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In operando simultaneous ATR-IR/Raman spectroscopic investigation of the catalytic activity of supported Pt, Ru, and Pd catalysts in H/D exchange reactions between H₂ and D₂O.

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Abstract

In this study, catalytic H/D exchange experiments have been performed between H₂ and D₂O catalyzed by supported metal catalysts, namely, Ru/Al₂O₃, Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ in order to unveil the reaction mechanism at work in the glucose hydrogenation reaction on these supported metal catalysts. The conversion of H₂ and D₂O towards the formation of the exchange species namely HOD, HD and D₂ was investigated using *in operando* simultaneous ATR-IR/Raman spectroscopy allowing the monitoring of the liquid/gas phase respectively. After 24 h of reaction at 22 °C under 30 bar of H₂, it is found that Pt/Al₂O₃ and then Pd/Al₂O₃. On the other hand, the enhanced activity of Ru/Al₂O₃ for the hydrogenation of glucose is tentatively assigned to H atoms adsorbed and activated on the Ru surface leading to an Ru-H infrared band located around 1940-1970 cm⁻¹, that is observed only with Ru/Al₂O₃. This activated H* could be directly added to the carbon atom of the carbonyl of glucose to give sorbitol in a more efficient way compared to the other metals.

Keywords: Isotopic Exchange, Deuterated water, Dihydrogen, Hydrogenation, Glucose, Ruthenium, Platinum, Palladium, *In operando* spectroscopy

Introduction

Due to the use of lignocellulosic biomass as raw material, more and more catalytic reaction are performed in water. Hence, water allows the dissolution of carbohydrates contained in lignocellulosic biomass. An important reaction starting from sugars is the hydrogenation of sugars to sugar alcohol. For instance, sorbitol is a commodity chemical produced with high tonnage for paper industry, food and cosmetic applications. As sorbitol can be obtained from glucose hydrogenation (**Fig. 1**), contained in the carbohydrate part of lignocellulose, it was identified in 2004 by the US Department of Energy as one of the building blocks materials to high-value bio-based chemicals [1]. During this reaction, it is of prime interest to understand the exact role of water on the catalyst.



Figure 1: Hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol catalyzed by a metal catalyst in aqueous liquid phase.

The synthesis of sorbitol from glucose is mostly performed with Raney-type nickel catalysts or nickel supported catalysts due to its high hydrogenation activity [2–8]. However, due to the leaching of nickel, the study of more stable, selective and active catalysts was carried out. Ru catalyst was found as the best alternative for the selective hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol in comparison to Pt or Pd noble metals [9–11]. Indeed, in a recent work, we have demonstrated that a commercial catalyst Ru/Al₂O₃ was very active and selective for the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol in comparison to Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ that were found to be inactive for this reaction (**Table 1**) [11]. The conversion and yield without catalyst that is found higher than that with Pd or Pt as catalyst could be related to thermal degradation of glucose into humins while the addition of catalyst Pd/Al₂O₃ and Pt/Al₂O₃ probably limits this side reaction.

Table 1: Screening of commercial metal catalysts (5 wt.% of metal, average particle size of 2 nm) for the hydrogenation of glucose in aqueous liquid phase under 30 bar of H_2 at 120 °C for 1 h [11].

	Glucose conversion (%)	Sorbitol yield (%)
No catalyst	16	2
Pd	2	1
Pt	7	1
Ru	100	80

Beyond the hydrogenation of glucose, the detailed review of Besson *et al.* emphasizes that Ru catalysts are also very efficient for the hydrogenation of various aldoses and carboxylic derivatives such as arabinose, galactose, rhamnose, levulinic acid or succinic acid [10]. According to the literature, such activity is related to the presence of water that, on the one hand, stabilizes intermediates adsorbed on Ru metal surface by solvation effect [12,13] and, on the other hand, directly plays a catalytic role in the hydrogenation mechanism [14].

Investigated computationally [14–21] and experimentally [22–24], the hydrogenation mechanism in the liquid aqueous phase is likely to proceed through a catalytic exchange between an adsorbed H (H*) from H₂ and water. As the H* from H₂ is transferred to water molecule, it suggests that the replacement of H₂O by D₂O, or gaseous H₂ with D₂, allows to follow the exchange of protons that occurs at the solid-liquid interface. Thus, to investigate the catalytic exchange of H^{*} to water at the metal-liquid interface, few research works have reported the influence of metal for the production of exchange species HOD when water is replaced by deuterated water [25–27]. In particular, exchange species like HOD, HD and D₂ were detected for independent gas and aqueous phase investigations for the hydrodeoxygenation of guaiacol

over Ni/Nb₂O₅ putting in evidence the D_2O-H_2 exchange involvement in the mechanism [21]. Analysis of the aqueous phase by infrared spectroscopy have proven the formation of HOD and a production of HD and D_2 was detected in the gas phase by mass spectrometry. Others have studied the conversion of cinnamaldehyde into cinnamyl alcohol over Pt₃Fe and suggest that water participated in the catalytic hydrogenation reaction by serving as a hydrogen-exchange bridge [17].

In this context, we perform similar experiments in order to get insights into the mechanistic aspects of the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol in water over the supported metal catalyst Ru/Al₂O₃, Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ that were used in our previous study [11]. The main aim was to explain the high activity of Ru/Al₂O₃ in comparison to Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ (**Table 1**). To this aim, we have performed some *in operando* experiments on H₂/D₂O mixtures under high pressure at different temperatures in the presence of the supported metal catalysts cited above in order to compare their ability to perform the catalytic isotopic exchange between H₂ and D₂O. To monitor the exchange species as HOD, HD and D₂, we have designed an innovative *in operando* spectroscopic method using a single high-pressure cell for the simultaneous coupling of ATR-IR and Raman spectroscopy allowing the monitoring of the liquid and gas phase respectively. Moreover, the H/D exchange was also followed using the same methodology during the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol over Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst.

Materials and methods

1. Materials

H₂ and D₂O were used as received with the following characteristics: H₂ (Air Liquid, 99.9999%), D₂O (CEA saclay, 99.9% purity). The catalysts Pd/Al₂O₃, Pd/Al₂O₃ and Ru/Al₂O₃ were purchased from Alfa Aeser. The metal content and the average particles sizes of catalysts were measured by ICP-OES (Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry) and TEM (Transmission Electronic Microscopy). Catalysts exhibit a similar metal content (4.3 wt. % for Pd, 5.3 wt. % for Pt and 4.7 wt. % for Ru) and a similar average particle size (2 nm) allowing a proper comparison of these materials for the H/D exchange experiments. Especially, XRD analysis of Ru/Al₂O₃ have shown that the support is composed of a mixture of alumina phases identified as aluminium oxide (Al₂O₃) with a monoclinic crystalline structure (JCPDS 98-006-6560) and gamma alumina (γ -Al₂O₃) with tetragonal (JCPDS 98-009-9836) and cubic crystalline phases (JCPDS 10-1425).

2. High pressure simultaneous operando ATR-IR/Raman spectroscopy 2.1. High pressure cell

The monitoring of the catalytic H/D exchange by simultaneous operando ATR-IR/Raman spectroscopy is performed in a single high-pressure cell (**Fig. 2** and **Fig. S1 in ESI** 1). The cell has two parts, an ATR-FTIR part located at the bottom for liquid phase measurements and the other located at the top is the Raman cell for gas phase analysis.



Figure 2: High-pressure experimental device with a single cell coupled with ATR-FTIR and Raman spectrometers for *in operando* simultaneous measurements of the catalytic H/D exchange of D_2O and H_2 producing HOD, HD and D_2 (1: gas/liquid entrance, 2: cartridges heaters, 3: thermocouple, 4: stirrer, 5: silicon crystal, 6: sapphire window).

The ATR part is composed of a silicon crystal to measure the wavelength range between 1000 cm⁻¹ and 4000 cm⁻¹. The crystal has a visible surface of 50 mm² and it resists to high pressure thanks to its T-shape that allows blocking and sealing the crystal between two layers of the ATR accessory by the unsupported area principle. The ATR part of the cell is connected to the upper part of the cell composed of a sapphire window for Raman scattering. For a homogeneous temperature, the two parts of the cell can be heated independently using two cartridges' heaters each side of the ATR part and two cartridges 'heaters disposed behind the Raman cell with thermocouples for each couple of cartridges to regulate the temperature with the accuracy of about $\Delta T = \pm 0.5$ °C. At the top of the Raman cell, a stainless capillary is connected to gas H₂ and to a pressure sensor with an accuracy of about $\Delta P = \pm 0.1$ bar. To ensure a good mixing of the liquid phase, a stirrer is deposited on the ATR crystal and a magnetic plate is put next to the cell. The total volume of the cell is 5 cm³ and to ensure the sealing between the two parts, flat Kapton® rings are used between plugs and the high-pressure cell body.

2.2. Infrared/Raman set-up

For the ATR-IR measurements, a Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrometer equipped with a Globar source, a KBr/Ge beamsplitter and a DLaTGS/KBr thermal detector was used to investigate the spectral range from 400 to 4000 cm^{-1} . Single beam spectra with 4 cm⁻¹ resolution are obtained by Fourier transformation of 100 accumulated interferograms in order to improve the signal-to-noise ratio.

For IR absorption measurements, a Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrometer equipped with a Globar source, a KBr/Ge beamsplitter and a DLaTGS/KBr thermal detector was used to investigate the spectral range from 400 to 6500 cm⁻¹. Single beam spectra with 4 cm⁻¹ resolution are obtained by Fourier transformation of 100 accumulated interferograms in order to improve the signal-to-noise ratio.

2.3. Experimental procedure

For a typical catalytic H/D exchange experiment, 10 mg of catalyst M/Al₂O₃ is deposited on the ATR crystal. Then, the Raman part is connected to the ATR part and an excess of D₂O (300 μ L, 1.66 10⁻² mol) is injected with a syringe from the upper part to the ATR crystal where a magnetic stirrer constantly homogenizes the liquid during the experiment. Prior to the introduction of 30 bar of H₂ at ambient temperature or 37 bar of H₂ at 90 °C (that corresponds to 5.95 10⁻³ mol of H₂ according to the NIST database [28]), acquisitions of both ATR-FTIR and Raman spectra are started at the same time to get a concomitant monitoring of D₂O, HOD, H₂, HD and D₂ during 24 h. During the experiment, infrared acquisitions of 210 s are recorded continuously for 24 h for the monitoring of D₂O and HOD species. Stretch and bending bands of D₂O and HOD at 1205 cm⁻¹ (D-O-D bending), 1456 cm⁻¹ (H-O-D bending) and 3401 cm⁻¹ (O-H stretch) are chosen for further kinetics analysis by using baseline integration from 1800 to 1330 cm⁻¹ for D-O-D and H-O-D vibrations and from 3780 to 3050 cm⁻¹ for O-H vibration. Regarding the Raman spectra, one background of the empty high-pressure cell is recorded after 1 scan of 15 seconds of time integration and no other background is performed during the experiment. During the experiment, an acquisition of 30 s of the gas phase for the monitoring of H₂, HD and D₂ is executed and re-executed after 270 s and this loop of acquisitions lasts during the whole experiment of 24 h. The rotational band of H₂ at 580 cm⁻¹ is integrated from 720 to 490 cm⁻¹ for kinetic profiles. Vibrons of H_2 at 4160 cm⁻¹ is integrated from 4256 to 4070 cm⁻¹. The HD and D₂ species at 3630 cm⁻¹ and 2989 cm⁻¹ respectively are integrated from 3695 to 3550 cm⁻¹ for HD and from 3050 to 2915 cm⁻¹ for D₂. Finally, the methodology to calculate the conversion of D₂O and H₂ as well as the yield of HOD, HD and D₂ from the ATR-FTIR and Raman spectra is presented in details in the ESI 2.

Results and discussion

1. Description of infrared and Raman spectra

In a first set of experiments, the catalytic H/D exchange was studied in the presence of Ru/Al₂O₃. The **Fig. 3** displays ATR spectra of the liquid phase during this exchange. Initially, a spectrum is recorded before starting the kinetic experiments and vibrational bands of D₂O are observed with the two characteristic bands at 1205 cm⁻¹ and 2480 cm⁻¹ which correspond to the bending mode ν_2 (D-O-D) and the asymmetric stretching contribution ν_3 (O-D) of D₂O. After the insertion of H₂, a weak peak at around 1700 cm⁻¹ is observed probably due to traces of acetone residue (after the cleaning of the cell) that disappear after 10 min of reaction.



Figure 3: Spectra of the liquid phase obtained by ATR-FT-R spectroscopy during the catalytic H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 in the presence of Ru/Al₂O₃ at 22 °C for 24 h under 30 bar of H₂.

ATR spectra are recorded during 24 h and show that two bands at 1456 cm⁻¹ and 3401 cm⁻¹ are increasing according to time. These bands are linked to the formation of HOD species and they correspond to the bending mode v_2 (H-O-D) at 1456 cm⁻¹ and the stretching contribution (O-H) at 3401 cm⁻¹. The stretching (O-D) of HOD is also visible around 2480 cm⁻¹ but it coincides with the v_3 (O-D) of D₂O explaining the shoulder observed around 2400 cm⁻¹. It is also noticed that two bands at 1947 cm⁻¹ (A) and at 1100 cm⁻¹ (B) are observed only in the case of Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst and the identification of these bands will be discussed later.

Simultaneously to the analysis of the liquid phase by ATR, Raman scattering is used for the monitoring of the gas phase during the catalytic H/D exchange of H₂ and D₂O with Ru/Al₂O₃. Spectra are displayed in the **Fig. 4** in the low and high frequency range from 100 to 1100 cm⁻¹ and from 2900 to 4250 cm⁻¹. Broad bands due to the fluorescence of the sapphire windows are present in these regions as it is shown in the black spectrum before the insertion of H₂ in the cell.



Figure 4: Spectra of the gas phase obtained by Raman spectroscopy during the catalytic H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 in the presence of Ru/Al₂O₃ at 22 °C for 24 h under 30 bar of H₂.

When H₂ is added, rotational bands of H₂ are observed at 343, 580, 806 and 1031 cm⁻¹ and are related to the S branch (ΔJ =+2) from 0 to 3rd rotational level respectively [29–31]. The

stretching vibration of H₂ (also called the vibrons) is Raman active with a main contribution at 4152 cm⁻¹ that corresponds to Q₁ (J=1) and a weak peak at about 4125 cm⁻¹ that corresponds to Q₁ (J=3) [29,30,32] is also observed but in less extent after 24 h. Because the pressure of H₂ takes time to equilibrate, the signal at 10 min is lowered compared to the signal at 1 h and, after this time, bands of H₂ are decreasing. Concomitantly to this decrease, peaks at 253, 434, 610, 774 and 980 cm⁻¹ are increasing during the experiment of 24 h and they correspond to rotational contributions of HD with the S branch from 0 to 4th. In the high frequency range, vibrons of HD at 3630 cm⁻¹ (Q₁ (J=0)) is observed and it coincides with one band of fluorescence. More, a weak contribution at 2989 cm⁻¹ appears and corresponds to the Q₁ (J=0) stretch vibrons of D₂ species.

Acquisitions of infrared and Raman spectra during the catalytic H/D exchange demonstrate that HOD, HD and D₂ species are simultaneously produced in liquid and gas phase in the presence of Ru/Al₂O₃ and the attribution of spectral bands are summarized in the **ESI 3**. To verify that the H/D exchange comes from the catalyst, same experiment is performed but without catalyst and no D₂O nor H₂ are consumed, as expected [26,27]. These first results already confirm that Ru catalyst is able to perform the H/D exchange-

2. Kinetic profiles of D₂O, H₂, HOD, HD and D₂ species

Raman scattering spectra and infrared spectra are recorded simultaneously which allow to correlate without ambiguity the kinetic profiles of D_2O and H_2 that are converted into HOD, HD and D_2 species.



Figure 5: Kinetic profiles of D_2O (1205 cm⁻¹) and HOD (1450 cm⁻¹) obtained by ATR-FT-IR analysis (in red) as well as kinetic profiles of H_2 (579 cm⁻¹), HD (3625 cm⁻¹) and D_2 (2988 cm⁻¹) obtained by Raman measurements (in green) during the catalytic H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 over Ru/Al₂O₃ at 22 °C for 24 h under 30 bar of H₂.

The **Fig. 5** displays kinetic profiles obtained by infrared (D₂O and HOD in red) and by Raman analysis (H₂, HD and D₂ in green) during the catalytic H/D exchange with Ru/Al₂O₃. Kinetics of D₂O and H₂ have similar profiles with a quick decrease at the first 200 min of the experiment following by a less marked decrease for the last 1440 min. The signal of H₂ shows however, a rapid increase to higher intensities and then a fast decrease during the first 100 min of the reaction that is considered as an "induction" time for H₂ to reach equilibrium between the liquid and the gas phase. In accordance with the decrease of H_2 and D_2O signals, profiles of HOD, HD and D_2 are increasing according to time justifying that these species are produced from the catalytic exchange between H_2 and D_2O . The formation of HOD and HD displays similar kinetic profiles with a strong increase at the first 200 min following by a less pronounced increase. Concerning D_2 , its formation is slower than HD and the intensity of the D_2 signal is about half that of the HD signal.

Kinetic profiles in **Fig. 5** demonstrate that D_2O and H_2 are both firstly converted into HOD and HD as described in **Eq. 1**. The HD previously produced can then react with D_2O to produce D_2 species like in **Eq. 2**. The **Eq. 3** is the overall reaction starting from D_2O and H_2 to HOD and D_2 without HD as intermediate as suggested by Kurita and Sajiki's group [26,27].

$$D_2O + H_2 \rightarrow HOD + HD$$
 Eq. 1

$$D_2O + HD \rightarrow HOD + D_2$$
 Eq. 2

$$2D_2O + H_2 \rightarrow 2HOD + D_2 \qquad \qquad \text{Eq. 3}$$

Then, in order to compare the efficiency of Ru/Al_2O_3 with Pt/Al_2O_3 and Pd/Al_2O_3 , we have reported in **Fig. 6** the kinetics profiles of D_2O and HOD during the H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 for 24 h at ambient temperature for the three catalysts. As for Ru/Al_2O_3 , the H/D exchange occurs when Pt or Pd are used because D_2O band decreases and HOD bands increase meaning that D_2O is converted to HOD.



Figure 6: Kinetic profiles of D_2O at 1205 cm⁻¹ and of HOD at 1450 cm⁻¹ (noisy) and at 3400 cm⁻¹ during the H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 over Ru, Pt and Pd/Al₂O₃ at 22 °C for 24 h under 30 bar of H₂.

However, we observe qualitatively that activities of H/D exchange depend on the metal used. These kinetics demonstrate that for all catalysts tested, the conversion of D₂O to HOD is possible and the catalytic efficiency of the metal to perform the H/D exchange is as follows: $Pt/Al_2O_3 > Ru/Al_2O_3 >> Pd/Al_2O_3$.

From these kinetic profiles, the conversion and yields of the H/D exchange were determined after 24 h of reaction at ambient temperature. Thus, **Fig. 7** displays the number of mol of H_2 and D_2O that are consumed during the H/D exchange as well as the number of moles of produced HOD, HD and D_2 for the different catalysts used. For the number of moles of H_2

and of HOD, they were calculated using two different characteristic peaks of each species. Thus, we obtain an overall agreement between the two sets of data with an uncertainty of about \pm 10% that is due to all the sources of errors associated with our methodology (baseline correction, molar extinction coefficient, signal-to-noise ratio, spectrometer and laser stability). On the other hand, we emphasize that the number of initial moles of D₂O and H₂ differs (1.66 10^{-2} mol for D₂O and 5.95 10^{-3} mol for H₂) and therefore conversion of D₂O and H₂ cannot be directly compared. However, the conversion of D₂O with HOD yields and H₂ conversion with HD and D₂ yields can be quantitatively compared (conversions and yields are noted at the top of bars).



Figure 7: Number of mol consumed for D_2O ($n_0 = 1.66 \ 10^{-2} \ mol$) and H_2 ($n_0 = 5.95 \ 10^{-3} \ mol$) and number of mol produced of HOD, HD and D_2 after 24 h of H/D exchange at 22 °C with Pt, Ru or Pd/Al₂O₃ used as catalysts. On top of bars are indicated average conversions (for D_2O and H_2) and yields (for HOD, HD, D_2) in percentages.

In the case of the H/D exchange investigated with Pt/Al_2O_3 (red bars), the integration of the ν_2 infrared band of D_2O at 1205 cm⁻¹ gives a conversion of around 33% with 5.4 10⁻³ mol of D_2O consumed. From the two contributions of HOD (ν_2 at 1456 cm⁻¹ and ν_3 at 3400 cm⁻¹), we calculated a yield for HOD production of 26% (4.4 10⁻³ mol) and 31% (5.2 10⁻³ mol), respectively, that is in the error bars discussed above. Thus, the conversion of D_2O of 33% is roughly the same as the yield of HOD of 26-31% and demonstrate that D_2O is selectively converted into HOD.

In the same way, integration of Raman contribution S_1 at 579 cm⁻¹ and Q_1 at 4151 cm⁻¹ are used for H₂ measurements while stretch vibrons at 3625 cm⁻¹ and at 2988 cm⁻¹ are used to calculate the amount of HD and D₂ respectively. During the H/D exchange with Pt/Al₂O₃, the H₂ conversion is of 47-51% with 2.8-3.0 10⁻³ mol consumed. This is higher than the production of total products HD + D₂ given 36% of yields together and that corresponds to the formation of 2.2 10⁻³ mol. Although we expect to have same values for the conversion and the total yields, the reported difference of more than 10% is probably due to analytical approximation considered in our methodology to determine the concentration of HD and D₂.

However, it is clear that more HD is produced than D_2 . An HD yield of 25% (1.5 10^{-3} mol) is obtained compared to 11% (6.7 10^{-4} mol) for D_2 , suggesting that some HD intermediate

remained unreacted according to the **Eq. 2**. The number of moles comparison between D_2O (5.4 10⁻³ mol) and H_2 (2.8-3.0 10⁻³ mol) as well as HOD (4.4-5.2 10⁻³ mol) and HD + D_2 (2.2 10⁻³ mol) agree with the **Eq. 3** where twice more D_2O and HOD are needed to perform the reaction to lead to D_2 species.

When Ru/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ are used for the H/D exchange of H₂ with D₂O, same interpretations as Pt/Al₂O₃ can be made except that conversion and yields are lower. In the case of Ru/Al₂O₃, 4.6 10^{-3} mol of D₂O gives 3.3-3.7 10^{-3} mol of HOD and twice less of H₂ with 2.1-2.4 10^{-3} mol that is transformed into 1.3 10^{-3} mol of HD and 6.7 10^{-4} mol of D₂. For Pd/Al₂O₃ the lowest conversions of D₂O and H₂ are recorded with 2.1 10^{-3} mol and 2.8-5.3 10^{-4} mol respectively giving 1.2-1.3 10^{-3} mol of HOD, 2.8 10^{-4} mol of HD and traces of D₂ with 4.2 10^{-5} mol.

Altogether, kinetic and quantification studies demonstrate that the H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 is effective whatever the catalyst used but performance is dependent on the metal used. Catalyst Pt/Al₂O₃ shows the best performance, followed closely by Ru/Al₂O₃ while Pd/Al₂O₃ has the worst performance. These results do not explain why Ru/Al₂O₃ was the most efficient catalyst in the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol (**Table 1**). Finally, the effect of pressure and temperature on the catalytic isotopic H/D exchange with Ru/Al₂O₃ has been investigated and the conversion of D₂O and H₂ as well as the yield of HOD, HD and D₂ after 24 h of reaction are reported in the **ESI 4**. In particular, the increase of temperature enhances the conversion and yield of the reaction.

As proposed in recent articles, the catalytic isotopic H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 could process through proton-shuttle and proton-electron transfer mechanism [14,19]. The gas H_2 dissociates homolytically and two H* adsorb on the metal surface. Nearby water molecules interact with H* and form ionized H_2O -H⁺ accompanied by an electron that transfers to the metal's *d*-band. Proton of H_2O -H⁺ is located at the solid-liquid interface and can easily delocalize through water molecules by proton-shuttling to reach the carbonyl function when the substrate is added in the media. Following this mechanism, the H/D exchange with D₂O and H₂ involves a D₂O⁺-H intermediate that can be schematized as in the **Fig. 8**.



Figure 8: Formation of the intermediate D_2O-H^+ during the isotopic H/D exchange of D_2O and H_2 on metal surfaces inspired by reference [33].

As explained by Hensley *et al.*[34], the ability of the metal to convert an adsorbed H^* into H^+ is two-fold. It implies to break the bond between H^* and the metal but also to transfer an electron into the metal's *d*-band. These two characteristics were calculated by DFT for

Pt(111), Ru(0001) and Pd(111) [35] where the binding energy (BE) defines the strength of the M-H* bond while the work function (φ) is related to the minimum energy required to move electrons into the metal surface. BE and φ for each metal are reported in the **Table 2**. We emphasize that (0001) surface rather than (111) surface of Ru is chosen as Ru(0001) has become a benchmark system for investigation of Ru catalysed hydrogenation reactions in water [19,36,37].

Table 2: Binding energies (BE) and work function (φ) on hydrogen adsorption for Pt(111), Ru(0001) and Pd(111) calculated at the vapor interface by Ferrin et al. [35].

	BE (eV)	φ (eV)
Pt	-2.72	-0.06
Ru	-2.97	0.03
Pd	-2.88	0.08

The BE of Pt(111) is the lowest one with -2.72 eV and its φ is the lowest one with -0.06 eV. In comparison to Ru(0001) and Pd(111), these results means that for Pt(111) the bond Pt-H* can disrupt more easily and its ability to transfer electrons is also higher, both properties that would favor the H/D exchange. The BE of Pd(111) is lower by 0.09 eV compared to Ru(0001) whereas the φ of Ru(0001) is lower by 0.05 eV to Pd(111). Therefore, although the disrupt of the Pd-H* bond is easier than for Ru, the lower energy needed to transfer electrons in Ru *d*-band compared to Pd *d*-band seems to be the main factor that drives the H/D exchange explaining the higher activity of Ru/Al₂O₃ in comparison with Pd/Al₂O₃.

Therefore, from the BE and ϕ values reported in **Table 2**, we can qualitatively explain why the catalytic efficiency of the metal to perform the H/D exchange is in the order: $Pt/Al_2O_3 > Pd/Al_2O_3$.

Clearly, the mechanism involved in the hydrogenation of glucose cannot be fully interpreted from the kinetics investigation on the model reaction of H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 . However, when using Ru/Al₂O₃ as the catalyst, we have observed on the ATR-FTIR spectra of the water phase for both the catalytic H/D exchange or glucose hydrogenation an absorption band at about 1950 cm⁻¹ that we defined as the Ru-band (see **Fig. 9** and **Fig. S4** in **ESI 5**). The next part is dedicated to the attribution of this band to a transient species that could explain the higher efficiency of Ru/Al₂O₃ for the hydrogenation of glucose.

3. Assignment of the Ru-band to Ru-H species

The **Fig. 9** displays the spectra of the Ru-band (A) (1947 cm⁻¹), of the Ru-band (B) (1100 cm⁻¹) and of HOD (1450 cm⁻¹) as well as their kinetic profiles obtained during the H/D exchange over Ru/Al₂O₃. The identity of the Ru-Band (A) and (B) band is unknown but it is supposed to be related to the metal Ru because they do not appear when Pt and Pd are used as catalysts for the H/D exchange. Moreover, the increase of the Ru-band (A) and (B) is not directly linked to the formation of HOD species obtained during the catalytic H/D exchange as their kinetic profiles differs. However, the kinetic of the Ru-band (A) and (B) are very similar showing that they might be related to the same species.



Figure 9: Spectra and kinetic profiles of HOD (1450 cm⁻¹), the Ru-band (A) at 1947 cm⁻¹ and Ru-band (B) at 1100 cm⁻¹ obtained by ATR-FT-IR during the H/D exchange between D_2O and H_2 in the presence of Ru/Al₂O₃ at 22 °C.

Interestingly, the Ru-band (A) is also observed during the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol (see ATR-FTIR spectra in **ESI 5- Fig. S4**) suggesting that the same species is involved during both the H/D exchange and the hydrogenation reaction. However, the contribution of the Ru-band (B) is more difficult to analyze in the presence of glucose as some contributions in this frequency range are also related to glucose. In addition, this spectral range is also characteristic of Al_2O_3 that has a strong absorption around 1100 cm⁻¹ that could eventually lead to fluctuations of the intensity of the ATR-IR signal in this region. Therefore, we will focus the discussion below on the Ru-band (A) that was clearly put in evidence in all the catalytic experiments performed in water using Ru/Al₂O₃.

A possible attribution of this Ru-band (A) band could be to the formation of carbonyl species at the surface of Ru. Indeed, Ferri *et al.* have determined by ATR-FTIR studies that the addition of solvent dichloromethane can clean the metal surface at ambient temperature and that the addition of H₂ in solvent allowed to desorb contaminants on the surface of Pt by the assignment of carbonyl species [38]. Such behavior can be transpose to our experiment where solvent water and dissolved H₂ enhance desorption of carbonyl to give the characteristic Ruband. The adsorption of carbonyl in linear or bridge configuration on metal surface was largely studied in the literature especially on Pt and Pd as well as Ru but to a lesser extent [39–47]. Baiker's group especially assigned carbonyl adsorbed linearly on Ru/Al₂O₃ at 2006 cm⁻¹ by ATR-FTIR after the insertion of 5 bar of CO at 50 °C and interestingly the appearance of the Ru-CO(L) band is like our study with a characteristic broad shape [42].

In order to clarify the possible role of CO in the observation of the Ru-peak, gaseous CO is directly added on "deposited" Ru/Al_2O_3 in pure gas conditions or in aqueous environment. Ru/Al_2O_3 was deposited on the silicon crystal for ATR-FTIR measurements and on a metallic screw for IR microscopy measurements in reflection mode (see **ESI 6-Fig. S5**). The spectra are displayed in **ESI 7-Fig. S6**. The formation of carbonyl group adsorbed on the surface of Ru/Al_2O_3 in a water environment leads to two vibrational bands at 2060 cm⁻¹ and 2010 cm⁻¹ that could be assigned to linear and bridge carbonyls. As two bands are observed and

that the shape of the band does not correspond to the Ru-band observed at 1947 cm^{-1} during the H/D exchange and the glucose hydrogenation, it confirms that the Ru-band cannot be carbonyl species.

Another possible assignment of the Ru-band (A) could be the stretching mode of Ru-H intermediate that are formed when H₂ gas dissolves in D₂O and then adsorbs on the surface of the metal before the exchange reaction. As it was previously mentioned in the **Table 2**, the BE of Ru(0001) is the highest one compared to Pt(111) and Pd(111). It means that the Ru-H specie might be more stable than the Pt-H or Pd-H intermediate explaining the presence of the band at 1947 cm⁻¹ only in the case of Ru/Al₂O₃. Therefore, the apparition of the Ru-band for both the H/D exchange and the hydrogenation can be an indication to explain why Ru/Al₂O₃ is active for the hydrogenation of glucose while Pt/Al₂O₃ and Pd/Al₂O₃ are inactive.

To demonstrate that the Ru-band at around 1950 cm⁻¹ is actually a Ru-H intermediate, the Ru/Al₂O₃ is firstly studied by ATR-FTIR through the deposition of a thin film of the solid at the surface of the silicon crystal to probe intermediate species [48]. But after 24 h under pressure of 30 bar of H₂, the Ru-band is not observed. A deposit of Ru/Al₂O₃ under pressure of H₂ is also studied by infrared reflection (see ESI 6-Fig. S5 for the description of the cell) where the sensitivity to detect adsorbed species should be enhanced (higher thickness of Ru/Al₂O₃ deposit) but no band at around 1950 cm⁻¹ is observed. Consequently, when only pressure of gaseous H₂ is in contact with Ru/Al₂O₃, no change is observed in infrared spectra whereas the Ru-band constantly appears in aqueous environment. On the other hand, the replacement of D₂O by H₂O does not result to a significant shift of the Ru-band when H₂ pressure is added (see ATR-FTIR spectra in ESI 8-Fig. S7). Then, water plays a crucial role to observe the Ru-band but does not seem directly involved in the vibrating species. Therefore, the Ru-band could be an intermediate Ru-H as previously mentioned, however, on the contrary of adsorbed carbonyls, only few studies have been focused on infrared studies of the formation of Ru-H surface species in the gas phase and, to our knowledge none in the aqueous phase. Ishikawa et al. have studied the adsorption of H₂ on Ru/ZrO₂ by FTIR spectroscopy, they assume that the peak of Ru-H species should appear between 1800 and 2000 cm⁻¹, which is in accordance with our experimental data, but they do not have observed Ru-H species experimentally [49]. Others have performed studies of H₂ adsorption on Ru/Al₂O₃ and no band of H₂ adsorbed on bare Ru surface appeared. However, when CO is pre-adsorbed, they assume the formation of a hydrocarbonyl species H-Ru-CO at around 2030 cm⁻¹ [41] which could be possibly formed in our study.

Recent articles have explored various adsorption states of H_2 on Ru nanoparticles by infrared spectroscopy and performed DFT calculations using a nanoscale Ru particle model (Ru₁₅₃) to assign the vibrational frequencies of the infrared spectra observed for Ru/MgO exposed to H_2 gas [50,51]. It turns out that in the experiment involving switching between H_2 and Ar at 250 °C, the introduction of H_2 on Ru/MgO surface increased infrared absorbance and induced the appearance of two peaks at 1998 cm⁻¹ and at 1863 cm⁻¹. DFT calculations assigned the former peak to H_2 horizontally adsorbed on top of a bridge Ru atom. In contrast, the peak at 1863 cm⁻¹ did not correspond to the adsorption of H_2 on the Ru surface, as this activated H_2 observed at 1998 cm⁻¹ is found to have a short lifetime, but rather corresponds to the binding of a hydrogen atom on Ru₁₅₃. Indeed, DFT calculations show that an H atom binding "on top site" of Ru₁₅₃ (Ru-H) leads to a Ru-H stretching band at 1852 cm⁻¹ in good agreement with the experimental peak at 1863 cm⁻¹. Therefore, these experimental and calculated frequencies of Ru-H species on MgO surfaces are in the same spectral range than the Ru-band (A) observed for our Ru/Al₂O₃ surface in water located between 1940 cm⁻¹ and 1970 cm⁻¹ hence supporting our hypothesis that the Ru band (A) can be assigned to a Ru-H stretching band that results from an activated form of H* binding "on top site" on the Ru/Al₂O₃ surface. In addition, these DFT calculation reports other possible Ru-H stretching bands at about 1000 cm⁻¹ associated with H atoms in "bridge" configurations with 4 Ru atoms that might be associated with the experimental Ru-Band (B) peak at 1100 cm⁻¹ (see fig. S9 of reference [51]).



Figure 10: Proposed sequence of elementary steps for the hydrogenation of carbonyl over Pt, Ru and Pd metal surfaces.

Thus, the observation of the Ru-H band by ATR-FTIR could explain that these H atoms "on top" and "bridge" configurations are only detected on the surface of Ru but not for other metals. Such configuration observed only for Ru could be explained by the fact that the valence electronic structure of Ru (4d7 5s1) differs from that of Pt (5d9 6s1) and Pd (4d10). Indeed, a H binding to a unique Pd atom is very unlikely as its valence shell is full. Also, even if a H binding to a unique Pt atom is possible [52], it is much less probable than for Ru. On the other hand, H atoms that can interact with 2, 3 or 4 atoms in "bridge" configurations might exist for Pd-Pt metal surface but seems to be favored for Ru [51]. Thus, the observation of the Ru-band could explain that adsorbed H* are more activated on the surface of Ru that are more sterically accessible and less bounded to the surface than in bridge configurations (see reference [51]) could explain the easier H transfer to the carbon atom of the carbonyl for the hydrogenation of glucose to sorbitol. Indeed, in the glucose hydrogenation mechanism, we might infer that the kinetically relevant step concerns the addition of one adsorbed H* on the carbon atom of the carbonyl [19] and the "better" activation of adsorbed H* on Ru could enhance this step (see

Fig. 10). We emphasize that the prevalence of proton-electron transfer during the catalytic hydrogenation of the first H atom to the oxygen of the carbonyl in water on Ru surfaces is supported experimentally by kinetic measurements with H-D isotopic studies.[19] In particular they used D_2 instead of H_2 in few experiments under a pressure of 1.3 bar. Such kind of experiments could have been performed in this work but this was beyond the scope of our study.

Conclusion

This work emphasizes a possible reason why the metal Ru is efficient for the hydrogenation of glucose, and to a larger extent, the hydrogenation of various aldoses and carboxylic derivatives in aqueous media. Indeed, we have demonstrated in a previous work that Ru/Al₂O₃ is very effective to convert glucose into sorbitol whereas the noble metal Pt and Pd are inactive. Herein, it was demonstrated here that the proton transfer of H ad-atoms to water plays a key role in the hydrogenation mechanism. This mechanism is followed by the catalytic H/D exchange between H_2 and D_2O to give HOD, HD and D_2 that are measured *in operando* with the simultaneous coupling of ATR-IR and Raman spectroscopy. After 24 h at 22 °C under 30 bar of H₂, the efficiency of catalysts for the H/D exchange is $Pt/Al_2O_3 > Ru/Al_2O_3 >$ Pd/Al₂O₃ showing that the H/D exchange between D₂O and H₂ is effective whatever the catalyst used but performance is dependent on the nature of the metal. Distinctively, an infrared band located around 1950 cm⁻¹ observed only with Ru/Al₂O₃, is tentatively assigned to H atoms adsorbed and activated on the Ru surface. This H* could be directly added to the carbon atom of the carbonyl of glucose to give sorbitol in a more efficient way compared to the other metals where this band is not observed. Thus, this peculiarity observed only in the case of Ru/Al₂O₃ could explain its enhanced activity in the hydrogenation of glucose in aqueous media, and to a larger extent, its high efficiency for the hydrogenation of various aldoses and carboxylic derivatives in water.

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