

Hybrid monometallic and bimetallic copper–palladium zeolite catalysts for direct synthesis of dimethyl ether from CO 2

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Abstract 18

Nowadays, carbon dioxide is the major reason of the global climate changes. The direct $CO₂$ 19 hydrogenation to dimethyl ether produces an important platform molecule for synthesis of fuels 20 and chemicals and at the same time, utilizes large amounts of this greenhouse gas. In this paper, 21 we prepared a series of hybrid catalysts, which are composed by alumina supported copper-
22 palladium nanoparticles and HZSM-5 zeolite for direct synthesis of dimethyl ether from CO₂. 23 Copper active sites showed higher intrinsic activity for $CO₂$ hydrogenation compared to 24 palladium. Low palladium content in the copper-palladium bimetallic catalysts was particularly ²⁵ beneficial for the dimethyl ether production. Undesirable methane and ethane productions were ²⁶ completely suppressed, while the dimethyl ether selectivity has considerably increased. ²⁷ Extensive catalyst characterization combined with catalytic measurements was indicative of ²⁸ the presence of copper and palladium monometallic and bimetallic particles with different size ²⁹ and reducibility in the hybrid catalysts. The presence of even small amounts of palladium 30 significantly improved copper reducibility and copper dispersion. Some decrease in the 31 Brønsted acidity in the copper containing catalysts was due to the migration of unreduced 32 copper ions in the zeolite channels during the reduction. The methanol dehydration to dimethyl 33 ether was only slightly affected by the amounts of Brønsted acid sites in the hybrid catalysts. ³⁴

Keywords: Carbon dioxide; hydrogenation; dimethyl ether; methanol; hybrid catalysts 36

<u>37 and 2010 and 201</u>

1. Introduction ³⁹

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Nowadays, carbon dioxide is the most important industrial pollutant and is also the major ⁴⁰ reason of the global climate changes. Rapidly growing $CO₂$ concentration in the atmosphere 41 can be addressed on the one hand, by reducing the $CO₂$ emission from human activities and on 42 the other hand, by carbon dioxide removal from the atmosphere, using carbon capture and 43 storage (CCS)¹ and carbon capture and utilization (CCU)². In the carbon capture and utilization 44 strategy^{2–5}, $CO₂$ is converted to fuels and chemicals using biological, thermo-catalytic, 45 electrocatalytic and photocatalytic routes. Dimethyl ether $(DME)^{6-8}$ is one of the most 46 promising environmentally optimized alternatives to the conventional fossil fuels (gasoline or 47 diesel fuels) due to its high cetane index (> 55) , low emission of CO, NOx, particulates and 48 reduced noise. DME can be also used as a substitute for liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) that is ⁴⁹ widely used as fuel in industry and household. DME is biodegradable in air, non-cancerogenic 50 and non-corrosive. In addition, DME is an important intermediate for the production of useful 51 chemicals (i.e. methyl acetate and dimethyl sulfate) and petrochemicals (light olefins, BTX 52 aromatics). In the industry, DME is currently produced from syngas (carbon monoxide and ⁵³ hydrogen) via direct and indirect routes $6-10$ from various feedstocks like natural/shale gas, coal, 54 oil or biomass. Most of previous publications on $CO₂$ hydrogenation have addressed ⁵ methanol $=$ 55 synthesis. Copper catalysts (often containing zinc) and palladium have been shown $6,11-16$ good 56 activity in the methanol synthesis from both CO and $CO₂$. Jiang 17 et al observed a strong 57 promoting synergistic effect on the methanol formation over amorphous silica supported Pd– ⁵⁸ Cu bimetallic catalysts, when the $Pd/(Pd + Cu)$ atomic ratios lied in the range of 0.25–0.34. \qquad 59 Different to the methanol synthesis, direct DME production from $CO₂$ requires bifunctional 60 catalysts containing a function for the $CO₂$ selective hydrogenation to methanol (Eq. 1) and an 61 acid function for the methanol dehydration $(Eq. 2)^{18}$: 62

$$
CO2+3H2 \leftrightarrow CH3OH + H2O
$$

$$
\Delta H0298=-49.3 \text{ kJ/mol} \qquad (Eq. 1)
$$

The DME production is usually conditioned by the rate of methanol formation 19 in the 67 proximity of the metal-oxide interface, followed by a rapid transfer of methanol towards 68 neighboring acid sites of the zeolite. The interaction between metal and acid functions^{20,21} can 69 strongly affect the activity and selectivity. The DME yield can further enhanced by process 70 intensification including membrane reactor technology^{22–24} and sorption-enhanced dimethyl $\frac{71}{2}$ ether synthesis (SEDMES)²⁵. The main side reactions of the $CO₂$ hydrogenation are the reverse 72 water gas shift (RWGS, Eq. 3) and methanation (Eq. 4). 73

One of major challenges of the direct DME synthesis from $CO₂$ is possible presence of methane 74 and light alkanes in the reaction products. Methane and light alkanes cannot be converted to 75 DME under the process conditions, different to CO and methanol. Another challenge of direct 76 DME synthesis from CO₂ is insufficient stability of bifunctional catalysts. Indeed, metal 77 nanoparticles may undergo sintering^{26–28} and oxidation²⁸. The presence of strong acid sites in 78 the catalysts is not desirable, since these sites can lead to the formation of olefins and coke ⁷⁹ deposition. A particular attention should be therefore paid⁶ to the localization and synergy of \qquad 80 metallic and acid functions in the bifunctional catalysts. The ZSM-5 zeolite has often been used 81 as the acid component in bifunctional DME synthesis catalysts. The zeolite based catalysts 82 have several advantages²⁹ for methanol dehydration to DME in respect to more conventional 83 alumina such as tunable acidity and better stability in the presence of steam 30 . . ⁸⁴

The present manuscript addresses design of hybrid bifunctional catalysts on the basis of 85 supported copper-palladium monometallic and bimetallic particles supported on alumina and 86 $ZSM-5$ zeolite for direct synthesis of DME from $CO₂$. To the best of our knowledge, no 87 previous publications have addressed direct synthesis of DME using $CO₂$ hydrogenation over 88 hybrid Pd-Cu catalysts. Our goal was to elucidate the role of copper and palladium in bimetallic 89 catalysts on the catalyst structure, $CO₂$ conversion, DME production rate, reaction selectivity 90 and catalyst stability. The catalyst characterization using the XRD, TPR, XPS, STEM-EDX, ⁹¹ FTIR techniques was combined with catalytic measurements in a high-pressure catalytic 92 reactor. 93

94

2. Experimental ⁹⁵

2.1. Catalyst synthesis ⁹⁶

Copper (II) acetate (Sigma-Aldrich, 98%), tetraamminepalladium (II) nitrate aqueous solution 97 (10 wt.% metal content, Sigma-Aldrich) and commercial high surface area γ -Al₂O₃ (Riogen, > 98 98%) were used as raw materials for synthesis of the bimetallic $PdCu/Al₂O₃$ catalysts. The 99 PdCu/Al₂O₃ catalysts with 7 wt.% Cu nominal content and different Pd loadings $(2, 4$ and 6 100 wt.%) were prepared by co-impregnation. For that purpose, $25 \text{ mL of a } 0.27 \text{ M}$ copper acetate 101 aqueous solution (C₄H₆CuO₄) were prepared and kept under stirring for 10 minutes. The γ - 102 Al₂O₃ support was then added, and the mixture was stirred for 1 h. Subsequently, 25 mL of an 103 aqueous solution containing the appropriate amounts of $Pd(NH_3)_4(NO_3)_2$ were added dropwise 104 and the mixture was kept under stirring for 1 h. Afterwards, the obtained solid was dried 105 overnight at 100 °C and calcined at 350 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 2 °C·min⁻¹. The 106 resulting catalysts were labelled as 2PdCuAl, 4PdCuAl and 6PdCuAl. For the sake of 107 comparison, 7 wt.% Cu/Al₂O₃ and 6 wt.% Pd/Al₂O₃ monometallic catalysts, namely CuAl and 108 PdAl respectively, were also prepared. 109

A powder of the ammonium form of ZSM-5 zeolite with $SiO₂/Al₂O₃$ ratio of 23 (CVB 2314, 110) Zeolyst) was used as precursor for the preparation of the H-ZSM-5 acid catalyst. The latter, 111 referred in the present manuscript as Z, was obtained by calcination of the ammonium form at 112 550 °C for 6 h at a heating rate of 2 °C·min⁻¹. . 113 Finally, the hybrid MAl//Z (M=Cu, Pd or PdCu) catalysts with a 5:1 mass ratio were prepared 114 by mechanical mixing of the mono- or bimetallic catalysts and ZSM-5 zeolite in an agate 115 mortar. An appropriate quantity of the as prepared M-Al catalyst was put in the mortar with 116 the corresponding Z zeolite (ratio 5:1). The catalysts were manually mixed during 10 min at 117 room temperature to obtain a homogeneous mixture. The as-prepared sample was used for the 118 catalytic tests after H_2 activation. 119

2.2. Catalyst characterization ¹²¹

The elemental analysis of the bimetallic catalysts was performed by Inductively Coupled ¹²² Plasma-Optic Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-OES) after acid digestion in a HNO₃/HF mixture. 123 The measurements were performed in a 720-ES ICP-OES (Agilent) spectrometer, with axial 124 view and simultaneous CCD detection. The software ICP ExpertTM (version 2.0.4) was used to 125 estimate the weight percentage of each element in the samples. 126

The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Bruker D8 Advance ¹²⁷ diffractometer using CuKa radiation $(\lambda=1.5406 \text{ Å})$ over the 2 Theta range between 20 and 70° 128 with a step size of 0.01° and a step time of 5 s. The crystallite size of the metallic species was 129 calculated using the Scherrer equation $(Eq. 4)$: 130

$$
\zeta = K\lambda/\beta\cos\theta \tag{Eq.5}
$$

where ζ is the crystallite size, K is the shape factor, λ is the X-ray wavelength, β is the corrected 132 line broadening at half-maximum intensity and θ is the Bragg angle at the peak position. 133 The N_2 physisorption experiments at -196 \degree C were performed in a Micromeritics TriStar II Plus 134 apparatus. Prior to the measurements, the samples were degassed at 130 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 h under 135 vacuum. 136

The H₂ temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR, 5% H₂ in Ar) was carried out using the 137 AutoChem II 2920 apparatus (Micromeritics). The temperature was increased from 50 $^{\circ}$ C to 138

6

900 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. The catalyst (20 mg) was exposed to 50 cm³·min⁻¹ 139 of H₂ 5% v/v in Ar, and the temperature was raised from room temperature to 900 °C with a 140 heating rate of 10° C·min⁻¹. . ¹⁴¹

The X- ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analyses were performed on a Kratos Axis Ultra 142 DLD spectrometer with a monochromatized Al X-ray source (1486.6 eV) working at 180 W. 143 The spectra of the catalysts were acquired in air at room temperature and after a reduction 144 treatment under H₂ at 350 °C for 1 h. The spectra of samples were referenced to the C 1s signal 145 at 284.8 eV, corresponding to adventitious carbon. The relative surface atomic quantification ¹⁴⁶ was performed after the removal of a Shirley type background on each spectrum.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) ¹⁴⁸ measurements were performed on FEI Titan Themis 60-300 kV. The sample was deposited 149 onto a 400-mesh carbon-coated nickel grid. The FEI TITAN Themis 300 Transmission ¹⁵⁰ Electron Microscope is equipped with a high-brightness Schottky-type (FEG) field effect 151 source (XFEG) with a monochromator for final energy resolution (0.2 eV) . It has an adjustable 152 acceleration voltage from 60 kV to 300 kV and a spherical Cs aberration corrector on the probe 153 (DCOR) for high resolution images in STEM mode (<70 pm). The FEI TITAN microscope ¹⁵⁴ also features a high-resolution objective lens (S-TWIN) with a 5.4 mm distance between the ¹⁵⁵ polar parts that offers a 70-degree tilt angle with a tomographic specimen holder, CompuStage ¹⁵⁶ with a piezo stage for excellent sample holder stability, EDX Super-X detector with superior 157 sensitivity for very fast chemical mapping and four SDD detectors are integrated into the 158 objective lens (S-TWIN). In addition to a high-resolution post-column GATAN energy filter ¹⁵⁹ (Quantum ERS / 966) with a system, the equipment with Dual EELS for simultaneous ¹⁶⁰ acquisition of low and high energy losses, a CETA 16M camera for a wide field of view of the 161 Image. A three-axis tomographic sample holder (HATA) is also available. 162

The pyridine (Py) adsorption experiments followed by Fourier-Transform Infrared ¹⁶³ Spectroscopy (FTIR) were performed using a Thermo Nicolet 460 Protege instrument equipped 164 with a CsI beam splitter and an MCT detector, averaging 256 scans with a 2 cm⁻¹ resolution 165 within the 4000-400 cm⁻¹ range. The samples were pressed (1000 kg/cm^2) into a self-supported 166 wafer (2.01 cm², 10 mg.cm⁻²) and placed in a quartz sample holder in order to align the pellet $\frac{167}{2}$ with respect to the IR beam during the measurements and inserted into a furnace for thermal 168 treatments. The sample holder was then placed in a quartz cell equipped with KBr windows, 169 connected to a vacuum line for evacuation (P_{residual} $\simeq 10^{-6}$ Torr). Prior to the Py adsorption 170 experiments, the samples were reduced at 350° C under 50 mbar of pure hydrogen and the gas 171 was evacuated under high vacuum (P_{residual} $\simeq 10^{-6}$ Torr) overnight. The Py adsorption was 172 carried out at the equilibrium (1.2 mbar) at 100 °C. The weakly adsorbed Py was then evacuated 173 under high vacuum ($P_{residual} \simeq 10^{-6}$ Torr) at 150°C. 174

2.3. Catalytic tests ¹⁷⁶

The catalytic performance of the hybrid catalysts in the direct $CO₂$ hydrogenation was 177 evaluated in a tubular fixed-bed reactor (i. d. 1.4 mm) with the plug flow hydrodynamics 178 operating at 20 bar and 260 °C. We have chosen 260 °C taking into account thermodynamic 179 limitations of the reaction. At lower temperatures, the $CO₂$ conversion is too low, while at 180 higher temperatures, methanation and RWGS are favored 31 . In a typical experiment, 100 mg 181 of the powder catalyst (125 $\lt \emptyset_p$ <150 µm) were diluted with SiC. Prior to the reaction, the 182 solids were reduced for 1 h at 350° C at atmospheric pressure under 5 mL·min⁻¹ of H₂. After 183 conducting the catalyst reduction in H_2 at 350°C, the reactor temperature was decreased to 184 200 $^{\circ}$ C. The reactor was purged with H₂/CO gas mixture at atmospheric pressure at 200 $^{\circ}$ C. The 185 pressure was then increased to 20 bar and the flow was switched to the reaction mixture, ¹⁸⁶ containing 20% CO₂, 60% H₂ and N₂ as balance. Afterwards, the temperature was increased to 187

260°C.The reactants and reaction products were analyzed using an on-line gas chromatography ¹⁸⁸ data system (Scion 456-GC) fitted with ShinCarbon ST, Rt®-Q-BOND columns, TCD and 189 FID detectors. 190

The CO_2 conversion (Eq. 5, X_{CO2}) and selectivities (Eq. 6, S_i) were calculated as follows ³²: 191

$$
X_{CO_2}(9_0) = \left(\frac{(F_{CO_2 \text{ in}} - F_{CO_2 \text{ out}})}{F_{CO_2 \text{ in}}}\right) \cdot 100
$$
 (Eq.5)

where F_{CO2} in and F_{CO2} *out* are the molar flows of CO_2 at the inlet and the outlet of the reactor, 193 respectively. 194

$$
S_i(\%) = \left(\frac{F_i}{F_{CO2\ in} - F_{CO2\ out}}\right) * 100
$$
 (Eq.6)

where F_i refers to the carbon-based molar flow in the product "i" (CO, CH₄, C₂H₆, CH₃OH, 196 DME). 197

198

3. Results and discussion ¹⁹⁹

3.1. Catalyst characterization ²⁰⁰

The physicochemical properties of the studied samples are summarized in **Table 1**. The Z acid ²⁰¹ catalyst presents a type I (Langmuir) adsorption isotherm at low P/P_0 values, indicating the 202 filling of micropores. At higher P/P_0 values, the adsorption isotherm is influenced by filling the 203 spaces between the zeolite agglomerates 33 . The hybrid catalysts exhibit type IV(a) adsorption- 204 desorption isotherms and H1-type hysteresis, according to the IUPAC classification, typical of 205 ordered mesoporous materials with uniform cylindrical pores or three-dimensional pore ²⁰⁶ networks ³⁴ (Fig. S1, Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI)). The catalysts present 207 specific surface areas ranging from 179.70 to 208.72 $m^2 \tcdot g^{-1}$, being their textural properties 208 mainly governed by those of the γ -Al₂O₃ support. Both the Pd and Cu monometallic catalysts 209 display higher specific surface areas than their bimetallic counterparts, which could be 210 explained by lower total metal loading. The metal contents in the catalysts measured by ICP 211

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-

are close to the nominal values in all catalysts, except in the 6PdCuAl one, in which a loss of ²¹² Pd has taken place during the synthesis.²¹³

214

222

a Metal contents determined in the γ -Al₂O₃ supported catalysts before mixing with the Z acid 216 catalyst 217

 b Number of Bronsted and Lewis acid sites corresponds to 0.166 g of the HZSM-5 zeolite. This 218 amount relates to the fraction of HZSM-5 zeolite in the hybrid metal zeolite catalysts 219

^c Ratio of hydrogen consumption calculated to metal amount in the mono- and bimetallic 220 catalysts calculated from TPR data. ²²¹

The XRD patterns of the monometallic and bimetallic catalysts are shown in **Fig. 1**. The ²²³ diffraction pattern of the Z acid catalyst corresponds to a H-ZSM-5 zeolite with a high degree 224 of crystallinity, whereas the support diffractogram corresponds to that of γ -Al₂O₃ (JCPDS- 225) ICDD 00-010-0425). Besides the support XRD patterns, intense diffraction lines associated to 226 diffraction patterns of the CuAl catalyst. 228

Fig. 1. XRD patterns of the support $(\gamma$ -Al₂O₃), acid HZSM-5 catalyst (Z) and mono- and 231 bimetallic catalysts after calcination at 350 °C (calcined samples). 232

The CuO and Cu₂O crystallite sizes calculated from the peak broadening were 27.5 and 52.6 234 nm respectively, in the copper monometallic catalyst. In the Pd monometallic catalyst, very 235 broad diffraction peaks corresponding to PdO (JCPDS-ICDD 00-041-1107) and metallic Pd ²³⁶ (JCPDS-ICDD 00-005-0681) were observed. Reduction of palladium requires a very low ²³⁷ activation energy. Spontaneous reduction of Pd under ambient conditions has been observed in ²³⁸ a number of previous publications $35-37$. Very broad XRD patterns indicate high Pd dispersion. 239 The mean crystallite size of Pd species calculated using Scherrer's equation was 4.5 nm. The diffraction lines attributed to the metal species in the 2PdCuAl and 4PdCuAl bimetallic 241 catalysts are located between those corresponding to the pure Cu and Pd species. This points ²⁴² out to the strong interaction between both metals in these samples and possible formation of a ²⁴³ PdCu alloy ^{38,39} and/or a mixed Pd-Cu oxide. The broadening of the XRD peaks attributed to 244

229

233

metallic species also suggests that the presence of Pd significantly improves Cu dispersion. In 245 2PdCuAl, in addition to the Cu-Pd mixed oxide species, a diffraction line at 35° indicates the ²⁴⁶ presence of CuO crystallites. On the contrary, an increase in the Pd content in the 6PdCuAl 247 catalyst leads to the appearance of peaks corresponding to CuO and metallic Pd, indicting the ²⁴⁸ presence of separated Pd and Cu phases in the solids with the highest Pd content. Metal ²⁴⁹ nanoparticles are located on the Al_2O_3 as the zeolite was introduced after the metal deposition 250 (via physical mixture as detailed in Experimental). ²⁵¹

Fig. 2. TPR profiles of the mono- and bimetallic catalysts (calcined samples). 253

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The TPR profiles of the mono- and bimetallic catalysts are presented in **Fig. 2**. **Table 1** shows ²⁵⁵ the H/M ratio, defined as the ratio between the number of moles of atomic hydrogen consumed ²⁵⁶ and number of moles of metal present in the samples and measured by ICP-OES (**Table 1**). ²⁵⁷ The reduction profile of the monometallic CuAl catalyst shows three peaks at 257, 285 and 258 320°C. The results demonstrate the presence of two different types of Cu species or CuO with 259

two different particle size distributions, which show the TPR peaks at 257 and 285°C, as 260 previously reported for Cu catalysts with metal loadings superior to 5 wt. $\%$ ^{40,41}. In agreement 261 with previous work ⁴², the broad shoulder at 320 °C corresponds to the reduction of Cu₂O, 262 which requires higher temperatures. This result agrees with the presence of both CuO and Cu₂O $\frac{263}{2}$ detected by XRD (**Fig. 1**) in the CuAl catalyst. The H/M value of 2 calculated for this solid ²⁶⁴ (**Table 1**) confirms the complete reduction of Cu species. ²⁶⁵

The TPR profile of the PdAl catalyst (**Fig. 2**) exhibits a low temperature peak at 73 °C of easily 266 reducible PdO, as well as two reduction peaks at 110 and 146 $^{\circ}$ C, which correspond to the 267 reduction of two types of the PdO species. The negative peak at 80 °C indicates the ²⁶⁸ decomposition of β-PdH, which formation has been extensively reported previously $43-45$. . ²⁶⁹ Hydrogen consumption at higher temperatures (266 and 347°C) has been ascribed to the 270 reduction of PdO species strongly interacting with the γ-Al₂O₃ support or the reduction of a 271 two-dimensional (2D) PdO surface phase formed 46 during the calcination at high temperatures, 272 responsible for the redispersion of Pd species. The extent of such redispersion has been ²⁷³ correlated to the calcination temperature and PdO particle size. At the calcination temperature 274 of 350 \degree C, smaller Pd particles exhibit spreading, whereas the biggest ones do not $46-48$. . ²⁷⁵ Considering the small crystallite size determined by XRD in the PdAl catalyst, the formation ²⁷⁶ of the 2D PdO phase could explain the appearance of these reduction events at high temperature 277 in our PdAl catalyst. The hydrogen consumption of this catalyst was lower than the theoretical 278 value, which could be due to the presence of a small quantity of metallic Pd in the Pd-Cu ²⁷⁹ catalyst already before the reduction, as demonstrated by XRD (**Fig. 1**). ²⁸⁰

For the PdCu bimetallic catalysts, the TPR profiles (**Fig. 2**) are substantially more complex and ²⁸¹ different than those of their monometallic counterparts. The reduction profiles of the 2PdCuAl, 282 4PdCuAl and 6PdCuAl catalysts show a very intense peak at 170-190°C. This peak could be ²⁸³ attributed to the reduction of mixed Cu-Pd species. Indeed, the reduction of Cu species seems 284

to be facilitated by the presence of Pd in the bimetallic particles. Palladium can enhance the ²⁸⁵ reduction of Cu and larger oxide ensembles ^{45,49}. Interestingly, the 4PdCuAl catalyst shows a 286 single reduction peak at 174 °C. This suggests that this catalyst principally contains a single 287 type of Cu-Pd bimetal nanoparticles. The Pd-Cu atomic ratio in this sample corresponds to the ²⁸⁸ chemical composition of PdCu₃ alloy $50-52$. . 289 **.** 289

Fig. 3. Cu 3p3/2, Pd 3d and Cu LMM levels XPS spectra of the 2PdCuAl catalyst before (a, c, ²⁹¹ e) and after (b, d, f) reduction treatment under H_2 at 350 °C. 292

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Table 2. Binding energies of Pd 3d_{5/2} and Cu 2p_{3/2} core levels, Cu LMM Auger kinetic energy, 299 modified Auger parameter (α') and surface atomic ratios of the mono-and bimetallic catalysts α 300 before and after reduction treatment. The suffix -R refers to the reduced samples. 301

Catalyst	Pd	Cu	α'	Pd/Cu	Cu/Al	Pd/Al surface
	$3d_{5/2}$	$2p_{3/2}$		surface	surface	atomic ratio
	(eV)	(eV)		atomic ratio	atomic ratio	
CuAl	$\overline{}$	934.2		$\overline{0}$	0.021	$\frac{1}{2}$
		932.9				
CuAl-R	\overline{a}	932.3	1850.3	$\overline{0}$	0.011	$\qquad \qquad -$
PdAl	336.8	$\overline{}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	\Box	\overline{a}	0.018
PdAl-R	335.3	\blacksquare	$\overline{}$	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$	0.010
2PdCuAl	337.5	934.7	$\overline{}$	0.18	0.027	0.0058/8/
		933.0				
2PdCuAl-R	335.8	932.5	1850.6	0.29	0.019	0.006
4PdCuAl	337.4	934.7	\Box	0.32	0.028	0.009
		932.9				
4PdCuAl-R	335.9	932.5	1850.4	0.32	0.017	0.006
6PdCuAl	336.8	933.8	$\frac{1}{2}$	0.28	0.021	0.008
		933.0				
6PdCuAl-R	335.3	932.1	1850.4	0.38	0.011	0.004

Consequently, this assignment is in good agreement with XRD, which suggests the formation 303 of mainly isolated PdO and CuO particles in the 6PdCuAl and 2PdCuAl catalysts. In addition, ³⁰⁴ no negative peak corresponding to the β-PdH decomposition is observed in the bimetallic ³⁰⁵ samples, differently from the monometallic PdAl catalyst. According to Mendez 44 et al., this $\frac{306}{2}$ could be explained by the presence of Cu species within the Pd crystals, which could inhibit 307 the formation of the hydride. The high temperature reduction peak at 574 °C for the 2PdCuAl $\frac{308}{200}$ and 6PdCuAl catalysts may be due to the reduction of CuAl₂O₄ and/or PdAl₂O₄ phases, formed 309 due to the diffusion of Cu^{2+} and Pd^{2+} into the alumina lattice ⁵³. **.** 310

The relative surface distribution and oxidation state of Pd and Cu species in the mono- and 311 bimetallic catalysts before and after reduction treatment under H_2 at 350 °C were elucidated 312 using XPS. The obtained results are summarized in **Table 2**. The XPS spectra of the 2PdCuAl 313 sample are presented in **Fig. 3**. The XPS spectra of other catalysts are given in **Figs S2** and **S3,** ³¹⁴ **ESI.** After the H_2 treatment, the XPS Pd/Cu atomic ratio is similar to the bulk chemical 315 composition (**Table 1**). Both Pd/Al and Cu/Al atomic ratios decrease after the reduction ³¹⁶ treatment for all the studied samples, probably due to sintering of the metal species during the 317 treatment under H_2 ⁵⁴ **.** 318

Identification of the Cu oxidation state by XPS is challenging due to the complexity of the Cu $\frac{319}{2}$ 2p level spectra, resulting from the shake-up satellites characteristic of Cu^{2+} species and 320 overlapping binding energies $55,56$ of Cu⁺ and Cu⁰. Consequently, determination of Cu oxidation 321 state requires evaluation of both their characteristic binding energies and modified Auger 322 parameter (α'). Before the reduction treatment, the deconvolution of the peak in the Cu $2p_{3/2}$ 323 region indicates the presence of two different Cu species. The appearance of a shake-up satellite 324 at ca. 10 eV higher binding energy than the main peak, confirms the presence of Cu^{2+} (**Fig. 3a**) 325 ⁴², whereas the broad peak in the Cu LMM spectra (**Fig. 3e**) is indicative of the mixture of both 326 Cu^{2+} and Cu^{+} oxides ⁵⁷, in good agreement with XRD and TPR results. After the H₂ treatment, 327 the disappearance of the Cu²⁺ satellite in the Cu 2p_{3/2} region suggests reduction of copper oxide 328 (**Fig. 3b**). Note however, that the Cu LMM Auger peak (**Fig. 3f**) does not present the typical ³²⁹ shape of pure metallic Cu⁰, and the modified Auger parameter value is \sim 1 eV lower than that 330 reported for metallic Cu⁵⁶. This suggests the presence of both metallic Cu⁰ and Cu⁺ after the 331 reduction treatment. However, the fraction of Cu⁺ seems smaller than that of metallic copper, 332 since the characteristic weak satellite of $Cu⁺$, which should be located at around 8 eV above 333 the main peak ⁵⁸ has not been detected. 334

Fig. 4. HAADF-STEM micrographs and EDS mapping (Cu, Pd) of the reduced bimetallic 336 catalysts. a) 2PdCuAl, b) 4PdCuAl, c) 6PdCuAl. $\frac{337}{ }$

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The binding energy of the Pd $3d_{5/2}$ peak indicates the presence of Pd²⁺ in all the catalysts before 339 the reduction (**Fig. 3c**). After the reduction treatment, the peak shifts towards lower binding 340 energy (\sim 2 eV), which confirms the complete reduction of Pd²⁺ to Pd⁰ (Fig. 3d). Interestingly, 341 the Pd $3d_{5/2}$ peak in the reduced 2PdCuAl and 4PdCuAl catalysts shifts towards higher binding 342 energy with respect to the reduced PdAl catalyst. This chemical shift may be attributed to the 343 charge transfer and lattice strain effects derived from a strong Pd-Cu interaction, suggesting a ³⁴⁴ close proximity between both metals and formation of a PdCu alloy [50,51]. On the contrary, 345 in the 6PdCuAl catalyst with higher Pd content, the reduction results in the shift of Pd $3d_{5/2}$ 346 XPS peaks to lower energy. This suggests the presence of isolated Pd species and a lower 347 degree of Pd-Cu interaction, in accordance with previous observations [33]. This result also 348 agrees with XRD, where diffraction peaks associated to isolated Pd species were detected (**Fig.** ³⁴⁹ **1**) and with the TPR profile of 6PdCuAl (**Fig. 2**), which shows the reduction peak attributed to ³⁵⁰ the Pd species. 351

The particle size distribution, mean particle size and elemental composition of the reduced 352 catalysts were evaluated by HAADF-STEM and EDS mappings (**Fig. 4**). The STEM ³⁵³ micrograph and EDS mapping of the monometallic CuAl catalyst (**Fig. S4 a, SI**) show the ³⁵⁴ presence of Cu particles with a broad particle size distribution. The Cu species present a broad ³⁵⁵ particle size distribution (**Fig. 5a**) with the mean particle size of 39 nm (**Table 1**, agglomerated ³⁵⁶ particles). On the contrary, Pd particles in the PdAl catalyst are uniformly dispersed in the γ - 357 Al2O3 support (**Fig. 5b**), presenting a narrow particle size distribution (**Fig. 5b**) and a mean ³⁵⁸ particle size of 2.8 nm. These results are in line with the crystallite sizes estimated by XRD in 359 the calcined samples (**Fig. 1**). 360

The particle size and metal localization seem to be functions of catalyst composition. In the 361 2PdCuAl catalyst (**Fig. 4a**), both Pd-decorated Cu particles and isolated Cu particles were 362

distinguished. Although the mean particle size in this sample (11.4 nm) decreases with respect 363 to the CuAl monometallic catalyst, the particle size distribution (**Fig. 5c**) is still broad. ³⁶⁴

Fig. 5. Particle size distribution of the reduced mono- and bimetallic catalysts. a) CuAl, b) 366 PdAl, c) 2PdCuAl, d) 4PdCuAl, e) 6PdCuAl 367

The STEM-EDS image shows the presence of both monometallic and bimetallic Cu-Pd ³⁶⁹ particles. Pd seems to be in close contact with Cu particles, as previously suggested by XRD, 370 TPR and XPS. The 4PdCuAl catalyst (**Fig. 4b**) shows a higher fraction of bimetallic ³⁷¹ nanoparticles suggesting the formation of $PdCu₃$ alloy in agreement with TPR and XPS results. 372 Furthermore, increasing Pd content leads to a narrow particle size distribution. In the 4PdCuAl 373 catalyst, a narrow particle size distribution (**Fig. 5d**) at 4.2 nm was observed. It seems that at ³⁷⁴ higher Pd content, the sample contains a higher fraction of monometallic Pd particles. The 375 6PdCuAl catalyst (**Fig. 4c**) is constituted by highly dispersed nanoparticles with a narrow ³⁷⁶

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particle size distribution (**Fig. 5e**). The size of bimetallic nanoparticles is around 8.5 nm, 377 whereas very small nanoparticles of about 4-6 nm corresponding to isolated Pd particles were 378 also detected. The quantitative information about the catalyst acidity was extracted from Py ³⁷⁹ adsorption experiments combined with FTIR spectroscopy. The spectra of the hybrid catalysts 380 reduced in hydrogen after Py adsorption at 100 $^{\circ}$ C followed by Py desorption at 150 $^{\circ}$ C are 381 presented in Fig. 6. The band at 1616 cm^{-1} is attributed to physisorbed Py, linked by the 382 hydrogen bonding to the surface hydroxyl groups. The band at 1546 cm^{-1} corresponds to the 383 C-C stretching vibrational frequency typical of pyridinium ions (PyH⁺), formed as a result of 384 Py protonation by the Brønsted acid sites 59 . The bands at 1634, 1616 and 1451 cm⁻¹ correspond 385 to v_{8a} and v_{19a} modes of molecularly coordinated Py (PyL), indicative of the presence of Lewis 386 acid sites. The band at 1490 cm⁻¹ indicates the mixture of both types of acid sites 33 . The 387 Brønsted acid sites are relevant to the presence of zeolite, while the Lewis acid sites can be due 388 to zeolite and alumina 60 , which both exhibit noticeable Lewis acidity. 389

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Fig. 6. FTIR spectra of the hybrid catalysts after pyridine adsorption at 100 °C and desorption 391 at 150° C. (reduced samples). 392

By using the extinction coefficients ($\varepsilon_B = 1.67$ and $\varepsilon_L = 2.22$ cm/µmol) ⁶¹ for the 1546 and 1451 394 cm⁻¹ bands, the concentrations of both types of Brønsted and Lewis acid sites were calculated. 395 The concentrations of Brønsted acid sites in the hybrid catalysts after the Py desorption at 150 396 °C are shown in **Table 1**. Since the hybrid catalysts were prepared using the 5:1 mass ratio of ³⁹⁷ metallic catalyst to zeolite, the concentration of Brønsted acid sites is given in **Table 1** for 1/6 398 g of the pure HZSM-5 zeolite. Mechanical mixing of copper metal catalysts and zeolite ³⁹⁹ followed by reduction results in a much smaller number of Brønsted acid sites relative to the 400 parent zeolite. It seems that the concentration of Brønsted acid sites is lower in the sample 401 containing only copper (CuAl//Z), while it is slightly higher in the HZSM-5 zeolite after 402 addition of the Pd catalyst to the zeolite. It can be suggested that some amount of Brønsted acid 403 sites of the zeolite can be neutralized by copper during the reduction. Indeed, during the 404 calcination and reduction, the Cu cationic species can migrate inside the zeolite. Previously, ⁴⁰⁵ migration of copper ions in several zeolites was observed under thermal and reductive 406 treatments $62-65$ and can be also facilitated by the presence of water. Similar mechanism of 407 deactivation of bifunctional hybrid catalysts was reported in the literature ^{66,67}. Note that this 408 migration does not occur for Pd species, which can be readily reduced to the metallic state at 409 relatively low temperature $(\leq 100^{\circ}C)$. Metallic palladium is more stable under the reaction 410 conditions and cannot react with the acid sites in zeolite. ⁴¹¹

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3.2. Activity in the CO2 hydrogenation ⁴¹³

The prepared catalysts were tested in the direct DME synthesis from CO_2 at 260 °C and 20 bar. 414 **Fig. 7** shows the evolution of CO_2 conversion over the hybrid catalysts during the 20 h of reaction. The reaction began by raising the reactor temperature from 200 to 260° C. The initial increase in $CO₂$ conversion is due to the hydrodynamic inertia of the high-pressure reactor (time needed for the reaction products to reach the gas-chromatograph for analysis). The maximum $CO₂$ conversion under these conditions corresponding to the thermodynamic 419 equilibrium is 20%. The catalytic tests were conducted for at least 20 h. No catalyst 420 deactivation was detected on both monometallic and bimetallic catalysts. The $CO₂$ conversion 421 values decrease as follows: CuAl//Z > 6PdCuAl//Z > PdAl//Z > 2PdCuAl//Z >> 4PdCuAl//Z 422 (**Table 3**). High CO_2 conversion values ranging from 11 to 17% are obtained for both the 423 monometallic and 2PdCuAl//Z and 6PdCuAl//Z bimetallic catalysts. We calculated turnover 424 frequencies (TOF) for CO₂ hydrogenation over copper and palladium monometallic catalysts 425 in order to evaluate the intrinsic catalytic activity of their surface sites. For the TOF calculation, 426 the copper dispersion was estimated from copper metal particle size using the formula: ⁴²⁷ D_{Cu} , %=104/d_{Cu} (nm) ⁶⁸, while the palladium dispersion was evaluated using the methodology 428 developed by Fritsche 69 , Montejano-Carrizales 70 and then summarized by Agostini 71 . . ⁴²⁹

Fig. 7. CO₂ conversion over the hybrid catalysts in the direct DME synthesis reaction as a 431 function of time on-stream. The dashed line corresponds to the equilibrium conversion in the 432 evaluated reaction conditions (reduced samples). ⁴³³

The TOF value calculated for the monometallic PdAl//Z catalyst (TOF $_{\text{Pd}}$ =0.005 s⁻¹) was almost 435 10 times lower than for CuAl/ $/Z$ (TOF_{Cu}=0.048 s⁻¹). This suggests that, while both 436 monometallic coper and palladium catalysts have shown high overall $CO₂$ hydrogenation rates, 437

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this relatively high catalytic activity has different reasons. Over the copper monometallic ⁴³⁸ catalyst, the high $CO₂$ hydrogenation rate arises from higher intrinsic activity of copper surface 439 sites, whereas in the palladium monometallic counterpart, it comes from higher dispersion of 440 palladium. At the comparable amounts of copper and palladium sites, the rate of $CO₂$ 441 hydrogenation over copper-palladium bimetallic catalysts can be primarily attributed to copper 442 surface sites, though the intrinsic activity of these copper sites seems to be noticeably affected 443 by their interaction with palladium. 444

The bimetallic catalysts show significantly lower $CO₂$ conversions compared to the copper 445 monometallic counterpart. Indeed, the 2PdCuAl//Z catalyst exhibits the $CO₂$ conversion of 446 about slightly lower with respect to the CuAl//Z catalyst. A significant decrease in the $CO₂$ 447 conversion compared to CuAl//Z is also observed over the 4PdCuAl//Z catalyst. ⁴⁴⁸

Table 3. Catalytic performance of metal-zeolite hybrid catalysts in CO₂ hydrogenation at 449 steady state conditions (20% CO₂, 60% H₂ and N₂ as balance, P= 20 bar, T=260°C, 450 GHSV=3000 $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}_{\text{cat}}$ h. $\log_{\text{cat}} h$. 451

Catalyst	CO ₂ Selectivity, %						DME space
	conversion,	CO	CH ₄	C_2H_6	CH ₃ OH	DME	time yield,
	$\%$						mmol g_{cat}^{-1}
							h^{-1}
CuAl//Z	17.3	91.7	0.7	0.3	3.8	3.4	0.149
PdAl//Z	15.9	32.2	65.1	0.2	2.1	0.5	0.019
2PdCuAl//Z	11.3	78.0	θ	θ	10.2	11.8	0.333
4PdCuAl//Z	2.7	53.8	$\overline{0}$	Ω	16.4	29.8	0.200
6PdCuAl//Z	13.9	92.3	0.5	0.3	3.5	3.4	0.118

The variation of the catalytic activity of the copper-palladium bimetallic catalysts can be 453 explained by both catalyst chemical composition and copper nanoparticle size. The low activity ⁴⁵⁴

of 4PdCuAl//Z catalyst could be attributed to the presence of extremely small metal particles ⁴⁵⁵ (about 4 nm) in this sample detected by TEM. Previous report⁷² indicates that the $CO₂$ 456 hydrogenation to methanol is a structure-sensitive reaction. TOF over Cu-based catalysts was 457 found ⁷² much lower for small copper nanoparticles and significantly increases as soon as the 458 copper nanoparticles become larger than 8 nm. The lower activity of 4PdCuAl/Z was attributed ⁴⁵⁹ to lower intrinsic site activity in small metallic nanoparticles. The high activity of the ⁴⁶⁰ 6PdCuAl//Z and 2PdCuAL//Z catalysts could be explained by the increase in the bimetallic ⁴⁶¹ particle size up to 8 and 11.4 nm respectively. In addition, both monometallic Pd and Cu species 462 present in these catalysts (as derived from XRD, STEM and TPR) can contribute to the reaction ⁴⁶³ rate.⁴⁶⁴

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3.3. Selectivity to the reaction products ⁴⁶⁶

Direct DME synthesis from $CO₂$ is a multistage catalytic reaction. It proceeds via $CO₂$ 467 hydrogenation to methanol (Eq. 1) followed by methane dehydration (Eq. 2). The catalyst 468 requires therefore, a catalytic function for selective $CO₂$ hydrogenation, while methanol 469 dehydration takes place on an acid catalytic component. The overall DME synthesis proceeds 470 therefore, over a bifunctional catalyst containing both catalytic functions. The reaction ⁴⁷¹ selectivity can be affected by both $CO₂$ hydrogenation and methanol dehydration components. 472 Let us first discuss the selectivity of $CO₂$ hydrogenation over the metallic component, which is 473 the first step of DME synthesis (**Table 3**). The monometallic copper and palladium catalysts 474 produce several reaction products such methanol, DME, methane, ethane and CO. The ⁴⁷⁵ selectivity to CO is much higher over copper containing catalysts compared to the pallidum 476 counterparts. CO is produced from the RWGS reaction. Because of the thermodynamic ⁴⁷⁷ limitations, DME synthesis from $CO₂$ proceeds with low single pass conversion. Continuous 478 DME production can be achieved using a recirculating process. 479 In addition to CO, both copper and palladium monometallic CuAl//Z and PdAl//Z catalysts 480 produce noticeable amounts of methane and ethane, which are undesirable products of DME ⁴⁸¹ synthesis. Note that the production of hydrocarbons is much more significant over 482 monometallic PdAl//Z, where the methane selectivity reached 92 %. The combined ⁴⁸³ hydrocarbon selectivity (methane and ethane) was about 12% over the CuAl//Z sample. ⁴⁸⁴ Interestingly, over the bimetallic catalysts, the selectivity of $CO₂$ hydrogenation to 485 hydrocarbons has been dramatically reduced. This suggests that the methane production can be 486 attributed to either copper or palladium monometallic sites. The contribution of the acid ⁴⁸⁷ component to the synthesis of hydrocarbons, such as methane and ethane from $CO₂$ is not 488 expected at 260^oC. 489

For methanol synthesis from $CO₂$, the structure and composition of the hydrogenation catalyst 490 plays a pivotal role, determining the nature of the reaction intermediates formed. Over the ⁴⁹¹ PdAl//Z monometallic catalyst, the main obtained product is CH₄, followed by CO, whereas 492 the formation of CH3OH and DME occurs with the combined selectivity of 4.1% (**Table 3**). ⁴⁹³ This result agrees with previous studies 73 , in which formation of CH₄ was favored over a 5 494 wt.% Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst. At this metal loading, the fraction of Pd terrace sites forming stable 495 CO species, which can be further hydrogenated to CH₄, is higher than at lower metal loadings, 496 thus favoring the CH₄ formation over direct CO desorption. Although Pd alone does not favor 497 the CH₃OH formation, its role as promoter of Cu catalysts for CH₃OH formation can be 498 highlighted $17,74-76$. Differently from Cu, both reaction pathways can take place in the PdCu 499 bimetallic catalysts to yield CH₃OH, depending on the Pd coverage⁷⁴. . ⁵⁰⁰

The presence of small amount of palladium in bimetal copper-palladium catalysts is 501 particularly beneficial for the DME synthesis. The results for the 2PdCuAl//Z catalyst 502 demonstrate a significant increase in the oxygenated product selectivity, which reaches 100%. 503 This sample also exhibits the higher space time yield of DME (**Table 3**). Yang⁷⁶ et al. carried 504 out theoretical studies to explain the reason for the methanol production enhancement in Pd- ⁵⁰⁵ doped Cu catalysts. CH₃OH productivity in this solid seems to be enhanced due to the lower $=$ 506 barrier for HCO hydrogenation on Pd/Cu(111) with respect to Cu(111). Over the 4PdCuAl/ α 507 catalyst, light alkanes were neither observed. Catalyst characterization has shown the presence 508 of copper-palladium bimetallic nanoparticles in this catalyst. Liu 75 et al. developed a 509 theoretical model concerning CH₃OH formation on PdCu₃(111) surface. According to these $\frac{510}{2}$ authors, the reaction in the alloy does not occur via the formate or RWGS mechanism, but 511 through the so-called COOH pathway. The first step of this route consists on the formation of 512 trans-COOH from $CO₂$ and H. That would explain the absence of hydrocarbons over this 513 catalyst. Finally, in the 6PdCuAl//Z catalyst, the product distribution changes with respect to ⁵¹⁴ its bimetallic counterparts. CO, CH₄ and C₂H₆ are formed, in addition to methanol and DME. $\frac{515}{2}$ That could be explained by the presence of a larger fraction of palladium nanoparticles in this 516 catalyst with higher palladium content, in addition to the bimetallic copper-palladium species. 517 These Pd nanoparticles contribute to the production of hydrocarbons. At higher Pd 518 concentration, the production of CH_4 remains high, which is not suitable. The importance of $\frac{519}{2}$ acid sites in the second step of DME synthesis from $CO₂$, which is dehydration of $CH₃OH$, has $= 520$ been extensively reported in the literature¹¹. In this context, the use of the H-ZSM-5 zeolite as 521 acid catalyst has been highlighted. The ZSM-5 zeolite has comparatively greater concentration 522 and stability of Brønsted acid sites with respect to those of γ -Al₂O₃^{11,77}. The metal-zeolite 523 hybrid catalysts prepared in this work by mechanical mixing have shown different ⁵²⁴ concentrations of acid sites. Mechanical mixing of alumina supported metal catalysts and ⁵²⁵ zeolite followed by reduction in hydrogen results in a considerable decrease in the ⁵²⁶ concentration of the Brønsted acid sites for the hybrid catalysts (**Table 1**). Interestingly, the 527 decrease in the concentration of Brønsted acid sites was only observed, when copper is present 528 in the catalysts, while the monometallic palladium catalyst has exhibited the maximum amount 529 of Brønsted acid sites. The decrease in the concentration of Brønsted acid sites has been ⁵³⁰ attributed to the migration of unreduced copper cations inside the zeolite and a partial ⁵³¹ neutralization of zeolite Brønsted sites during the temperature treatment. Previously, several ⁵³² techniques have detected high mobility^{78,79} of copper oxidized species in zeolites. Note $\frac{533}{2}$ however, that the DME selectivity over CuAl//Z, 2PdCuAl//Z and 6PdCuAl//Z catalysts was 534 not much affected by the amount of Brønsted acid sites (**Table 3**). ⁵³⁵

4. Conclusion ⁵³⁷

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We uncovered a strong interaction between copper, palladium and zeolite in the hybrid 538 catalysts for direct DME synthesis from carbon dioxide. Better copper reducibility and higher 539 dispersion of the metallic phases was observed after the introduction of palladium to copper 540 catalysts. The presence of palladium also protects copper from oxidation and slows migration ⁵⁴¹ of unreduced copper cationic species into zeolite during catalyst reduction, which results in ⁵⁴² lower concentration of Brønsted acid sites. ⁵⁴³

The bimetallic copper-palladium catalysts with small amount of palladium have shown higher 544 DME yield and better DME selectivity. The copper-palladium bimetallic nanoparticles even 545 with a small fraction of palladium suppress hydrocarbon production. The monometallic copper 546 and palladium hybrid zeolite catalysts have shown production of noticeable amounts of 547 methane and ethane, which are undesirable products, under the conditions of direct DME ⁵⁴⁸ hydrocarbon formation. The DME selectivity was not much affected by the amounts of 549 Brønsted sites in the hybrid catalysts. 550

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Acknowledgements ⁵⁵⁵

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There are no conflicts to declare. 561

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