

Reaction Pathways of Methanol Formation in CO₂ Hydrogenation over Pd-Based Catalysts

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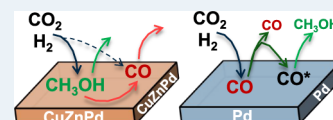


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ABSTRACT: The production of methanol (CH₃OH) from CO₂ is an attractive solution for closing the carbon cycle and thus addressing both environmental concerns and raw material changes in the chemical industry. CuZn-based catalysts are the most intensively investigated materials in this regard but suffer from CH₃OH decomposition to CO with increasing CO₂ conversion. Pd-containing materials also show promising performance, but they are less understood from a mechanistic point of view. To bridge this gap, a series of catalysts based on CeO₂, ZrO₂, Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, or CeO₂–SiO₂ supports with Pd or CuZnPd as active components were prepared. Comprehensive kinetic tests revealed that the catalysts containing only Pd species convert CO₂ to CO exclusively, followed by the hydrogenation of CO to CH₃OH. Using a feed consisting of CO and H₂, 100% CH₃OH selectivity was achieved. The role of Pd is to convert CO₂ to CO and to generate surface species from H₂, which are involved in the hydrogenation of CO to CH₃OH probably on the surface of support. In situ Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy tests have identified HCOO[−] species formed from gas-phase CO as surface precursors of CH₃OH. In contrast to the Pd/support catalysts, their CuZnPd/support counterparts convert CO₂ directly into CH₃OH in parallel with CO. These differences were explained by structural/electronic changes in Pd due to alloying with Cu as revealed by in situ X-ray photoelectron and X-ray absorption spectroscopy. Overall, this study enhances understanding of the mechanistic aspects of product formation in the course of CO₂ hydrogenation to CH₃OH and highlights the significance of steady-state catalytic tests at different space velocities to identify primary and secondary pathways, offering valuable insights for the tailored design of efficient catalysts for CH₃OH production from CO₂.



KEYWORDS: CO₂ hydrogenation, methanol synthesis, Pd catalysts, reaction mechanism, DRIFTS, XANES, kinetic analysis

1. INTRODUCTION

Growing concerns about carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions and their pivotal role in global climate change have intensified the search for sustainable approaches to mitigate the environmental impact of this greenhouse gas.^{1,2} Among various strategies, hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol has emerged as a particularly promising route.^{3–6} This chemical is used as a clean energy carrier, as a storage medium for hydrogen in a circular economy, and as a building block in many industrial processes.^{7–9} It is currently produced using synthesis gas, a mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen, generated by strongly endothermic steam reforming of methane resulting in high CO₂ emissions.^{9–11} CO₂ is added to the methanol synthesis feed to increase catalyst productivity.^{12–14} Copper-based catalysts are widely used for the production of methanol,^{15,16} with a mixed metal oxide CuZnAlO_x being the most common catalyst composition.^{17–19} However, it has shortcomings such as suboptimal methanol yield and significant activity for CO formation via the reverse water gas shift (RWGS) reaction and due to methanol decomposition to CO.^{18,20–22} Consequently, there has been considerable research aimed at modifying conventional CuZn-based catalysts by incorporating various metal oxides such as ZrO₂, CeO₂, and others.^{23–27} These promoters are

believed to modulate catalyst properties with the purpose of enhancing CO₂ adsorption by creating basic sites, improving the dispersion of surface Cu⁰ sites, or enhancing hydrothermal stability.^{16,17,28}

The catalytic activity of Cu-based catalysts can be further enhanced by promoting them with Pd.^{29,30} This promoter can effectively activate hydrogen³¹ and spillover adsorbed species to reduce CuO_x and to hinder reoxidation of the resulting Cu⁰ species.³² Jiang et al.³³ have reported on a strong synergistic effect between Pd and Cu on the rate of methanol formation over a Pd(0.34)-Cu/SiO₂ catalyst. The rate obtained was twice as high as the sum of the rates determined over the Cu- or Pd-containing counterparts. This effect was attributed to the formation of nanosized Pd–Cu alloy particles, which affect the formation of surface hydrogen species and their reactivity. Choi et al.³⁰ explained higher CO₂ conversion and methanol productivity over Pd-promoted Cu/CeO₂ catalysts compared

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to their Pd-free counterparts due to higher dispersion and surface concentration of Cu⁰.

Pd-based catalysts without Cu are also attractive for CO₂ hydrogenation due to their favorable activity and high selectivity to methanol.^{34–36} Fan et al. studied the unpromoted Pd/CeO₂ catalyst³⁷ at 230 °C and a total pressure of 30 bar. The methanol selectivity of 91.7% at 3.1% CO₂ conversion was obtained, and no catalyst deactivation was observed during 80 h on stream. Similar to Cu-based catalysts, the addition of ZnO or using ZnO as a support can enhance the activity and methanol selectivity of Pd-based catalysts. The improvement is typically related to the presence of a Pd–Zn alloy, which readily forms atomic hydrogen from gas-phase H₂ and shows high resistance to sintering.^{38–41} Bahruji et al.⁴² reported 60% methanol selectivity at 10.7% CO₂ conversion over Pd/ZnO catalysts at 250 °C and 20 bar. The formation of PdZn alloy nanoparticles with a specific particle size and surface structure was identified as the key factor affecting methanol production. Malik et al.⁴³ also concluded that the presence of well-dispersed and uniformly distributed nanoparticles of Pd or PdZn is crucial for methanol formation. A nearly 100% selectivity to methanol at 7.7% CO₂ conversion was achieved over the Ca-doped PdZn/CeO₂ catalyst at 220 °C and 30 bar.

It is also worth mentioning that Cu-based catalysts are able to decompose CH₃OH to CO and H₂ in the course of CO₂ hydrogenation.^{17,18,22,44} This is reflected by a decrease in CH₃OH selectivity and, conversely, an increase in CO selectivity as CO₂ conversion increases. In contrast, numerous Pd-based catalysts demonstrate high methanol selectivity at high degrees of CO₂ conversion.^{42,43} Is this due to a hindered activity of these materials to decompose methanol? Does the reaction scheme of product formation depend on the kind of active component, i.e., Cu, Pd or CuPd alloy? The answers to these questions would certainly contribute to targeted design of selective catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to CH₃OH.

Thus, the main objective of the present study was to elucidate the reaction pathway(s) leading to CO and CH₃OH in CO₂ hydrogenation over Pd-based catalysts in comparison to the CuZnO_x-containing catalysts. In pursuit of this goal, sophisticated kinetic tests were performed at different temperatures and contact times using reaction feeds with different ratios of CO/CO₂. The obtained selectivity-conversion relationships for CO and CH₃OH were used to determine primary and secondary reaction pathways and to understand their interplay. In situ DRIFTS experiments were instrumental in identifying the intermediates/adsorbed species responsible for product formation and thus distinguishing the differences between Pd/support and CuZnPd/support catalysts in terms of methanol formation. Using scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) coupled with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES), and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra enabled the elucidation of the morphology and distribution of the elements, as well as their oxidation and alloying states in the catalysts.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Catalyst Preparation. For the preparation of CeO₂, Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%) was pulverized and calcined at 400 °C with a heating rate of 5 K·min^{−1} for 4 h. For the synthesis of CeO₂–SiO₂ (30:70), the Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O was mixed with SiO₂ (Fluka, 99%) at room temperature. The resulting mixture was placed in a drying oven, heated to 150

°C with a heating rate of 2 K·min^{−1}, and stirred every 5 min for 1 h. This procedure was repeated until the cerium nitrate had melted and been absorbed by SiO₂. The temperature was then increased to 200 °C with a heating rate of 2 K·min^{−1} and held for 4 h. Finally, the precursor was calcined at 400 °C with a heating rate of 5 K·min^{−1} and held for another 4 h. The Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ support was synthesized by dissolving Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O and ZrO(NO₃)₂·xH₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, 99%) in water under continuous stirring. After complete dissolution, citric acid was added to the solution and the resulting support precursor was stirred at room temperature for 1 h. Subsequently, the solvent was removed at 40 °C using a rotary evaporator and the remaining material was dried at 80 °C overnight. The resulting dried precursor was further pulverized and calcined at 400 °C with a heating rate of 5 K·min^{−1} and held at this temperature for 4 h.

The supported Pd- or CuZnPd-containing catalysts based on the support materials CeO₂, Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, CeO₂–SiO₂ (30:70) and ZrO₂ (provided by Daiichi Kigenso Kagaku Kogyo Co. Ltd., Japan) were synthesized using the incipient wetness impregnation method. Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O (Roth, 98%), Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, 98%), and Pd(NO₃)₂·xH₂O (Alfa Aesar, 99.8%) were used as the sources of Cu, Zn, and Pd, respectively. Their corresponding content is 5, 2.5, and 1 wt %. For the synthesis of the CuZnPd/support catalysts, Cu(NO₃)₂·3H₂O, Zn(NO₃)₂·6H₂O, and Pd(NO₃)₂·xH₂O were dissolved in deionized water. For the Pd/support catalysts, only Pd(NO₃)₂·xH₂O was dissolved in deionized water. After complete dissolution, the solutions were added dropwise to the supports. The resulting solids were dried at 80 °C for 3 h and then calcined at 400 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 5 K·min^{−1}. All prepared catalysts were sieved to give particles of 310–715 μm. To simplify the description of the catalyst composition, the resulting catalysts 1 wt %Pd/CeO₂, 1 wt %Pd/ZrO₂, 1 wt %Pd/Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, 1 wt %Pd/CeO₂–SiO₂ (30:70), 5 wt %Cu2.5 wt %Zn1 wt %Pd/ZrO₂, 5 wt %Cu2.5 wt %Zn1 wt %Pd/Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, and 5 wt %Cu2.5 wt %Zn1 wt %Pd/CeO₂–SiO₂ (30:70) are referred to as Pd–Ce, Pd–Zr, Pd–CeZr, Pd–CeSi, CuZnPd–Zr, CuZnPd–CeZr, CuZnPd–CeSi, respectively.

2.2. Catalyst Characterization. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) measurements were conducted using an X'Pert Pro diffractometer (Panalytical) with CuKα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å, 40 kV, 40 mA) and an X'Celerator RTMS detector.

Elemental analysis of the catalysts was performed by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) using an Agilent 715 ES spectrometer.

The surface area (S_{BET}) of the catalysts was determined by conducting N₂ physisorption experiments at −196 °C. Prior to the measurements, catalyst samples were pretreated in vacuum at 250 °C for 2 h to remove the adsorbed water. The desorption isotherms were analyzed using the BET method. The Belsorp mini II setup from Bel Japan was used for this analysis.

The reducibility of the catalysts was determined by temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) tests using an in-house developed setup equipped with 8 individually heated continuous-flow fixed-bed quartz reactors. Prior to measurements, samples (50 mg) were pretreated at 300 °C in an air flow (8 mL·min^{−1} per reactor) for 1 h, followed by cooling to room temperature in an Ar flow (10 mL·min^{−1}) for 2 h. The treated catalysts were then individually heated to 700 °C with a heating rate of 10 K·min^{−1} in a 5 vol %H₂/Ar flow (10 mL·

min^{-1}). H_2 and Ar were detected at the reactor outlet by an online mass spectrometer (Pfeiffer Vacuum OmniStar GSD 320) at m/z 2 and 40, respectively.

The basic properties of the catalysts were studied by temperature-programmed desorption measurements with CO_2 (CO_2 -TPD) in the same setup as for H_2 -TPR tests. Fresh catalyst samples (50 mg) were initially heated to 300 °C in a 5 vol % H_2 /Ar flow (10 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and kept at this temperature for 4 h. After reduction, the treated materials were cooled to 50 °C in Ar (10 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and then exposed to the flow of 20 vol % CO_2 /Ar (10 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for 1.5 h at the same temperature. To remove physically adsorbed CO_2 , the catalysts were flushed with Ar (10 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) at 50 °C for 3 h. Finally, they were individually heated to 700 °C with a rate of 10 $\text{K}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ in Ar (10 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$). CO_2 (m/z 44) and Ar (m/z 40) were detected at the reactor outlet by the online mass spectrometer.

Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) tests were performed utilizing a probe aberration-corrected JEM-ARM200F (JEOL, Corrector: CEOS) at an operating voltage of 200 kV. The microscope is equipped with a JED-2300 (JEOL) energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrometer, which employs a silicon drift detector (dry SD60GV). A High-Angle Annular Dark Field (HAADF) detector and an Annular Bright Field (ABF) detector were used for imaging. The solid samples were deposited onto a holey carbon-supported Cu grid (mesh 300, Pd–Zr) or Ni grid (mesh 300, CuZnPd–Zr) without any pretreatment and subsequently transferred to the microscope for imaging and analysis.

Pseudo in situ X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed in a laboratory Near Ambient Pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy system (NAP-XPS, SPECS Surface Nano Analysis GmbH, Germany). The setup is equipped with a differentially pumped Phoibos 150 electron energy analyzer and a monochromated Al $K\alpha$ radiation source ($E = 1486.6$ eV) operated at 70 W and 15 kV. The system is connected to a High-Pressure Cell (HPC 20, SPECS Surface Nano Analysis GmbH, Germany) which offers sample heating by a halogen lamp (up to 800 °C) and is equipped with 4 mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst) at the gas inlet and a manual back pressure regulator (Swagelok, USA) at the outlet. For the current experiments at a total pressure of 10 bar, a flow of 20 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ H_2 and 20 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ N_2 for reduction and 5 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ CO_2 , 15 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ H_2 and 20 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ N_2 flows as in CO_2 hydrogenation tests were used for the catalyst treatment. The sample is heated to 300 °C (reduction) or 200 °C (reaction) in 50 vol % H_2/N_2 with 5 $\text{K}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$. After a given time on stream, the sample was cooled down in N_2 before the cell was evacuated and the sample could be transferred under vacuum to the measurement chamber. The powder samples are pressed on a stainless-steel sample plate using a laboratory press with a 5 mm diameter and a load of about 1 t. Temperature is monitored by a thermocouple on the sample plate pressed to the sample surface. The electron binding energies are referenced to the C 1s core level of carbon at 284.8 eV (C–C and C–H bonds). For analysis, the peaks were deconvolved with Gaussian–Lorentzian curves using the software Unifit 2023.

X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra at the Pd, Zn, and Cu K edges were recorded at the P65 beamline of the PETRA III synchrotron (DESY, Hamburg) in fluorescence mode using a silicon drift detector (Hitachi

Vortex-ME4, 2 mm detector thickness). The energies of the X-ray photons were selected by the Si(111) and Si(311) double-crystal monochromator for Zn and Cu, and Pd, respectively. The beam size was set by means of slits to a dimension of 0.3 (vertical) \times 1.5 (horizontal) mm^2 . The spectra were normalized and the background of EXAFS was subtracted by using the Athena program from the IFEFFIT and Demeter packages.⁴⁵ The interatomic distances (r), energy shift (δE_0), coordination numbers (CN), and mean-square deviation of interatomic distances (σ^2) were refined during the fitting of k^1 , k^2 , and k^3 -weighted data in R-space. The amplitude reduction factors (S_0^2) used for the fits were obtained by fitting spectra of the corresponding metal foils. The absolute misfit between the theory and the experiment is expressed by ρ . To monitor the structural changes of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd–Zr under reaction conditions, in situ XAS measurements were performed at the Pd, Zn, and Cu K edges. In summary, approximately 10 mg of the catalyst (sieve fraction: 100–200 μm) was placed between two layers of quartz wool within a quartz capillary (inner diameter: 1 mm, wall thickness: 0.02 mm, WJM Glas). The catalyst was heated up to 300 °C in He (15 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) with a temperature ramp of 5 $\text{K}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ by means of a Leister LE mini kit hot air blower. Once the temperature was stabilized at 300 °C, the catalyst was exposed to 50 vol % H_2 in He (15 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for 40 min for reduction. After cooling to 200 °C in the aforementioned atmosphere, a CO/H_2 (1:3 ratio, 16 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ total flow) was introduced to the capillary at 20 bar. The reaction time was maintained for 1 h, and the measurements were conducted separately, each time with a new catalyst batch for the Cu and Zn K edges (in a single scan) and for the Pd K edge. EXAFS was analyzed on the spectra measured in the last 7 min of each respective step for the Cu K edge, while data averaged over the whole 1 h (to enhance the signal-to-noise ratio, given that no notable changes occurred during each step) was employed to analyze the Pd K edge spectra.

In-situ DRIFTS experiments were performed using a Nicolet iS10 FTIR spectrometer equipped with a high-pressure high-temperature reaction cell (Harrick) with ZnSe windows. The cell functioned as a fixed-bed continuous-flow reactor and contained approximately 60 mg of each catalyst. The samples were initially pretreated at 300 °C and 20 bar in a flow of 50 vol % H_2/He (50 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for 2 h, followed by a 1 h He feed (50 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for hydrogen removal. The catalysts were subsequently cooled to 200 °C under the same gas flow conditions, while recording the background spectrum. To study CO_2 and CO adsorption, the catalysts were exposed to 22 vol % CO_2/He and 5 vol % CO/He with a total gas flow rate of 45 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ for 1 h. In order to investigate the transformations of adsorbates formed after CO_2 exposure, the samples were treated in 50 vol % H_2/He (50 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for 2 h. To remove all adsorbates from the surface, the samples were heated to 300 °C in 50 vol % H_2/He (50 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) for 1 h. DRIFTS experiments were also performed using a relevant reaction gas mixture of 22 vol % $\text{CO}_2/66$ vol % H_2/He with a total gas flow rate of 45 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ at 20 bar for 2 h. Hereafter, the catalysts were exposed to He (50 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) to remove gas-phase products and feed components.

2.3. Catalytic Experiments. CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol at 20 bar was studied in an in-house built setup comprising 51 continuous-flow fixed-bed stainless-steel tubular reactors operating in parallel. The total feed flow was evenly distributed using flow restrictors to maintain a constant flow in each reactor. The outlet gas from each reactor was directed

sequentially for gas-chromatographic analysis using multiport valves. An online Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (GC) was used to analyze the composition of the feed components and gaseous products. HP PlotQ and MolSieve 5A columns with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) were utilized to separate CO, CO₂, H₂O, H₂, and N₂, while AL/S and FFAP columns with a flame ionization detector (FID) were employed to separate C₁–C₈ hydrocarbons, and methanol, dimethyl ether, methyl formate, respectively. To prevent condensation of high-boiling hydrocarbons, the stainless-steel lines between the reactor outlet and the online GC inlet were heated to 180 °C. Catalyst amounts ranging from 100 to 500 mg (315–710 μm) and feed flows varying from 4 to 21 mL·min^{−1} were used to achieve reciprocal modified contact time (τ_{modified} , volumetric flow rate of feed per hour divided by the mass of the catalyst sample) values ranging from 700 to 12400 mL·g_{cat}^{−1}·h^{−1}. A layer of SiC (500–700 μm) atop the catalyst bed ensured preheating and plug flow of the top-supplied feed. Catalysts were pretreated in a 50 vol %H₂/N₂ flow (10 mL·min^{−1} per reactor) at 300 °C and 20 bar for 4 h before testing. The reaction was conducted with a feed of CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 1/3/4 or 3/9/1, corresponding to 12.5/37.5/50 and 23.1/69.3/7.6 vol %, respectively.

Catalytic tests were also performed at 50 bar in a high-pressure setup using a single stainless steel fixed-bed continuous-flow reactor filled with 3 g of each catalyst. Catalyst particles (315–710 μm) were loaded into the reactor and layered between quartz wool and quartz particles to preheat the feed gases and ensure plug flow. Catalyst pretreatment involved a stepwise increase in H₂ content from 0 to 100 vol % in a H₂/N₂ flow (33 mL·min^{−1}) at 300 °C and 6 bar total pressure over a 15 h program. This approach was selected to prevent the formation of hot spots in the catalyst layer, which could otherwise damage the catalyst structure during the reduction. The feed gas flow was varied from 90 to 300 mL·min^{−1} to achieve τ_{modified} values between 1800 and 6000 mL·g_{cat}^{−1}·h^{−1}. Unless otherwise specified, the gas mixture was composed of CO₂, H₂, and N₂ in a 1/3/4 ratio (12.5/37.5/50 vol %, respectively). The feed and product gases were analyzed using a Shimadzu GC-2010 Plus online gas chromatograph, equipped with HP PlotQ and MolSieve 5A columns connected to TCD, and HP PlotQ column connected to FID for component separation (CO, CO₂, H₂, N₂, C₁–C₄ alcohols, C₁–C₇ hydrocarbons, dimethyl ether, and methyl formate). To prevent product condensation, the reactor and pressurized lines were embedded in an oven at 150 °C, and the line between the backpressure regulator and the GC was heated to 100 °C. The feed gas concentration was determined through bypass measurements before and after catalytic experiments. In the experiments conducted to investigate the impact of adding CO to the feed gas, the reaction temperature and pressure were kept constant at 200 °C and 50 bar, respectively. The catalyst mass was 3 g, and the gas flow varied between 90 and 300 mL·min^{−1} for each feed gas composition. The gas mixture used in the feed consisted of CO, CO₂, H₂, and N₂ in the ratio $x/1-x/3/4$ ($x/12.5-x/37.5/50$ vol %, respectively), where x is the fraction of CO and varies between 0 and 1 (or in other terms 0 and 12.5 vol %).

In the experiments without added CO, the CO₂ conversion, product selectivity, and rates of CO₂ conversion to a certain reaction product were calculated according to the equations below:

$$X(\text{CO}_2) = \frac{\sum_i v_i \times x_i}{x_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{out}} + \sum_i v_i \times x_i} \quad (1)$$

$$S(i) = \frac{v_i \times x_i}{\sum_i v_i \times x_i} \quad (2)$$

$$r_i = v_i \frac{x_i \times F_{\text{total}}}{m_{\text{cat}} \times 22.4} \quad (3)$$

In the test involving a mixed CO/CO₂/H₂/N₂ feed, the following equations were employed for the CO_x conversion and product selectivity calculations:

$$X(\text{CO}_x) = \frac{x_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}^{\text{out}} + x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{out}} - x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}}}{x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}} + x_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{in}}} \quad (4)$$

$$S(\text{CO}) = \frac{x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{out}} - x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}}}{x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{out}} - x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}} + x_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}^{\text{out}}} \quad (5)$$

$$S(\text{CH}_3\text{OH}) = \frac{x_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}^{\text{out}}}{x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{out}} - x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}} + x_{\text{CH}_3\text{OH}}^{\text{out}}} \quad (6)$$

In eqs 1–6, v_i is the number of C atoms in product i , x_i is the molar fraction of product i in the outlet, x_i^{in} and x_i^{out} are the molar fraction of product i in the inlet and outlet, and $x_{\text{CO}}^{\text{in}}$ and $x_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{in}}$ are the molar fraction of CO and CO₂ in the inlet, respectively. m_{cat} is the catalyst mass and F_{total} is the feed gas volumetric flow rate.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Catalyst Characterization. The content of Pd and Cu experimentally determined by the ICP OES method is about 1.0 and 5.0 wt % (Table S1), respectively, and is close to the nominal values. However, the content of Zn is slightly lower, i.e., 2.3 wt % versus 2.5 wt %. The specific surface area (S_{BET}) of the catalysts containing solely Pd does not appear to be significantly influenced by the kind of support (CeO₂, Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, or CeO₂–SiO₂) and is between 56 and 64 m²·g^{−1} (Table S1). The addition of Cu and Zn resulted in a slight decrease in S_{BET} to around 48 m²·g^{−1}. The catalysts containing Pd or CuZnPd on ZrO₂ exhibited a slightly higher S_{BET} , i.e., 76–77 m²·g^{−1}.

No crystalline Pd-containing phase was detected in the samples having either supported Pd or CuZnPd species (Figure S2). The main phase detected in the Ce-containing materials with Pd was cubic CeO₂. It should be noted that the main reflections of this phase coincide with those of Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂, making it impossible to distinguish between the phases (Figure S2a). The monoclinic CuO and hexagonal ZnO phases were identified in the CuZnPd–CeZr, CuZnPd–CeSi catalysts (Figure S2c). The monoclinic and tetragonal ZrO₂ phases were determined in the Pd–Zr catalyst (Figure S2b). The CuZnPd–Zr catalyst contains the monoclinic ZrO₂ phase (Figure S2d). Although the hexagonal ZnO phase was detected in this sample, no crystalline Cu phases were observed, in contrast to other CuZnPd-based catalysts.

3.2. Redox and Basic Properties of the Catalysts. To investigate the redox properties of the materials developed, H₂-TPR tests were performed (Figure 1a). The H₂ consumption profiles of bare supports exhibited distinct differences (Figure S3a). ZrO₂ was not reduced over the entire temperature range,

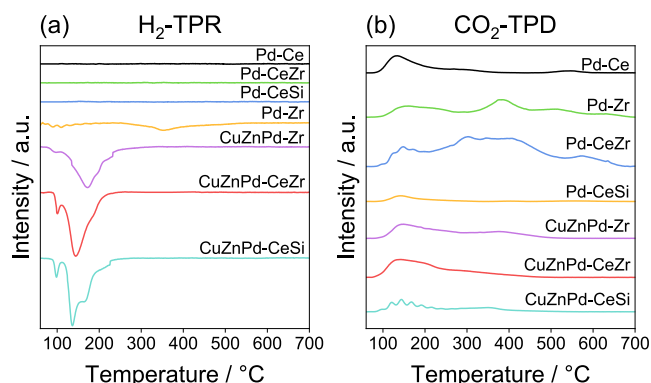


Figure 1. (a) H_2 -TPR and (b) CO_2 -TPD profiles of fresh supported Pd- and CuZnPd-based catalysts. The measurements were conducted within a temperature range of 50 and 700 °C.

whereas supports containing cerium consumed H_2 , which is characteristic of CeO_2 reduction.³⁶ The total consumption of H_2 determined for the latter material was approximately $0.5 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ (Figure S3b). Surprisingly, the Ce-based catalysts containing Pd showed negligible H_2 consumption. It is likely that the sample reduction occurred at a lower temperature, as was found for Pd/ CeO_2 (cubic) by Tan et al.⁴⁶ The consumption peak in their work was found at 31 °C, below the beginning of our measurements, which commenced at 50 °C. Conversely, the Pd–Zr catalyst consumed H_2 in the temperature range of 300–400 °C resulting in an overall H_2 consumption of about $0.4 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ (Figure S4a). The consumption is likely related to the removal of lattice oxygen

from ZrO_2 .⁴⁷ Supported Pd species are supposed to be involved in the activation of gas-phase H_2 yielding surface atomic species, which spill over to the surface of the support and react with lattice oxygen. Significantly higher H_2 consumption was observed across all catalysts containing Cu, Zn, and Pd. The maximum H_2 consumption was achieved between 100 and 200 °C, being lower than for the reduction of CuO in CuZn-based catalysts, which typically require 200 to 300 °C.²⁰ This observation suggests that the combination of Pd and Cu leads to a significant improvement in the CuO reducibility, probably due to the well-known ability of Pd to activate gas-phase H_2 .⁴⁸

All catalysts possess basic sites as concluded from the CO_2 -TPD profiles (Figure 1b). The presence of ZrO_2 in the support appears to be favorable for CO_2 adsorption. The highest amount of desorbed CO_2 of about $4.4 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ was determined for the Pd–CeZr catalyst (Figure S4b). ZrO_2 also increases the strength of basic sites. In contrast, the presence of SiO_2 in the support is detrimental for catalyst basicity.

3.3. Catalytic Performance at Different Reaction Temperatures. To assess the performance of either Pd or CuZnPd-containing catalysts in CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol, tests were conducted at temperatures of 160–225 °C, a pressure of 20 bar, and a τ_{modified} of $900 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ using a $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2/\text{N}_2 = 3/9/1$ feed (Figure 2). Irrespective of the support type, the former catalysts showed higher CO_2 conversion with the exception at 225 °C, where the conversion over Pd–Zr and CuZnPd–Zr was very similar. Among the catalysts containing only Pd, Pd–Ce was the least active catalyst (Figure S5a). If the support material contained

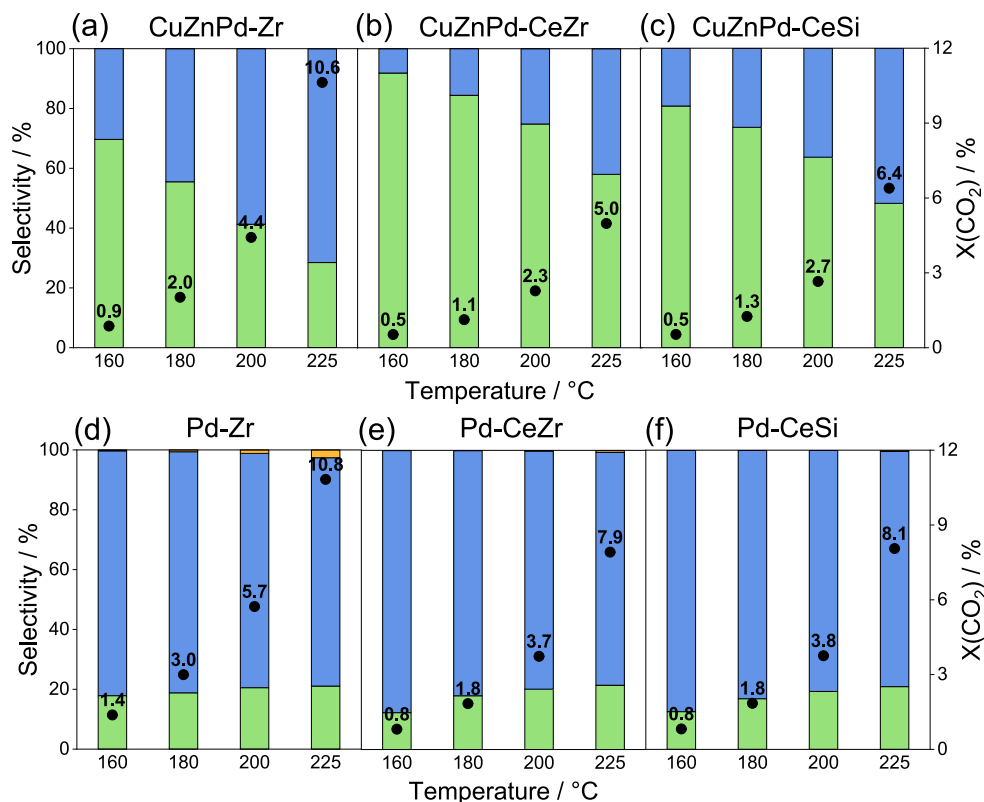


Figure 2. Product selectivity (bars, left axis) and CO_2 conversion (dots, right axis) obtained over the (a–c) CuZnPd/support and (d–f) Pd/support catalysts at different temperatures. Green – CH_3OH , blue – CO , and orange – CH_4 . Reaction conditions: 20 bar, 250 mg, $4 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$, $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2/\text{N}_2 = 3/9/1$, $\tau_{\text{modified}} \sim 900 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$.

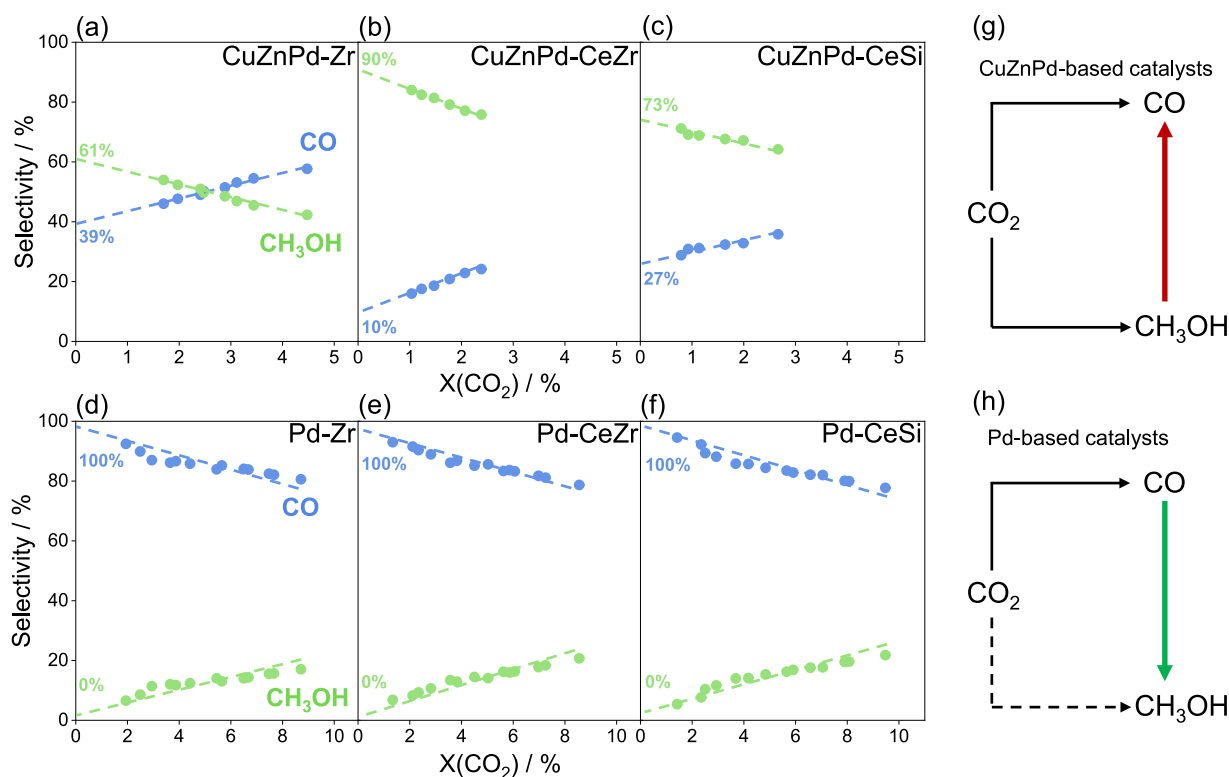


Figure 3. Dependence of CO and CH₃OH selectivity on the CO₂ conversion over (a–c) CuZnPd/support and (d–f) Pd/support catalysts. Green symbols – CH₃OH and blue symbols – CO. Reaction pathways over (g) CuZnPd/support and (h) Pd/support catalysts. The dashed line in (h) represents a minor possible pathway. Reaction conditions: 20 bar, 200 °C, (a–c) 150–250 mg, 4–11 mL·min^{−1}, τ_{modified} 900–4600 mL·g_{cat}^{−1}·h^{−1}, CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 3/9/1, (d–f) 100–500 mg, 6–21 mL·min^{−1}, τ_{modified} 700–12400 mL·g_{cat}^{−1}·h^{−1}, CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 1/3/4.

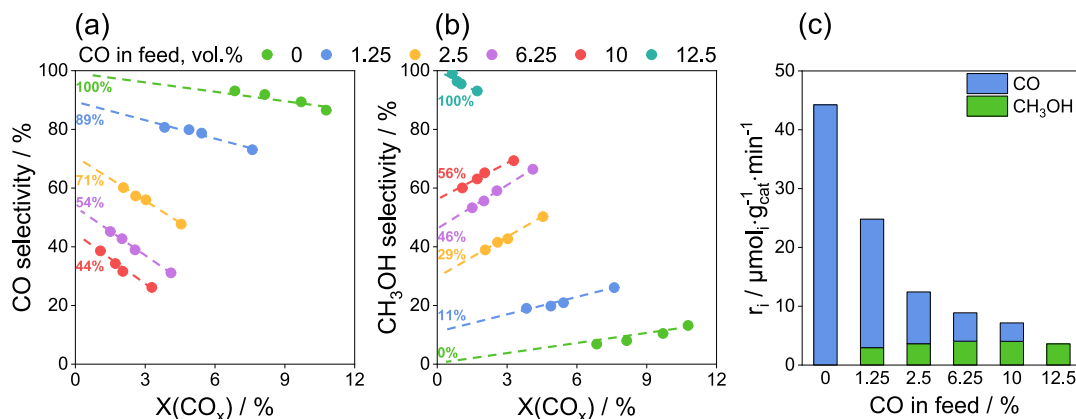


Figure 4. Selectivity-CO_x-conversion relationships for (a) CO and (b) CH₃OH; and (c) CO and CH₃OH formation rates over the Pd–Zr catalyst. Reaction conditions: 200 °C, 50 bar, 3 g, 90–300 mL·min^{−1}, CO/CO₂/H₂/N₂ = $x/12.5-x/37.5/50$ vol %, there CO and CO₂ fractions changing from 0 to 12.5 vol % for CO and reverse for CO₂. (a, b) The numbers at zero CO_x conversion stand for the primary selectivity to CO or CH₃OH. (c) Detailed calculations are provided in the [Supplementary Note](#).

additionally zirconia or silica, the conversion of CO₂ was about 1.6 times higher. Furthermore, the catalysts containing only Pd were prone to form predominantly CO, while the main product over the catalysts with CuZnPd was methanol. In addition, Pd–Zr (Figure 2d) or Pd–Ce (Figure S5a) produced methane above 200 °C or in the entire temperature range of 160–225 °C, respectively. This undesired reaction was strongly hindered when the support consisted of CeZr or CeSi (Figure 2e,f).

While no significant support effect on product selectivity was noted for Pd-containing catalysts (Figures 2d–f and S5a), the presence of Ce in the support seems to be important for the

selectivity to CH₃OH over CuZnPd-containing catalysts (Figure 2a–c). This experimental observation agrees with a previous study, which was aimed to identify important descriptors affecting CH₃OH selectivity through analyzing available literature data.¹⁶

3.4. Reaction Pathways of Product Formation. To understand the fundamentals of distinctive product selectivity obtained over the Pd- or CuZnPd-containing catalysts, additional CO₂ hydrogenation tests were performed at 200 °C and 20 bar but different τ_{modified} (700–12400 mL·g_{cat}^{−1}·h^{−1}). Both the catalyst amount and the feed total flow rate were changed, while the feed composition was constant. The

obtained selectivity and CO₂ conversion values were used to construct selectivity-conversion relationships for CO and CH₃OH (Figures 3 and S5b). As CH₄ was formed in negligible amounts, the corresponding selectivity-conversion profile was not analyzed.

The key dissimilarity between the two catalyst groups lies in the origins of CO or CH₃OH. These products are formed in parallel from CO₂ over the CuZnPd-based catalysts as can be concluded from nonzero selectivity values for these products at zero CO₂ conversion (Figure 3a-c). In addition to these two parallel pathways, CH₃OH undergoes consecutive transformation(s) to CO. This conclusion is based on the fact that the selectivity to CO increases, while the selectivity to CH₃OH decreases with increasing CO₂ conversion. Such selectivity-conversion relationship is typical for various CuZn-based catalysts.^{18,22} On the contrary, the catalysts containing Pd as the only active component do not seem to produce CH₃OH from CO₂ as indicated by about 100% CO selectivity at near to zero CO₂ conversion (Figures 3d-f and S5b). As the CO selectivity decreases with rising CO₂ conversion while the selectivity to CH₃OH increases, the desired alcohol must be formed through CO hydrogenation. This observation suggests the potential for controlling the methanol formation pathway to circumvent decomposition issues over Cu-containing catalysts. In summary, two different reaction schemes are valid for product formation in the course of CO₂ hydrogenation over CuZnPd-based and Pd-based catalysts (Figure 3g,h).

3.5. Performance of Pd–Zr with Cofed CO. To validate the hypothesis about the formation of CH₃OH from CO over the Pd–Zr catalyst, additional tests using feeds composed of different amounts of CO₂ and CO were performed. It is important to note that the total fraction of these reactants remained at 12.5 vol % to maintain the H₂/CO_x ratio at 3. Figure 4 depicts the selectivity-conversion relationships obtained at 200 °C and 50 bar. The primary (extrapolated to zero CO_x conversion) selectivity to methanol was 100% when the feed contained CO only. It decreased with rising CO conversion due to the hydrogenation of CH₃OH to CH₄ (Figure S6). The formation of trace amounts of dimethyl ether and methyl formate was also observed, yet the corresponding selectivity-conversion profiles were not subjected to analysis. No CO₂ was formed. It should be especially mentioned that the outlet concentration of CO in tests using feeds consisting of CO and CO₂ was higher than the inlet concentration. In other words, although CO from the feed was hydrogenated to CH₃OH, CO₂ produced a higher amount of CO through RWGS. Consequently, the primary selectivity to CH₃OH decreased when the fraction of CO in CO_x was lowered from 100% to 10%. Nevertheless, for all feeds containing CO and CO₂, the selectivity to methanol increased as the conversion of CO_x increased. The observed increase can be attributed to the kinetics of CO and CH₃OH formation through the RWGS reaction and CO hydrogenation, respectively, as indicated by the dependence of the ratios of the outlet fractions of these products on τ_{modified} (Figure S7). Although they both increase with decreasing τ_{modified} , the strength of the increase is more pronounced for CH₃OH. This is due to the different thermodynamic constraints for the RWGS reaction and CO hydrogenation (Figure S8).

We also determined the initial rates of CO and CH₃OH formation in the above tests (Figures 4b,c and S1, and Supplementary Note). When only CO₂ was present in the feed

as the carbon source, CO was the sole product with a formation rate of about 44 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, while the methanol formation rate from CO₂ was zero (Figure 4c). Methanol was clearly observed as one of the primary products (Figure 4b) with a formation rate of about 2.9 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ when a small part of CO₂ in the reaction feed was replaced by CO, i.e., 1.25 vol % CO and 11.25 vol % CO₂ in the feed (Figure 4c). As the CO fraction in the feed further increased, the rate of CO formation from CO₂ significantly decreased, while the rate of CH₃OH formation increased from 2.9 to 4.1 $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ using a feed with the ratio of CO/CO₂ of 1. Further increasing the concentration of CO in the feed at the expense of CO₂ resulted in a slight decrease in the rate of methanol formation. The negative effect of cofed CO on the rate of CO formation is explained by hindering the RWGS reaction.

3.6. Redox and Structural Catalyst Properties. In order to check whether the different performance of CuZnPd- and Pd-based materials is influenced by catalyst basic properties or reducibility, a correlation was sought between the rates of CO and CH₃OH formation and the amounts of CO₂ desorbed in CO₂-TPD tests or H₂ consumed in H₂-TPR tests (Figure S9a,b). However, no obvious correlation could be obtained. Additionally, the specific surface area of the catalysts was not found to have a noticeable impact on the activity (Figure S9c).

Scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) coupled with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was also used to analyze the Pd–Zr and CuZnPd–Zr catalysts. Given the negligible effect of the support on the performance of sole Pd-containing catalysts, these catalysts were selected to minimize the complexities arising from the diverse composition of different supports. As anticipated, the ZrO₂ support exhibits a high degree of similarity in both samples (Figure S10). Given the similar or lower atomic weight of Pd, Zn, and Cu, relative to Zr, the former elements are not discernible by contrast in the high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) or annular bright field (ABF) images. Consequently, conclusions can only be drawn from EDX mapping measurements. It appears that Pd is distributed relatively evenly over the support in Pd–Zr (Figures S11 and S12), it is, however, not possible to determine whether Pd is present as highly dispersed species or as clusters. The CuZnPd–Zr catalyst appears to be more complex. While Zn is predominantly highly dispersed over the support, Cu is present in the form of highly dispersed species and larger agglomerates (Figure 5). It is noteworthy that Pd was observed in small quantities in the regions exhibiting agglomerated/enriched Cu, indicating a potential spatial proximity of Cu and Pd (Figures 5 and S13). Moreover, the EDX peaks for Cu and Zn appear to correlate in regions with distributed Cu, suggesting a possible spatial proximity of these two elements in the remaining regions of the material (Figure S13c).

3.7. Local Structure and Electronic Properties. The surface composition and valence state of Cu, Zn, Pd, and Zr were assessed by pseudo in situ XPS tests. The Pd signal in the XP spectra of the CuZnPd–Zr and Pd–Zr catalysts was barely discernible due to the low Pd loading (1 wt %Pd) and the overlap with two intense Zr 3p peaks in the same binding energy region (Figure S14a,e). The Pd 3d_{5/2} and Pd 3d_{3/2} signals at 335.5–335.7 eV and 340.7–341.0 eV, respectively, correspond to metallic Pd⁰ and are present in the XP spectra of reduced and spent catalysts.^{49–51} In the Zr 3d region (Figure S14b,f), the Zr 3d_{5/2} and Zr 3d_{3/2} peaks at 182.3 eV and 184.6–184.7 eV are characteristic of Zr⁴⁺ in ZrO₂.⁵² The

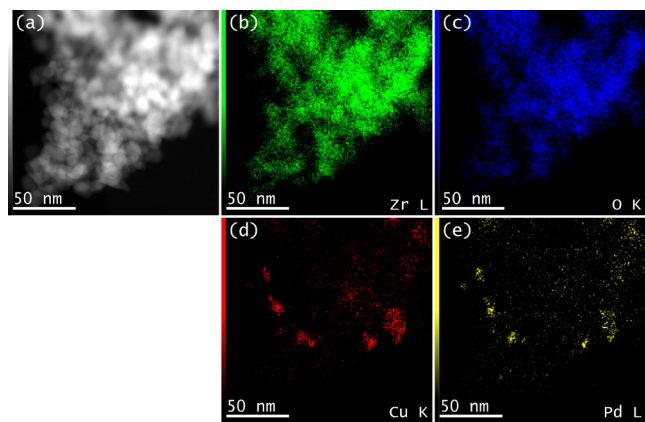


Figure 5. EDX elemental mapping of CuZnPd-Zr. Cu is visible in both distributed and agglomerated forms. While Pd is predominantly present at the same positions as agglomerated/enriched Cu, Zn appears to be present only in distributed form (see also Figure S13). Due to low intensity of the Zn K_{α} signal at each pixel, this map is not displayed.

minor shifts ($\sim +0.1$ eV) in these binding energy values between the freshly reduced and spent samples are well within the typical binding energy error of ± 0.3 eV but could also be

caused by a weak metal–support interactions (MSI) during the catalytic process.²⁵ In general, ZrO_2 acts as a stable support in both catalysts, with minimal structural degradation. In comparison with the XP spectra of fresh Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr catalysts in the O 1s region (Figure S14c,g), the signals characteristic of lattice oxygen, at 529.6 and 530.1 eV, and the surface oxygen/hydroxyl species, at 531.4 and 531.7 eV, respectively, exhibited slight shifts to higher binding energies in the spent samples. In addition, the intensity of the signal related to surface oxygen/hydroxyl species increased. Such changes may be attributed to a higher number of oxygen vacancies and adsorbed intermediates formed during the reaction.^{53–55} The distinction between the Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr catalysts is minimal, with the exception of a slightly elevated intensity of surface oxygen/hydroxyl species peak in the XP spectrum of spent CuZnPd-Zr. This suggests that the addition of Cu–ZnO improves the formation of oxygen vacancies and surface intermediates. Regardless of the kind of catalyst state (reduced or spent), Cu^{1+}/Cu^0 (932.6 and 952.4 eV) are the main states of copper (Figure S14d). The absence of the characteristic satellite peaks around 940–944 eV provides compelling evidence that all Cu^{2+} species have been reduced.^{25,56} In contrast, Zn^{2+} has not changed its oxidation state after catalyst reduction and throughout the course of the

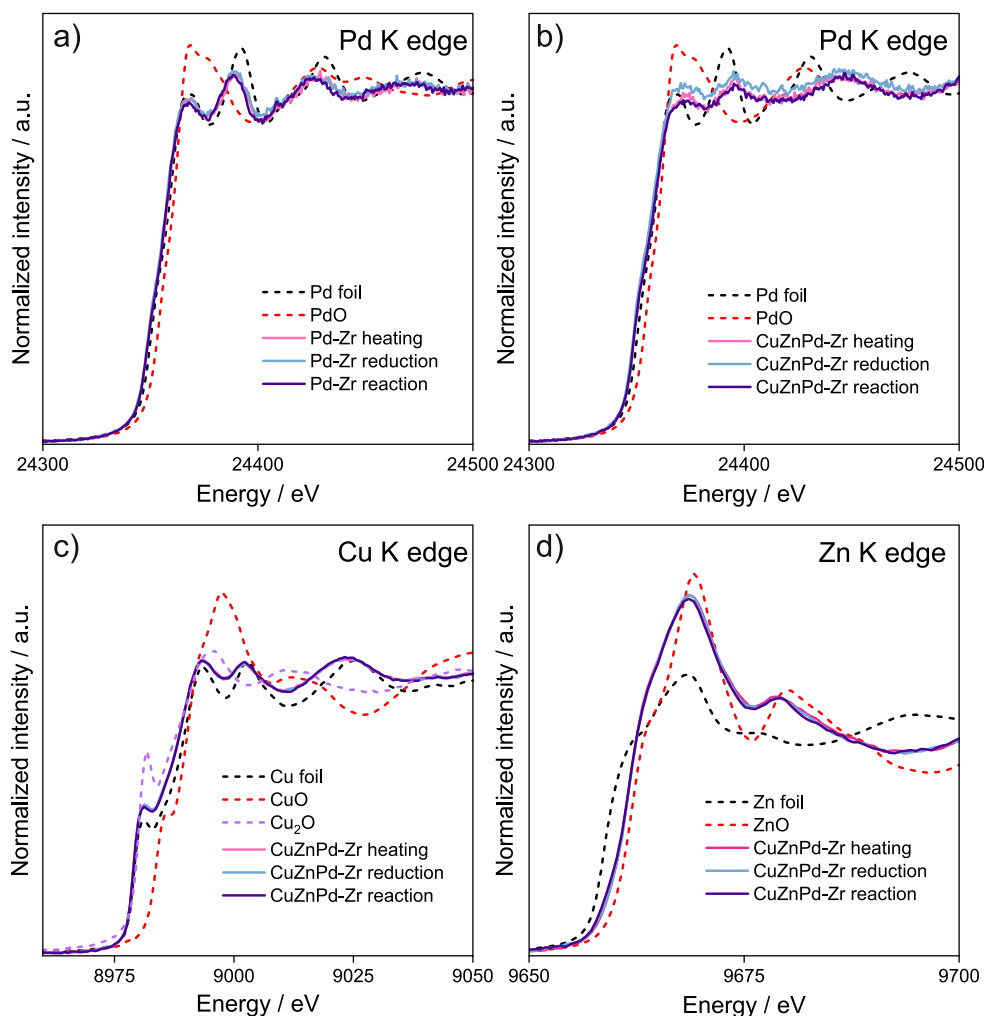


Figure 6. Pd K edge XANES spectra of (a) Pd–Zr and (b) CuZnPd-Zr, (c) Cu K edge XANES of CuZnPd-Zr, and (d) Zn K edge XANES of CuZnPd-Zr obtained in He during heating, in 50 vol % H_2 in He during reduction (at 300 °C), and in CO/H_2 during reaction (at 200 °C).

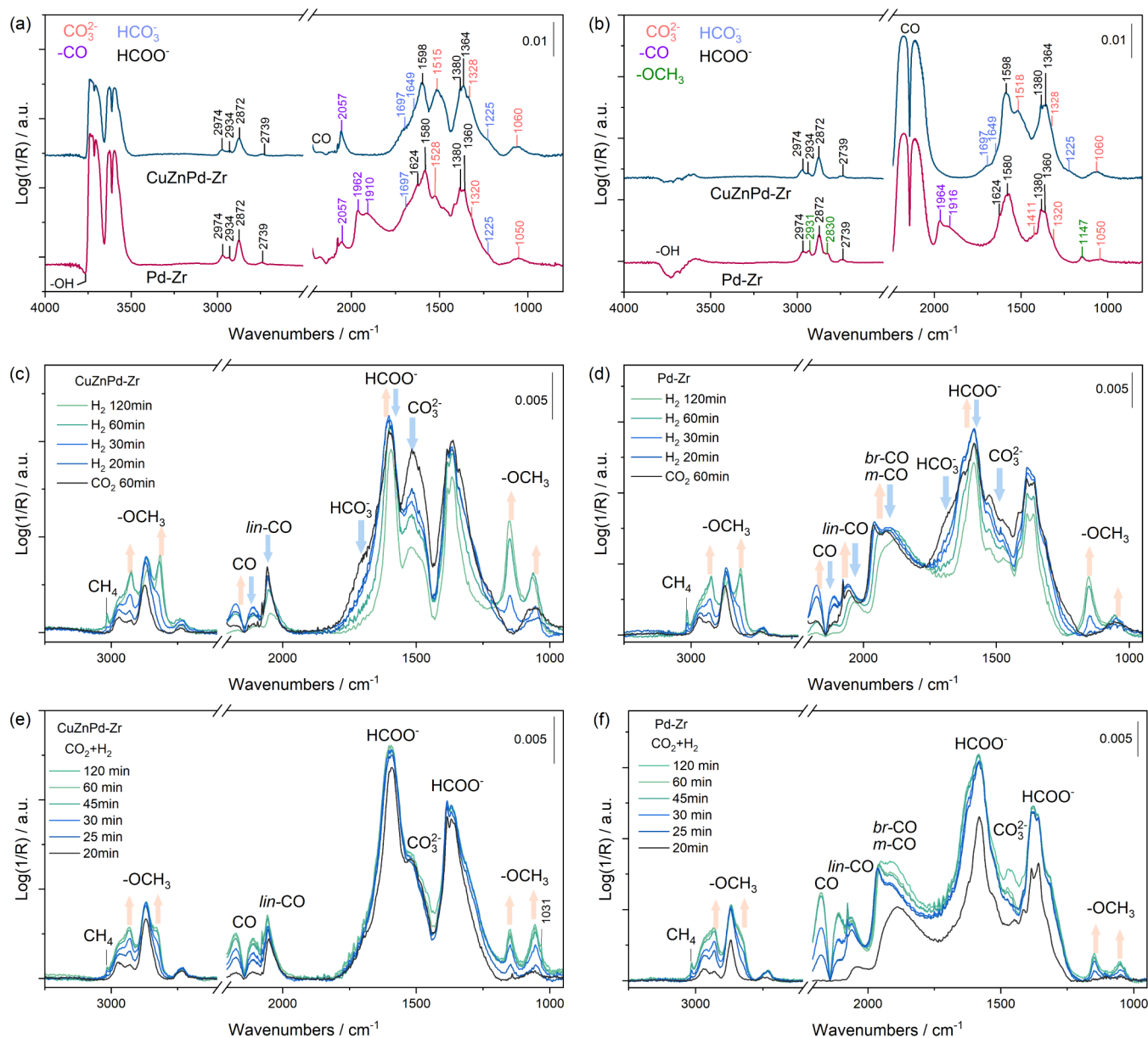


Figure 7. DRIFT spectra of the CuZnPd-Zr and Pd-Zr catalysts recorded after 60 min exposure to (a) CO₂ (22 vol % in He), (b) CO (5 vol % in He), (c, d) H₂ (50 vol % in He) after CO₂ treatment, and (e, f) the 22 vol % CO₂/66 vol % H₂/He reaction mixture at 200 °C and 20 bar. The orange arrows indicate increasing band intensity, blue down arrows indicate decreasing band intensity.

reaction as concluded from the presence of Zn²⁺ peaks (1022.1 and 1045.2 eV) in the Zn 2p region (Figure S14h).^{56,57}

The XANES spectra provide insights into the oxidation and alloying states of Pd, Cu, or Zn in Pd-Zr and CuZnPd-Zr catalysts under various treatment conditions (Figure 6). In the fresh Pd-Zr catalyst (Figure 6a), the initial oxidation state of Pd is observed to be between 0 and +2. Upon subsequent heating in He, exposure to H₂ and CO/H₂, the Pd state becomes largely metallic, exhibiting only a slight shift relative to the Pd foil reference. The Fourier transformed EXAFS spectra and EXAFS fitting results are presented in Figures S15–17 and Table S2. The increased Pd–Pd distance in the Pd-Zr sample in the presence of H₂ may be indicative of the formation of a small fraction of PdH_x (Table S2). In contrast, the Pd edge in CuZnPd-Zr (Figure 6b) exhibits a distinctive behavior. Following calcination, the oxidation state of Pd is observed to be +2. However, upon heating in He, reduction,

and during the CO/H₂ reaction, the oscillations at 24392 and 24430 eV broaden and shift to higher energies. Such changes suggest formation of an alloy or intermetallic PdCu and/or PdZn phase(s). The in situ Pd K edge FT EXAFS spectra of the CuZnPd-Zr catalyst (Figure S15b) demonstrates a single, relatively narrow peak at approximately 2.2 Å (uncorrected distance), which is significantly different from the Pd foil, the Pd-Zr data, and the spectra of PdZn intermetallics previously reported,⁴¹ and corresponds to backscattering on a 3d metal atoms only. The backscatter may, in theory, be attributed to both Cu and Zn, given that their atomic form factors are very similar. However, all known PdZn alloys or intermetallic compounds would also exhibit Pd–Pd scattering paths in the first coordination shell, which is not visible in the current case. For the Cu K edge in CuZnPd-Zr (Figure 6c), the initial oxidation state of Cu is likely to be +2. Upon heating in He, the CuO_x species are reduced to metallic Cu, as evidenced by

the same edge position and the same set of features as in Cu foil reference spectrum. Additionally, the peak positions in the Cu K XANES spectrum shift to lower energies, potentially indicating the formation of a PdCu alloy. The fits of Pd K and Cu K edges EXAFS spectra confirm the incorporation of Pd in the fcc Cu lattice, which is likely to be a random PdCu alloy (Figures S15–17 and Tables S3 and S4). No significant alterations in the spectral profiles are observed during exposure to H₂ and syngas, suggesting that the metallic state remains stable under these conditions. At the Zn edge (Figure 6d), the initial oxidation state of Zn is observed to be +2. The Zn spectrum exhibits minimal changes across different treatments, including heating, reduction, and reaction, with a slight decrease in the intensity of the white line compared to the fresh catalyst. This suggests a minor reduction of ZnO, which may contribute to the formation of PdZn. The characteristic feature at 9669 eV appears considerably broader than that of pure ZnO, suggesting a lower degree of ordering of ZnO_x species in the catalyst compared to bulk ZnO, which may be attributed to a phase transformation to graphitic ZnO.⁵⁸

3.8. In Situ DRIFTS Study of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd–Zr Catalysts. Using in situ DRIFTS, various types of carbonates, bicarbonates, carbonyls, and formates were identified on the surface of the Pd–Zr and CuZnPd–Zr catalysts upon their exposure to CO₂ at 200 °C and 20 bar for 1 h (Figure 7a,b and Table S5). The bands in the ranges of 1550–1410, 1328–1320, 1060–1055 cm^{−1} correspond to bidentate, *bi*-CO₃^{2−}, monodentate, *m*-CO₃^{2−}, and polydentate, *p*-CO₃^{2−}, carbonates, respectively.^{59–62} The bands at 1550–1430 cm^{−1} are more intense in the spectrum of the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst compared to the Pd–Zr catalyst probably due to the presence of additional carbonate/carboxylate species stabilized on Cu–ZnO oxide species/phases. The bands, characteristic of bidentate formate species, *bi*-HCOO[−], are also observed in the spectra of the CuZnPd–Zr and Pd–Zr catalysts at 1598/1364 and 1580/1360 cm^{−1}, respectively.^{63–67} In addition, bicarbonates, HCO₃[−], with bidentate and monodentate configurations are present on the surface of these catalysts, as evidenced by the presence of bands at 1697/1649/1225 cm^{−1}. Their formation can occur through the interaction of CO₂ with OH hydroxy species as previously reported for ZrO₂.⁶⁰ In agreement, we observed a negative band at ~3770 cm^{−1} for both catalysts.

CO₂ was also observed to dissociate to CO, which is present in the form of gaseous CO and surface carbonyls (Figure S18a,b).⁶⁸ Three kinds of the carbonyls, linear, bridged, and multidentate configurations (*lin*-CO/*br*-CO/*m*-CO), with the characteristic bands at 2057/1962/1910 cm^{−1} should be present on the surface of the Pd–Zr catalyst.^{69–71} In the case of the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst, only *lin*-CO species (band at 2057 cm^{−1}) were formed. The difference between the catalysts should be related to the distribution of Pd species. *lin*-CO species are suggested to be stabilized on very small Pd^{69,72} or bimetallic Pd-containing particles.^{73–75} The latter are present on the surface of the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst (Figure 5).

The intermediates that can originate from CO were also studied (Figure 7b). Due to the interaction of CO with surface oxygen/hydroxy groups, CO₃^{2−} and HCO₃[−] can be formed,^{76,77} which were detected on the surface of the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst only. Furthermore, the introduced CO was also oxidized to gaseous CO₂ by lattice oxygen of ZrO₂ and/or CuZnO_x, with this reaction being more pronounced for the Pd–Zr catalyst (Figure S18c,d). Moreover, OCH₃ was formed over this catalyst as evidenced by the appearance of

bands at 2931/2830/1147 cm^{−1}, whereas no corresponding signals are present in the spectrum of the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst.

Further possible transformations of the adsorbed species formed from CO₂ upon their reaction with H₂ were also analyzed (Figure 7c,d). For both samples, a decrease in the number of CO₃^{2−} and HCO₃[−] species was observed, while the concentration of gaseous CO and HCOO[−] initially increased (Figure S19a,b). It was previously proposed that HCO₃[−] could transform into CO, and that CO₃^{2−} could be directly hydrogenated to HCOO[−].⁷⁸ In our experiments, as CO₃^{2−} and carbonyl species remained on the surface after the disappearance of HCO₃[−] and gaseous CO, the latter product should be formed from HCO₃[−]. The carbonyl band intensities for the Pd–Zr sample initially increased as a result of an increased amount of gaseous CO, and subsequently decreased (Figures 7c,d and S19a,b). In contrast, the intensity of *lin*-CO band in the spectrum of the CuZnPd–Zr sample consistently decreased with rising time on H₂ stream, indicating a higher rate of H₂-induced transformation of *lin*-CO than that of CO adsorption to yield *lin*-CO. For both catalysts, OCH₃ species and CH₄ were observed. The intensity of the CH₄ bands relative to the OCH₃ bands was higher for Pd–Zr than for CuZnPd–Zr (Figure S19c,d). This is also in a good agreement with the results of the catalytic tests (Figure 2a,d).

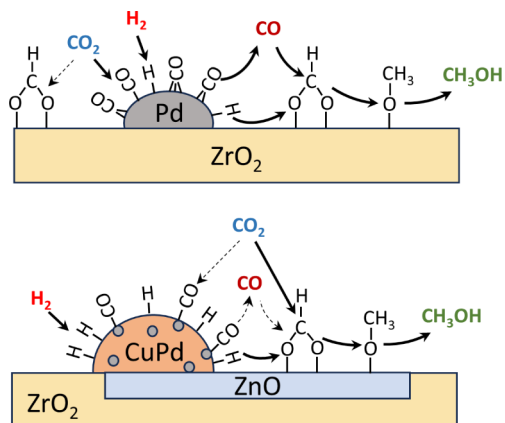
In situ DRIFTS measurements, conducted with a CO₂/H₂/He feed (22/66/12 vol %) at 200 °C and 20 bar, revealed the presence of the same set of adsorbates as observed after CO₂ adsorption (Figure 7e,f). However, the quantity of surface HCO₃[−] and CO₃^{2−} species under reaction conditions appears to be lower in comparison with CO₂ adsorption experiments in the absence of H₂ due to the rapid transformation of these species to CO and HCOO[−] in the presence of H₂. For CuZnPd–Zr, a steady-state concentration of HCOO[−]/CO₃^{2−}/*lin*-CO species was achieved after 20 min exposure to the reaction feed. Concurrently, the concentration of OCH₃ species and gaseous CO, CH₄, and CH₃OH (at 1031 cm^{−1})^{63,79} increased throughout the whole experiment (Figures 7e and S20). In contrast to the CuZnPd–Zr catalyst, no steady-state concentration of HCOO[−] was achieved and a higher number of surface carbonyls on the metallic Pd particles was detected in the tests with the Pd–Zr catalyst during its treatment in the reaction feed (Figure S20b). The analysis of the intensity of the bands characteristic of surface OCH₃ and gaseous CO and CH₄ (Figure S20d) revealed a significantly higher amount of formed gaseous CO relative to OCH₃ and CH₄ under the reaction conditions for the Pd–Zr sample, indicating its higher activity in CO formation.

3.9. Mechanistic Aspects of Product Formation over Pd- and CuZnPd-Containing Catalysts. The results (Figures 3d–f and S5b) presented in section “Catalytic performance” and their discussion corroborate the overall reaction scheme of product formation in CO₂ hydrogenation, illustrated in Figure 3h. CO₂ does not appear to be the gas-phase precursor of methanol over Pd/support catalysts. Instead, it is converted almost exclusively to gas-phase CO through the RWGS reaction. Subsequently, this product is then involved in secondary transformations, leading to the desired alcohol. The participation of adsorbed CO formed from CO₂ in the formation of methanol can be excluded because the selectivity to methanol extrapolated to zero CO₂ conversion in tests with a CO₂/H₂ feed would not be zero as we determined experimentally (Figures 3d–f, 4b). Based on these findings, it can be inferred that the sites responsible for the formation of

CO from CO₂ and for the conversion of CO to methanol must be distinct. In contrast to the Pd/support catalysts, the CO₂ conversion over the CuZnPd-based catalysts primarily involves the hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₃OH and CO. If the latter product would be further hydrogenated to CH₃OH with a significant rate, the selectivity to this alcohol would increase with rising CO₂ conversion. In contrast, this selectivity decreases as the primarily formed CH₃OH undergoes decomposition to CO (Figure 3a,b,c,g) in agreement with previous studies using different CuZn-containing catalysts.^{17,18}

Based on the above discussion and the results of the in situ FTIR tests, we suggest reaction schemes to explain the discrepancy between the Pd- and CuZnPd-containing catalysts in the pathways of CO and CH₃OH formation. CO₂ adsorbs on the CuZnPd-Zr surface preferentially in the form of HCOO⁻ species (Figure 7). In accordance with previous studies,^{4,20} methanol is formed through the following sequence of transformations HCOO⁻(s) → OCH₃(s) → CH₃OH (g) (Scheme 1). In addition, we propose that *lin*-CO species are precursors of gaseous CO.

Scheme 1. Proposed Pathways for CO₂ Hydrogenation to Methanol over the Pd–Zr (Top) and CuZnPd–Zr (Bottom) Catalysts Based on the Observations from STEM/EDX, XANES, EXAFS, and DRIFTS Measurements



In contrast to the CuZnPd-Zr catalyst, the Pd–Zr catalyst can form OCH₃ from CO (Figure 7b). As the bands related to the former species on the surface of these two catalysts are characterized by different wavenumbers (Figure 7c,d and Table S5), it can be suggested that OCH₃ is stabilized on ZrO₂ and Cu–ZnO in the case of the Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr catalysts, respectively. Based on these observations, we suggest a two-step mechanism of CH₃OH formation in CO₂ hydrogenation over the Pd–Zr catalyst (Scheme 1). Gas-phase CO₂ initially dissociates on the surface of the catalysts as follows CO₂(g) → CO(s) + O(s). This process is expected to occur on Pd species. As gaseous CO is the primary source of CH₃OH over this catalyst (Figure 3), CO adsorbed on Pd should desorb. However, if the formed gas-phase CO readsorbed on the same sites, where CO₂ decomposition occurred and subsequently participated in the methanol formation, the latter selectivity extrapolated to zero CO₂ conversion would not be zero, which is contrary to the experimental results. Thus, the sites of methanol formation should differ from those yielding CO from CO₂. We suggest that the methanol formation should occur on the surface of the ZrO₂ support according to the following sequence CO(g) → HCOO⁻(s) → OCH₃*(s) → CH₃OH (g)

(Scheme 1). The proposed scheme differs from the RWGS + CO-hydro mechanism of methanol formation,⁸⁰ because gas-phase CO but not adsorbed CO₂ or COOH species is involved in the formation of the aforementioned surface intermediates transforming to methanol. Furthermore, the ability of Pd to adsorb CO in various coordination modes (*lin*-CO/*br*-CO/*m*-CO) may also result in the occupation of the Pd centers, which would impede H₂ adsorption/dissociation and consequently decrease the rate of CO formation from CO₂ (Figure 4c).

4. CONCLUSIONS

The present study revealed the existence of distinct mechanisms of product formation in CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol over ZrO₂- or CeO₂-based catalysts with supported Pd or CuZnPd active components. The former species do not produce methanol from CO₂ but from gaseous CO. This product readsorbs on the surface of the support in the form of HCOO⁻ species, which are further hydrogenated to methanol. Supported Pd species are responsible for the generation of adsorbed hydrogen species from H₂, which spill over to the support and are involved in the aforementioned hydrogenation. The addition of CuZnO_x changes the reaction mechanism to a classical one, i.e., the formate route involving CO₂ directly, as CuZnO_x demonstrate a greater propensity for the formation of formate species from CO₂ in comparison with Pd. Moreover, STEM/EDX, XANES, EXAFS, and in situ DRIFTS tests revealed that Pd species are in proximity of Cu or incorporated in the fcc Cu lattice, forming CuPd alloy. That is detrimental for the Pd to generate/stabilize carbonyls.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acscatal.4c07462>.

Supplementary note with detailed calculations of product formation rates for CO/CO₂/H₂/N₂ test, CO_x conversion vs contact time for CO/CO₂/H₂/N₂ test over Pd–Zr, XRD patterns of samples, H₂-TPR results for fresh support materials, amounts of H₂ consumed and CO₂ desorbed during the H₂-TPR and CO₂-TPD, catalytic results for Pd–Ce, selectivity–conversion relationship over Pd–Zr in CO/H₂/N₂ feed, ratios of the outlet fraction over Pd–Zr, dependence of the equilibrium CO_x conversion on CO concentration in feed, correlations of H₂-TPR, CO₂-TPD, and BET results with product formation rates, selected HAADF-STEM images of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr, EDX elemental mapping of Pd–Zr, selected EDX spectrum of Pd–Zr, selected EDX spectrum of CuZnPd-Zr, XP spectra of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr, FT EXAFS spectra of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr at Pd K, Cu K, or Zn K edges, k²-weighted EXAFS functions of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr at Pd K and Cu K edges, Fits of the FT EXAFS spectra of Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr at Pd K and Cu K edges, DRIFT spectra measured during CO₂ and CO exposure over Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr, band intensities of adsorbates in CO₂ exposure measurements over Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr, band intensities of adsorbates in CO₂+H₂ exposure measurements over Pd–Zr and CuZnPd-Zr, table with BET and ICP OES characterization results, table with Pd K edge EXAFS fitting results of Pd–Zr, table with Pd K edge EXAFS fitting

results of CuZnPd-Zr, table with Cu K edge EXAFS fitting results of CuZnPd-Zr, and table with observed band values from DRIFTS (PDF)

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Author Contributions

E.V.K. initiated and led the entire study. U.A., S.W., and E.V.K. acquired funding. D.M., A.Z., and E.V.K. wrote the first draft. E.F. and C.K. performed DRIFTS and analyzed the results. N.R. conducted and described the STEM/EDX measurements. S.B. performed XPS measurements. D.Z. and D.D. conducted XAS measurements and evaluated the results. All the authors discussed the results, improved the manuscript, and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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