flushing the DRIFTS cell with N₂ at ambient temperature for 1 h are shown in Figure 5.3a. The DRIFT spectra revealed major IR bands at 1590, 1394 and 1377 cm⁻¹, which were ascribed to the $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{as}}$, $\delta(\text{CH})$ and $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{s}}$ vibrational bands of adsorbed formate species, respectively [147-149]. Weak IR bands at 1634 and 1443 cm⁻¹ were assigned to the $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{as}}$ and $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{s}}$ vibrational bands of adsorbed bicarbonate species [147,148,150]. An additional band at 1460 cm⁻¹ appeared only in the spectrum of the spent Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst, showing the presence of adsorbed hydrocarbon species [151,152].

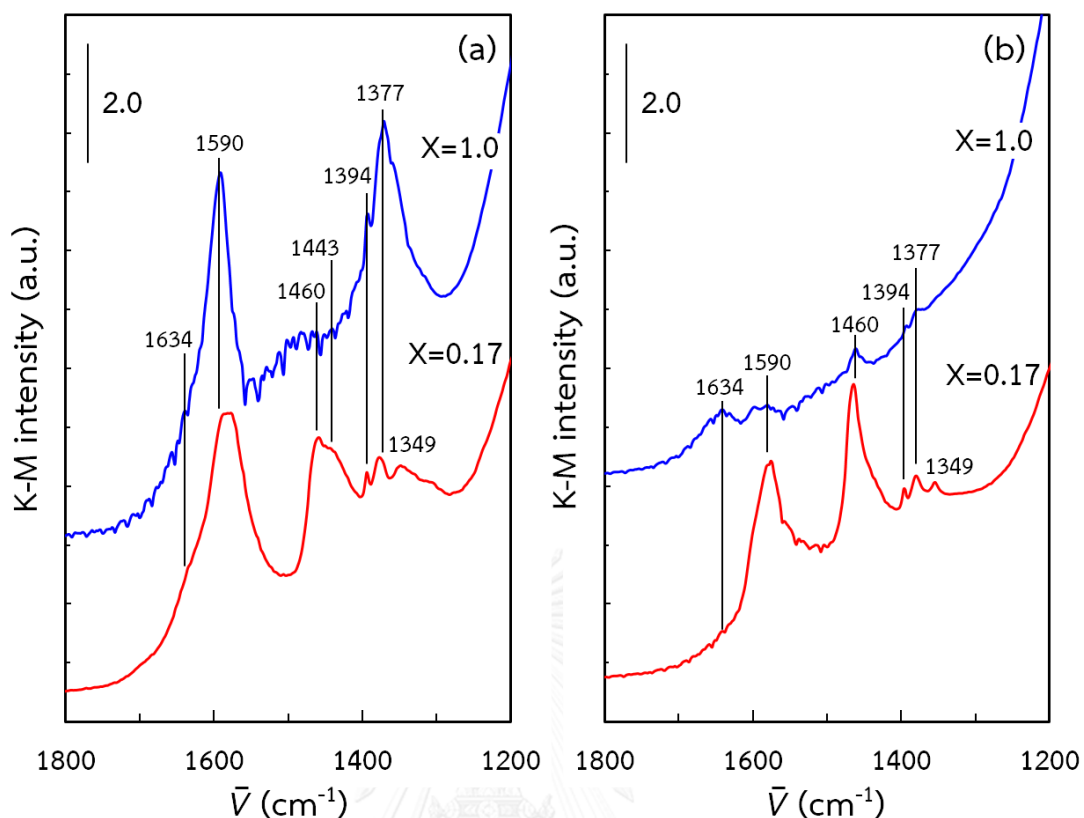


Figure 5.3 DRIFT spectra of the surface adsorbed species on spent Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts after (a) N₂ purge at 298 K for 1 h and then (b) followed by H₂ reduction at 573 K for 2 h.

The spent catalysts were then reduced in a H₂ stream at 673 K for 2 h followed by flushing with N₂. The DRIFT spectra revealed that the intensities of the IR bands of adsorbed formate and bicarbonate species on the spent Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst were almost disappeared after H₂ reduction (Figure 5.3b). However, in the case of reduced-spent Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalyst, only the IR bands of the adsorbed bicarbonate species (1634 and 1443 cm⁻¹) disappeared after reduction. The adsorbed formate and hydrocarbon species still being present in the spectrum of Fe-Co catalyst. DRIFTS analysis of the spent catalysts confirmed that the adsorbed bicarbonate and formate species were formed on both the Fe-Co and Co catalysts during CO₂ hydrogenation, but the formate species had a much higher stability on the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst than on the Co catalyst.

5.6 H₂ Adsorption Properties of Fe-Co Catalysts

5.6.1 H₂-TPD Profiles of Reduced and Spent Catalysts

The adsorption states of H₂ on the Al₂O₃ supported monometallic and Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were studied by H₂-TPD. Before the H₂-TPD experiment, the calcined catalysts were pre-reduced *in situ* at 673 K under a 50 mL min⁻¹ H₂ flow for 2 h. H₂ desorption on the reduced Fe/Al₂O₃ (X = 0) catalyst mainly occurred at 770 K with several minor desorption peaks at 383, 472 and 1056 K (Figure 5.4a). The combination of Fe and a small amount of Co (X = 0.17) slightly enhanced the H₂ desorption at 770 K, whilst further increasing the Co content significantly suppressed the H₂ desorption at this temperature, but increased the amount of H₂ desorbed below 600 K. The H₂-TPD profiles of the Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts generally had similar features to that of the monometallic Fe catalyst, suggesting the segregation of Fe atoms on the Fe-Co alloy surface [134,136,143]. Interestingly, the H₂-TPD profile of the reduced Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst (X = 1) was greatly different from those of the other catalysts, where the H₂ desorption in the range of 600–900 K from the Co catalyst was negligible. Moderately adsorbed hydrogen (desorbed at 770 K) was observed only for the Fe-containing catalysts.

In the case of spent catalysts, the catalysts were pre-reduced *in situ* at 573 K under a 50 mL min⁻¹ H₂ flow for 2 h prior to the H₂-TPD experiments. The adsorption states of H₂ on the spent catalysts (Figure 5.4b) were broadly similar to those of the corresponding reduced catalysts (Figure 5.4a), where the H₂ desorption mainly occurring at 700 - 720 K for the spent Fe and Fe-Co catalysts, while only a minor H₂ desorption was observed in this temperature range for the spent Co catalyst. These results indicate that the nature of the adsorption sites for H₂ on the reduced catalysts mostly remain unchanged during CO₂ hydrogenation. However, the H₂-TPD results show that the main desorption peaks observed for the fresh Fe and Fe-Co catalysts (Figure 5.4a) shifted to lower temperatures after CO₂ hydrogenation followed by passivation (Figure 5.4b). In addition, no desorption peak appeared above 1000 K for the spent Fe catalyst. These minor differences in the H₂-TPD

profiles between the corresponding reduced and spent catalysts could reflect structural changes of the Fe and Co species during CO₂ hydrogenation, such as transformation from Fe⁰ to FeC_x. However, XRD analysis did not provide evidence for the formation of polycrystalline carbide species (Figure 5.2).

With respect to the H₂-TPD profiles of the spent catalysts (Figure 5.4b), it is also important to note that the peak at 340 K became more intense with increasing Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios at the expense of the peak at 520 K. The higher temperature peak disappeared at a Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio of 1, and two peaks were observed at 305 K and 440 K in this low temperature region. These changes indicate that weakly adsorbed H₂ (desorbed at ca. 300–440 K) becomes predominate on the metal surface in the presence of high Co concentrations ($X \geq 0.5$).

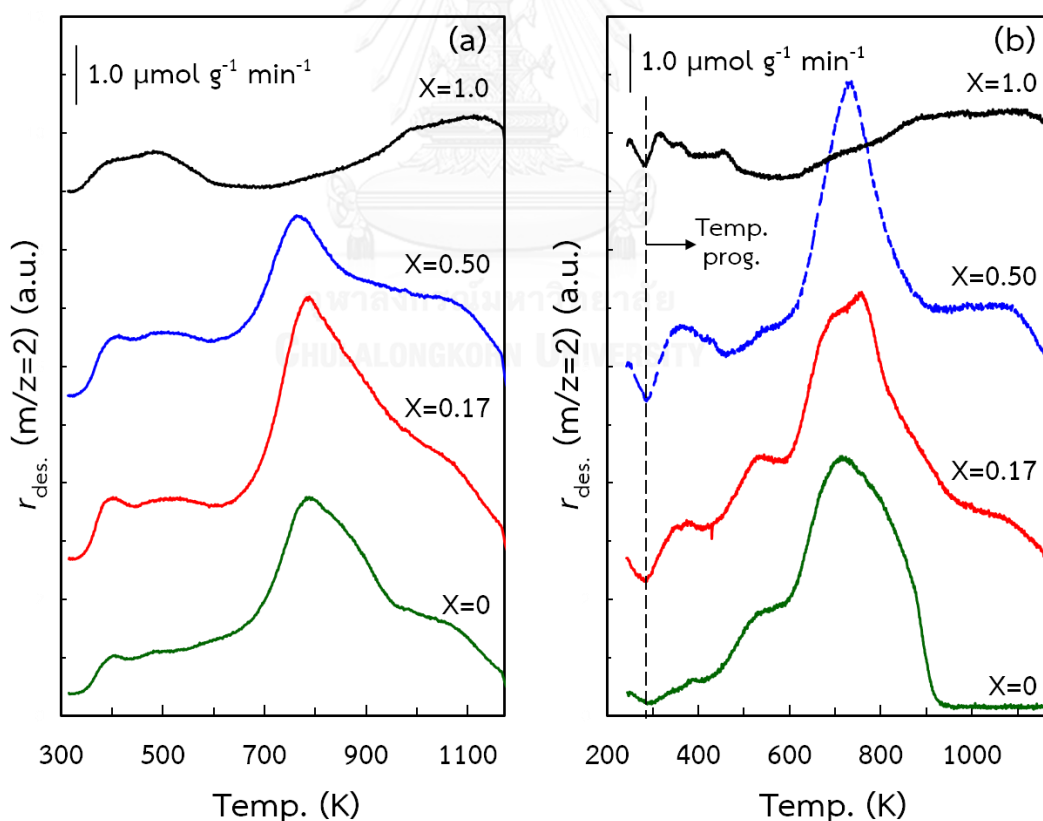


Figure 5.4 H₂-TPD profiles of the (a) reduced and (b) spent Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

5.6.2 Decomposition of Adsorbed Formate Species during TPD

During the H₂-TPD analyses of the spent catalysts, CO and CO₂ were also detected by mass spectrometry at relatively high temperatures. The formation of CO ($m/z = 28$) and CO₂ ($m/z = 44$) during the H₂-TPD analysis of the spent Fe/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalysts are shown in Figures 5.5a and 5.5b, respectively, along with their H₂ desorption profiles. CO and CO₂ were formed at the same temperature, and their formations overlapped with the H₂ desorption. Similarly, CO and CO₂ formations were also observed for the spent Fe-Co(0.50)/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts as shown in Figures 5.5c and 5.5d, respectively. DRIFTS analysis showed that the formate species still remained on the spent Fe-Co(0.17) catalyst even after H₂ reduction at 573 K (Figure 5.3b), indicating that the CO and CO₂ desorptions during H₂-TPD are caused by the decomposition of the formate species. Much weaker CO and CO₂ peaks for the spent Co catalyst were simply due to that the adsorbed formate species were almost entirely removed from the catalyst surface after H₂ reduction.

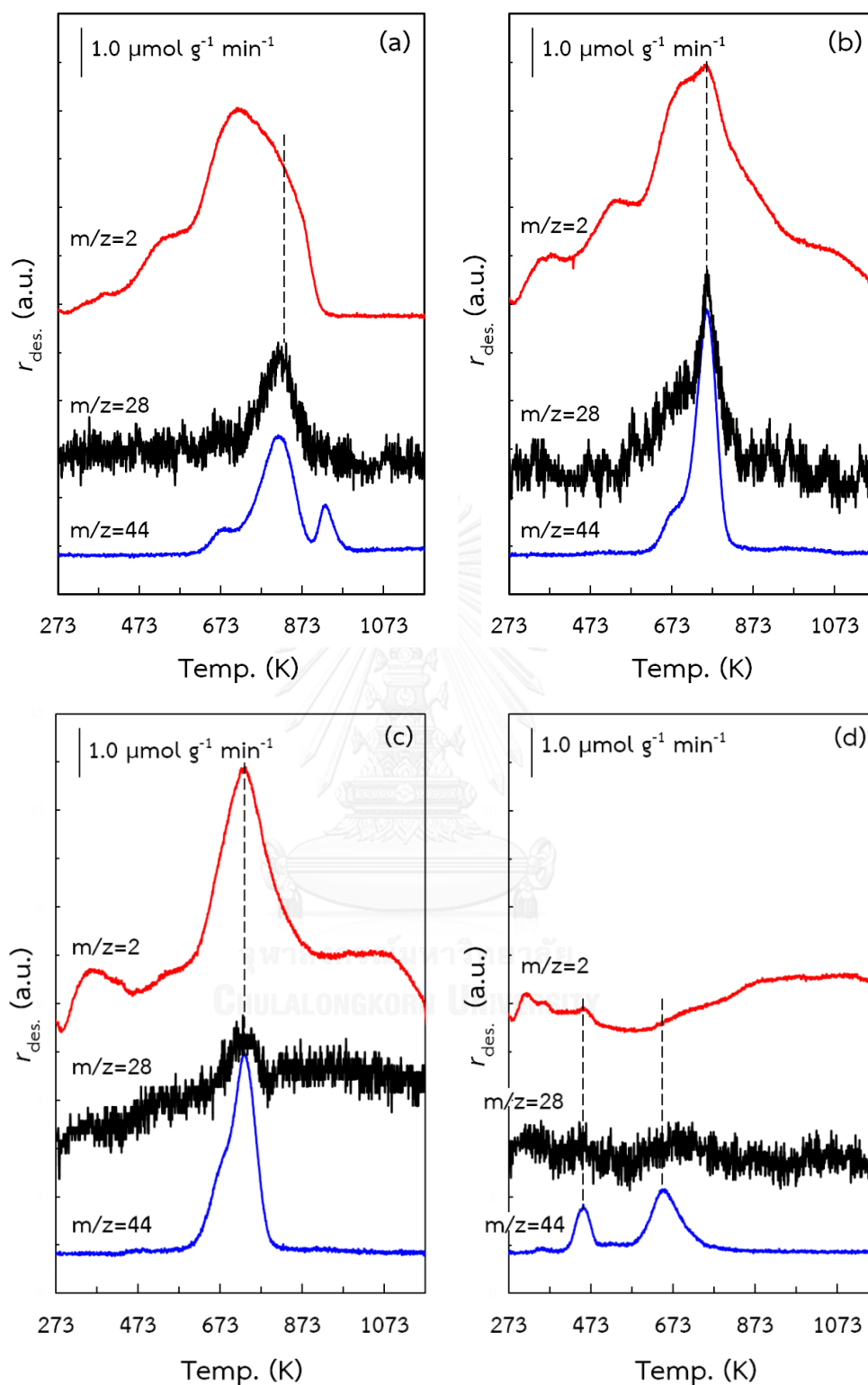


Figure 5.5 Mass traces of CO ($m/z = 28$) and CO_2 ($m/z = 44$) during the H_2 -TPD of the spent (a) $\text{Fe}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, (b) $\text{Fe-Co}(0.17)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$, (c) $\text{Fe-Co}(0.5)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and (d) $\text{Co}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts along with their H_2 -TPD profiles ($m/z = 2$).

5.6.3 Deconvolution Analysis of the H₂-TPD Profiles

To investigate the change in the H₂ adsorption properties as a function of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio, the overlapped peaks in the H₂-TPD profiles of the Fe and Fe-Co catalysts were deconvoluted using Gaussian functions. The deconvolution result for the reduced Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst is shown in Figure 5.6. The curve created from the summation of the Gaussian peaks well fitted the experimental data. For clarity, these Gaussian peaks are denoted as types I - IV from low to high temperature, representing the different adsorption states of hydrogen on the catalyst surface. The H₂-TPD profile of the spent Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst was also deconvoluted (Figure 5.6), where it should be noted that the fourth peak, which appeared at ca. 840 K (denoted as type IV' H₂), was caused by the decomposition of the adsorbed formate species (see section 5.6.2). Deconvolution results for the fresh and spent Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Co(0.5)/Al₂O₃ catalysts are shown in Figures 5.6. Similar peaks were also observed in the TPD profiles of the spent Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts.

The adsorption states of H₂ on the monometallic Fe and Co surfaces have previously been studied by several researchers [153-156]. Two different H₂ chemisorption states, β_1 and β_2 , which desorbed below ~500 K were reported on the Fe(110), Fe(100) and Fe(111) crystal surfaces [153]. Similarly, two adsorption states were reported on the reduced Co catalysts supported on amorphous silica [156]. In addition to these adsorption states, new adsorption states at higher binding energies (γ state) were reported in the H₂-TPD profiles of the supported Fe and Ni catalysts [154], and the appearance of these new states was explained by the presence of unreduced metal or support oxide species on the metal surface or in intimate contact with small metal crystallites.

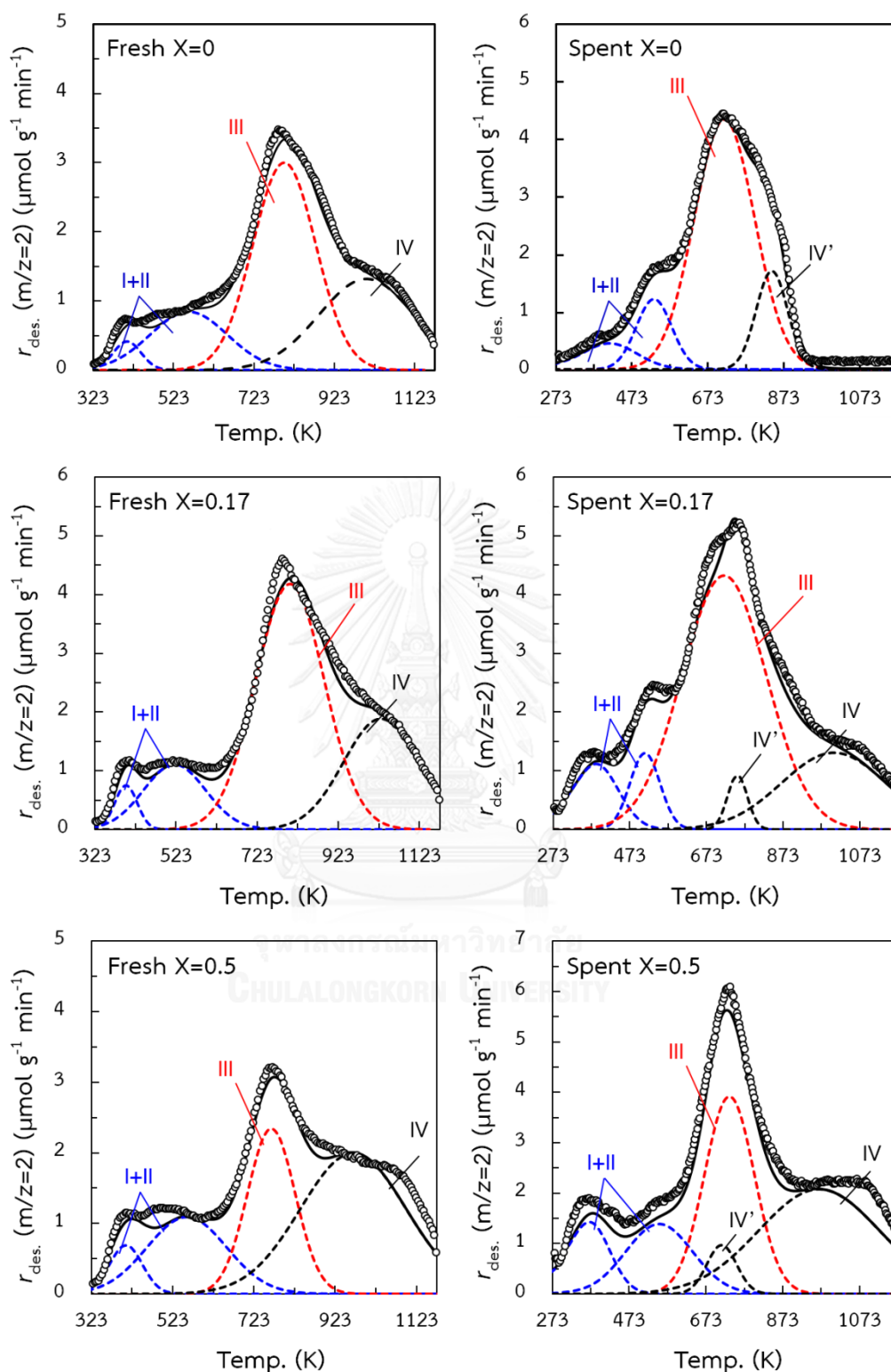


Figure 5.6 Deconvolution of the H_2 -TPD profiles of reduced and spent $Fe-Co(X)/Al_2O_3$ catalysts. (oooooo) measured TPD profile, (-----) deconvoluted peaks, (————) summation of the deconvoluted peaks.

The H₂-TPD coupled with deconvolution analysis in this work revealed that 3–4 different adsorption states of H₂ were present on the reduced Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts, and their quantity changed sensitively with the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio of the catalyst. According to the previous reports, the weak desorption of H₂ at lower temperatures (types I and II; weakly adsorbed H₂) can be ascribed to atomic hydrogen adsorbed on the metal surface [153,156], while the major H₂ desorption observed for the Fe and Fe-Co catalysts (type III; moderately adsorbed H₂) originated from H₂ adsorbed on the Fe⁰ or alloy surface decorated with unreduced metal oxide [154]. The latter assignment is consistent with the obtained TPR of the Fe and Fe-rich Fe-Co catalysts of this study, which demonstrated the presence of significant amounts of reduction-resistant metal oxides in these catalysts (section 5.3). The lack of this adsorption state on the reduced Co catalyst is possibly due to the fact that the supported Co oxide is almost completely reduced to the metallic state by H₂ reduction at 673 K. H₂ desorption was also observed above 1000 K (type IV) regardless of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio, which is possibly due to surface hydroxyl groups on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface. However, no desorption of H₂ was observed from the γ -Al₂O₃ support exposed to a H₂ stream at 673 K prior to TPD, suggesting that this peak is caused by desorption of hydrogen that had spilt-over onto the support surface rather than the hydrogen from the hydroxyl groups on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface.

5.6.4 Effect of Combining Fe and Co on H₂ Adsorption Properties

Deconvolution of the H₂-TPD profiles followed by integrating each peak gave important information about the influence of combining Fe and Co on the formation of different types of adsorbed H₂. The quantities of adsorbed H₂, as types (I + II) and III, were then plotted as a function of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio (X) in Figure 5.7. For the Co catalyst, H₂ desorbed below 600 K was regarded as type (I + II) H₂. The amount of weakly bound (type (I + II)) H₂ was weakly dependent on X, where it increased slightly with increasing Co concentration, showing a weak maximum at X = 0.4–0.5 (Figure 5.7). Since type (I + II) H₂ originates from atomic hydrogen adsorbed

on the metal surface, the amount of desorbed H_2 would be proportional to the SA of exposed metals when the stoichiometry of H_2 adsorption is assumed to be independent of the metal type. Accordingly, this small increase would reflect the increased DR of the supported metal oxides, leading to the increased metal SA. Lower metal SA of the Co catalyst was possibly due to an agglomeration of Co^0 as revealed by XRD analysis (Figure 5.2).

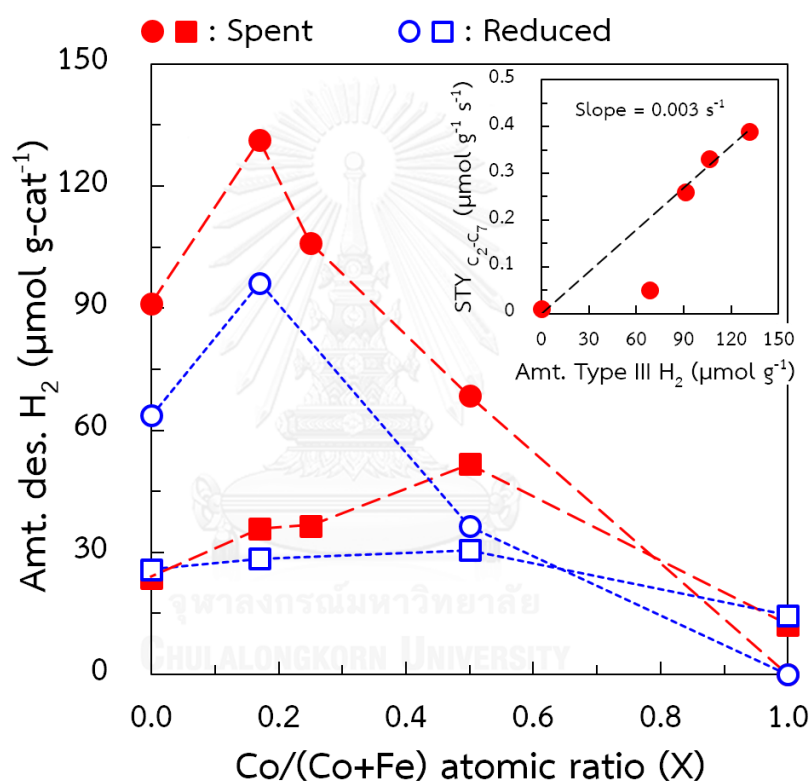


Figure 5.7 Effect of combining Fe and Co on the amount of desorbed H_2 , type (I + II) H_2 (\square, \blacksquare) and type III H_2 (\circ, \bullet), from the reduced and spent Fe-Co(X)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts. The inset shows the linear relationship between the STYs of C_2-C_7 hydrocarbons (using the data from Table 5.1) and the amount of type III H_2 on the spent catalysts.

In contrast, the amount of type III H_2 (moderately adsorbed H_2) on both the reduced and spent catalysts were noticeably increased by the combination of Fe and a small amount of Co ($X = 0.17$), which was caused by the increased DR of the supported metal oxides, possibly through Fe-Co alloying, leading to an increased contact between the metal particles and unreduced oxides. At high Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios, the amount of type III H_2 sharply decreased because the DR of the supported metal oxides was significantly improved, resulting in a loss of contact with unreduced oxides. Only weakly adsorbed H_2 was observed on the Co catalyst. Schematic illustration of the proposed model for the adsorption states of hydrogen on Fe-Co(X)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts is shown in Figure 5.8.

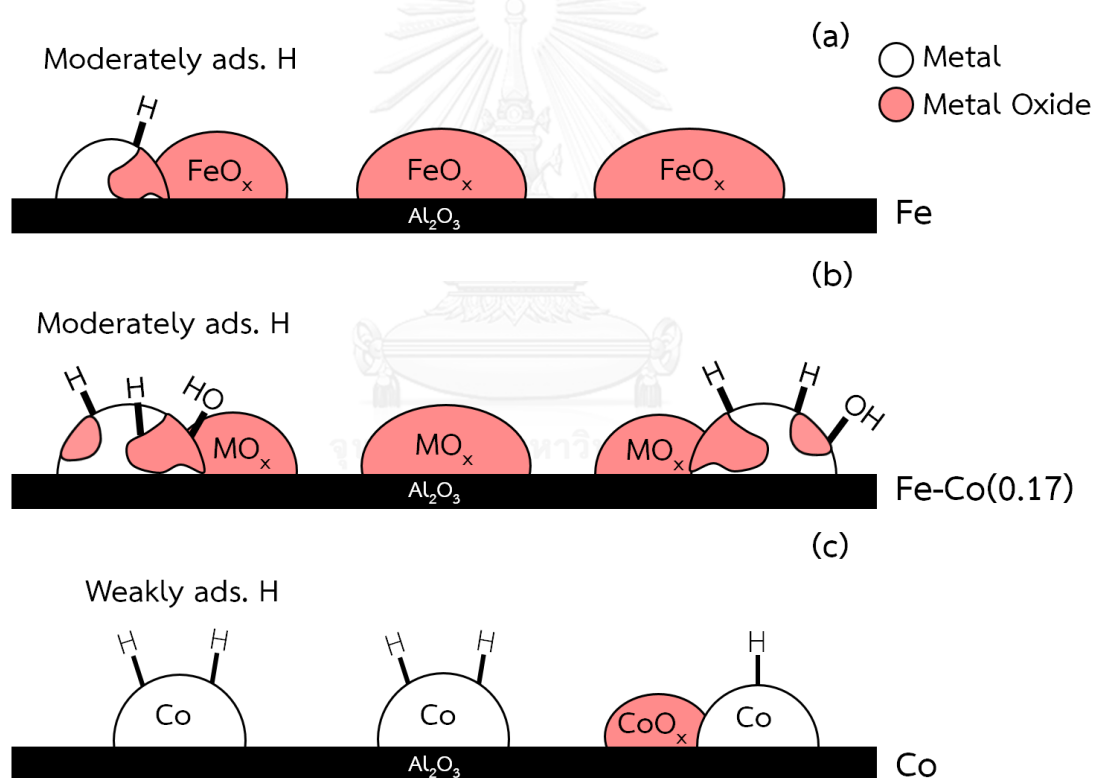


Figure 5.8 Schematic illustration of the proposed model for the adsorption states of hydrogen on the (a) Fe/ Al_2O_3 , (b) Fe-Co(0.17)/ Al_2O_3 and (c) Co/ Al_2O_3 catalysts.

5.7 Impact of the H₂ Adsorption States on the CO₂ Hydrogenation Activity

The product space-time yields (STYs) and CO₂ conversion on Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts has been reported in Chapter IV [115], and are shown in Figure 5.9. The STYs of the C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons on these catalysts were maximal at 0.17 atom-Co atom⁻¹, and changed in a broadly similar way to the amount of type III H₂ (Figure 5.7). As shown in the inset of Figure 5.7, the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons increased linearly with the amount of type III H₂, except for the spent Fe-Co(0.5)/Al₂O₃ catalyst. This linear relationship indicated that moderately adsorbed H₂ may play an important role in the formation of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons from CO₂ hydrogenation, which is quite different from CO hydrogenation on Co-Ni catalysts, where the presence of weakly adsorbed H₂ was crucial for the formation of higher hydrocarbons [135].

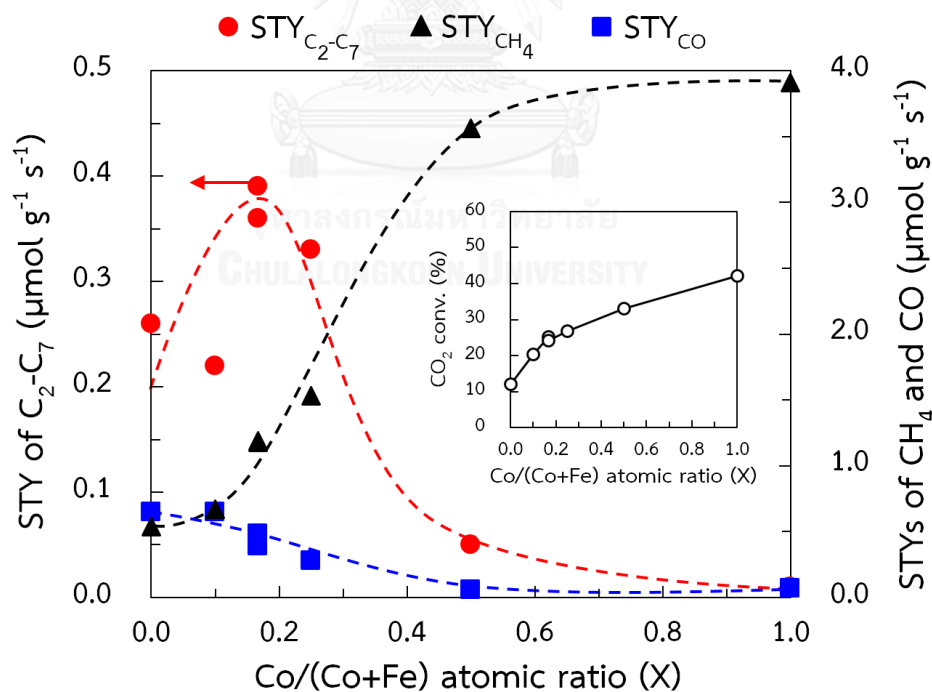


Figure 5.9 Effects of Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio on the STYs of C₂-C₇, CH₄ and CO hydrocarbons. The inset shows the CO₂ conversion as a function of Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio [115].

The different effects of the adsorbed H_2 on the CO and CO_2 hydrogenation can be explained in terms of the different coverage of CO on the metal surface. Kinetic analysis of the CO_2 hydrogenation to hydrocarbons over a Fe-based catalyst demonstrated that CO_2 is first hydrogenated to CO by the reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction followed by CO hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons by Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS) [157]. Hence, in the case of CO_2 hydrogenation, the partial pressure of CO would be lower due to the thermodynamic barrier against the RWGS reaction and so the lower coverage of CO over the active metal surface. At a low CO coverage, moderately adsorbed H_2 becomes more important for the formation of higher hydrocarbons because the C_1 monomer, a chain growth carrier in the FTS, would be hydrogenated relatively slowly, providing more opportunities for carbon-carbon bond formation.

However, as shown in Figure 5.9 [115], the formation of C_2^+ hydrocarbons was significantly suppressed on the Fe-Co(0.5)/ Al_2O_3 catalyst even in the presence of a significant amount of moderately adsorbed H_2 . Rather, CH_4 formation accounted for 90% of the total hydrocarbon product with negligible amounts of CO formation. The lack of CO in the product from this catalysts indicated that CH_4 is mainly formed by direct hydrogenation of CO_2 [130]. Based on *in situ* DRIFTS observations, Schild et. al. [158] proposed that methanation of CO_2 on a Ni catalyst occurred by hydrogenation of the adsorbed formate species. In this work, formate was observed on both the Fe-Co and Co catalysts after CO_2 hydrogenation. Furthermore, H_2 -TPD analysis of the spent catalysts revealed that weakly adsorbed H_2 (desorbed at ca. 300–440 K) became predominate at high Co loading levels. From these results, it could be inferred that the selective CH_4 formation on Fe-Co(0.5) and Co catalysts was caused by the rapid hydrogenation of the formate species in the presence of the weakly adsorbed H_2 . In the absence of this adsorbed H_2 , another reaction path for the RWGS reaction would become predominate on the Fe and Fe-rich Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts, since the formate species is also a crucial intermediate for RWGS reactions [159].

5.8 CO₂ Adsorption Properties of the Fe-Co Catalysts

The effect of the Fe-Co combination on the CO₂ adsorption properties of reduced and spent catalysts was also studied by TPD. The CO₂-TPD profiles of the reduced and spent Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts are illustrated in Figure 5.10. The γ -Al₂O₃ support was also evaluated in the CO₂-TPD experiment as a reference, where CO₂ mainly desorbed at 350 K (Figure 5.10a). With respect to the reduced catalysts, additional shoulder peaks were observed at 550 K, otherwise the CO₂-TPD profiles of the reduced and spent catalysts were quite similar below 700 K. However, the CO₂-TPD profiles of the spent Fe and Fe-Co catalysts showed additional peaks at 720–793 K (Figure 5.10b), which were ascribed to the decomposition of the surface formate species. This is supported by the formation of CO₂ at almost the same temperatures during the H₂-TPD of the spent Fe and Fe-Co catalysts (Figure 5.5). In contrast to the H₂-TPD profiles, there was no significant difference in the CO₂-TPD profiles of the Fe, Fe-Co and Co catalysts.

The adsorption states of CO₂ on the reduced catalysts were also studied by DRIFTS analysis coupled with CO₂ adsorption, where Figure 5.11 shows the changes in the obtained DRIFT spectra of the adsorbed CO₂ with different adsorption times. Once the γ -Al₂O₃ powder was exposed to the CO₂, four IR bands emerged at 1649, 1523, 1439 and 1231 cm⁻¹ (Figure 5.11a), corresponding to bicarbonate species [147,150]. Similar IR bands of the bicarbonate species were also observed in the reduced Co (Figure 5.11b) and Fe catalysts (Figure 5.11c). An additional broad band at 1495 cm⁻¹ was only observed in the in DRIFT spectra of Fe catalysts, which was attributed to the carbonate species formed on the unreduced Fe oxide surface [147]. The formation of bicarbonate species on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface is consistent with a recent density functional theory based study, which demonstrated that bicarbonate is the most stable adsorbed species on a partially hydrated Al₂O₃ surface [150].

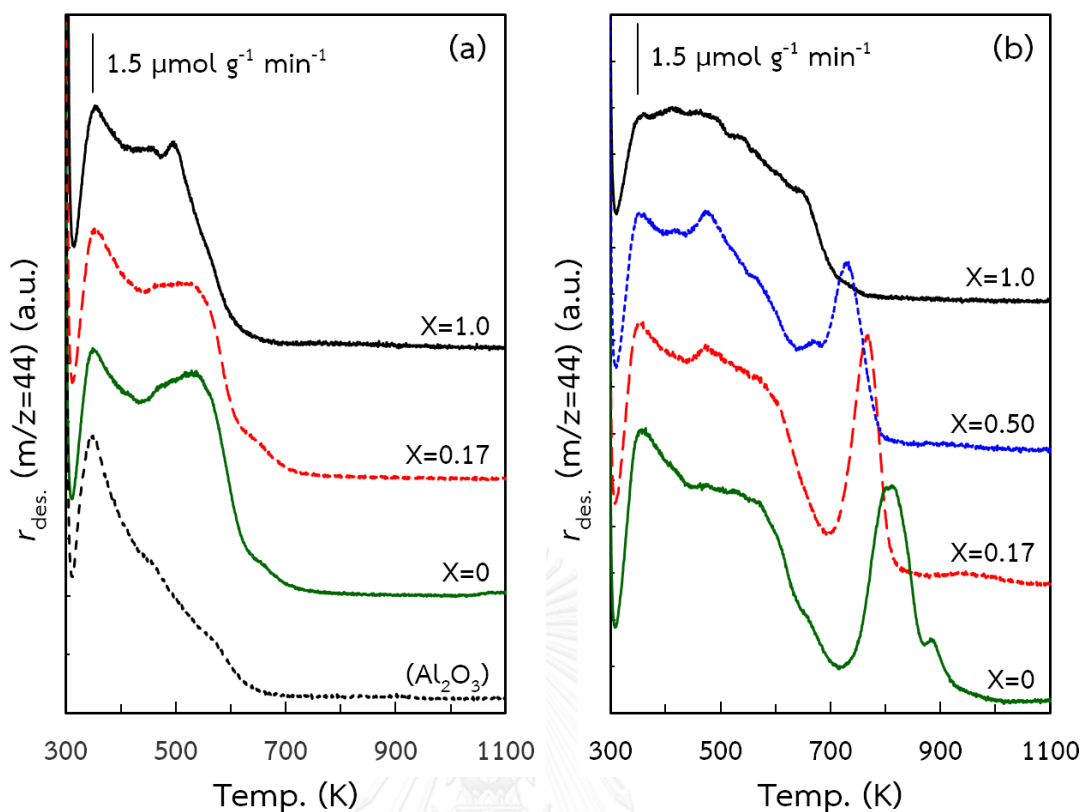


Figure 5.10 CO₂-TPD profiles of the (a) reduced and (b) spent Fe-Co(X)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

Overall, the results of the CO₂-DRIFTS analysis showed that CO₂ desorption from the reduced catalysts mainly originates from bicarbonate and carbonate species formed on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface. The fact that CO₂ mainly interacts with the support surface rather than the metal surface would explain why the adsorption states of CO₂ were almost independent of the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio of the catalyst.

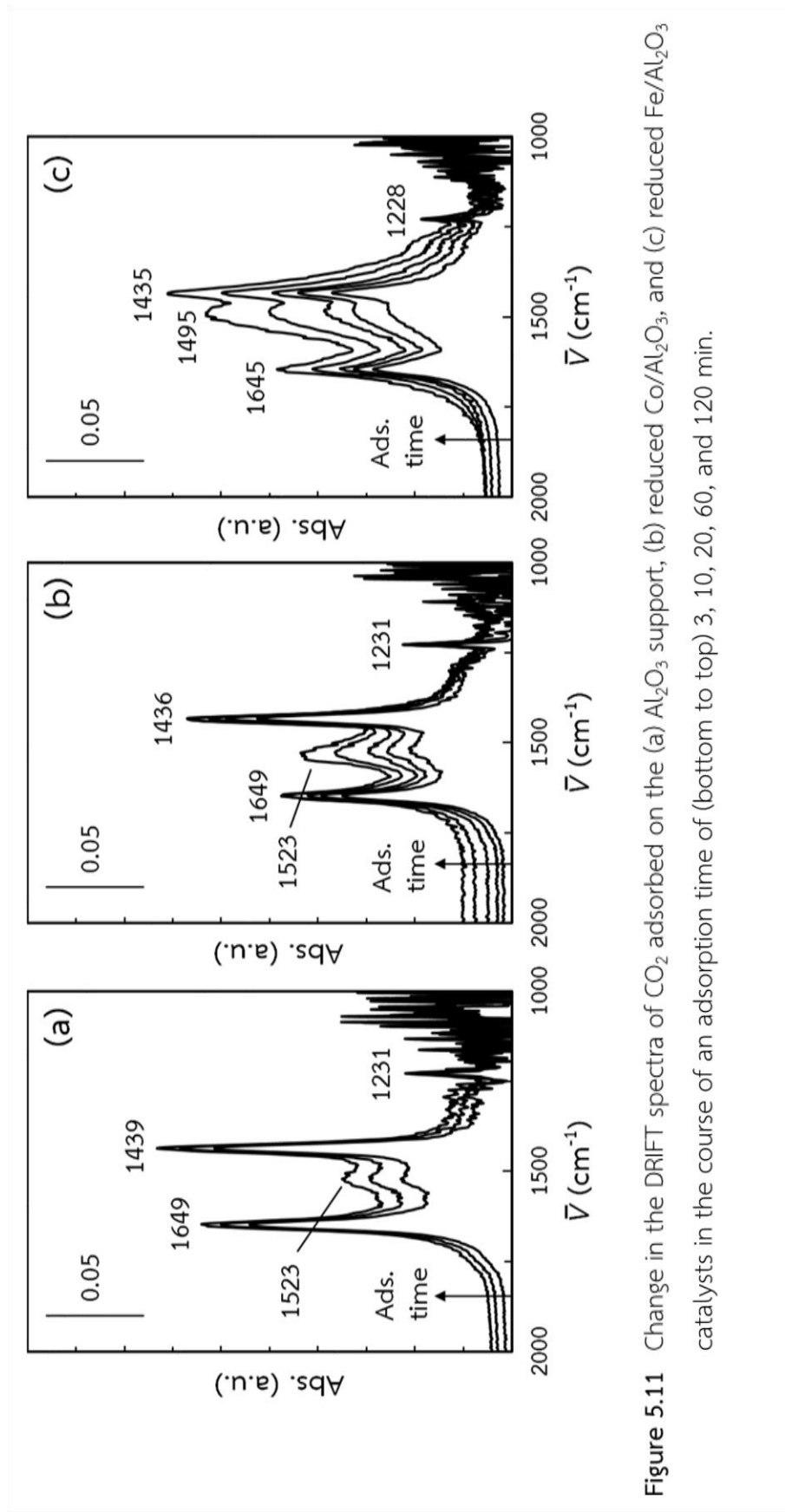


Figure 5.11 Change in the DRIFT spectra of CO₂ adsorbed on the (a) Al₂O₃ support, (b) reduced Co/Al₂O₃, and (c) reduced Fe/Al₂O₃ catalysts in the course of an adsorption time of (bottom to top) 3, 10, 20, 60, and 120 min.

CHAPTER VI

LIGHT OLEFIN SYNTHESIS FROM CO₂ HYDROGENATION OVER K-PROMOTED IRON-COBALT BIMETALLIC CATALYSTS

6.1 Introduction

Light olefins (C₂-C₄) are important building blocks for petrochemicals and polymers. With proper catalysts, hydrogenation of CO₂ could turn CO₂ into light olefins, which could reduce both the current CO₂ emission levels and the dependence on the depleting fossil fuels [4,16-18]. A significant promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Co/Al₂O₃ bimetallic catalysts with a low Co content (Co/(Co + Fe) = 0.17 atom-Co atom⁻¹) was reported in Chapter IV. The K promoted Fe-Co catalyst would have high activity for light olefin formation from CO₂ hydrogenation.

Potassium has been known as an effective promoter for CO and CO₂ hydrogenation to olefin-rich higher hydrocarbons over Fe-based catalysts [20,22,133,115]. However, the effects of the K-promoter have mainly dealt with monometallic Fe catalysts [19,119,120,123], while the effect of K loading on C₂-C₄ olefin formation, and the pathways for these olefins formation on Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts have not been investigated. According to Chapter V, the combination of Fe and Co led to formation of unique adsorption properties for H₂ and CO₂. It is of great interest to investigate how the K addition affects the adsorption properties and relates with CO₂ hydrogenation activities of these catalysts.

In this work, the K-promoted Fe, Co and Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts (Co/(Co + Fe) = 0.17 atom-Co atom⁻¹) with different K/Fe atomic ratios were tested for CO₂ hydrogenation and characterized by temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) to elucidate the influence of K-promoter on adsorption properties of H₂ and CO₂ on the

Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts, and their impact on the olefin formation from CO₂ hydrogenation.

6.2 Pathway for Olefin Formation from CO₂ Hydrogenation

To investigate the pathway for olefin formation from CO₂ hydrogenation, the catalysts were tested over wide range of W/F and the condition was kept constant at 573 K and 1.1 MPa. Conversion and product selectivities at about 15 - 16 h on stream were used for evaluating the activity and selectivity of the catalysts. Stable CO₂ conversion and selectivity could be obtained after 3 - 4 h on stream for all catalysts. Effects of W/F on CO₂ conversion of Fe-Co(X)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst are shown in Figure 6.1. CO₂ conversion increased with increasing W/F and gradually reached constant values at high W/F for all catalysts.

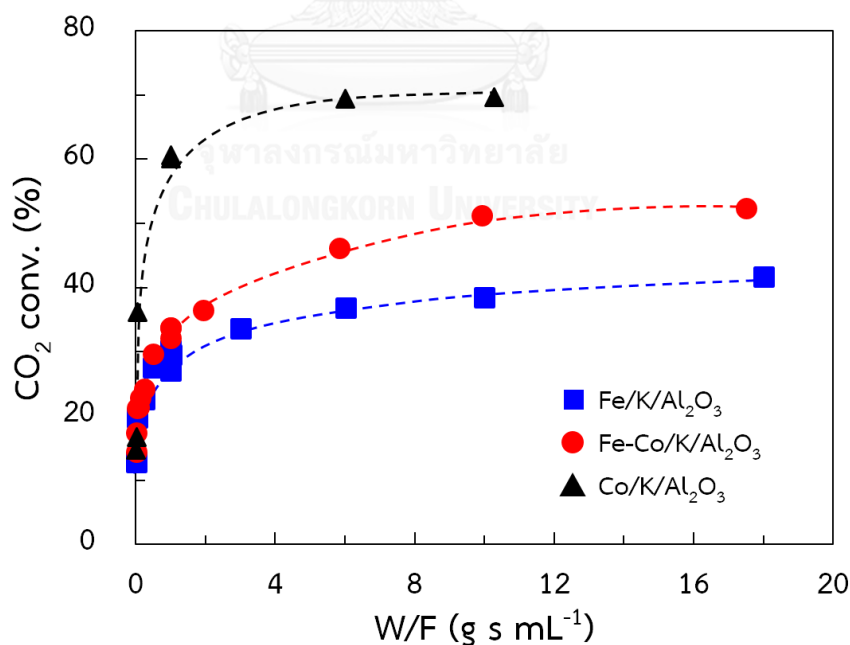


Figure 6.1 Effects of W/F on CO₂ conversion over Fe-Co(X)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

(W = catalyst weight (g), F = feed gas flow rate (ml s⁻¹))

It is noted that the equilibrium CO_2 conversion at this reaction condition was around 74% (calculated using Aspen HYSYS 3.2, section 3.2). K-promoted $\text{Fe}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst provided lowest CO_2 hydrogenation activity, while $\text{Co}/\text{K}(0.3)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst exhibited highest activity and approached the equilibrium conversion at around W/F of 6 g s mL^{-1} . The results show that the addition of small amount of Co to Fe catalyst ($\text{Co}/(\text{Co} + \text{Fe}) = 0.17 \text{ atom-Co atom}^{-1}$) could increase the CO_2 hydrogenation activity.

Figure 6.2 illustrates GC-FID chromatograms of gas-phase hydrocarbons from CO_2 hydrogenation over $\text{Fe-Co}(0.17)/\text{K}(0.3)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst at W/F of 1.01 g s mL^{-1} (the middle chromatogram). Linear paraffins were mainly observed together with a small amount of light olefins as the gas phase hydrocarbon products.

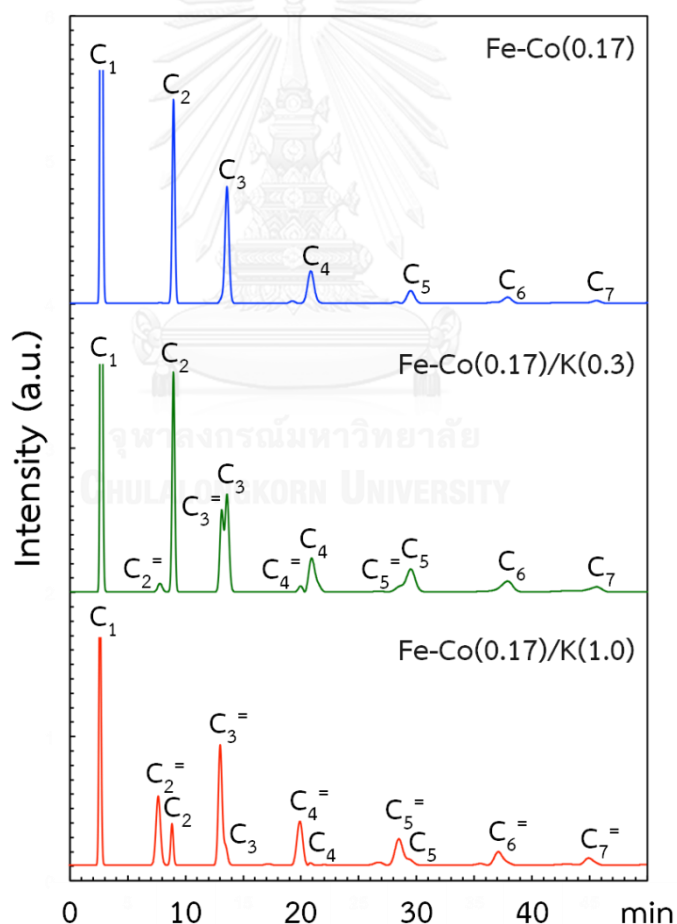


Figure 6.2 GC-FID chromatograms of gas-phase hydrocarbons from CO_2 hydrogenation on $\text{Fe-Co}(0.17)/\text{K}(Y)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ with different K/Fe atomic ratio at W/F of 1.01 g s mL^{-1} .

To investigate the pathways for these hydrocarbon formations, CO and hydrocarbon selectivity are plotted as a function of CO₂ conversion and shown in Figure 6.3. For all catalysts, the relatively similar trends were observed. The CO selectivity decreased with increasing CO₂ conversion, while hydrocarbon selectivity increased. These results suggest that CO mainly formed as a primary product from CO₂ hydrogenation (reverse water-gas shift reaction; RWGS) and the produced CO was then hydrogenated to hydrocarbons (FTS) [157], even for the K-promoted Co catalyst. The catalysts studied in this work were quite active at 573 K and 1.1 MPa, which was difficult to obtain very low conversion data. Thus, the presence of a direct hydrogenation route suggested by Riedel et al. [157] would not be excluded, but the contribution of such route would be small even if it present. Though K-promoted Co catalyst exhibited highest CO₂ hydrogenation activity, CO selectivity decreased quickly with increasing CO₂ conversion and CH₄ yield was high compared with those of Fe and Fe-Co catalysts (not shown here), due to the high hydrogenation ability of Co [115].

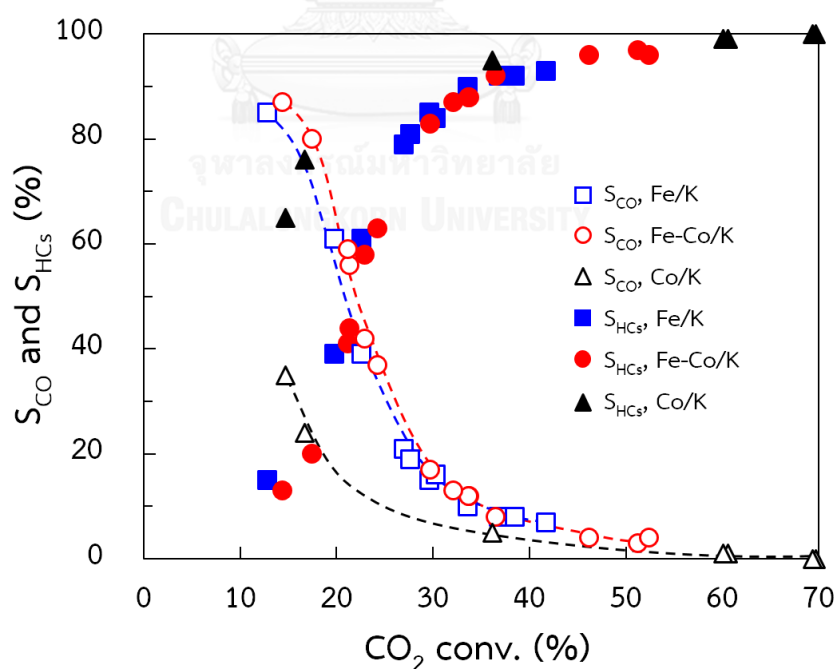


Figure 6.3 CO and hydrocarbon selectivity of Fe-Co(X)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalysts as a function of CO₂ conversion.

It is also worth noting that Fe-Co catalyst showed higher activity than Fe catalyst (Figure 6.1), but the changes of CO and hydrocarbon selectivity of both catalysts were almost similar. It could be concluded that the addition of small amount of Co increased both RWGS and FTS activities at a similar degree, resulting in an enhancement of CO₂ conversion without changing the product selectivity.

The light olefin and paraffin selectivity together with CO selectivity of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst also plotted as a function of CO₂ conversion and shown in Figure 6.4. Both C₂-C₄ olefins and paraffins were observed at the CO₂ conversion of 14%. The paraffin selectivity increased drastically with the conversion, while the olefin selectivity increased approaching the maximum value (9%) and then decreased. Thus, light olefins and paraffins (C₂ - C₄) would form simultaneously from hydrogenation of the produced CO, but some of these olefins could be further hydrogenated to paraffins, depending on the concentration of chemisorbed hydrogen on the catalyst surface (Figure 6.5).

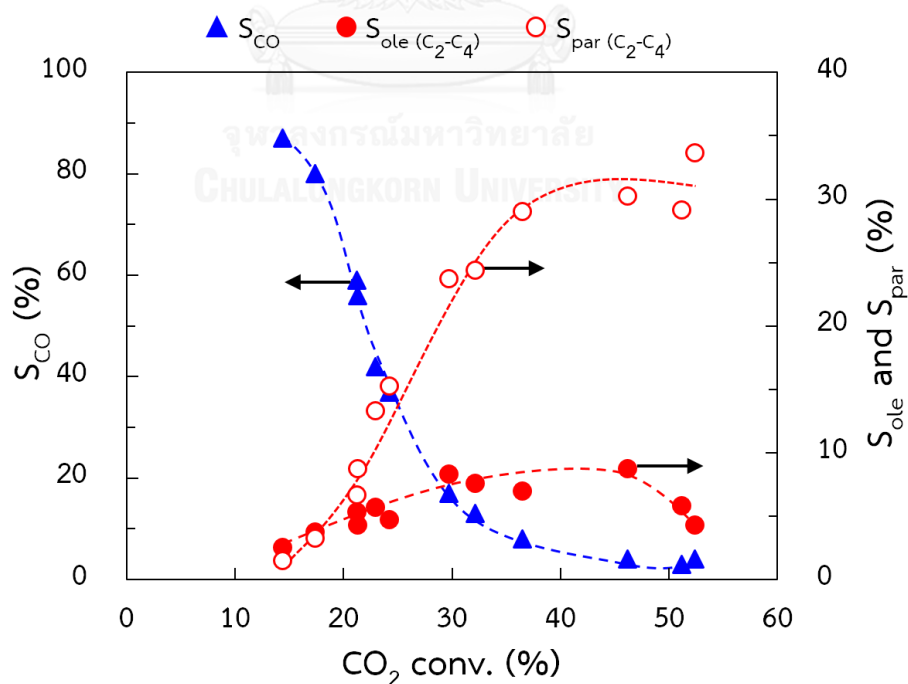


Figure 6.4 Product selectivity as a function of CO₂ conversion from hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

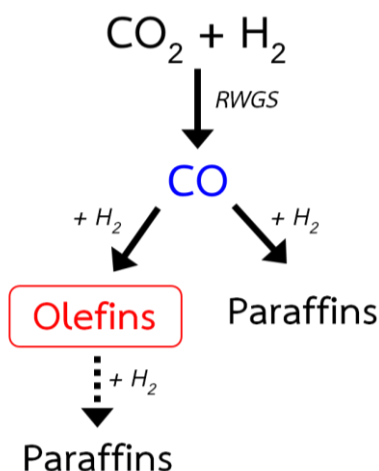


Figure 6.5 Proposed reaction pathway for CO_2 hydrogenation over K-promoted $\text{Fe-Co}(0.17)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst.

Hydrogenation of $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_4$ olefins was also confirmed by a sharp decrease in the olefin-paraffin ratio with increasing the conversion (see Figure 6.4). Therefore, suppressing olefin hydrogenation by tailoring the surface coverage of CO_2 and H_2 would cause the increase in the olefin content from CO_2 hydrogenation.

6.3 Light Olefins Synthesis from CO_2 Hydrogenation

To modify the surface coverage of H_2 and CO_2 on the catalyst surface, the amount of potassium promoter of Fe-Co catalysts was then varied. The activity and selectivity of $\text{Fe-Co}(0.17)/\text{K}(Y)/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts ($Y = 0 - 1$) were investigated at hydrogenation condition of 573 K and 1.1 MPa (1.01 g s mL^{-1}). The product selectivity as a function of the K/Fe atomic ratio are shown in Figure 6.6. Without a K promoter ($\text{K/Fe} = 0.0 \text{ atom atom}^{-1}$), no olefin was observed in the gas-phase hydrocarbon products (see Figure 6.2). Increasing K content resulted in a significant increase in light olefins ($\text{C}_2\text{-C}_4$) selectivity, at the expense of the light paraffin selectivity (Figure 6.6b).

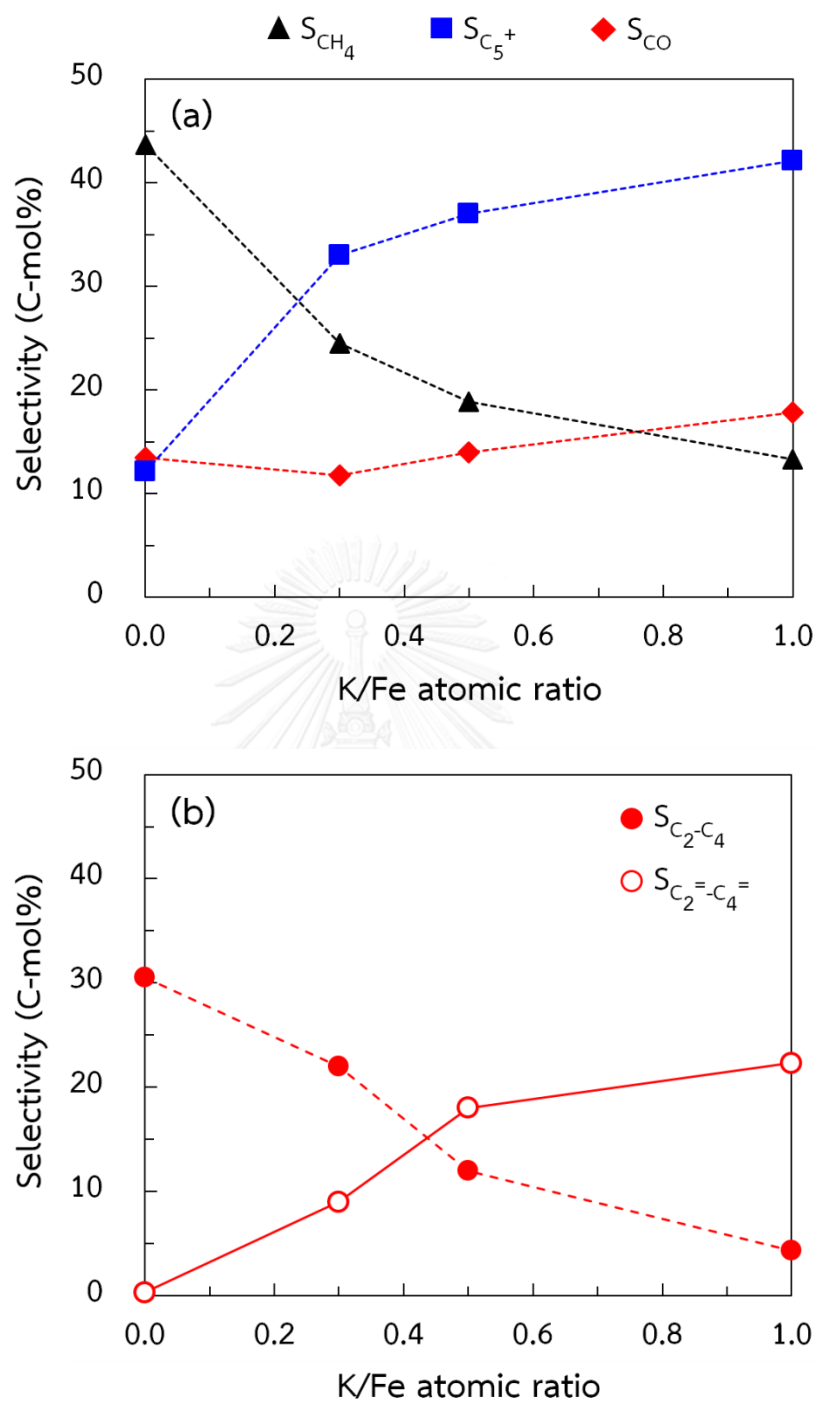


Figure 6.6 Effect of K/Fe atomic ratio (Y) on the selectivity of (a) CH₄, C₅⁺ and CO, (b) C₂-C₄ and C₂=C₄ from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe- Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

It was also worth noting that CH_4 selectivity drastically decreased with increasing K content, while C_5^+ hydrocarbon notably increased (Figure 6.6a). Since the CO_2 conversion was hardly changed with the addition of K (Table 6.1), these results indicated that the catalyst adsorption properties of H_2 and CO_2 changed significantly with K content as discussed in the sections 6.5 and 6.6.

The light olefin yield and olefin to paraffin atomic ratio (O/P) for the Fe-Co/K catalysts are illustrated in Figure 6.7. Light olefin yield was significantly increased with increasing K promoter up to 0.5 atom atom⁻¹. Further increasing K content did not increase the olefin yield, while the O/P ratio increased sharply approaching 5 at K/Fe = 1 atom atom⁻¹ [115]. These results clearly show that the K addition could suppress the olefin hydrogenation significantly, leading to a predominance of olefins in the light hydrocarbon products.

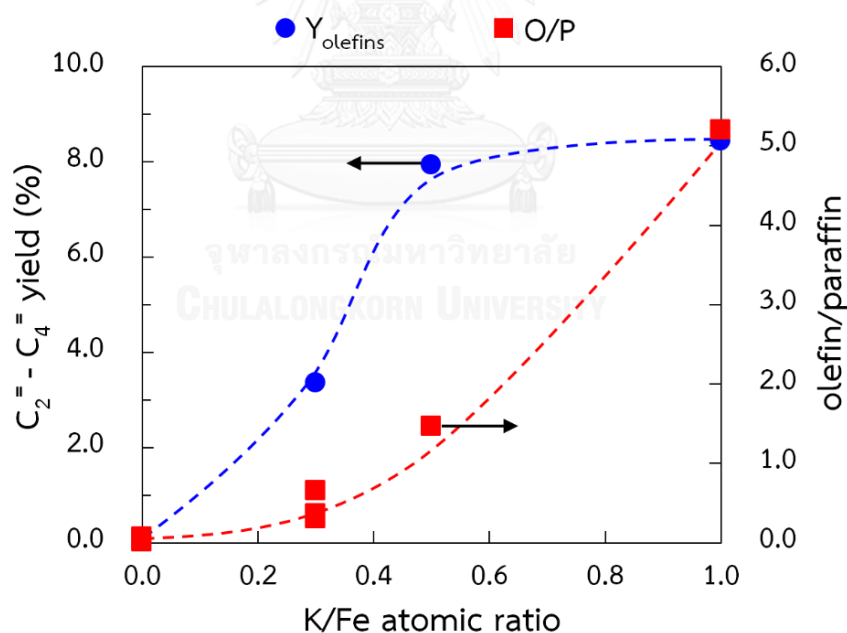


Figure 6.7 Effect of K/Fe atomic ratio (Y) on $\text{C}_2 - \text{C}_4$ olefin yield and O/P ratio from CO_2 hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts [115].

Table 6.1 Physical properties and CO₂ hydrogenation activities and selectivity of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ and the catalysts from previous works.

Catalyst	SA (m ² g ⁻¹)	PV (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	D _p (nm)	CO ₂ conv. (%)	Selectivity (% carbon based)			C ₂ ⁻ - C ₄ ⁻ yield (%)
					CH ₄	C ₂ ⁺ e)	CO	
K/Al ₂ O ₃	109	0.78	23	-	-	-	-	-
Fe-Co/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{a), b)}	138	0.72	18	25	44	43	13	0
Fe-Co/K(0.3)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{a), b)}	127	0.66	17	34	25	64	12	3
Fe-Co/K(0.5)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{a)}	114	0.58	17	34	19	68	13	7
Fe-Co/K(1.0)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{a)}	82	0.59	22	31	13	69	18	7
Fe17 Mn12 K8/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{b), c)}	N/A	N/A	N/A	19	7	69	18	4
Fe/HY ^{d)}	N/A	N/A	N/A	10	44	43	50	0
Fe/KY ^{d)}	N/A	N/A	N/A	18	8	17	39	4
Fe-Ce/HY ^{d)}	N/A	N/A	N/A	12	49	60	32	1
Fe-Ce/KY ^{d)}	N/A	N/A	N/A	20	6	20	31	5

a) From ref. [115]

b) From ref. [133]

c) Same composition and preparation procedure as [20]

d) 2.02 g s mL⁻¹ (17 wt% metal loading) [128]

e) Including small amount of alcohols

CO₂ conversion and C₂-C₄ olefin yield of the K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst are also compared with those of the catalysts reported previously (Table 6.1). A K-promoted Fe-Mn/Al₂O₃ catalyst was prepared according to the literature [20], and tested at hydrogenation condition of 573 K and 1.1 MPa. This table demonstrates that at the same reaction condition, Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst with K/Fe of 0.5 and 1.0 exhibited higher CO₂ conversion and light olefin yield than the promising Fe-based catalysts such as Y-zeolite supported Fe-Ce [128] and K-promoted Fe-Mn/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

6.4 Physical Properties of Calcined Catalysts

The physical properties of calcined K-promoted Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalysts are provided in Table 6.1. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area (SA) and pore volume (PV) of the calcined catalysts decreased with increasing K content, while average pore diameter (D_p) barely changed. From the physical properties of the calcined K-promoted catalysts, some portions of alumina micropores were covered by potassium oxides, leading to the decrease in SA and PV of the support [19,121].

6.5 H₂ Adsorption Properties of K-Promoted Fe-Co Catalysts

6.5.1 H₂-TPD Profiles of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ Catalysts

The hydrogen adsorption states on the Al₂O₃ supported K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts were studied by H₂-TPD (the Al₂O₃ support and K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ were also analyzed as references), the TPD profiles are illustrated in Figure 6.8. The H₂ desorption from the reduced Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ (Y = 0) catalyst mainly occurred at 360, 565 (weakly adsorbed H₂) and 770 K (moderately adsorbed H₂) with a small desorption peak at 980 K (broken line, — — —). The weakly adsorbed H₂ on the Fe-containing catalysts was originated from atomic hydrogen adsorbed on the metal surface, while the moderately adsorbed H₂ was originated from hydrogen adsorbed on the Fe⁰ or alloy surface in intimate contact with unreduced metal oxide [153,154,156]. The H₂ desorption at higher temperature (980 K) might be originated from H₂ that had spilt-over from metal onto the support surface rather than the surface hydroxyl groups on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface, since no H₂ desorption peak was observed from the H₂-TPD profile of γ -Al₂O₃ support.

The addition of a small amount of K (Y = 0.3) to Fe-Co catalysts suppressed the H₂ desorption especially the weakly adsorbed H₂, without changing the TPD profile. However, further increasing K content (Y = 1.0) (solid line) affected the TPD profile, where the peak intensity at 640 K increased. This peak would be ascribed to the desorption of hydrogen on K oxides or decomposition of KAlH₄ species [20], corresponding to the weak desorption peak observed at 650 K in the TPD profile of K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ (Figure 6.8).

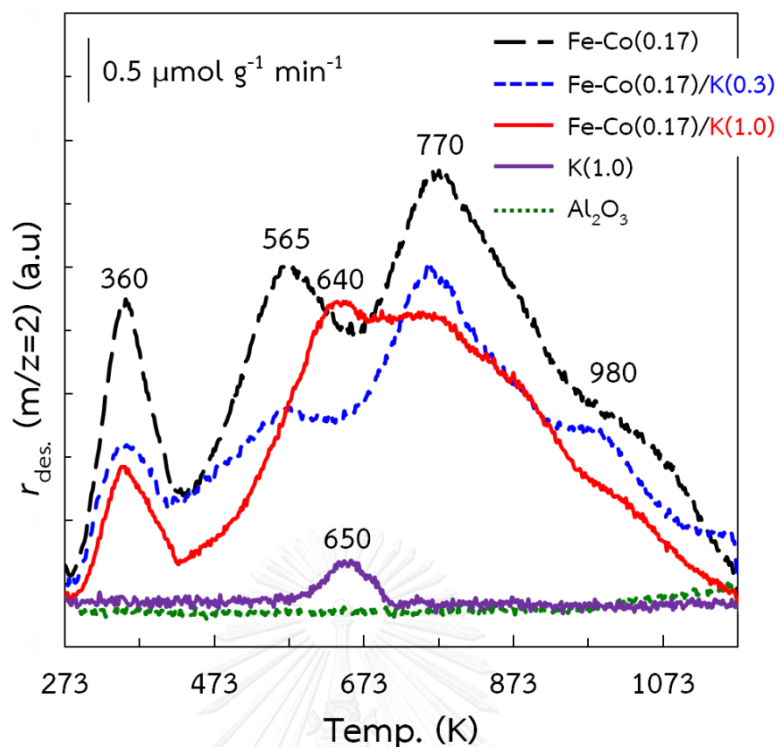


Figure 6.8 Effect of K/Fe atomic ratio (Y) on the H_2 -TPD profiles of fresh Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts.

6.5.2 Deconvolution Analysis of the H_2 -TPD Profiles

To investigate the effect of K content on the change in the adsorption properties of H_2 quantitatively, the overlapped peaks in the H_2 -TPD profiles of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts were deconvoluted using Gaussian functions. The quantities of different types of adsorbed hydrogen were achieved by integrating these Gaussian peaks, and presented in Table 6.2. Figure 6.9 also illustrates the deconvolution result of the reduced Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/ Al_2O_3 catalyst as a representative example. The curve created from the summation of the Gaussian peaks fitted very well with the experimental data. These Gaussian peaks are then denoted as type I - IV from low to high temperature, representing the different adsorption states of hydrogen on the catalyst surface. The addition of small amount of K (K/Fe = 0.3) clearly decreased the amount of type (I + II) H_2 (weakly adsorbed H_2 , desorbed below 600 K) from 80 to 60 $\mu\text{mol g-cat}^{-1}$, but further increase in the K/Fe

atomic ratio did not make significant change. Since type (I + II) H_2 originates from atomic hydrogen adsorbed on the metal surface, the deconvolution results indicate the coverage of the metal surface with K oxide species, as suggested for Fe catalysts [120], resulting in a decrease of weakly adsorbed H_2 (Figure 6.10a and 6.10b). The amount of type III H_2 (moderately adsorbed H_2 , desorbed at 700 - 800 K) changed in a similar manner to the type (I+II) H_2 . This is probably due to that some parts of the interface between reduced and unreduced metal oxides (origin of type III H_2) were also covered by K (Figure 6.10a and 6.10b). According to the H_2 -TPD results in section 6.5.1, a small contribution of hydrogen from K oxide was observed in the TPD profile of $K(1.0)/Al_2O_3$, and denoted as type II' H_2 . This peak could be ascribed to the desorption of hydrogen on K oxides or the decomposition of $KAlH_4$ species [20], but the amount of hydrogen desorbed in this temperature range was small compared to others (Figure 6.10c).

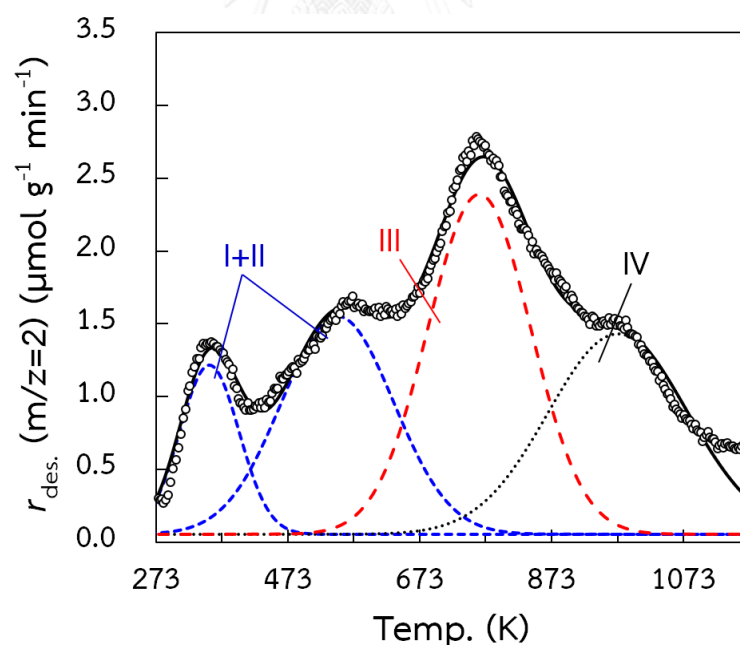


Figure 6.9 Deconvolution of the H_2 -TPD profiles of the reduced $Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al_2O_3$ catalyst. (oooo) measured TPD profile, (-----) deconvoluted peaks, (—) summation of the deconvoluted peaks (I-IV).

Table 6.2 Amount of adsorbed H₂ species over fresh Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

Catalyst	Amount of adsorbed H ₂ / $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{cat}^{-1}$					
	Type I	Type II	Type II'	Type III	Type IV	Type (I + II)
Al ₂ O ₃ ^{a)}	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fe-Co(0.17)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{b)}	27.2	52.4	0.0	90.3	38.5	79.6
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{b)}	19.4	40.9	0.0	55.9	46.1	60.3
Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{b)}	16.9	41.8	8.6	52.8	37.0	58.7
K(1.0)/Al ₂ O ₃ ^{b)}	0	0	8.7	0	0	0

a) Reduction at 673 K for 2 h

b) Reduction at 673 K for 2 h and H₂ adsorption at 573 K (5 K min⁻¹)

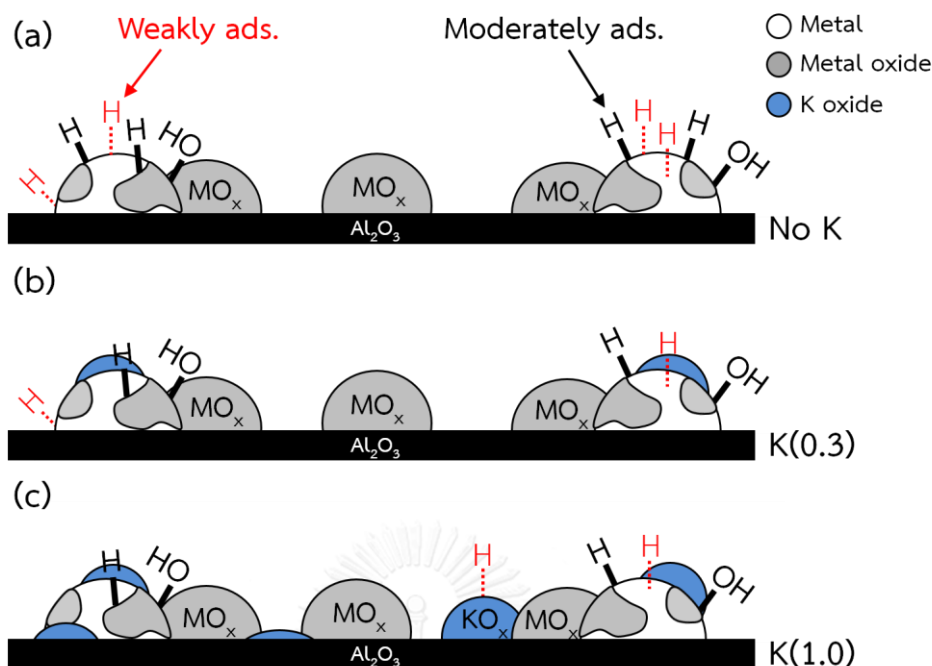


Figure 6.10 Schematic illustration of the proposed model for the adsorption states of hydrogen on the Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalysts (a) without K, (b) with K/Fe = 0.3 and (c) K/Fe = 1.0 atomic ratio.

6.6 CO₂ Adsorption Properties of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ Catalysts

The effect of K addition on the CO₂ adsorption properties of reduced Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts was studied by CO₂-TPD and the TPD profiles are shown in Figure 6.11. The γ -Al₂O₃ support was used as a reference, where CO₂ desorption was mainly occurred at 350 K (formation of bicarbonate species on a partially hydrated Al₂O₃ surface [150]). For the reduced Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalysts (Y = 0) (broken line, — — —), CO₂ desorption was observed at 350 and 530 K, which mainly originated from bicarbonate and carbonate species formed on the γ -Al₂O₃ surface. The amount of desorbed CO₂ at 350 K drastically increased by the addition of a small amount of K (Y = 0.3). The CO₂-TPD profile significantly changed with further increase in K content (Y = 1.0). The weakly adsorbed CO₂ (desorbed at 350 K) was suppressed, while two desorption peaks at 630 and 880 were clearly observed (solid line). The desorption peaks at 630 and 880 K might be originated from a bidentate carbonate species and adsorbed CO₂ on potassium ferrite (K₂Fe₂O₄), respectively [160-162].

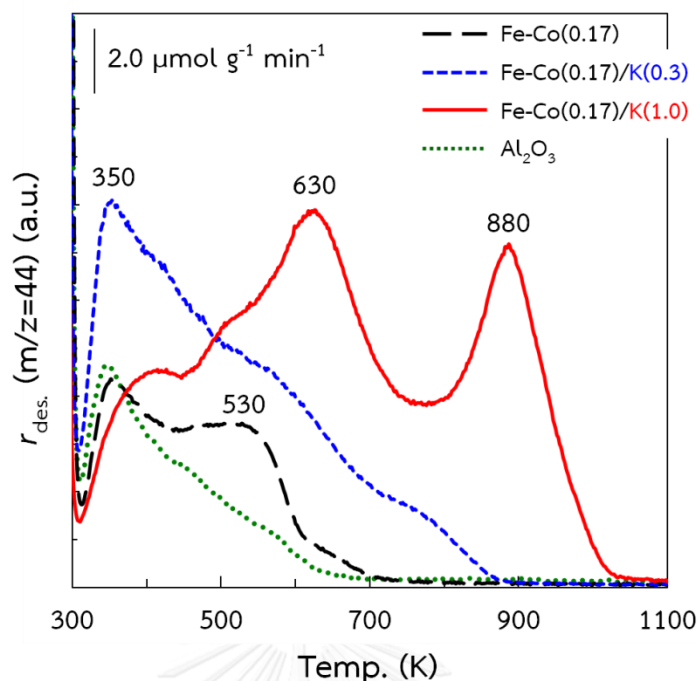


Figure 6.11 Effect of K/Fe atomic ratio (Y) on the CO₂-TPD profiles of fresh Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

6.7 Surface Adsorbed Species on the Spent Catalysts

The surface adsorbed species on Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/Al₂O₃ catalysts formed during CO₂ hydrogenation were studied by diffuse reflectance Infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) of the spent catalysts. After flushing the DRIFTS cell with N₂ at ambient temperature for 1 h, DRIFT spectrum were recorded, four major IR bands at 1580, 1460, 1410 and 1330 cm⁻¹ were observed on all catalysts (Figure 6.12a). These bands at 1580, 1410 and 1330 cm⁻¹ were ascribed to the $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{as}}$, $\delta(\text{CH})$ and $\nu(\text{OCO})_{\text{s}}$ vibrational bands of adsorbed formate species, respectively [34-36]. Weak IR bands at 1460 cm⁻¹ showed the presence of adsorbed hydrocarbon species [38, 39]. The intensity of these IR bands significantly increased with increasing K content, suggesting more C₂⁺ hydrocarbons were formed on K-promoted catalysts.

The spent catalysts were then reduced under flowing H_2 followed by flushing with N_2 and the DRIFT spectra were then recorded under N_2 flow. The DRIFT spectra revealed that, after H_2 reduction, the intensities of the IR bands of adsorbed formate species were slightly decreased, while the change of adsorbed hydrocarbon species was negligible (Figure 6.12b). DRIFTS analysis of the spent catalysts revealed that the adsorbed formate species were formed on all Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts during CO_2 hydrogenation, and K could facilitate the adsorption of these formate intermediate species.

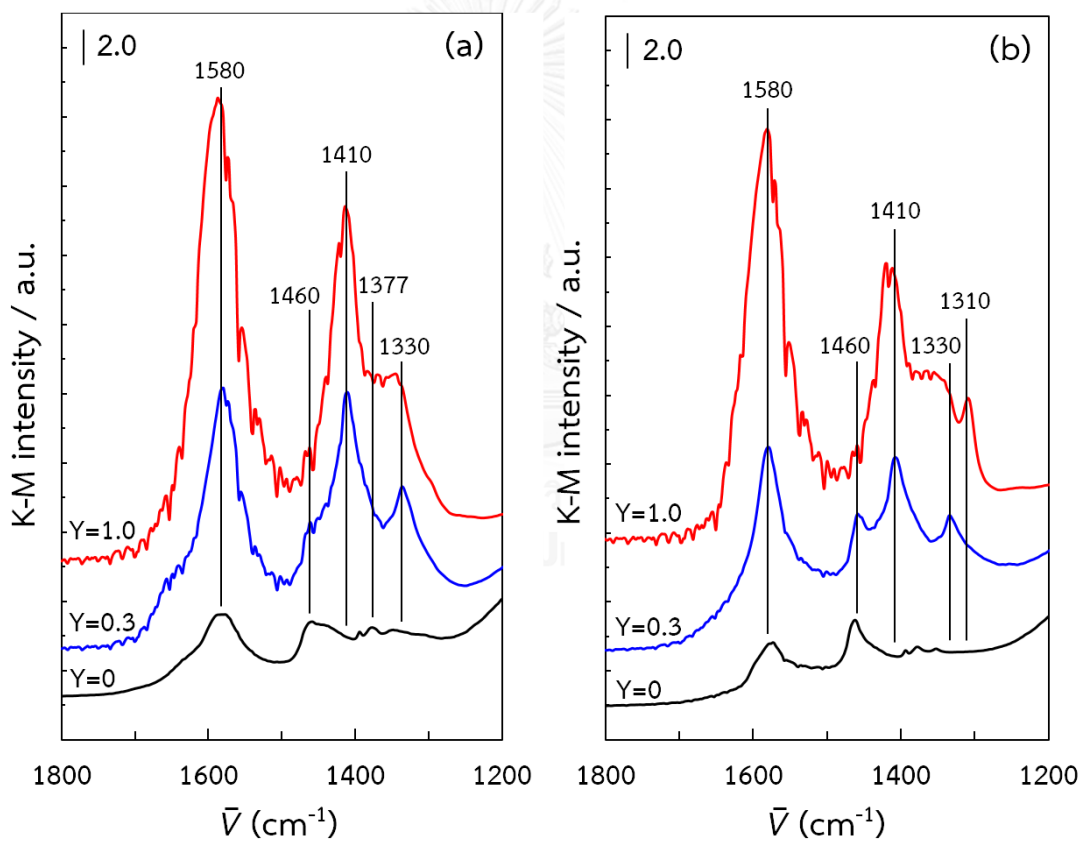


Figure 6.12 DRIFT spectra of the surface adsorbed species on spent Fe-Co(0.17)/K(Y)/ Al_2O_3 catalysts after (a) N_2 purge at 298 K for 1 h and then (b) followed by H_2 reduction at 573 K for 2 h.

6.8 Effects of H₂ and CO₂ Adsorption Properties on CO₂ Hydrogenation Activity

As discussed in section 6.3, the K addition resulted in a significant increase in light olefin (C₂-C₄) selectivity, at the expense of light paraffin selectivity. Moreover, CH₄ selectivity drastically decreased with K content, while C₅⁺ hydrocarbon notably increased. These results could be explained by changes of H₂ and CO₂ adsorption properties of catalysts with the K content. According to the H₂-TPD results (section 6.5, Figure 6.8), increasing K content of catalyst resulted in the decrease in the amount of weakly adsorbed H₂ (type I + II), which was important for further hydrogenation of produced olefins and CH₄ formation [19,119-123]. From CO₂-TPD results, the CO₂ adsorption drastically increased with K content (section 6.6, Figure 6.11), providing more chances of C-C bond formation. These changes in H₂ and CO₂ adsorption properties of these catalysts resulted in an increase in light olefin and C₅⁺ hydrocarbons selectivity. CO selectivity also slightly increased with K/Fe atomic ratio due to that K could promote the RWGS activity of the catalysts by providing the additional active sites to generate the formate species (intermediate species of RWGS reaction). This reason was in accordance with the DRIFTS results that the adsorbed formate species increased with K content (section 6.7, Figure 6.12) [35].

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Conclusions

(i) Comparative Study of Fe-based Bimetallic Catalysts for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons

The effect of combining Fe and the second transition metals such as Co, Ni, Cu, Pd on the CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity of Al₂O₃-supported catalysts for higher hydrocarbon synthesis was studied at 573 K and 1.1 MPa. The monometallic catalysts were also prepared and studied under the same reaction condition as references. Among the monometallic catalysts studied in this work, only Fe catalyst could synthesize C₂⁺ hydrocarbons, while Ni and Co catalysts selectively yielded CH₄ as a product. CO₂ conversion on Ni catalyst was closed to an equilibrium CO₂ conversion (ca. 74%) at this reaction condition, which made this catalyst suitable for synthesizing the synthetic natural gas via hydrogenation of CO₂.

The combination of Fe and a small amount of each of the second transition metals (Co, Cu, Pd; X = 0.1 atom atom⁻¹) resulted in a notable enhancement of higher hydrocarbon formation from CO₂ hydrogenation, where Fe-Cu catalyst (without K) exhibited highest C₂⁺ hydrocarbon yields. Though the combination of Fe and Ni at X = 0.1 atom atom⁻¹ provided the strongest enhancement of CO₂ conversion but this catalyst yielded CH₄ selectively. Much lower Ni content was required for promoting the higher hydrocarbon formation compared to others, due to the strong hydrogenating ability of Ni. These results indicate an importance of tailoring the adsorption properties of hydrogen and carbon species for facilitating higher hydrocarbon formation from CO₂ hydrogenation. The results also show that K was an effective promoter for both Fe-Co and Fe-Cu bimetallic catalysts, where K-promoted Fe-Co(0.1) catalysts exhibited highest C₂⁺ hydrocarbon yields.

(ii) CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons over Fe-Co Bimetallic Catalysts

The effects of Co content in the Al₂O₃-supported Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts on the CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity were investigated. A strong bimetallic promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation from CO₂ hydrogenation was obtained by combining Fe and a small amount of Co. The results show that the space-time yield (STY) of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons approached the maximum at the Co/(Co + Fe) ~ 0.17 atom atom⁻¹, while the STY of CH₄ increased almost linearly with increasing the Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratio up to 0.50. It is also worth noting that the maximum STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons is notably higher than the simple summation of those over the monometallic Fe/Al₂O₃ and Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts, indicating a significant bimetallic promotion of CO₂ hydrogenation to C₂⁺ hydrocarbons by combining Fe and a small amount of Co.

The addition of K to Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts further enhance CO₂ conversion and the STY of C₂-C₇ hydrocarbons, while it suppressed CH₄ formation. The olefin content in the product also increased with the K content, and olefins predominated in the higher hydrocarbons when the catalysts contained large amount of K (K/Fe ≥ 0.5 atom atom⁻¹). The liquid product containing linear alpha olefins as a main products with carbon numbers up to 27 was successfully synthesized from CO₂ hydrogenation using the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst with high K/Fe atomic ratio (1.0 atom atom⁻¹).

The K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with desired compositions also show significant advantages in higher hydrocarbons synthesis over the K-promoted Fe/Al₂O₃ and Fe-Mn/Al₂O₃ catalysts with higher Fe loadings under the same reaction conditions. These results are important for developing the new catalysts and fundamental understanding of the mechanism involved in activation of CO₂ and H₂ towards carbon – carbon bond formation for higher hydrocarbons synthesis.

(iii) H₂ and CO₂ Adsorption Properties of Fe-Co Bimetallic Catalysts and Their Activities for CO₂ Hydrogenation to higher Hydrocarbons

Physicochemical properties of the Al₂O₃-supported Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts with various Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios were studied to develop a fundamental understanding of the bimetallic promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation from CO₂ hydrogenation. The temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) results showed that the TPR profile of Fe/Al₂O₃ catalyst was clearly changed by combining Fe with Co. The degree of reduction of the supported metal oxides also increased with the Co content, which possibly due to the formation of Fe-Co alloy.

The surface species formed during CO₂ hydrogenation were studied by the diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS). The results indicated that the adsorbed bicarbonate and formate species were formed on both the Fe-Co and Co catalysts during CO₂ hydrogenation, but the adsorbed formate species on the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst had much higher stability than those on the Co catalyst.

The temperature-programmed desorption of H₂ (H₂-TPD) revealed that the moderately adsorbed H₂ (type (III) H₂) was the major adsorbed species on the Fe and Fe-rich Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts. This moderately adsorbed H₂ could hydrogenate the C₁ monomer relatively slow, resulting in a higher chance for carbon-carbon bonds of hydrocarbons to be formed. The amount of this type III H₂ was increased by the combination of Fe and a small amount of Co, leading to the bimetallic promotion of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons formation. H₂-TPD analysis also suggested a crucial role of the weakly adsorbed H₂ in the selective CH₄ formation on catalysts with high Co/(Co + Fe) atomic ratios (≥ 0.5). In contrast to the H₂-TPD profiles, there was no significant difference in the CO₂-TPD profiles of the Fe, Fe-Co and Co catalysts. These results imply the importance of governing the H₂ adsorption states for improving the formation of C₂⁺ hydrocarbons and suppressing the undesirable formation of CH₄.

(iv) Light Olefin Synthesis from CO₂ Hydrogenation over K-Promoted Fe-Co Bimetallic Catalysts

K-promoted Fe, Co and Fe-Co catalysts were tested for CO₂ hydrogenation at 573 K and 1.1 MPa over wide range of W/F in order to investigate the pathway for olefin formation from CO₂ hydrogenation. K-promoted Co/Al₂O₃ exhibited highest CO₂ conversion followed by Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ and Fe/Al₂O₃ catalysts, respectively. For all catalysts, CO mainly formed as a primary product from CO₂ hydrogenation via reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction, and the produced CO was then hydrogenated to light olefins and paraffins simultaneously via Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (FTS). Some of these olefins could be further hydrogenated to paraffins, depending on the concentration of chemisorbed hydrogen on the catalyst surface. Although Fe-Co catalyst showed higher activity than Fe catalyst, but the changes of CO and hydrocarbon selectivity of both catalysts were almost similar, suggests that the addition of small amount of Co increased both RWGS reaction and FTS activities at a similar degree, resulting in an enhancement of CO₂ conversion without changing selectivity of the product.

The K-promoted Fe-Co(0.17)/Al₂O₃ catalysts with various potassium content (K/Fe = 0 - 1 atom atom⁻¹) were also tested for the CO₂ hydrogenation. The highly alkali Fe-Co catalyst (K/Fe = 1 atom atom⁻¹) was an effective catalyst for synthesizing light olefins from CO₂ hydrogenation. By increasing the K/Fe atomic ratio, the amount of weakly adsorbed H₂ decreased, while it increased CO₂ adsorption, which lowered the possibility for hydrogenation of the produced olefins. Moreover, at the same reaction condition, Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalyst also showed higher CO₂ conversion and light olefin yield than the K-promoted Fe-Ce and Fe-Mn/Al₂O₃, known as promising catalysts for olefin production from CO₂ hydrogenation.

7.2 Recommendations

In this work, the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst exhibited promising CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons. A further study of catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons over Fe-Co bimetallic catalysts should be concerned with the following aspects:

1. This research revealed that Fe-Co bimetallic promotion was closely related to the perimeter sites between small metal particles and unreduced metal oxide species, depending on the dispersion and reducibility of active metals. Many literatures reported that type of support materials played a critical role on them. Therefore, the effects of support materials for the Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst on the CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons are of particular interest, especially carbon-based support that have a weak interaction with Fe and Co.
2. This work reveals that CO₂ hydrogenation to higher hydrocarbons over K-promoted Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst occurred via a two-step reaction, namely RWGS reaction and FTS. Since water is formed from both reactions, the equilibrium of these reactions could be shifted to the right by removing the produced water from the catalyst. Therefore, the modification of the catalysts for improving the hydrophobicity and the influence of the hydrophobicity on CO₂ hydrogenation activity and selectivity to higher hydrocarbons would be further studied.
3. The source of CO₂ in this work was a gas mixture containing 24 vol% CO₂/ 72 vol% H₂/ 4 vol% Ar. However, the flue gas from industry usually consists of other gases in addition to CO₂ such as N₂, CO and H₂O. To study the application of Fe-Co bimetallic catalyst for the direct hydrogenation of the CO₂ in the flue gas, CO₂ hydrogenation using the feed gas containing impurity close to the flue gas composition should be investigated.

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APPENDIX A

Gas Product Analysis

The gas products including Ar, CO, CH₄ and CO₂ were analyzed online with an Agilent 3000 micro GC with molecular sieve type column for Ar, CO, CH₄ and Plot-Q column for CO₂, respectively. The GC condition and temperature program used for the analyses are described in Table A-1.

Table A-1 Condition and temperature program for micro GC analysis.

Parameters	Molecular Sieve	Plot Q
Carrier gas	Helium	Helium
Internal standard	Argon	Argon
Injector temperature (°C)	100	100
Column temperature (°C)	60	70
Column pressure (psi)	20	20
Sample pump (s)	10	10
Injection time (ms)	100	100
Run time (s)	300	600

The gas-phase hydrocarbon products were analyzed online with SRI 8610C GC equipped with FID with Porapak Q column. The GC-FID condition and temperature program used for the analyses are described in Table A-2.

Table A-2 Condition and temperature program for GC-FID analysis.

Parameters	Value
Carrier gas	Helium
Injector temperature (°C)	165
Detector temperature (°C)	250
Injection volume (ml)	3
Oven temperature program	
Initial temperature (°C)	40
Hold time (min)	0
Ramp rate (°C min ⁻¹)	5
Final temperature (°C)	100
Hold time (min)	0
Ramp rate (°C min ⁻¹)	2.5
Final temperature (°C)	200
Hold time (min)	0

APPENDIX B

Liquid Hydrocarbon Product Analysis

The liquid hydrocarbons collected in an ice cooled condenser connected to the reactor were analyzed after the reaction with the GC/MS (Shimadzu, QP-5000) with a capillary column Rxi[®]-5HT (Crossbond[®] 5% diphenyl/95% dimethyl polysiloxane, 30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.25 μ m film thickness). The conditions and temperature program for GC/MS are described in Table B-1.

Table B-1 Condition and temperature program for GC/MS analysis.

Parameters	Value
Carrier gas	Helium
Column inlet pressure (kPa)	23
Column flow (mL min ⁻¹)	0.7
Linear velocity (cm/s)	30.1
Split mode injector	20:1
Total flow (mL min ⁻¹)	15.2
Carrier gas flow rate (mL min ⁻¹)	15.2
Injector temperature (°C)	290
Detector temperature (°C)	270
Injection volume (μ l)	1
Oven temperature program	
Initial temperature (°C)	35
Hold time (min)	10
Ramp rate (°C min ⁻¹)	5
Final temperature (°C)	120
Hold time (min)	2
Ramp rate (°C min ⁻¹)	4
Final temperature (°C)	250
Hold time (min)	5

APPENDIX C

Calculation of CO₂ Conversion and Product Selectivity

The CO₂ hydrogenation activity of the catalysts was obtained from GC-TCD analyses (using Ar as an internal standard) and expressed in terms of mole percent conversion of CO₂. Calculation procedures are as follow:

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ conversion (\%)} = \left[1 - \frac{(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{out}}}{(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{in}}} \right] \times 100 \quad (\text{C-1})$$

where $(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{in}}$ = ratio of CO₂ and Ar concentration at the reactor inlet
 $(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{out}}$ = ratio of CO₂ and Ar concentration in the reactor outlet

Example: CO₂ conversion of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst

From Table C-1: at 14 hour-on-stream; Ar area = 504973, CO₂ area = 1028280

$$(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{out}} = 1028280 / 504973 = 2.036$$

$(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{in}}$ can be calculated from the ratio of CO₂ area to Ar area measured at 1.1 MPa (ambient temperature) before CO₂ hydrogenation (Ar area = 369282, CO₂ area = 1132650).

$$(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{in}} = 1132650 / 369282 = 3.066$$

$$\text{So, CO}_2 \text{ conversion} = [1 - (2.036 / 3.066)] \times 100 = 33.7 \% \quad \#$$

Table C-1 GC-TCD data from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

TOS (h)	Area			
	Ar	CH ₄	CO	CO ₂
0.0	448899	100325	102612	1077560
0.5	471267	109438	105812	1050630
1.0	495160	142746	108132	1044700
1.5	502928	162382	107626	1038550
2.0	512811	177874	108887	1036820
2.5	518296	187671	110158	1033010
3.0	516845	192953	110234	1032550
3.5	519034	198416	111366	1036760
4.0	522517	203094	112808	1036390
4.5	523278	206813	113502	1037710
5.0	519511	208529	113225	1036500
5.5	525251	213905	115112	1038390
6.0	516862	212864	114085	1036950
6.5	519284	215969	115501	1039200
7.0	519891	218100	116643	1038800
7.5	519390	219536	117593	1038230
8.0	517928	220546	118243	1038940
8.5	519239	222734	119556	1037320
9.0	512978	221247	119069	1039340
9.5	508606	220556	119016	1036640
10.0	512701	223590	120991	1038510
10.5	510418	223783	121279	1037020
11.0	508096	223792	121722	1037320
11.5	512408	226817	123656	1037030
12.0	512041	227323	124443	1037280
12.5	507504	225976	124195	1035590
13.0	506961	226872	124902	1036890
13.5	506919	227189	125831	1032900
14.0	504973	226332	126794	1028280
14.5	503044	225242	127664	1030750
15.0	503686	225511	129010	1031980

The product space-time yield (STY) was expressed in mole of product per weight of the catalyst per reaction time ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) and calculated as followed.

CH₄ STY of Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst:

Feed gas flow rate (24% CO₂/ 72% H₂/ 4% Ar) = 12 mL(STP) min⁻¹

Catalysts weight = 0.202 g

Gas constant = 0.082 L atm K⁻¹ mol⁻¹

First the CO₂ flow rate is calculated;

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CO}_2 \text{ flow rate} &= \left[\frac{\text{Feed gas flow rate (mL(STP) min}^{-1}) \times 0.001}{0.082} \div \right. \\ &273.15 \quad \left. \times 60 \right] / \left(\frac{\text{Catalysts weight (g)}}{1000} \right) \times 0.24 \\ &= \left[\frac{12 \times 0.001}{0.082} \div \frac{273.15 \times 60}{1000} \right] \times 0.24 \\ &= 38.19 \text{ mol kg-cat}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1} \quad \# \end{aligned}$$

To calculate the STY, calibration data of Ar, CH₄ and CO₂ for GC-TCD are needed. By plotting between gas concentration (y-axis) and area of the peak (x-axis) so we can get the slopes which will be used for qualitative calculation. From the calibration curve of Ar, CH₄ and CO₂ (not shown here), the slopes are listed below:

$$\text{Slope of Ar curve} = 1.51014\text{E-}05$$

$$\text{Slope of CH}_4 \text{ curve} = 1.40412\text{E-}05$$

$$\text{Slope of CO}_2 \text{ curve} = 2.3076\text{E-}05$$

From Table C-1 at 14 hour-on-stream; Ar area = 504973, CH₄ area = 226332

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CH}_4 \text{ STY} &= \frac{\text{CO}_2 \text{ flow rate} \times (\text{CH}_4 \text{ area} \times \text{Slope of CH}_4 \text{ curve})}{(\text{Ar area} \times \\ &\text{Slope of Ar curve}) \div \left[\frac{(\text{CO}_2/\text{Ar})_{\text{in}} \times (\text{Slope of CO}_2 \text{ curve}/\text{Slope of Ar} \right. \\ &\left. \text{curve}) \right]} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 38.19 \times (226332 \times 1.40412\text{E-}05) / (504973 \times 1.51014\text{E-}05) / [3.066 \\ &\times (2.3076\text{E-}05/1.51014\text{E-}05)] \end{aligned}$$

$$= 3.397 \text{ mol kg-cat}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$$

$$= 0.944 \mu\text{mol g-cat}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \quad \#$$

The gaseous hydrocarbons were analyzed online by GC-FID. The selectivity of these gaseous hydrocarbons ($C_1 - C_7$) was expressed in carbon mole percent (%) and calculated as followed.

$$S_i = \left(\frac{C_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n C_i} \right) \times 100 \quad (\text{C-2})$$

where S_i = percent selectivity of hydrocarbon product i
 C_i = concentration of hydrocarbon product i
 n = number of hydrocarbon product from the reaction

Hydrocarbon selectivity of Fe/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst:

From Table C-2: Total area of C_1 to C_7 = 2330.8595

So, CH_4 selectivity = (Area of CH_4 / Total area) x 100
 = (665.6935 / 2330.8595) x 100
 = 29 C-mole% #

C_2 - C_7 selectivity = 100 - CH_4 selectivity
 = 100 - 29 = 71 C-mole% #

Table C-2 GC-FID data from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe/K(0.3)/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

Component	Retention time (min)	Area
CH ₄	1.550	665.6935
C ₂ H ₄	4.833	106.6960
C ₂ H ₆	6.000	251.5145
C ₃ H ₆	11.850	347.9135
C ₃ H ₈	12.416	110.3610
C ₄ H ₈	19.416	115.1270
C ₄ H ₁₀	20.383	201.2585
C ₅ H ₁₀	28.366	51.5790
C ₅ H ₁₂	29.183	170.4795
C ₆ H ₁₄	37.600	132.6405
C ₇ H ₁₆	45.416	177.5965

APPENDIX D

Calculation of Chain Growth Probability

Since CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-based catalysts mostly proceeds via reverse water-gas shift reaction followed by Fischer-Tropsch synthesis, so the hydrocarbon product distribution generally follows an Anderson-Schulz-Flory distribution, where the hydrocarbon chain is formed step-wise by insertion of C₁ intermediates with constant growth probability (α). The Anderson-Schulz-Flory distribution can be expressed as the following equation.

$$W_N = N (1 - \alpha)^2 \alpha^{N-1} \quad (D-1)$$

$$\frac{W_N}{N} = \frac{(1 - \alpha)^2}{\alpha} \alpha^N \quad (D-2)$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{W_N}{N} \right) = \ln \left[\frac{(1 - \alpha)^2}{\alpha} \right] + N \ln \alpha \quad (D-3)$$

where W_N = carbon weight fraction of hydrocarbon containing N carbon
 N = carbon number
 α = chain growth probability

The chain growth probability (α) can be calculated from the slope of the plot between the carbon number (N) and natural logarithm of hydrocarbon weight fraction to carbon number ratio ($\ln(W_N/N)$) or natural logarithm of the carbon mole fraction of hydrocarbon containing N carbon ($\ln M_N$).

Example: Chain growth probability of gaseous product from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(1.0)/Al₂O₃ catalyst

Table D-1 GC-FID data from CO₂ hydrogenation over Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.5)/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

Component	Retention time (min)	Area
CH ₄	2.616	3767.6770
C ₂ H ₄	7.666	717.5785
C ₂ H ₆	8.833	1277.4875
C ₃ H ₆	12.966	1981.1635
C ₃ H ₈	N/A	497.0410
C ₄ H ₈	19.783	947.0330
C ₄ H ₁₀	20.650	711.8820
C ₅ H ₁₀	28.283	454.3990
C ₅ H ₁₂	29.116	388.7160
C ₆ H ₁₄	37.000	498.0670
C ₇ H ₁₆	44.933	387.6650

First calculate the area of each hydrocarbon containing N carbon,

$$\text{Area of C}_3 \text{ hydrocarbon} = 1981.1635 + 497.0410 = 2478.2045 \quad \#$$

Carbon number (N)	Area
1	3767.6770
2	1995.0660
3	2478.2045
4	1658.9150
5	843.1150
6	498.0670
7	387.6650

The carbon weight fraction of hydrocarbon containing N carbon (W_N) is then calculated by divided the area of each hydrocarbon containing N carbon with the total area.

$$\text{Total area} = 11628.7095$$

$$W_3 = 2478.2045 / 11628.7095 = 0.2131 \quad \#$$

Then, calculate $\ln(W_N/N)$ and plot with carbon number (N).

Carbon number (N)	W_N	W_N/N	$\ln(W_N/N)$
1	0.3240	0.3240	-1.1270
2	0.1716	0.0858	-2.4559
3	0.2131	0.0710	-2.6446
4	0.1427	0.0357	-3.3336
5	0.0725	0.0145	-4.2336
6	0.0428	0.0071	-4.9423
7	0.0333	0.0048	-5.3470
Total	1.0000		

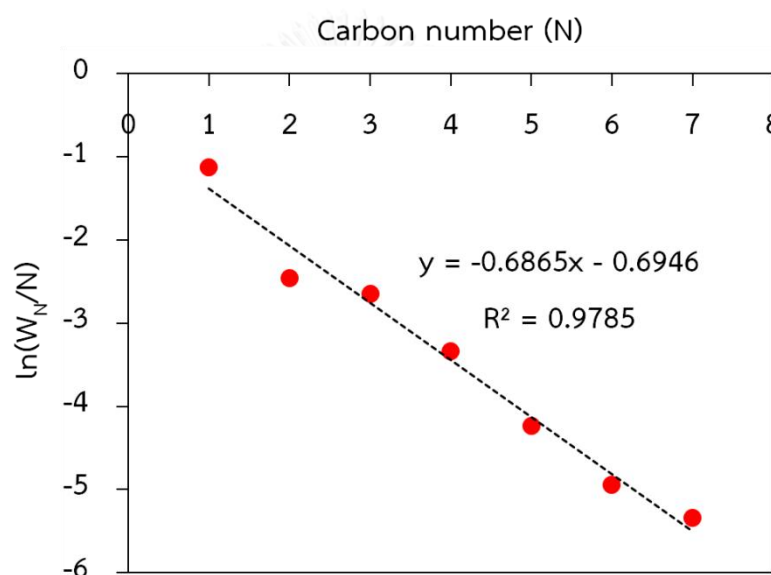


Figure D-1 ASF plot of the gaseous hydrocarbon products for the Fe-Co(0.17)/K(0.5)/Al₂O₃ catalysts.

According to Eq. D-3, the slope of Figure D-1 is $\ln(\alpha)$. Then, the chain growth probability (α) can be calculated.

$$\text{Slope} = \ln(\alpha) = -0.6865$$

$$\alpha = 0.50 \quad \#$$

APPENDIX E

Time-on-Stream Results from Hydrogenation using High Co-Containing Catalysts

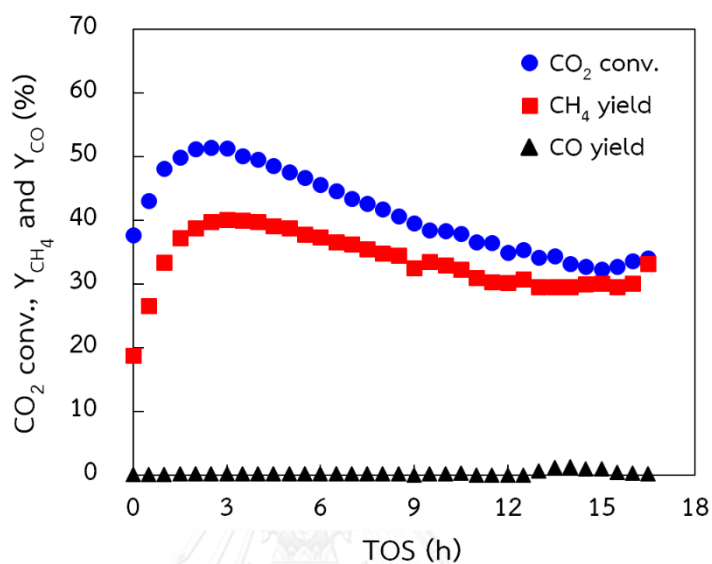


Figure E-1 Time-on-stream stabilities of CO₂ conversions and product yields over Fe-Co(0.50)/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

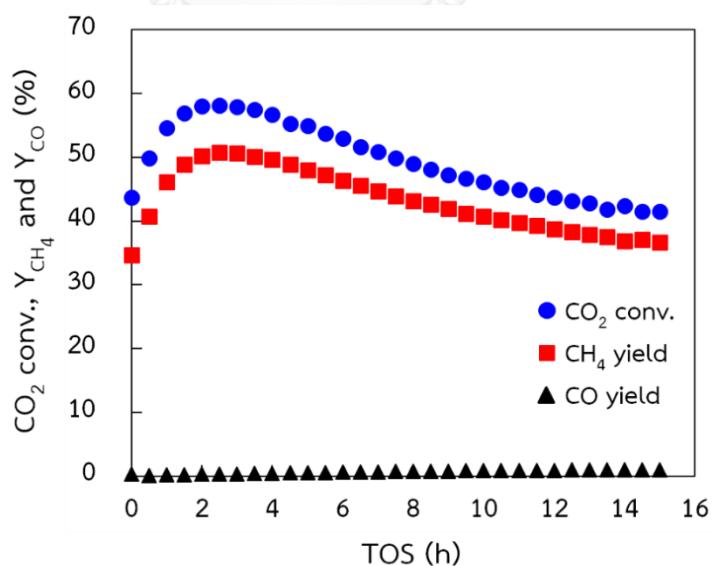


Figure E-2 Time-on-stream stabilities of CO₂ conversions and product yields over Co/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

VITA

Miss Ratchprapa Satthawong was born on November 1, 1987 in Bangkok, Thailand. She received her B.Sc. (Second class honors) degree from the Department of Chemical Technology, Chulalongkorn University in 2010. She continued studying for a Doctoral Degree in Chemical Technology, Chulalongkorn University. She has received the Royal Golden Jubilee Scholarship from Thailand Research Fund for her Ph.D. study. Ratchprapa also served as a teaching assistant for undergraduate courses “Chemical Engineering Thermodynamics”, “Process Dynamics and Control” and “Physicochemical Measurements II”. She carried out her Ph.D. research for two year (2012-2013) at Clean Fuel and Catalysis Program (CFCP) in the Energy Institute of the Pennsylvania State University (PSU), Pennsylvania, USA.

Journal Publication:

1. Satthawong, R., Koizumi, N., Song, C., and Prasassarakich, P. Bimetallic Fe-Co Catalysts for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* 3-4 (2013) 102-106.
2. Satthawong, R., Koizumi, N., Song, C., and Prasassarakich, P. Comparative Study on CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons over Fe-Based Bimetallic Catalysts. *Topics in Catalysis* 57 (2014) 588-594.
3. Satthawong, R., Koizumi, N., Song, C., and Prasassarakich, P. Light Olefin Synthesis from CO₂ Hydrogenation over K-Promoted Fe-Co Bimetallic Catalysts. Submitted to *Catalysis Today*.

Conference Presentation (Oral presentation):

1. “Novel Bimetallic Catalysts for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Olefin-Rich Higher Hydrocarbon”. ICCDU XII, Alexandria, VA, USA.
2. “Comparative Studies of Fe-Based Bimetallic Catalysts for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons”. 9thMPSGC, University of Malaya, Malaysia.
3. “Comparative studies of Fe-M (M; Co, Ni, Cu, Pd) Bimetallic Catalysts for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Higher Hydrocarbons”. RGJ-Ph.D Congress XV, Chonburi, Thailand.
4. “Light Olefins Synthesis from CO₂ Hydrogenation over K-Promoted Fe-Co Bimetallic Catalysts”. TOCAT7, Kyoto, Japan.

