



# The mechanism of ethanol steam reforming on the $\text{Co}^0$ and $\text{Co}^{2+}$ sites: A DFT study



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## ARTICLE INFO

### Article history:

Received 8 February 2018

Revised 18 May 2018

Accepted 1 July 2018

### Keywords:

ESR reaction

Reaction mechanism

$\text{Co}(0001)$

$\text{CoO}(100)$

Active sites

Density functional theory calculations

## ABSTRACT

It is well known that Co catalysts are efficient for ethanol steam reforming (ESR) reactions, but whether the active site is  $\text{Co}^0$ ,  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , or  $\text{Co}^0\text{--Co}^{2+}$  is still debated. In the present work, density functional theory calculations are performed to study the reaction mechanisms of ESR over  $\text{Co}^0$ ,  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Co}^0\text{--Co}^{2+}$  sites. The mechanism of ESR on  $\text{Co}^0$  sites is  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CHO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{CO}$ , and  $\text{H}_2$  is formed by the combination of adsorbed H species with a relatively high barrier (1.37 eV). On the  $\text{CoO}(100)$  surface, the main product  $\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}$  is produced through the consecutive dehydrogenation of ethanol, but the  $\text{CoO}$  surface lacks the C–C bond activation that ESR requires. On Co catalysts with a combination of  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  ( $\text{Co}_{10}/\text{CoO}(100)$  model), a strong synergetic effect was found: On interface, it occurs through the path  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CHO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CO}$ , the resulting  $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}$  on interface will spread to  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster and bind to OH on the interface which results from  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dissociation on the  $\text{CoO}$  surface:  $\text{CH}_3\text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$  (interface), and the resulting acetic acid ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ ) will spread to the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster and go on C–C scission with the path  $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{trans-COOH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$  to form  $\text{CO}_2$ . On  $\text{CoO}$  parts ( $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites),  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dissociation is more facile than that on  $\text{Co}^0$  sites, and the formed OH (or O) migrates to the interface easily and reacts with  $\text{CH}_x$  species to release carbon deposition. On the interface between  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , some key coupling reactions related to ESR are favored, such as  $\text{H}_2$  formation, the formation of  $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ , and the oxidation of  $\text{CH}_x$  species to release coke formation, thus leading to high activity for ESR. Possible reasons for the result that C–C bond breaking can take place on  $\text{Co}^0$  sites instead of  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites have been analyzed, and it was found that  $\text{Co}^0$  sites with a large ensemble size of Co favor dissociation reactions such as C–C scission. Based on the present work, it is expected that a proper catalyst for ESR reactions should have metallic sites with large ensemble size to break C–C bonds and oxidized metal sites with small ensemble size to favor water dissociation as well as acetate species formation.

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## 1. Introduction

Both rising global energy demands and serious environmental problems call for the replacement of petroleum-based fuels with alternative fuels. Hydrogen, a promising environmentally friendly energy source, has attracted much attention [1]. To date, ethanol steam reforming (ESR) stands out among numerous hydrogen production technologies such as the steam reforming of methane [2] and the steam reforming of methanol [3–5] for high selectivity

for  $\text{H}_2$  [6]. The renewable fermentation of biomass synthetic route, the advantage in storage facilities, handling, and transport safety, and feasible  $\text{H}_2$  production applying in the fuel cell, makes ESR more efficient in application in direct biorenewable resources and in fuel cells as storage media [7,8]. The strongly endothermic ESR calls for a continuous heat supply at low temperature in production, and requires an efficient catalyst for ESR. The noble metal catalysts (Pt [9], Pd [10], Rh [11], Ir [12], and Ru [13]) have shown catalytic activity toward ESR. However, the low  $\text{H}_2$  yield at low temperature, high methane selectivity, and high cost have limited the application of noble-metal-based catalysts. On the other hand, non-noble Co-based catalysts could obtain a low propensity to catalyze carbon deposition with low selectivity of byproducts [14]. The supports ( $\text{CeO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ ,  $\text{MgO}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ , zeolites-Y,  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{La}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2\text{--ZrO}_2$ ) play a vital role in their catalytic activity, selectivity,

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and carbon deposition [15]. Acid supports such as  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  strongly facilitate carbonaceous deposition by the dehydration of ethanol. In contrast, support oxides of a basic nature lead to the condensation of ethanol to higher oxygenates [16,17]. The only weakly basic reducible metal oxides such as  $\text{CeO}_2$  and  $\text{ZrO}_2$  turn to be the most suitable support for ESR, owing to their high oxygen storage capacity and oxygen mobility [18]. The active sites on reducible-metal-oxide supported Co catalyst for ESR are combinations of  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites [19]. Del Río et al. [20] have suggested that the  $\text{CoO}_x$  ( $x < 2$ ) phase is needed to obtain sufficient  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  selectivity. Turczyniak et al. [21] have reported the presence of  $\text{Co(II)}$  and metallic Co under higher pressure (4–20 mbar) of ethanol/water on  $\text{Co/CeO}_2$  and gains high  $\text{CO}_2$  selectivity and  $\text{H}_2$  yield.

Theoretically, numerous studies on the mechanisms of ethanol decomposition/oxidation on metals [22–27] and metallic oxides [28–31] have been carried out by density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Computational investigation on ESR on the  $\text{Co(0001)}$  surface has revealed that the mechanisms of ESR involve the subsequent dehydrogenation of ethanol, C–C scission, the dissociation of water, and water-gas shift reactions [32]. However, DFT calculation on ESR mechanisms on Co catalysts with both  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites is lacking. Here, we initially use the  $\text{Co(0001)}$  surface and the  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface to simulate the ESR reactions on  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites. Furthermore, we develop a mixed model with  $\text{Co(0001)}$  and  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surfaces to explore the ESR mechanism on the mixed  $\text{CoO}_x$  surface in the Co catalyst based on a reducible support in the report from Turczyniak et al. [21].

## 2. Calculation methods and models

### 2.1. Methods

The Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [33–35] was applied to investigate the ethanol reaction on the  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites by self-consistent periodical DFT calculations with projected augmented wave (PAW) [36] pseudopotentials. All the electronic structures were calculated using the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) [37] form of the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) expanded in a plane wave basis with a kinetic cutoff energy of 400 eV. The climbing image general nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) [38] method was employed to locate the transition states (TSs). Spin polarization was included in the calculations. The adsorption energy ( $E_{\text{ads}}$ ), activation energy ( $E_a$ ), and reaction energies ( $\Delta E$ ) were calculated by the following three formulas:  $E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{A/M}} - E_{\text{A}} - E_{\text{M}}$ ,  $E_a = E_{\text{TS}} - E_{\text{IS}}$ , and  $\Delta E = E_{\text{FS}} - E_{\text{IS}}$ , respectively. Here,  $E_{\text{A}}$ ,  $E_{\text{M}}$ ,  $E_{\text{A/M}}$ ,  $E_{\text{TS}}$ ,  $E_{\text{IS}}$ , and  $E_{\text{FS}}$  mean the calculated energies of the adsorbate, substrate, adsorption system, transition state, initial state (IS), and final state (FS), respectively.

### 2.2. Models

The  $\text{Co(0001)}$  surface containing the  $\text{Co}^0$  site was modeled by the  $p(3 \times 3)$  unit cell of four layers, of which the uppermost two

layers were relaxed as established in Fig. 1a. A vacuum space of 15 Å was applied in the case of the spurious interactions normal to the surface. A  $3 \times 3 \times 1$  Monkhorst–Pack  $k$ -point mesh [39] was used in the surface Brillouin zone. The  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface shown in Fig. 1b, containing  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ , was modeled by a  $p(3 \times 2)$  unit cell of four layers that were separated by a 15 Å vacuum with the  $2 \times 3 \times 1$  Monkhorst–Pack  $k$ -point mesh. The uppermost two layers were allowed to relax to optimize the structures. The experimental CoO lattice constant was applied (4.261 Å) [40,41].

For the model with  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites, a two-layer  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster modeled in the  $\text{Co(0001)}$  surface was set on a larger  $p(2 \times 6)$  unit cell of the  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface with four layers. The top layer of the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster possesses four Co atoms, and the second layer of the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster, containing six Co atoms, interacts with the  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface through Co in the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster and lattice oxygen on the surface. The vacuum space of 15 Å was applied in the case of the spurious interactions normal to the surface shown in Fig. 1c with the  $3 \times 1 \times 1$  Monkhorst–Pack  $k$ -point mesh. The upper two layers of  $\text{CoO(100)}$  and the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster were relaxed. The Coulomb ( $U$ ) and exchange ( $J$ ) interactions were taken into consideration due to the highly correlated electronic states of the cobalt oxide CoO. The GGA+ $U$  [42,43] method was used to recover the effect of 3d electron correlation on the 3d transition metal oxide CoO with the set  $U - J = 3.3$  eV [44]. For the charge distribution of different sites ( $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster, CoO surface and interface) in the  $\text{Co}_{10}/\text{CoO(100)}$  model, as shown in Fig. 2, the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster donates electrons to the lattice oxygen on the CoO surface, leading to the charge of Co on the interface being  $+x$  ( $0 < x < 2$ ). As a result, the interface can be denoted as  $\text{Co}^{x+}$  sites ( $0 < x < 2$ ).

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Adsorption of pertinent species

To get the difference of adsorption properties of the intermediates on  $\text{Co}^0$  and  $\text{Co}^{2+}$  sites, we compare the adsorption configurations and energies for the main species involved in ESR reactions on the  $\text{Co(0001)}$  surface with that on the clean  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface. The corresponding configurations on  $\text{Co(0001)}$  and  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surfaces were displayed in Fig. S1 in the Supporting Information. It is found that the adsorption energies of the main species on  $\text{Co(0001)}$  are higher than those on  $\text{CoO(100)}$ , indicating the stronger interaction between the main species and the  $\text{Co}^0$  site. The stronger interaction between carbon species and the  $\text{Co}^0$  site is in accordance with the higher electron density of metallic Co. For the adsorption on  $\text{Co}_{10}/\text{CoO(100)}$  model shown in Fig. 3, the most preferred adsorption site for most carbon species in the  $\text{Co}_{10}/\text{CoO(100)}$  model is the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster, followed by the interface and the  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface. The highest adsorption energies of intermediates on the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster are caused by the higher unsaturation of Co and the higher density of Co sites. In addition, the species  $\text{CH}_3$  and CO tend to get adsorbed onto the  $\text{Co}_{10}$  cluster stably, and could hardly be adsorbed on the interface.

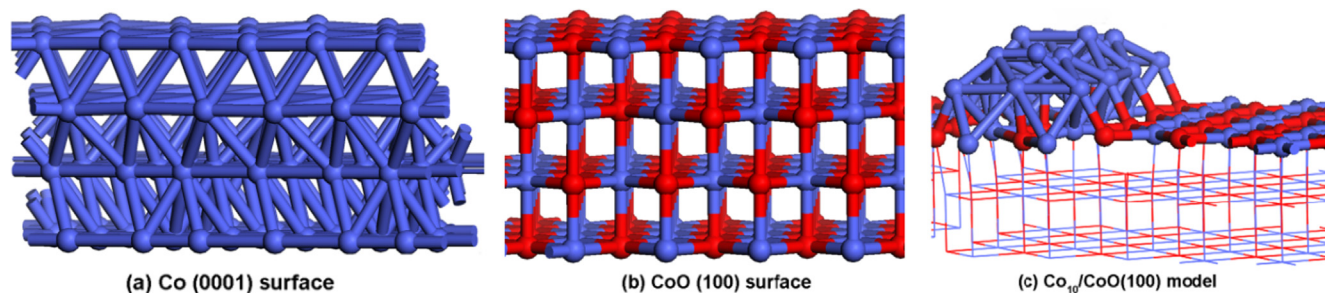


Fig. 1. Structures of  $\text{Co(0001)}$  (a),  $\text{CoO(100)}$  surface (b), and  $\text{Co}_{10}/\text{CoO(100)}$  model (c).

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