



Contents lists available at SciVerse ScienceDirect

Catalysis Today

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/cattod



Synthesis of lower olefins by hydrogenation of carbon dioxide over supported iron catalysts

Jingjuan Wang, Zhenya You, Qinghong Zhang, Weiping Deng, Ye Wang*

State Key Laboratory of Physical Chemistry of Solid Surfaces, National Engineering Laboratory for Green Chemical Productions of Alcohols, Ethers and Esters, College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Xiamen University, Xiamen 361005, China

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 29 October 2012
Received in revised form 15 March 2013
Accepted 26 March 2013
Available online xxx

Keywords:

Carbon dioxide
Hydrogenation
Lower olefins
Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst
Alkali metal ion promoter

ABSTRACT

The hydrogenation of carbon dioxide to lower (C₂–C₄) olefins is an important reaction for the utilization of CO₂ as a carbon feedstock for the production of building-block chemicals. We found that an Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst could catalyze the hydrogenation of CO₂, but the main products were CH₄ and lower (C₂–C₄) paraffins. The modification of the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst by alkali metal ions except for Li⁺ significantly decreased the selectivities to CH₄ and lower paraffins and increased those to lower olefins and C₅₊ hydrocarbons, particularly C₅₊ olefins. The modification by Na⁺, K⁺, or Cs⁺ also increased the conversion of CO₂. The best performance for lower olefin synthesis was obtained over the K⁺-modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst with a proper K⁺ content (0.5–1.0 wt%). Among several typical supports including SiO₂, Al₂O₃, TiO₂, ZrO₂, mesoporous carbon, and carbon nanotube, ZrO₂ provided the highest selectivity and yield to lower olefins. Our characterizations suggest that the modification by K⁺ accelerates the generation of χ -Fe₅C₂ phase under the reaction conditions. This together with the decreased hydrogenation ability in the presence of K⁺ has been proposed to be responsible for the enhanced selectivity to lower olefins.

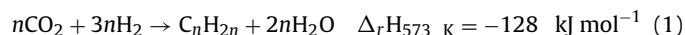
© 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

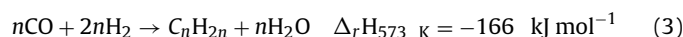
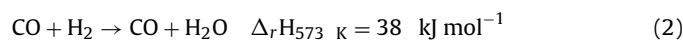
The concerns on the emissions of CO₂, which is a major anthropogenic greenhouse gas, have grown rapidly in recent years because of the worsening global environment. This has driven research activities in the capture and transformation of CO₂ [1–5]. The diminishing of fossil resources has also increased the research interests in the utilization of CO₂ as an alternative carbon feedstock for the production of chemicals and fuels [6–10]. CO₂ possesses advantages of being nontoxic, abundant, and renewable as a chemical feedstock. However, the conversion of CO₂ typically requires external energy input such as photo or electric energy [11–13] and/or high energy co-reactants such as H₂ and reactive organic compounds (e.g., epoxide) [7] because CO₂ is a highly stable molecule. Although there are only limited industrial processes utilizing CO₂ at this moment, many promising reactions for the transformation of CO₂ have been reported [6–10].

Among various transformations of CO₂, the hydrogenation of CO₂ is a versatile route capable of producing various chemicals such as methanol, higher alcohols, formic acid, CH₄, and C₂₊ hydrocarbons [10,14]. Lower (C₂–C₄) olefins are important building-block chemicals and are currently being produced mainly from petroleum

by steam-cracking of naphtha. Numerous studies have been contributed to producing lower olefins through non-petroleum routes such as the dehydrogenation of lower paraffins [15], the two-step process from methane [16,17], and the conversion of synthesis gas, which may be obtained from natural gas, coal or biomass, either directly [18] or via methanol [19]. The production of lower olefins by the hydrogenation of CO₂, which is an exothermic reaction (Eq. (1)), would be highly desirable from the viewpoint of utilizing CO₂ as a carbon feedstock for the production of building-block chemicals.



Iron-based catalysts have been studied for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂₊ hydrocarbons [20–31], but only a few of these studies have focused on the formation of lower olefins [24,25,31]. It is generally accepted that, instead of direct hydrogenation of CO₂, the reverse water-gas shift reaction (Eq. (2)) proceeds over these catalysts, followed by the hydrogenation of CO to hydrocarbons (Eq. (3)) via the Fischer–Tropsch (FT) mechanism. Fe-based catalysts can catalyze both the reverse water–gas shift reaction [32,33] and the hydrogenation of CO to light olefins [18], and thus, are expected to show good performances for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins.



* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 592 2186156; fax: +86 592 2183047.
E-mail address: wangye@xmu.edu.cn (Y. Wang).

However, the selectivity to C₂–C₄ olefins is still low in the hydrogenation of CO₂ over most of the reported catalysts. It can be expected that both the support and the promoter may affect the activity and the selectivity of Fe-based catalysts. However, little information is available on how to increase the selectivity to lower olefins. Undoubtedly, more fundamental studies are needed to develop an efficient Fe-based catalyst for the selective production of C₂–C₄ olefins from CO₂. This paper reports our recent studies on the effects of alkali metal ions on the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins over supported Fe catalysts.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

Metal oxide supports including SiO₂, TiO₂, Al₂O₃, and ZrO₂ were purchased from Alfa Aesar (for ZrO₂) or Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. (for the other metal oxides). Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) were synthesized by a method reported previously [34], and were pretreated with a 68 wt% nitric acid at 393 K to remove the Ni catalyst used for CNT synthesis, followed by washing and drying. The supported Fe catalysts were prepared by the conventional impregnation method. For example, for the preparation of the 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst, ZrO₂ (4.5 g) was first added into an aqueous solution of Fe(NO₃)₃ (0.2 mol dm^{−3}, 45 mL). The suspension was then stirred for 8 h, followed by evaporation at 353 K to dryness. The obtained powdery catalyst was further dried at 393 K for 12 h and calcined in air at 773 K for 5 h. The alkali metal ion-modified supported Fe catalysts were prepared by a co-impregnation method using a mixed aqueous solution containing certain amount of an alkali metal salt (LiNO₃, NaNO₃, KNO₃, RbCl or CsCl) and Fe(NO₃)₃ with a similar procedure.

2.2. Catalyst characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were carried out on a Panalytical X'pert Pro Super X-ray diffractometer with Cu-K_α radiation (40 kV and 30 mA). For in situ XRD measurements, the powdery sample was loaded into an XRK-900 cell, which was directly attached with the X-ray diffractometer. The XRD pattern for the fresh sample was first recorded. Then, a H₂ gas flow with a flow rate of 50 mL min^{−1} was introduced into the XRK-900 cell and the temperature was raised at a rate of 10 K min^{−1}. When the desired temperature was reached, the catalyst was kept at that temperature for 5 min, and the XRD pattern was recorded. 25 min were typically required for the collection of one pattern with 2θ ranging from 20° to 50°. Before the appearance of the characteristic peaks ascribed to Fe species (32°–45°), the catalyst had been kept at the desired temperature for >15 min. The in situ XRD patterns under the reactant gas mixture of (H₂ + CO₂) were also recorded at 618 K. For these measurements, the sample was first reduced in the in situ XRK-900 cell with H₂ gas flow with a rate of 50 mL min^{−1} at 673 K. After being cooled down to 618 K, the reactant gas mixture was introduced to the in situ XRK-900 cell, and then the XRD pattern was recorded after a certain time.

CO₂ temperature-programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD) was performed on a Micromeritics AutoChem 2920II instrument. Typically, the sample loaded in a quartz reactor was first pretreated with high-purity He at 623 K for 1 h. After the sample was cooled down to 373 K, CO₂ adsorption was performed by switching the He flow to a CO₂-He (10 vol% CO₂) gas flow and then keeping at 373 K for 1 h. Then, the gas phase or the weakly adsorbed CO₂ was purged by high-purity He at the same temperature. CO₂-TPD was performed in the He flow by raising the temperature to 1073 K at a rate of 10 K min^{−1}, and the desorbed CO₂ molecules were detected

by ThermoStar GSD 301 T2 mass spectrometer with the signal of $m/e = 44$.

2.3. Catalytic reaction

Catalytic reactions were performed on a high-pressure fixed-bed flow reactor. The catalyst (typically 1.0 g) loaded in the reactor was first reduced by H₂ with a flow rate of 50 mL min^{−1} at 673 K for 5 h. After the catalyst was cooled down to 353 K, a reactant gas mixture of (H₂ + CO₂) with a H₂/CO₂ molar ratio of 3.0 and a flow rate of 20 mL min^{−1}, which contained 5% argon as an internal standard for the calculation of CO₂ conversions, was introduced to the reactor. Then, the pressure and temperature were increased typically to 2.0 MPa and 613 K, respectively. The products were analyzed by online gas chromatography. The data at steady states, which were obtained typically after 10 h of reaction, were used for discussion.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalytic behaviors of Fe-based catalysts for hydrogenation of CO₂

3.1.1. Effect of modification by alkali metal ions on catalytic behaviors of Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts

It has been demonstrated that ZrO₂ is a unique support for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₃OH or CH₄ when Cu, Ag or Ni is used as the active metal [35]. However, few studies have used ZrO₂ for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to hydrocarbons. Here, we first investigated the catalytic behavior of the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst for the hydrogenation of CO₂. The conversion of CO₂ was 32% over the 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ under our reaction conditions (Table 1). The selectivity to CO was 25% and that to hydrocarbons (C_nH_m) was 75% over this catalyst. CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins were the dominant products in hydrocarbons. Thus, the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst without modification is not suitable for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to lower olefins.

We investigated the effect of the modification by alkali metal ions on catalytic behaviors of the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst. Table 1 shows that the addition of Li⁺ decreases the conversion of CO₂. The selectivity to hydrocarbons also became lower while that to CO became higher by the addition of Li⁺ to the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst. These indicate that Li⁺ suppresses both the reverse water-gas shift reaction and the hydrogenation of CO to hydrocarbons. The inhibiting roles of Li⁺ in the water-gas shift and FT reactions were reported in previous studies [36,37]. The distribution of hydrocarbons did not change significantly after the modification by Li⁺; CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins were still the dominant products. This indicates that the presence of Li⁺ in the Fe/ZrO₂ does not affect the ability of catalyst for the hydrogenation of CH_x intermediates or olefins, which are believed to be the primary products, but decreases the ability of catalyst for the activation of CO and CO₂. On the other hand, the addition of other alkali metal ions to the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst did not decrease the conversion of CO₂. The modification by Na⁺, K⁺ and Cs⁺ rather increased the conversion of CO₂. Particularly, K⁺ showed a significant enhancing effect on the catalytic activity, while the promoting effects of Rb⁺ and Cs⁺ were less significant on CO₂ conversions. This might be caused by the residual chlorine [38], since RbCl and CsCl were used as the precursors. The selectivity to CO decreased from 25% to 15–21% after the modification by Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺, or Cs⁺. Organic oxygenates were also formed with considerable selectivities (17–20%) in addition to hydrocarbons over these catalysts. More significantly, the modification of the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst by Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺ or Cs⁺ remarkably changed the hydrocarbon distributions. The fractions of CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins decreased significantly from 70% to 18–26% and from 29% to <10%, respectively. Simultaneously, the fractions of C₂–C₄ olefins and C₅+ hydrocarbons increased

Table 1Catalytic performances of alkali metal ion-modified 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts for the hydrogenation of CO₂^a

Alkali metal ^b	CO ₂ conv. (%)	Select. ^c (%)		Hydrocarbon distribution ^d (%)					C _{2–4} = yield (%)
		CO	C _n H _m	CH ₄	C _{2–4} =	C _{2–4} ⁰	C ₅₊ =	C ₅₊ ⁰	
Non	32	25	75	70	0.1	29	0.4	0.5	0
Li ⁺	26	42	56	68	1.4	30	0.1	0.5	0.20
Na ⁺	39	21	59	21	49	8.8	15	6.2	11
K ⁺	43	15	66	18	44	9.2	19	9.8	13
Rb ⁺	31	15	68	19	43	8.0	19	11	9.1
Cs ⁺	39	16	67	26	43	9.6	14	7.4	11

^a Reaction conditions: W (catalyst) = 1.0 g, H₂/CO₂ = 3, T = 613 K, P = 2 MPa, F = 20 mL min^{−1}, time on stream = 10 h.^b The content of alkali metal ion was 1.0 wt%.^c C_nH_m denotes hydrocarbons, and the other products were organic oxygenates.^d C_{2–4}=: C₂–C₄ olefins; C_{2–4}⁰: C₂–C₄ paraffins; C₅₊=: C₅₊ olefins; C₅₊⁰: C₅₊ paraffins.

dramatically from 0.1% to >40% and from 0.5% to >20%, respectively. The ratios of olefins to paraffins in C₂–C₄ hydrocarbons over these modified catalysts were >4.4. Olefins also dominated the C₅₊ hydrocarbons, and the ratio of olefins to paraffins in C₅₊ hydrocarbons was around 2 over the Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺ or Cs⁺-modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst. These observations allow us to consider that the modification by alkali metal ions except for Li⁺ can decrease the hydrogenation ability and increase the chain-growth probability. Among these alkali metal ion-modified catalysts, the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ exhibited the highest yield to C₂–C₄ olefins (13%).

3.1.2. Effect of support on catalytic behaviors of K⁺-modified Fe catalysts

We investigated the effect of support on catalytic performances of the K⁺-modified Fe catalysts. Table 2 shows that support can affect not only the activity but also the product selectivity. The use of SiO₂ as a support showed both a lower conversion of CO₂ and a lower selectivity to hydrocarbons, and thus was unsuitable for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to hydrocarbons. Iron catalysts loaded on other typical metal oxide supports such as Al₂O₃, TiO₂, and ZrO₂ in the presence of K⁺ provided much better performances for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to lower olefins. Among these metal oxides, ZrO₂ was the most active and selective support for the conversion of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins. A carbon nanofiber (CNF)-supported Fe catalyst was recently demonstrated to exhibit excellent catalytic performances for the hydrogenation of CO to lower olefins [18]. We examined the catalytic performances of modified Fe catalysts loaded on two carbon materials, i.e., mesoporous carbon (meso-C) and CNT. The K⁺-Fe/CNT catalyst showed a better performance for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to lower olefins, affording a C₂–C₄ olefin yield of 8.8%. The conversion of CO₂ and the selectivity to lower olefins over the K⁺-Fe/CNT catalyst were, however, both lower than those over the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst.

Table 2Catalytic performances of K⁺ (1 wt%)-modified Fe (10 wt%) catalysts loaded on various supports for the hydrogenation of CO₂^a

Support ^b	CO ₂ conv. (%)	Select. ^c (%)		Hydrocarbon distribution ^d (%)					C _{2–4} = yield (%)
		CO	C _n H _m	CH ₄	C _{2–4} =	C _{2–4} ⁰	C ₅₊ =	C ₅₊ ⁰	
SiO ₂	7.1	92	8.1	72	18	8.6	0.1	1.3	0.10
Al ₂ O ₃	33	17	76	17	36	6.0	28	13	9.0
TiO ₂	21	55	38	22	43	7.2	18	9.8	3.4
ZrO ₂	42	15	64	20	46	8.2	18	8.8	12
Meso-C	33	31	58	32	30	26	2.0	10	5.7
CNT	35	12	74	26	34	10	19	11	8.8

^a Reaction conditions: W (catalyst) = 1.0 g, H₂/CO₂ = 3, T = 613 K, P = 2 MPa, F = 20 mL min^{−1}, time on stream = 10 h.^b Meso-C denotes mesoporous carbon.^c C_nH_m denotes hydrocarbons; the other products were CO and oxygenates.^d C_{2–4}=: C₂–C₄ olefins; C_{2–4}⁰: C₂–C₄ paraffins; C₅₊=: C₅₊ olefins; C₅₊⁰: C₅₊ paraffins.

3.1.3. Effect of K⁺ content on catalytic behaviors of K⁺-modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts

Although an appropriate support is important for obtaining higher activity and higher C₂–C₄ olefin selectivity, the presence of an alkali metal ion plays an essential role in the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins. To gain further insights into the function of K⁺, we investigated the effect of K⁺ content on catalytic performances of the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts. Fig. 1A shows that the modification by K⁺ with a proper content (0.1–5.0 wt%) can increase the conversion of CO₂. When the K⁺ content exceeded 5.0 wt%, the conversion of CO₂ decreased again. The selectivities to CO and hydrocarbons both decreased slightly with increasing K⁺ content to 0.5 wt% (Fig. 1B). At the same time, the selectivity to oxygenates increased from 0.4% to ~20%. Inside the hydrocarbons, the fractions of CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins decreased steeply from 70% and 29% to ~20% and ~10%, respectively, with an increase in the K⁺ content to 0.5 wt% (Fig. 1C and D). At the same time, the fractions of C₅₊ hydrocarbons, particularly C₅₊ olefins, and C₂–C₄ olefins increased significantly from almost 0 to ~30% and ~45%, respectively (Fig. 1C and D). Further increases in the K⁺ content did not change the fractions of CH₄, C₂–C₄ paraffins, C₂–C₄ olefins, and C₅₊ hydrocarbons. In a range of K⁺ content of 0.5–5.0 wt%, the yields of C₂–C₄ olefins kept at 12–13%. A further increase in the K⁺ content decreased the yield of C₂–C₄ olefins because of the decreased conversion of CO₂.

3.2. Characterizations of Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with and without K⁺ modification

To gain insights into the evolution of iron phases during the reductive pretreatment, we carried out XRD measurements for the 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with and without K⁺ modification in H₂ gas flow at different temperatures. The catalyst was loaded in the in situ XRD cell (XRD-900), and the XRD pattern of the fresh catalyst was first recorded. The fresh catalysts with and without K⁺

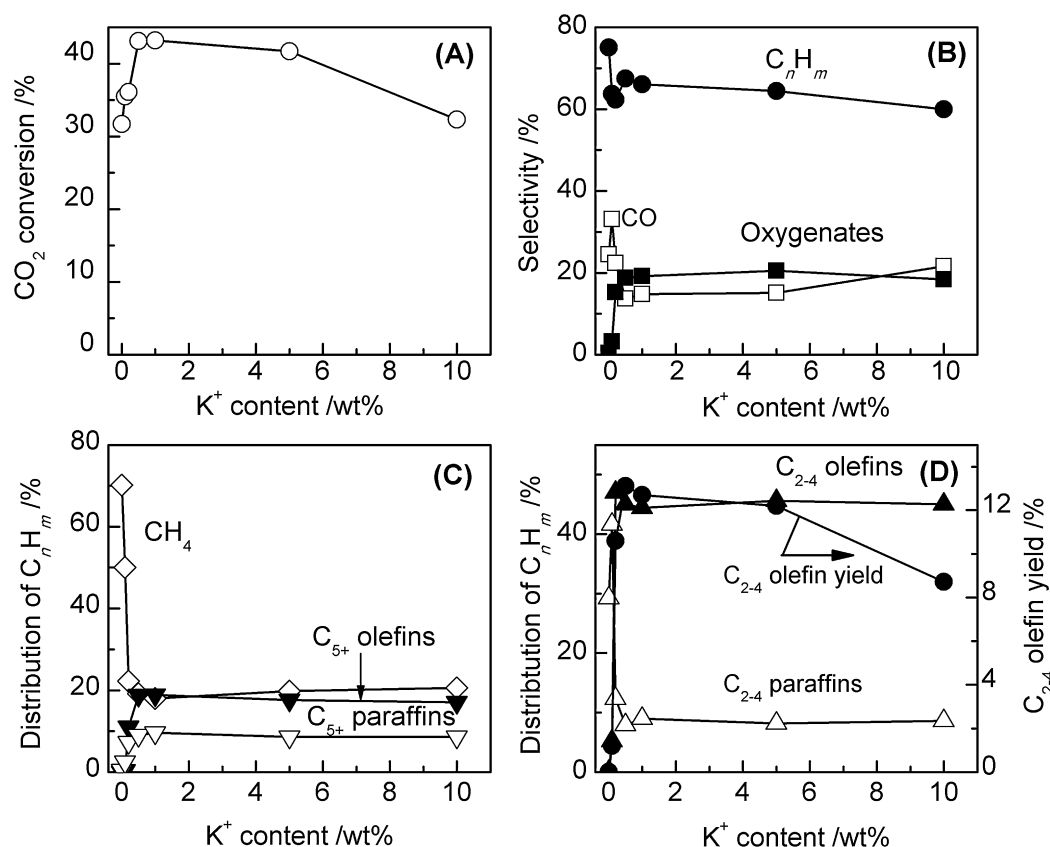


Fig. 1. Effect of K⁺ content on catalytic performances of the K⁺-10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts for hydrogenation of CO₂. (A) CO₂ conversion, (B) selectivity, (C) and (D) distribution of hydrocarbons. Reaction conditions: W(catalyst) = 1.0 g, H₂/CO₂ = 3, T = 613 K, P = 2 MPa, F = 20 mL min⁻¹, time on stream = 10 h.

modification contained Fe₂O₃ as the sole iron phase besides monoclinic ZrO₂. Then, the H₂ gas with a flow rate of 50 mL min⁻¹ was introduced into the cell, and the temperature was raised at a rate of 10 K min⁻¹. When the desired temperature was reached, the catalyst was kept at that temperature for 5 min, and the XRD pattern was recorded. For the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst without K⁺ modification, no significant changes were observed at temperatures ≤ 573 K (Fig. 2). At 673 K, the diffraction peak at 2θ of 33.2° ascribed to Fe₂O₃ disappeared, and new diffraction peaks at 2θ of 30.1°, 37.0°, and 43.0° attributed to Fe₃O₄ were observed, revealing the transformation of Fe₂O₃ to Fe₃O₄ at 673 K. Moreover, the peak at 2θ of 44.9° shifted to 44.6° and the intensity of this peak increased significantly. A further increase in the temperature to 723 K led to the disappearance of the peaks belonging to Fe₃O₄, and the further increase in the intensity of the peak at 2θ of 44.5°. It should be noted that the peak at 2θ of 44.5°–44.9° may arise from both monoclinic ZrO₂ (2θ = 44.9°) and metallic Fe (2θ = 44.5°). Because the positions and the intensities of diffraction peaks belonging to ZrO₂ alone did not change significantly with temperatures, the shift of the peak position slightly to lower diffraction angles and the significant increase in the peak intensity at higher temperatures (≥ 673 K) indicate the formation of metallic Fe. For the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under H₂ flow at different temperatures, similar XRD patterns were observed (Fig. 3). Fe₂O₃ in the fresh catalyst was completely reduced to Fe₃O₄ at 673 K under H₂ flow. The formation of metallic Fe became more significant even at 673 K from the significantly enhanced intensity of the diffraction peak at 2θ of 44.5°.

We performed in situ XRD measurements for the Fe/ZrO₂ and the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts under gas mixture of (H₂ + CO₂) with a H₂/CO₂ ratio of 3. In these experiments, after reduction with H₂ at 673 K, the temperature was cooled down to 618 K, and then the reactant gas mixture was introduced to the in situ XRD cell. Fig. 4

shows that Fe₃O₄ was the main iron phase for the 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under these conditions. The XRD pattern did not undergo significant changes with time on stream up to 5 h. On the other hand, for the catalyst with K⁺ modification, besides the diffraction peaks at 2θ of 30.1°, 37.0°, and 43.0° belonging to Fe₃O₄, new peaks at 2θ of 43.5° and 44.2° were observed after 2 h under the (H₂ + CO₂) gas mixture at 618 K (Fig. 5). These two peaks could be attributed to

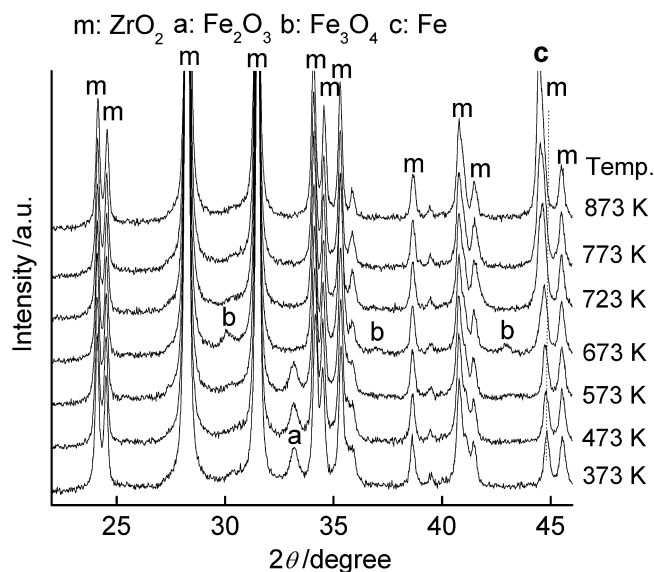


Fig. 2. In situ XRD patterns for the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under H₂ gas flow at different temperatures.

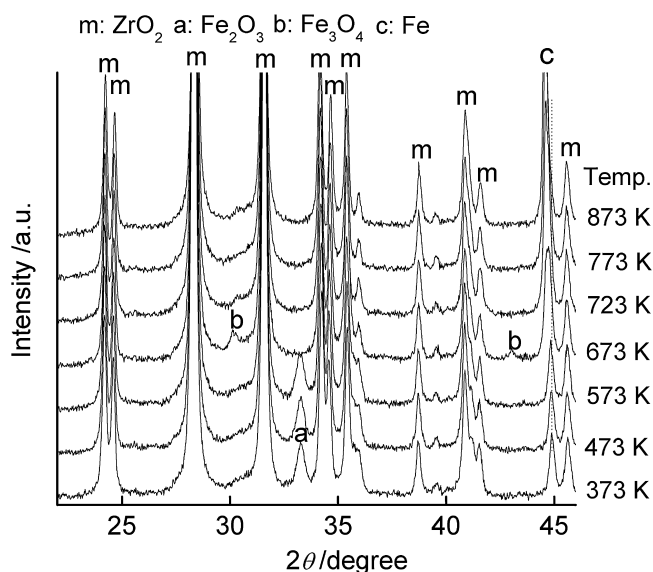


Fig. 3. In situ XRD patterns for the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under H₂ gas flow at different temperatures.

χ-Fe₅C₂ phase. This suggests the formation of χ-Fe₅C₂ species over the K⁺-modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under the (H₂ + CO₂) gas mixture.

It should be noted that the above in situ XRD measurements were carried out under atmospheric pressure. We also measured the XRD patterns for the catalysts after reactions under 2 MPa of (H₂ + CO₂) at 613 K for 10 h. The results for the Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts modified by different alkali metal ions are displayed in Fig. 6. For the Fe/ZrO₂ and the Li⁺-Fe/ZrO₂, the diffraction peaks at 2θ of 43.5° and 44.2° attributable to χ-Fe₅C₂ were quite weak. These two peaks became significantly stronger for the Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts containing Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺, and Cs⁺ modifiers. This allows us to propose that the alkali metal ions of Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺, and Cs⁺ are more effective for the generation of χ-Fe₅C₂ species under the reaction conditions. We further investigated the effect of K⁺ content on the formation of iron carbides. Fig. 7 shows the XRD patterns after 10 h of reaction under 2 MPa (H₂ + CO₂) at 613 K for the K⁺-10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with different K⁺ contents. The intensities of the peaks ascribed to χ-Fe₅C₂ increased with the content of K⁺ up to 0.5 wt%. This further

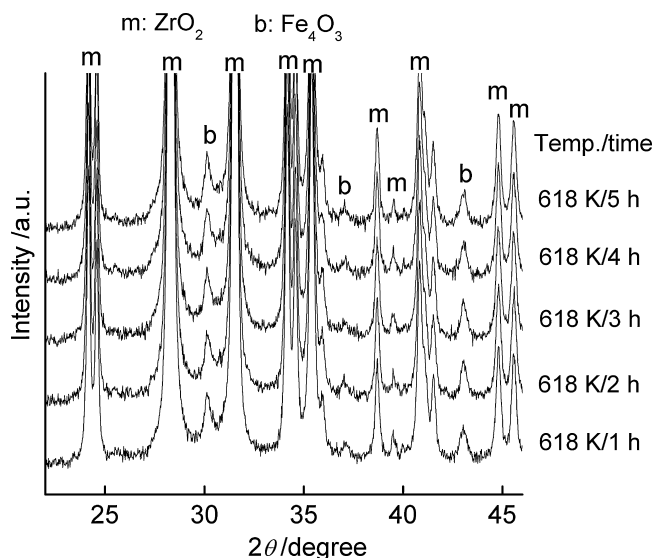


Fig. 4. In situ XRD patterns for the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under (H₂ + CO₂) (H₂/CO₂ = 3) gas flow at 618 K for different times.

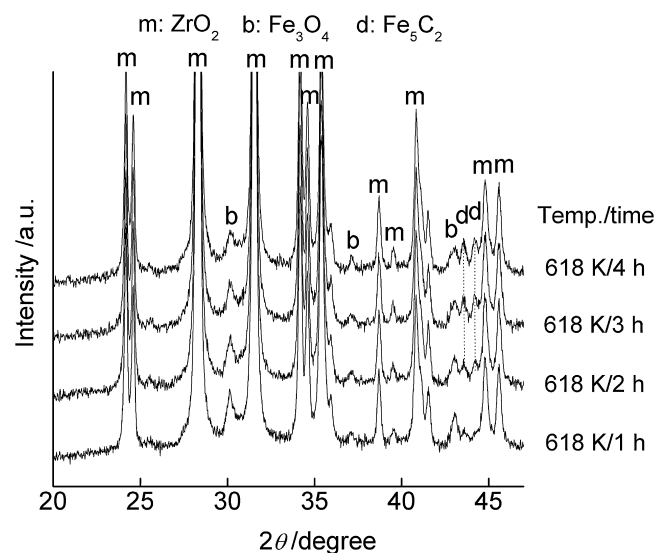


Fig. 5. In situ XRD patterns for the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst under (H₂ + CO₂) (H₂/CO₂ = 3) gas flow at 618 K for different times.

demonstrates that K⁺ accelerates the generation of χ-Fe₅C₂ under our reaction conditions.

We performed CO₂-TPD studies to gain information about the adsorption of CO₂ on the Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with and without K⁺ modification. The 10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst without K⁺ modification exhibited very weak CO₂ desorption peaks in the CO₂-TPD profile (Fig. 8). The addition of K⁺ to the Fe/ZrO₂ caused the appearance of two CO₂ desorption peaks at lower (~450 K) and higher (900–965 K) temperatures. The intensities of the desorbed CO₂, particularly the one at higher temperatures, increased with the content of K⁺. This observation indicates that the presence of K⁺ promotes the adsorption of CO₂ onto the catalyst surface. We have quantified the amounts of CO₂ desorbed at the lower (peak at ~450 K) and the higher (peak at 900–965 K) temperatures. As displayed in Table 3, the amount of CO₂ desorbed at lower temperatures was

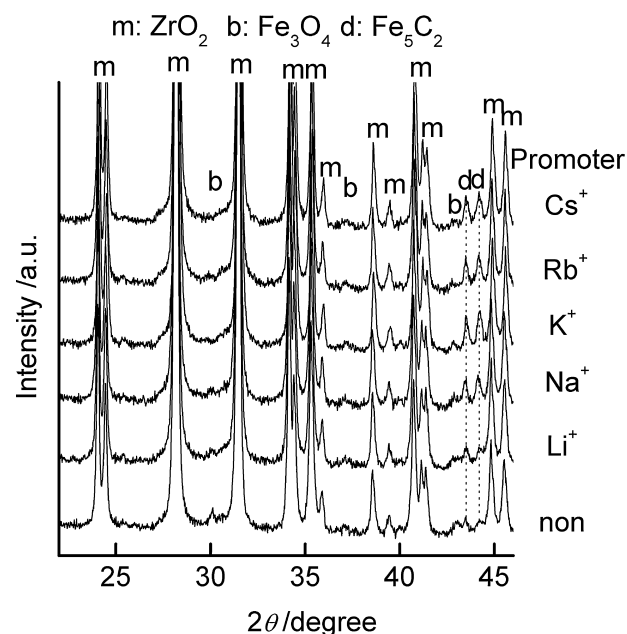


Fig. 6. XRD patterns for the Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with different alkali metal ions after reactions. The reaction conditions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

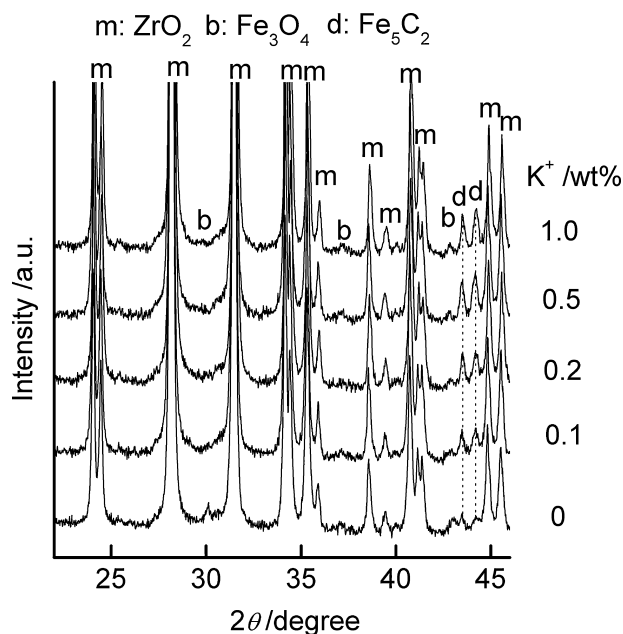


Fig. 7. XRD patterns for the K^+ -Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with different K^+ contents after reactions. The reaction conditions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

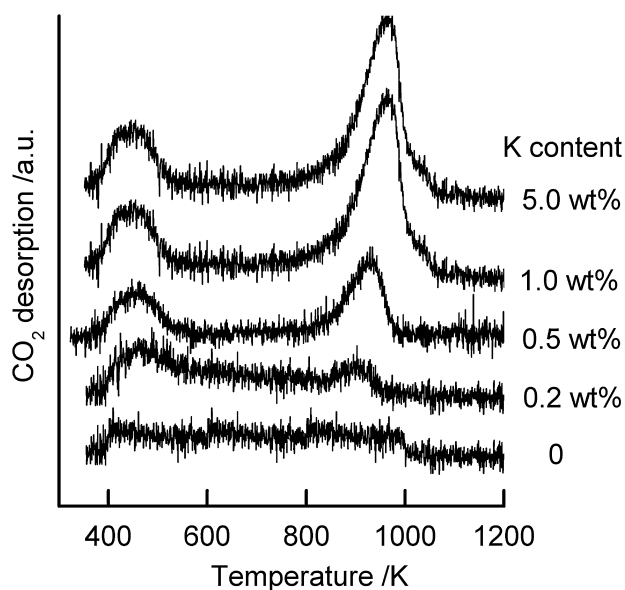


Fig. 8. CO₂-TPD profiles for the K^+ -Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with different K^+ contents.

about 2.6 times higher than that at higher temperatures for the catalyst with a K^+ content of 0.2 wt%. The increase in the K^+ content caused the increases in the amounts of CO₂ desorbed, particularly that at higher temperatures.

Table 3
Amounts of CO₂ desorption evaluated from CO₂-TPD results.

Catalyst	Amounts of CO ₂ desorption (mmol g ⁻¹)	
	400–500 K	900–960 K
10 wt% Fe/ZrO ₂	0	0
0.2 wt% K^+ -10 wt% Fe/ZrO ₂	20	7.6
0.5 wt% K^+ -10 wt% Fe/ZrO ₂	24	21
1.0 wt% K^+ -10 wt% Fe/ZrO ₂	30	84
5.0 wt% K^+ -10 wt% Fe/ZrO ₂	32	83

3.3. The roles of alkali metal ions and supports and the nature of the active Fe species

Our catalytic studies demonstrated that Fe/ZrO₂ could catalyze the hydrogenation of CO₂, but the main products were CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins. The modification by alkali metal ions except for Li⁺ significantly changed the product distributions; the formations of CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins were dramatically suppressed, and C₂–C₄ olefins and C₅⁺ hydrocarbons became the main products. The ratios of olefins to paraffins in C₂–C₄ and C₅⁺ hydrocarbons were >4.4 and ~2.0 over these alkali metal ion-modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst. The highest yield of C₂–C₄ olefins (13%) was obtained over the K^+ -10 wt% Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts with K^+ contents of 0.5–1.0 wt%. The modification by K^+ with proper contents also enhanced CO₂ conversion.

These catalytic results have provided us information about the roles of K^+ . The increase in CO₂ conversion after the addition of K^+ to the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst suggests that K^+ may promote the activation of CO₂. It is generally accepted that the hydrogenation of CO₂ to hydrocarbons over Fe-based catalysts proceeds via a two-step mechanism or indirect mechanism, i.e., the conversion of CO₂ to CO via the reverse water–gas shift reaction and the subsequent hydrogenation of CO [20,29]. Thus, the decrease in the selectivity to CO and the increase in that to oxygenates in the presence of K^+ (Table 1 and Fig. 1) may indicate that K^+ enhances the chemisorption and the subsequent conversion of CO. However, we cannot completely exclude the possibility that the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ might also contribute to the formation of hydrocarbons, and this direct mechanism may involve the dissociation of CO₂ to carbon species, followed by hydrogenation of the adsorbed species [39]. In this case, K^+ might enhance the direct activation of CO₂ to adsorbed carbon species.

Our CO₂-TPD studies have demonstrated that the introduction of basic K^+ enhanced the adsorption of acidic CO₂ molecules (Fig. 8). This may contribute to increasing the conversion of CO₂ over the K^+ -modified Fe/ZrO₂ catalysts. It is reasonable that the strongly chemisorbed CO₂ or carbonate species with a desorption peak at 900–965 K may be difficult to be hydrogenated under our reaction conditions and may not contribute to the catalytic conversion of CO₂. Thus, it is probable that the chemisorbed CO₂ species, which show a desorption peak at a lower temperature (~450 K), mainly account for the catalytic reaction. At higher K^+ contents, the formation of larger amounts of strongly chemisorbed CO₂ or carbonates on catalyst surfaces (Fig. 8 and Table 3) may lead to the lower catalytic activity (Fig. 1) because of the possible covering of the active Fe species.

Concerning the product selectivity, the decrease in the fraction of C₂–C₄ paraffins and the increases in that of C₂–C₄ olefins clearly suggest the decrease in the hydrogenation ability of the catalyst after the modification by K^+ . The dramatic decrease in the fraction of CH₄ and the increase in that to C₅⁺ hydrocarbons suggest the increase in the chain-growth probability over the K^+ -modified catalysts. The relatively higher fraction of olefins in C₅⁺ hydrocarbons also indicates that the presence of K^+ decreases the hydrogenation ability or inhibits the re-adsorption of olefins.

Our characterizations showed that the alkali metal ion promoted the generation of χ -Fe₅C₂ under the (H₂ + CO₂) gas mixture. The generation of χ -Fe₅C₂ was confirmed during both the in situ XRD measurements under the (H₂ + CO₂) gas flow (atmospheric pressure) and the XRD measurements after reactions for the catalysts with K^+ modification. Our studies suggest that there is a good correlation between the generation of χ -Fe₅C₂ and the catalytic performance for the production of C₂–C₄ olefins. Many recent studies have provided evidence that iron carbide species, particularly χ -Fe₅C₂, is an active phase for the production of C₂–C₄ olefins or C₅⁺ hydrocarbons in the hydrogenation of CO, i.e., Fischer–Tropsch

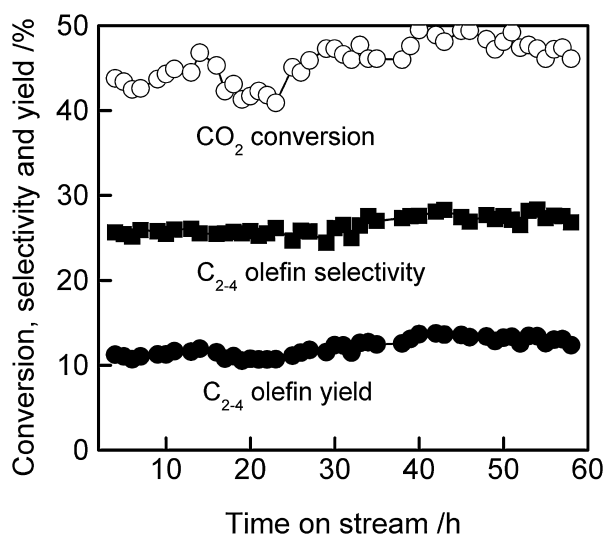


Fig. 9. Changes of catalytic performances of K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 catalyst for the hydrogenation of CO_2 . Reaction conditions: $W(\text{catalyst}) = 1.0 \text{ g}$, $H_2/CO_2 = 3$, $T = 613 \text{ K}$, $P = 2 \text{ MPa}$, $F = 20 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$.

synthesis [32,33,40–46]. For example, Pan and co-workers once demonstrated that a higher fraction of iron carbide phase resulted in a higher C_{5+} selectivity and a lower CH_4 selectivity for the Fe catalyst confined inside the CNTs [41]. Sun et al. found that the increase in the concentration of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ in a Raney Fe@HZSM-5 catalyst led to a higher C_{5+} selectivity [44]. Very recently, Yang et al. reported a successful controlled synthesis of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ nanoparticles and found that the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ nanoparticles exhibited excellent catalytic performances in Fischer–Tropsch synthesis, providing higher selectivities to C_{5+} hydrocarbons and $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins as compared to the conventional H_2 -reduced hematite catalyst [45]. As mentioned above, the hydrogenation of CO_2 over our catalysts mainly proceeds via the indirect mechanism, i.e., the reverse water-gas shift of CO_2 with H_2 to CO and H_2O , and the subsequent hydrogenation of CO to hydrocarbons, i.e., Fischer–Tropsch synthesis, although we cannot completely exclude the possibility of the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 . Actually, the reaction conditions adopted in the present work were similar to those employed in the hydrogenation of CO to lower olefins over Fe-based catalysts except for the ratio of H_2 to CO_2 or CO [18]. Detailed analyses of the catalytic results for the hydrogenation of CO [18] and CO_2 (this work) showed similar product distributions in hydrocarbons for the two reactions. Therefore, the enhanced generation of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$, which is an active phase for the hydrogenation of CO to C_{5+} hydrocarbons and $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins, would promote the formation of $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins in the hydrogenation of CO_2 .

Based on the results and discussion described above, we propose that the enhanced formation of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ species after the modification by an alkali metal ion except for Li^+ contributes to promoting the selectivities to $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins and C_{5+} hydrocarbons (mainly olefins) during the hydrogenation of CO_2 . The decreased hydrogenation ability in the presence of an alkali metal ion would also contribute to the increased fraction of $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins. Furthermore, the presence of electron-donating K^+ modifier on catalyst surfaces may hinder the re-adsorption of olefins, which were also electron donors, and this may also result in higher olefin selectivities. We further performed a relatively longer-term reaction for the K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 catalyst to investigate the stability of this catalyst containing $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$. Fig. 9 demonstrates that both the conversion of CO_2 and the selectivity to $C_2\text{--}C_4$ olefins do not undergo significant decreases after a reaction at 623 K for ~60 h.

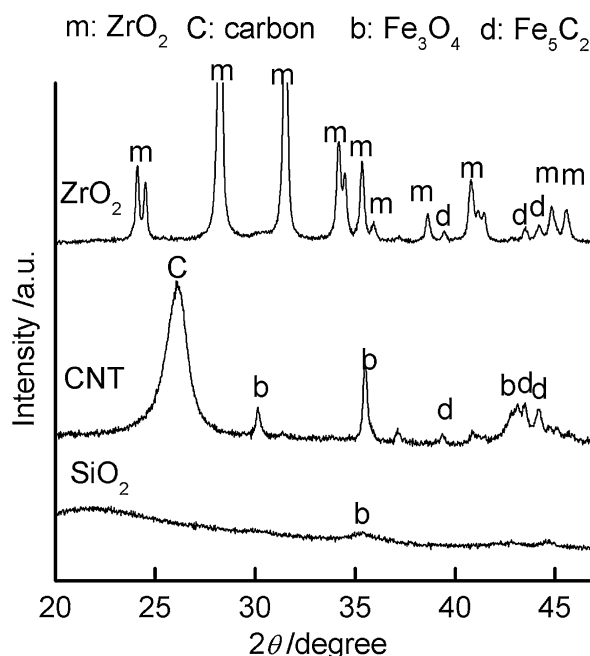


Fig. 10. XRD patterns for the K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 , K^+-Fe/SiO_2 , and K^+-Fe/CNT catalysts after reactions. The reaction conditions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

Concerning the role of the alkali metal ion in the formation of iron carbide species, through in situ EXAFS/XANES studies, Ribeiro et al. recently showed that the alkali metal ions also accelerated the carburization of iron over an Fe/silica catalyst, i.e., the formation of iron carbides (mainly $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$), in a CO/He mixture at 563 K [47]. The rate of carburization was found to increase in the order of unpromoted catalyst < Li-promoted catalyst < Na-promoted catalyst < K-promoted catalyst $\approx$ Rb-promoted catalyst $\approx$ Cs-promoted catalyst [47]. Many studies suggested that the presence of an alkali metal ion, particularly K^+ , could facilitate the dissociation of CO because of the electronic effect [33,37,47–50]. The changed electron density on Fe species in the presence of K^+ may weaken the C–O bond in CO molecules chemisorbed on Fe surfaces and strengthen the Fe–C bond, accelerating the generation of iron carbide species. Such an electronic effect may also weaken the Fe–H bond, reducing the hydrogenation ability of Fe catalysts [48–50].

To understand the reasons for the differences in catalytic behaviors of K^+ -modified Fe catalysts loaded on different supports, we have performed XRD measurements for three typical catalysts, i.e., the K^+-Fe/SiO_2 , K^+-Fe/CNT , and K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 catalysts, after reactions. The results displayed in Fig. 10 show that, besides the diffraction peaks ascribed to the support, the peaks attributed to $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ and Fe_3O_4 were observed for the K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 and K^+-Fe/CNT catalysts. On the other hand, only diffraction peaks assignable to Fe_3O_4 could be detected for the K^+-Fe/SiO_2 catalyst. We speculate that absence of the $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ species for the K^+-Fe/SiO_2 catalyst may be responsible for its lower catalytic activity and selectivity (Table 2). It was once reported that iron (II), which was generated during the reduction process, may interact strongly with SiO_2 , forming iron silicate [51]. Iron silicate was difficult to be further reduced, and this might hinder the formation of $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$. On the other hand, such an iron zirconate cannot be formed although there may exist an interaction between Fe and ZrO_2 [51]. The comparison of the K^+-Fe/CNT and K^+-Fe/ZrO_2 catalysts, both of which could generate $\chi\text{-Fe}_5C_2$ phase during the reaction, showed that the former catalyst exhibited relatively higher selectivities to CH_4 and $C_2\text{--}C_4$ paraffins. It is known that CNTs are excellent supports for hydrogenation reactions because of their unique properties in H_2 adsorption and spillover [52,53]. Such an excellent hydrogenation

ability of the CNT-based catalyst may lead to the relatively higher selectivities to CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins. Further studies are needed in the future to clarify why the ZrO₂-supported K⁺-modified Fe catalyst can afford better catalytic performances for the formation of C₂–C₄ olefins.

4. Conclusions

The Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst modified by a proper alkali metal ion was found to be an efficient catalyst for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins. The Fe/ZrO₂ without modification provided CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins as the main products in the hydrogenation of CO₂. The addition of an alkali metal ion except for Li⁺ significantly suppressed the formations of CH₄ and C₂–C₄ paraffins, and promoted the formations of C₂–C₄ olefins and C₅+ hydrocarbons. K⁺ and ZrO₂ were demonstrated to be the best modifier and support of iron catalysts for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to C₂–C₄ olefins. The catalytic performance was also dependent on the content of K⁺. Over the K⁺-Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst with a proper K⁺ content (0.5–1 wt%), the yield of C₂–C₄ olefins could reach 13%, with the fraction of C₂–C₄ olefins in the hydrocarbons being ~45%. The modification of the Fe/ZrO₂ catalyst by K⁺ accelerated the generation of χ -Fe₅C₂ species under the reaction conditions. The presence of K⁺ also enhanced the adsorption of CO₂ and decreased the hydrogenation ability. These were proposed to mainly contribute to the increase in the conversion of CO₂ and the change in the product distributions in the presence of K⁺ modification.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the National Basic Research Program of China (No. 2013CB933102), the Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 21173174, 21161130522, 21033006, and 20923004), and the Program for Changjiang Scholars and Innovative Research Team in Chinese Universities (No. IRT1036).

References

- [1] C.S. Song, *Catalysis Today* 115 (2006) 2–32.
- [2] G. Centi, S. Perathoner, *Catalysis Today* 148 (2009) 191–205.
- [3] A.J. Hunt, E.H.K. Sin, R. Marriott, J.H. Clark, *ChemSusChem* 3 (2010) 306–322.
- [4] Q. Wang, J. Luo, Z. Zhong, A. Borgna, *Energy and Environmental Science* 4 (2011) 42–55.
- [5] A. Goeppert, M. Czaun, G.K.S. Prakash, G.A. Olah, *Energy and Environmental Science* 5 (2012) 7833–7853.
- [6] M. Aresta, A. Dibenedetto, *Dalton Transactions* (2007) 2975–2992.
- [7] T. Sakakura, J.C. Choi, H. Yasuda, *Chemical Reviews* 107 (2007) 2365–2387.
- [8] J. Ma, N. Sun, X. Zhang, N. Zhao, F. Xiao, W. Wei, Y. Sun, *Catalysis Today* 148 (2009) 221–231.
- [9] M. Cokoja, C. Bruckmeier, B. Rieger, W.A. Herrmann, F.E. Kühn, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 50 (2011) 8510–8537.
- [10] W. Wang, S. Wang, X. Ma, J. Gong, *Chemical Society Reviews* 40 (2011) 3703–3727.
- [11] V.P. Indrakanti, J.D. Kubicki, H.H. Schobert, *Energy and Environmental Science* 2 (2009) 745–758.
- [12] S.C. Roy, O.K. Varghese, M. Paulose, C.A. Grimes, *ACS Nano* 4 (2010) 1259–1278.
- [13] W. Fan, Q. Zhang, Y. Wang, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics* 15 (2013) 2632–2649.
- [14] F. Ovampo, B. Louis, L. Kiwi-Minsker, A.C. Roger, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 392 (2011) 36–44.
- [15] A.H. Tullo, *Chemical and Engineering News* 81 (50) (2003) 15–16.
- [16] J. He, T. Xu, Z. Wang, Q. Zhang, W. Deng, Y. Wang, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 51 (2012) 2438–2442.
- [17] T. Xu, Q. Zhang, H. Song, Y. Wang, *Journal of Catalysis* 295 (2012) 232–241.
- [18] H.M.T. Galvis, J.H. Bitter, C.B. Khare, M. Ruitenbeek, A.I. Dugulan, K.P. de Jong, *Science* 335 (2012) 835–838.
- [19] U. Olsbye, S. Svelle, M. Bjørgen, P. Beato, T.V.W. Janssens, F. Joensen, S. Bordiga, K.P. Lillerud, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 51 (2012) 5810–5831.
- [20] P.H. Choi, K.W. Jun, S.J. Lee, M.J. Choi, K.W. Lee, *Catalysis Letters* 40 (1996) 115–118.
- [21] Z.H. Suo, Y. Kou, J.Z. Niu, W.Z. Zhang, H.L. Wang, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 148 (1997) 301–303.
- [22] H. Ando, Q. Xu, M. Fujiwara, Y. Matsumura, M. Tanaka, Y. Souma, *Catalysis Today* 45 (1998) 229–234.
- [23] L. Xu, Q. Wang, D. Liang, X. Wang, L. Lin, W. Cui, Y. Xu, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 173 (1998) 19–25.
- [24] S.S. Nam, H. Kim, G. Kishan, M.J. Choi, K.W. Lee, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 179 (1999) 155–163.
- [25] M.L. Cubeiro, H. Morales, M.R. Goldwasser, M.J. Pérez-Zurita, F. González-Jiménez, G. Urbina de N, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 189 (1999) 87–97.
- [26] T. Riedel, G. Schaub, K.W. Jun, K.W. Lee, *Industrial and Engineering Chemistry Research* 40 (2001) 1355–1363.
- [27] T. Riedel, H. Schulz, G. Schaub, K.W. Jun, J.S. Hwang, K.W. Lee, *Topics in Catalysis* 26 (2003) 41–54.
- [28] T. Herranz, S. Rojas, F.J. Pérez-Alonso, M. Ojeda, P. Terreros, J.L.G. Fierro, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 311 (2006) 66–75.
- [29] P.S.S. Prasad, J.W. Bae, K.W. Jun, K.W. Lee, *Catalysis Surveys from Asia* 12 (2008) 170–183.
- [30] R.W. Dorner, D.R. Hardy, F.W. Williams, B.H. Davis, H.D. Willauer, *Energy Fuel* 23 (2009) 4190–4195.
- [31] R.W. Dorner, D.R. Hardy, F.W. Williams, H.D. Willauer, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 373 (2010) 112–121.
- [32] E. de Smit, B.M. Weckhuysen, *Chemical Society Reviews* 37 (2008) 2758–2781.
- [33] Q. Zhang, J. Kang, Y. Wang, *ChemCatChem* 2 (2010) 1030–1058.
- [34] P. Chen, H.B. Zhang, G.D. Lin, Q. Hong, K.R. Tsai, *Carbon* 35 (1997) 1495–1501.
- [35] J. Wambach, A. Baiker, A. Wokaun, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics* 1 (1999) 5071–5080.
- [36] P. Wang, J. Kang, Q. Zhang, Y. Wang, *Catalysis Letters* 114 (2007) 178–184.
- [37] W. Ngantsoue-Hoc, Y. Zhang, R.J. O'Brien, M. Luo, B.H. Davis, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 236 (2002) 77–89.
- [38] D. Li, N. Ichikuni, S. Shimazu, T. Uematsu, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 172 (1998) 351–358.
- [39] R.A. Fiato, E. Iglesia, G.W. Rice, S.L. Soled, *Studies in Surface Science and Catalysis* 107 (1998) 339–344.
- [40] M.D. Shroff, D.S. Kalallad, K.E. Coulter, S.D. Köhler, M.S. Harrington, N.B. Jackson, A.G. Sault, A.K. Datye, *Journal of Catalysis* 156 (1995) 185–207.
- [41] W. Chen, Z. Fan, X. Pan, X. Bao, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 130 (2008) 9414–9419.
- [42] E. de Smit, F. Cinquini, A.M. Beale, O.V. Safonova, W. van Beek, P. Sautet, B.M. Weckhuysen, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 132 (2010) 14928–14941.
- [43] H.M.T. Galvis, J.H. Bitter, T. Davidian, M. Ruitenbeek, A.I. Dugulan, K.P. de Jong, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 134 (2012) 16207–16215.
- [44] B. Sun, G. Yu, J. Lin, K. Xu, Y. Pei, S. Yan, M. Qiao, K. Fan, X. Zhang, B. Zong, *Catalysis Science & Technology* 2 (2012) 1625–1629.
- [45] C. Yang, H. Zhao, Y. Hou, D. Ma, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 134 (2012) 15814–15821.
- [46] Q. Zhang, W. Deng, Y. Wang, *Journal of Energy Chemistry* 22 (2013) 27–38.
- [47] M.C. Ribeiro, G. Jacobs, B.H. Davis, D.C. Cronauer, A.J. Kropf, C.L. Marshall, *Journal of Physical Chemistry C* 114 (2010) 7895–7903.
- [48] Y. Yang, H.W. Xiang, Y.Y. Xu, L. Bai, Y.W. Li, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 266 (2004) 181–194.
- [49] N. Lohitharn, J.G. Goodwin Jr., *Journal of Catalysis* 260 (2008) 7–16.
- [50] R. Luque, A.R. de la Osa, J.M. Campelo, A.A. Romero, J.L. Valverde, P. Sanchez, *Energy and Environmental Science* 5 (2012) 5186–5202.
- [51] F.R. van den Berg, M.W.J. Crajé, P.J. Kooyman, A.M. van der Kraan, J.W. Geus, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 235 (2002) 217–224.
- [52] H. Zhang, X. Dong, G. Lin, X. Liang, H. Li, *Chemical Communications* 40 (2005) 5094–5096.
- [53] J. Kang, S. Zhang, Q. Zhang, Y. Wang, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition* 48 (2009) 2565–2568.