

Bimetallic Catalysts for Green Methanol Production via CO₂ and Renewable Hydrogen: A Mini-review and Prospects

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Abstract

Recently, the increasing level of atmospheric CO₂ has been well noted due to its association with global warming, provoking a growth in environmental concerns toward the continued use of fossil fuels. To mitigate the concentration of atmospheric CO₂, various strategies have been implemented. Carbon capture and utilisation along with renewable hydrogen production as the raw materials for methanol production are one of the options to turn waste CO₂ into useful fuels and chemicals. In the 1960s, the highly active and cost effective Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst was developed for the synthesis of methanol from carbon oxides and hydrogen derived from natural gas. Since then, metal nanoparticles and nanocomposites have been extensively investigated and applied on CO₂ hydrogenation reaction to methanol. Particularly, bimetallic catalysts have emerged as an important class of catalysts due to their unique properties and enhanced catalytic performances compared to their monometallic counterparts. In this minireview, after giving the introduction of the main motivation for the development of green methanol production via CO₂ hydrogenation, we first summarise the recent promising research activities in the fields of generating renewable CO₂/H₂ sources from carbon capture technologies, green hydrogen production, and biomass-derived CO₂/H₂ mixture. Then we provide an overview of the developments in the preparation of some new bimetallic catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation reactions to methanol with the emphasis on the synergistic effects and the enhancement of catalytic performances over monometallic counterparts. Finally, the main conclusions are summarised and an outlook is presented for the future development in this research area.

Keywords: Methanol synthesis, carbon dioxide, renewable hydrogen, bimetallic alloy, heterogeneous catalysts, sustainable development.

1. Introduction

Along with the benefits brought by the advance of industrialisation, more and more problems of greenhouse gas emissions have emerged, which result in global warming and lead to extreme weather change^{1,2}. Although it is well-known that burning of fossil fuels accounts for the major greenhouse gas production, the world energy supply is still strongly reliant on this limited and non-environmentally friendly source³ as shown in Fig. 1a. According to the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO), the concentration of CO₂ in the Earth's atmosphere surged to a record high, hitting 403.3 ppm in 2016. Researchers suggested that a combination of human activities and the El Niño weather phenomenon drove CO₂ to a level not seen in 800,000 years⁴. This has become an international concern, and increasing efforts are being made to end this carbon emission problem.

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) is one of the options that could help towards the target for mitigating climate change. According to the International Energy Agency (IEA) report in 2017, among many human activities, the use of energy represents by far the largest source of emissions⁵. It can be seen from Fig. 1b that c.a. 42% of the global CO₂ emissions from fuel combustion are related to electricity and heat generation, indicating that CO₂ capture technologies could effectively alleviate the current carbon emission problem if it was applied at large point sources, i.e., power plants. However, the main economic obstacles for CCS is that it is not a profitable activity which requires large capital investment⁶. Therefore, an alternative, carbon capture and utilisation (CCU), has started to attract the attention of people who are interested in this area because it can turn waste CO₂ into valuable products such as chemical feedstocks and fuels. In addition, its application for enhanced oil recovery (EOR) has also attracted commercial interests since 1970s⁷. By storing CO₂ in oil fields, EOR has the advantages of the enhanced oil production and reduced carbon emissions that may offset the cost of the CO₂ capture process. With the development of the CCU technologies, CO₂ is no longer considered as a waste but as an alternative carbon feedstock. Chemical fixation of CO₂ using renewable hydrogen from biomass or decomposition of water from solar, tidal wave, and wind powers through its hydrogenation to methanol, as suggested in the “Methanol economy” strategy⁸, has prompted intense research activities because methanol not only can be a platform chemical for many chemical products manufacture but also act as a high energy density and easy storable/transportable liquid hence it is suitable for replacing fossil fuels.

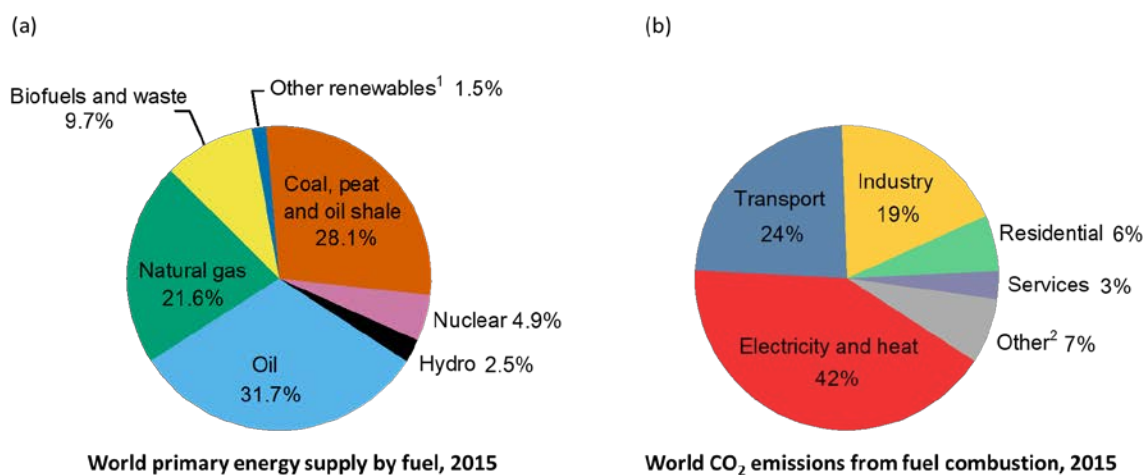


Fig. 1 The sources of (a) the global primary energy supply by fuel, and (b) the global CO₂ emissions from fuel combustion by sector; data retrieved from the reports of IEA Statistics^{3,5}, 2017. ¹Includes geothermal, solar, wind, tide/wave/ocean, heat, and other renewables; ²Includes agriculture/forestry, fishing, energy industries other than electricity and heat generation.

The advancements in understanding the heterogeneous catalysts for methanol synthesis from CO₂ and hydrogen have progressively been made, especially on the Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ based system that was initially developed in the 1960s. This catalyst is still currently the centre of the focus, which reflects the fact that heterogeneous catalysts are preferable than the homogeneous systems owing to its high stability, easier handling, and reusability that help to fulfil large-scale productions with lower costs⁹. Over the years, a great amount of effort has been put into the development of active and stable heterogeneous catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, and several influential publications have reviewed it. A review published by Liu et al.¹⁰ summarised the catalyst innovation for methanol synthesis via CO₂ and CO through the detailed aspects including active site, support effect, promoter, synthesis and pre-treatment effect. However, this report was published 15 years ago hence an update of recent studies is desirable. In a review on recent advances in catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂, various catalyst systems such as Cu-based catalysts, Pd-based catalysts, and other novel catalysts are discussed in detail¹¹. Álvarez et al.¹² provided a statistical result on types of catalyst reported for methanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation published in the past 10 years, which shows that 79% of the reports described catalysts based on Cu, followed by 11.5% based on Pd, and 9.5% on bimetallic systems. It can recently be seen that CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol over bimetallic catalysts has emerged as an important subject in

this area. In many cases, there is a great enhancement in their specific physical and chemical properties owing to a synergistic effect over the monometallic counterparts, therefore leading to a desirable catalytic performance toward methanol production.

So far, numerous solutions have been proposed to alleviate the problems associated with the emission of CO₂. Among all the options, green methanol synthesis that consists of CO₂ capturing/recycling together with renewable hydrogen production seems to be a promising way to achieve carbon neutral process and sustainable development. In recent years, many efforts have been made towards carbon capture and utilisation, hydrogen synthesis via green routes, and methanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation over promising bimetallic materials. This minireview is therefore intended to provide an overview of the research advancements on those topics.

2. Renewable CO₂/H₂ sources

2.1 CO₂ sources

Carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) is an emerging combination of technologies which can help to reduce CO₂ emissions from the use of fossil fuels. However, CCS faces many economic and technical barriers, such as the shortage of capital investment, the uncertain CO₂ leakage rate, and the geological incapability in certain areas, that must be overcome before it can be applied on a large scale¹³. More recently, carbon capture and utilisation (CCU) has started to attract attention because it can turn waste CO₂ into valuable products, such as methanol and many other chemicals. Utilisation of CO₂ has the advantages of being a renewable, low in cost, and non-toxic process. In addition, the CCU is generally a profitable activity as the produced chemicals or fuels can be sold, which makes it a promising way to help with the climate change mitigation⁶.

Elimination of CO₂ from the flue gases of power plants would greatly reduce the global annual emissions, as the CO₂ produced from the electric power industry represents almost half of the global greenhouse gas emissions¹⁴. There are three CO₂ capture strategies that have been considered to possess the greatest possibility of reducing the emissions of CO₂ from fossil fuel-based power plants, namely, post-combustion, pre-combustion, and oxy-fuel capture¹². In the post-combustion strategy, CO₂ is separated from the flue gas stream which allows for an easy adaptation to use with an existing power plant. As for the pre-combustion strategy, the fossil fuel is gasified under certain temperature and pressure for the removal of carbon prior to combustion. Given the higher partial pressure of CO₂ in this stream, an easy separation by utilising a variety of solvents can be achieved. In the last scenario of CO₂

capture, the oxy-fuel capture, pure oxygen is used for the combustion, resulting in a flue gas containing mainly water vapour and CO₂ so that the process can be easily recovered through a simple condensation method.

Presently, the biggest challenge for the implementation of CO₂ capture within power plants is the development of new materials. Many researchers are devoted to finding a material that displays suitable physical and chemical properties, and can reduce the large energy requirements when conducting the capture process¹⁵. The aqueous amine solutions such as monoethanolamine (MEA), diethanolamine (DEA) methyl diethanolamine (MDEA), as well as the amine blends solutions, show highly selective for acid gases^{16,17}. Those amine scrubbers have been commonly employed industrially for post-combustion CO₂ capture because of their rapid reaction rate and low cost¹⁶. However, due to the considerable energy penalty for desorbing CO₂ from the liquids, other materials with lower heat capacities are frequently proposed as alternatives. For example, ammonia-based solvents for CO₂ separation has been applied to overcome the drawbacks of amine-based capture technologies¹⁸. Ionic liquids show the advantages of high CO₂ solubility, good thermal stability and tuneable structures, hence they have also been proposed as promising solvents to replace the existing amine-based solvents¹⁹. On the other hand, solid sorbents such as zeolites^{20,21}, carbon-based adsorbents (activated carbons²¹, carbon nanotubes²², and graphenes²³), layered double hydroxides (LDHs), and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs)²⁴ are considered to be good candidates for CO₂ capture owing to their promising adsorption capacity, CO₂ selectivity, stability and regenerability²¹. The high costs in the syntheses for some of these solid absorbers are presently the prime concerns.

Very recently, another method is by the use of a membrane system which has been introduced for CO₂ separation. The advantage of using membrane technologies is that they are simple, flexible, and less space-demanding. Most importantly, the potential to perform separations at low energy penalties makes the membrane strategies attractive for the practical CO₂ removal applications²⁵. Apart from the polymer-based membranes, the inorganic solid sorbents mentioned above can also be used as inorganic fillers to form mixed-matrix membranes, which were found to improve both the permeability and selectivity of the membranes compared to the base polymer when applying for CO₂ capture²⁶.

Overall, current CO₂ capture technologies still require a substantial energy input, therefore it is unlikely that CO₂ capture will become profitable in the near future. If the government can develop policies that help the development of CO₂ capture projects, for example, including CO₂ capture costs into the electricity bill¹², allowing tax-exempt

financing for the acquisition of capital equipment that is used to capture CO₂, etc., then the implementation of CO₂ capture and the subsequent CO₂ mitigation may be able to take effect in a shorter time scale.

2.2 Hydrogen sources

In the current industrial production, hydrogen is commercially produced by steam methane reforming, coal gasification, and partial oxidation of light oil residues, which accelerates the depletion of fossil fuels and lead to an increasing CO₂ level in the atmosphere^{27,28}. For the renewable methanol production from H₂ and CO₂, it must be pointed out that the consumed CO₂ in this process has to be more than that produced in hydrogen manufacturing, which means hydrogen sources must come from the green production routes. Water electrolysis with the electricity generated from green energy, i.e., photovoltaic power plant, wind power plant, and ocean energy converted into electricity²⁹, is considered to be one of the potential options for green hydrogen productions. Today, the most common electrolysis technology is alkaline-based water electrolysis³⁰. Alkaline electrolyzers operate by having two electrodes in a liquid alkaline electrolyte solution that transports hydroxide ions (OH⁻) from the cathode to the anode with hydrogen being generated on the cathode side. State-of-the-art nickel-based cathode materials show good corrosion resistance in an alkaline solution water thus attracting extensive research efforts³⁰. Although alkaline systems are the most developed electrolysis technologies with the lowest in capital cost, they have the lowest efficiency which leads to the highest electrical energy costs. Other ways toward green water electrolysis such as polymer electrolyte membranes (PEM) and solid oxide electrolyzers (SOEC) are the developing technologies²⁸. PEM electrolyzers have no corrosion and seals issues, and they are more efficient than alkaline systems but more expensive. SOEC technology has a huge potential for industrial application because it can produce hydrogen while achieving 100% Faradaic efficiency¹². However, it has problems with corrosion, seals, thermal cycling, and chromium migration²⁷.

In addition to the above-mentioned processes, photocatalytic water splitting has a high potential for application as a clean and renewable way to generate hydrogen, because it is a process with negligible CO₂ emission: Decomposition of water directly into hydrogen and oxygen under sunlight irradiation with a semiconductor material (photocatalyst) is investigated. To efficiently exploit solar energy, myriad efforts have been made to develop photocatalysts that can be used not only under UV light but also under visible light³¹. Up to

now, TiO₂ has been a widely used catalyst for photocatalytic water splitting, due to the fact that it is environmentally benign, stable, abundant and economical. However, the main obstacles of TiO₂-based photocatalysts are the rapid recombination of electrons and holes of photo-generated excitons, fast backward reaction, and its poor activation by sunlight³². In response to these weaknesses, modification of its structure through the introduction of surface oxygen vacancies by controlled reduction (blue or black TiO₂) and incorporation of dopers (N, F) to alter surface defect concentration are the common strategy. Employing composite photocatalysts is also an up-and-coming approach to increase the photocatalytic performance. For example, the composites are prepared by combining non-oxide materials with oxides or other non-oxides to form heterojunctions such as CdS-TiO₂, CdS-ZnO, CdS-MoS₂, CdS-AgI, etc.,^{31,33,34} which lead to new photocatalysts with more efficient charge separation and widened absorption spectrum.

So far, a tremendous amount of research has been pursued in developing the hydrogen production via green routes. Among all the strategies, water electrolysis coupled with renewable resources should be at this moment the preferable option for low CO₂ emission hydrogen synthesis technology in short term. The availability of inexpensive electric power generated by wind, photovoltaic, tidal, or ground heat in special locations or countries may justify the implantation of this technology. It is however, for most industrial areas of major CO₂ emission sources, the high installation and operational cost are still the major hindrances. Further research to address the cost issues is urgently needed. For photocatalytic generation of H₂, with the rapid development of new photocatalytic materials that overcoming the current deficiencies such as low stability of the catalysts and low energy efficiencies, it is anticipated that the low cost, environmentally friendly photocatalytic water-splitting for hydrogen production can contribute more significantly to the green hydrogen economy in further future. Particularly, the direct conversion of light energy to H₂ over the indirect conversion via photovoltaic and electrolysis would in principle offer lesser energy losses for the stepwise conversions.

2.3 CO₂/H₂ mixtures from biomass

Biomass is currently considered as one of the potential alternatives to produce renewable methanol. It can be obtained from various sources, including agricultural and forest residues, animal wastes, municipal paper wastes, sawdust, aquatic plants, and many more²⁸. The currently accepted procedure to catalytically convert biomass into methanol is first via biomass conversion in the aqueous phase at temperatures ranging from 275 to 800 °C to

produce syngas (CO, CO₂ and H₂), followed by water-gas shift reaction (CO + H₂O → CO₂ + H₂) which leads to the outcome with lower amounts of CO and higher yield of hydrogen³⁵, and ultimately by hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol (CO₂ + 3H₂ → CH₃OH + H₂O). Among the various gasification options, supercritical water (SCW) gasification³⁶ has received a great deal of attention as a promising method for utilising high moisture content biomass and allowing maximum conversion. In addition, SCW gasification is non-toxic, safe, readily available, economically feasible and environmentally friendly³⁷. However, high temperature and pressure (T > 500 °C and P > 23 MPa) are usually required to satisfy the SCW operating condition, which are very energy intensive³⁶. On the other hand, aqueous-phase reforming (APR) of biomass-derivatives is a recently developed process and is preferable over other methods owing to its wide renewable resource, mild reaction conditions (T = 230 °C and P = 2 MPa), and low processing cost³⁸. These biomass conversion technologies have been found promising in generating a CO₂/H₂ mixture that can incorporate with the downstream CO₂ hydrogenation reactions. However, most biomasses and their derived molecules generally contain lower carbon to hydrogen ratios. As a result, the utilisation of biomass for methanol production faces the main problem in producing reformat gas of large excess CO₂ to H₂, while in practice H₂/CO₂ ≥ 3 is preferable for methanol synthesis over most catalyst formulations. Therefore, the stoichiometric adjustment has to be introduced either by adding hydrogen gas or applying a CO₂ removal step, which requires burdensome equipment and high costs³⁹. Alternatively, developing a new catalyst that can efficiently catalyse CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol under excess CO₂ but H₂-deficient conditions would be highly desirable.

3. Bimetallic catalysts on CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol

Bimetallic catalysts have emerged as an important class of catalysts due to their unique properties that are combined with two constituent metals. In many cases, bimetallic surfaces have enhanced catalytic properties owing to strong synergies to contribute the electronic or geometric alterations to monometallic counterparts. For the studies on CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, Cu-Zn based system is prominently chosen. Other bimetallic catalysts such as Pd-Zn, Pd-Ga, Cu-Ni and Ni-Ga have also been investigated. In this part, we survey the research progress on CO₂ hydrogenation reaction to methanol over many of diversified bimetallic catalysts in the literature. This section will start with a brief introduction of thermodynamic equilibrium of the methanol synthesis reactions, followed by a discussion of the possible

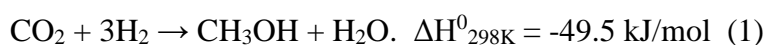
reaction pathways and reaction intermediates. The correlation between reaction products and the adsorption properties of the metallic surfaces will also be addressed. Then reviewing different synthesis methods of the selected bimetallic systems and their catalytic performance toward methanol synthesis will be carried out.

3.1 Methanol synthesis mechanism

Owing to the increasing focuses and interests in the methanol synthesis processes, numerous studies on the mechanism of CO₂ hydrogenation have been conducted. To fully understand the catalytic performance of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, the kinetics and thermodynamics of the catalytic system of concern are therefore required. Section 3.1.1 gives a brief review of the existing literature that provides information on the thermodynamic and kinetic aspects. Section 3.1.2 then discloses the reaction pathways and intermediates of methanol production reported in the literature. It is noted, however, that the mechanistic investigations on methanol synthesis from CO₂/H₂ were predominately conducted in the most studied system, i.e., the Cu-based system, hence the mechanisms derived from Cu-based catalysts are usually adopted to describe the reaction pathways/intermediates in different bimetallic systems due to the lack of the knowledge in understanding the underlying reaction mechanisms of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol over other bimetallic catalysts. Therefore, in this section, the discussion of the reaction pathways and the key reaction intermediates is focused on the Cu-based system, after that, the influences of adding foreign metals (to form bimetallic system) on the reaction mechanisms are introduced.

3.1.1 Thermodynamic and kinetic considerations

In general, direct CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol contains two major competing reactions¹². The first reaction is the synthesis of methanol from CO₂ and hydrogen:



The second reaction is the reverse water gas shift (RWGS) reaction that produces CO:



Moreover, the catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol can also occur indirectly from CO formed through the RWGS reaction⁴⁰:



It can be seen from equations (1) and (3) that, according to Le Chatelier's principle, increasing pressures and decreasing temperatures will cause the reaction to shift toward the products to produce more methanol over the CO production from RWGS (equation 2). In addition, using a high molar ratio of H_2/CO_2 is also thermodynamically as well as kinetically favourable in methanol synthesis with taking the two equilibria into account⁴¹. Early studies have demonstrated the necessity of using extremely high-pressure conditions in the synthesis of methanol from syngas with CO_2 as reactants⁴²⁻⁴⁴. Thanks to the development of active Cu-Zn based catalysts, the reaction pressure of methanol synthesis has been substantially reduced to 5-10 MPa while a satisfactory methanol selectivity of 50% can be attained compared to previous catalyst formulations⁴⁵. Nevertheless, due to the advantages of applying high-pressure conditions in CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol such as boosting methanol yield, handling hydrogen more safely, reduction in reactor volume and plant area thus decreasing capital costs, etc., high-pressure methanol synthesis over Cu based catalysts have been explored and documented by some research groups. Ipatieff et al.⁴⁶ conducted a high-pressure study up to 41.4 MPa over Cu/ Al_2O_3 catalysts in a fixed-bed reactor, which showed remarkable conversion (94%) from CO_2 to methanol. By using co-precipitated Cu/ZnO/ Al_2O_3 catalysts, Bansode et al.⁴⁷ demonstrated that one-pass CO_2 conversion (>95%) and methanol selectivity (>98%) were achieved under the reaction conditions of $H_2/CO_2 = 10$, reaction temperature of 260 °C, reactant pressure of 33.1 MPa, and gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 10,471 h^{-1} . Gaikwad et al.⁴⁸ also showed that at the stoichiometric molar ratio of $H_2/CO_2 = 3$, ca. 90% CO_2 conversion and > 95% methanol selectivity could be achieved at 44.2 MPa. In contrast, some researchers devoted to the development of catalysts that can work under low reaction pressures. It is mainly because the low-pressure CO_2 hydrogenation processes are more economically attractive with lower installation and operation (pumping) costs. Moreover, they have the advantages of safer operation and can be readily coupled with the upstream feedstocks generation processes. For example, hydrogen production from standard alkaline electrolyser is typically operated at ambient pressure or less than 3 MPa⁴⁹, and some low-pressure biomass conversion processes (e.g., APR) to form CO_2/H_2 mixture are operated at around 2 MPa³⁸. However, the conversion of CO_2/H_2 to methanol by using low-pressure technologies is limited by thermodynamic and kinetic considerations. It has to be emphasised that obtaining satisfactory single-pass CO_2 conversion and methanol selectivity is important for practical catalytic application since recycling processes are costly and also required cumbersome facilities. So far, very little research has demonstrated high methanol production rate at the pressure lower than 2 MPa. In fact, most of the reported catalysts perform poorly at

low-pressure conditions. Taking Cu-Zn system as an example, when the reaction pressures are applied at less than 2 MPa, the rate of RWGS is generally 1–3 orders of magnitude higher than that of methanol production over the Cu-Zn surface⁵⁰, thus resulting very poor selectivity toward methanol. It was reported previously by Toyir et al.⁵¹ that under pressure of 2 MPa, silica-supported Cu/ZnO based catalysts showed methanol selectivity around 99%. In addition, In₂O₃/ZrO₂ catalyst reported more recently by Martin et al.⁵² also achieved nearly 100% methanol selectivity under relatively low pressure (5 MPa). Although these catalysts presented unexpectedly high selectivity toward methanol, they showed very low CO₂ conversion (2% to 5%) hence leading to an overall low methanol production yield. Other Cu-based systems and novel catalyst materials such as the catalysts with copper-ceria interface⁵³ as well as Ni-Ga/SiO₂ system⁵⁴ have proven their potential on highly efficient methanol synthesis. However, those systems were evaluated for CO₂ to methanol at the pressure around ambient pressure where the obtained methanol yields are not impressive, hence little information on their realistic application of CO₂ hydrogenation is known from the results provided by the authors. Nevertheless, it has been recently reported that the production of methanol is more favourable than that of CO on the PdZn site of Pd@Zn core-shell nanoparticles from the kinetic perspectives⁵⁵. From density functional theory (DFT) calculations, the relatively higher stability of the key adsorbed intermediate for methanol synthesis than that for CO production was revealed on this PdZn bimetallic surface. In addition, it was found that the PdZn surface could offer an unusually high kinetic (activation) barrier for the RWGS reaction and thus effectively enhancing methanol production while reducing CO levels under low pressure (2 MPa) conditions⁵⁶. Therefore, this Pd-Zn catalyst system apparently opens up a promising possibility for low-pressure CO₂ hydrogenation application.

3.1.2 Reaction pathways and intermediates of methanol production

As stated, the catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol can proceed directly or indirectly. In the former, two different mechanistic routes have been proposed according to their key reaction intermediates: the formate (HCOO) pathway or the hydrocarboxyl (COOH) pathway. Methanol synthesis via the HCOO-mediated mechanism has been proposed by many studies due to the fact that the formation barrier of the HCOO is considerably lower than the formation barrier of the COOH^{50,57–59}. In addition, formate species were found to be the most abundant surface intermediates during CO₂ hydrogenation reaction from the

experimental observations⁶⁰⁻⁶⁴. By performing DFT (GGA-PW91) calculations and microkinetic modelling for Cu surfaces, Grabow et al.⁵⁷ found that under typical methanol synthesis conditions, CO₂ hydrogenation is responsible for ~2/3 of the methanol produced, and the intermediates of the formate pathway for methanol production include HCOO*, HCOOH*, CH₃O₂*, CH₂O*, and CH₃O*, see Fig. 2. Another example of the formate pathway, proposed by Yang et al.⁵⁰ who employed DFT (GGA-PW91) calculation for Cu(111) and Cu nanoparticle surfaces, showed that methanol synthesis on Cu surfaces followed the formate pathway via HCOO, H₂COO, H₂CO and H₃CO intermediates, which were considered to be less stable from the above-mentioned calculations done by Grabow et al.⁵⁷ However, the authors indicated that the presence of the active low-coordinated Cu sites in the Cu nanoparticle could stabilise the key intermediates (HCOO and H₂COO) therefore lowered the barrier for the rate-limiting hydrogenation process. On the contrary, other researchers also investigated CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol on Cu(111) by using DFT (GGA-PW91) calculations and proposed that the H₂O-promoted hydrocarboxyl (COOH) mediated mechanism, following the sequence of COOH → HCOOH → HCO → HCOH → CH₂OH → CH₃OH, is kinetically more favourable than the formate pathway for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol on Cu(111)⁶⁵. In this proposed COOH pathway, it has been suggested that the formate species only plays a spectating co-adsorbate role⁶⁶, and the direct HCOO hydrogenation is even believed to be the “dead end” for methanol production⁶⁵. For an easy comparison, the above-mentioned pathways for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol and the intermediates are displayed in Fig. 2. On the other hand, it is also believed that hydrocarboxyl (COOH) is the chemical precursor of CO from RWGS reaction^{56,67}. Hence, an indirect CO₂ hydrogenation mechanism has also been suggested, which involves the formation of CO from the RWGS reaction as the first step, then methanol is formed by the hydrogenation of CO. However, for the Cu-based catalyst system, this claim is not as widely accepted as the other two, because CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol was found to proceed much faster than CO hydrogenation to methanol over the industrial Cu/ZnO catalyst^{68,69}. Moreover, it has already been demonstrated by several researchers that methanol is mainly produced by hydrogenation of CO₂ rather than CO under industrial conditions based on their isotopic labelling studies⁶⁹⁻

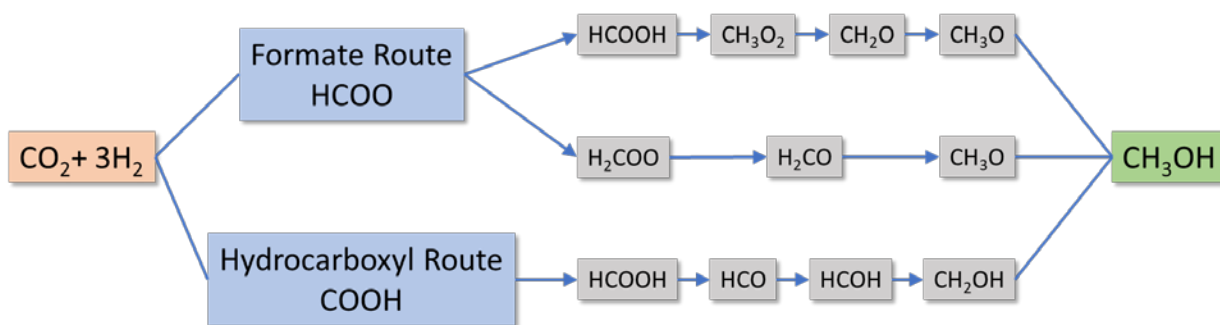


Fig. 2 CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol through formate route and hydrocarboxyl route and the intermediates^{50,57,65} discussed in this minireview.

3.1.3 Synergistic enhancement in bimetallic catalysts

Adding foreign atoms to an existing metal system is used frequently to modify the chemical properties of metal surfaces. In catalysis, bimetallic alloys usually have different catalytic properties from their primary mono-metallic surfaces, which depend strongly on their electronic or geometric structures. Fig. 3 illustrates the main types of mixing patterns and structures of bimetallic, namely, mixed, core-shell or Janus alloys^{73,74}. For the transition metals, the d-band model is often employed in understanding bond formation at the surface and their catalytic trends. Nørskov and co-workers have illustrated the correlation between the adsorption energy and the d-band structure on the surface metal atom that the adsorbate binds to^{75,76}. By forming a bimetallic alloy, the structure of the surface d-electron bands and filling could change substantially owing to the modification of the electronic properties driven by i) the formation of heteroatomic bonds that lead to the electronic interaction between the two metals. This can alter the electronic environment of the primary metal, giving rise to modifications in the electronic configuration of it, and consequently, change its chemical properties. This is so-called electronic (or ligand) effect^{77,78}; ii) geometric irregularity, that is, lattice distortion induced by alloying of two metals with different sizes, and lattice compression or expansion occurs often in the core-shell (see Fig. 3) bimetallic structure. Those geometric differences can cause the changes in surface bond lengths and bond angles, giving rise to the so-called geometrical (or ensemble) effect that modifies the electronic properties of the parent metal atoms⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹. According to theoretical calculations^{54,67,80-82}, catalytic activity and selectivity of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol is critically dependent on the overall adsorptivity of the active surfaces. For a better understanding on the differences in product specificity and methanol production rate caused

by the alteration of molecule adsorption through forming bimetallic alloys, we have surveyed the reported CO₂ hydrogenation studies and some examples are given as below.

In the literature, it has been suggested that Cu/Zn interface plays a significant role in methanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation as these two species (Cu and Zn) work synergistically. Indeed, placing Zn in a proximity to Cu showed enhanced methanol production has been demonstrated by many researchers⁸³⁻⁸⁵. Behrens et al.⁸⁴ have reported the stabilisation of adsorbed intermediates with decreased energy barriers when Zn atoms were introduced on Cu step sites, which significantly increased the methanol production rate of Cu-Zn surface compared to the unmodified Cu surface. Moreover, catalysts containing Cu/ZnO were recently found to show 10 times higher activity than Cu catalysts of the same sizes but without in contact with ZnO⁸⁶. Another non-precious bimetallic system, discovered by Studt et al.⁵⁴, showed that by alloying of Ga into Ni, the adsorption strength of Ni surface was modified hence accelerated the methanol formation. In contrast, Ni alone binds oxygen too strongly that would result in surface poisoning by formate or the surface would mainly perform methanation in CO₂ hydrogenation reaction⁵⁴. Kusama et al. found that the formation of bimetallic alloys on the catalyst surface could change the electronic states of rhodium and lead to different adsorption properties: Rhodium-based catalysts are known to effectively catalyse CO₂ hydrogenation to CH₄ or CO, but alloying with Fe to form Fe-Rh catalysts could improve the ethanol selectivity remarkably⁸⁷, while alloying with Co and Rh resulted in promotion of methanol formation⁸⁸. The authors concluded that the changes of product specificity could be correlated with the electronic state of rhodium changed with the foreign atom addition. The changes of the adsorptivity of the active surfaces can also be illustrated in the Pd-Zn bimetallic system. Liao et al.⁵⁶ found that alloying of Pd with Zn to form Pd core-Zn shell (Pd@Zn) structure could increase the adsorption strength of the bidentate formate species (the key intermediate to methanol). From density functional theory (DFT) calculation, a strong electronic charge transfer from Zn to Pd was revealed. The Zn-rich Pd-Zn bimetallic surfaces showed more selective and active for the formation of surface HCOO rather than COOH species in the first step of CO₂ hydrogenation, leading to a higher selectivity towards methanol production. Overall, from the above-mentioned examples, it can be seen that the changes in the adsorption properties of the primary mono-metallic surface are obvious when forming bimetallic system, giving rise to a different catalytic behaviour.

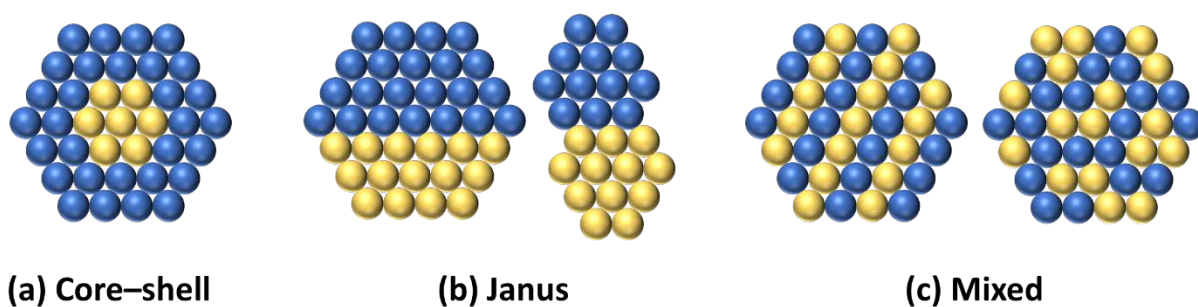


Fig. 3 Schematic representation of the types of structures of bimetallic alloy nanoparticles (based on Ref. [68, 69]).

3.2 Bimetallic catalysts made by different methods and their catalytic performances

The high-pressure methanol synthesis process from CO/CO₂ and H₂ mixture using mixed metals and metal oxides was firstly investigated in the early 20th century^{42–44}. In the 1960s, the highly active and economic Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst was developed and it is still currently the preferred industrial catalyst for methanol synthesis operated at 240 °C – 260 °C and 50 – 100 bar⁴⁵. At present, the major challenges for catalyst development to methanol synthesis from CO₂ are to develop a more efficient catalyst, thus the academic and industrial research efforts on catalyst preparation using different catalyst compositions and preparation methods are continuously built. Recently, bimetallic nanoparticles/alloys have emerged as an important class of catalysts because they show the intimate contacts of the two elements which can modify their electronic properties and change the adsorption properties of the metal surfaces. It is well-known that catalytic conversion of CO₂ to methanol is a structural-sensitive reaction⁸⁶. Therefore, the differences in synthesis methods can influence the structure of the catalysts and then lead to a different catalytic performance. This section will focus on the review of synthesis methods of those bimetallic catalysts that showed enhanced ability to catalyse CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol than their monometallic counterparts. The catalytic performance of the selected catalysts is compared in Table 1. Please note that only the bimetallic catalyst systems with detailed disclosure of the catalytic testing results including CO₂ conversion, methanol selectivity, methanol yield, or turnover frequency, were selected for their comparison in this minireview.

Table 1 Catalytic performance of selected bimetallic catalysts in CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol

Synthesis method	Catalyst Active species/ (support)	Reaction conditions			Catalytic performance					Ref.	
		P (MPa), T (°C)	Space velocity	H ₂ /CO ₂	CO ₂ conversion (%)	Methanol selectivity (%)	STY _{MeOH} ^e (g _{MeOH} ·g _{cat} ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)	WTY _{MeOH} ^f (g _{MeOH} ·g _{active metal} ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹)	TOF (s ⁻¹)		
Imp. ^a	PdGa/(β-Ga ₂ O ₃)	3, 250	(G) ^d 80000 h ⁻¹	3	<1	52	N.A.	N.A.	0.075	89	
	Pd/(SiO ₂)					12			0.002		
	PdGa/(rod Ga ₂ O ₃)	5, 250	(W) 6000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	11.04	41.27	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	90	
	PdGa/(plate Ga ₂ O ₃)					17.33			51.62		N.A.
	PdZn/(h-CNTs)	3, 250	(W) 1800 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	N.A.	99.6	0.371	N.A.	0.0115	91	
	PdZn / (activated carbon)					96.5			0.281		0.0098
	PdZn/(γ-Al ₂ O ₃)					92.1			0.242		0.0097
	PdCu/(SiO ₂)	4.1, 250	(W) 3600 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	6.7	30	0.032	N.A.	N.A.	92	
	Pd/(SiO ₂)					23					0.010
	Cu/(SiO ₂)					15					0.006
Ni ₃ Ga ₂ /(SiO ₂)	0.1, 210	(G) 6000 h ⁻¹	3	N.A.	N.A.	~0.02	~0.12	N.A.	54		
Co-precip. ^b	Cu/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃	5, 250	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	19.7	48.1	0.637	N.A.	N.A.	93	
	Zincian georgeite-derived catalyst	2.5, 190	(W) 7000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	CO:CO ₂ : H ₂ :N ₂ =6:9.2:67:17.8	N.A.	N.A.	0.102	0.167	N.A.	94	
	Zincian malachite-derived catalyst						0.083	0.136			
	Commercial Cu/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃						0.116	0.243			
	PdGa/(Ga ₂ O ₃)	5, 250	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	19.6	51.5	N.A.	N.A.	0.1139	95	
	CuZn/(ZnO)					11.7			36.1		0.0048
	Catalyst derived from Cu,Zn,Al-LDH	6, 250	(W) 20000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	H ₂ :CO:CO ₂ :He =72:10:4:14	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	0.0268	96	
	Conventional Cu/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃								0.018		
	Catalyst derived from Cu,Zn,Al,Y-LDH	5, 250	(W) 10000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	20.2	69.3	0.39	N.A.	0.00666	97	
	Cu/(Zn,Al,Zr-LDH)	5, 250	(W) 7500 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	22.2	45.8	0.30	N.A.	N.A.	98	
	Catalyst derived from Cu,Zn,Al,Y-LDH	5, 250	(W) 12000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	26.9	47.1	0.52	N.A.	N.A.	99	
	CuZn catalyst derived from CuZnGa-CO ₃ AMO-LDH	4.5, 270	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	18.8	47.8	0.6	N.A.	N.A.	100,101	
	PdZn catalyst derived from PdZnAl LDH	3, 250	(W) 15000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3, with 4 vol% Ar	0.6	60	0.017	N.A.	0.002	102	
Pd ₂ Ga catalyst derived from PdMgGa LDH	1.0								47		0.0085
Pd catalyst derived from PdMgAl LDH	3								4		0.00005
bimetal carbonyl hydride	PtCr/(SiO ₂)	3, 200	W/F = 10 g _{cat} h/mol.	3	2.2	51.1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	103	
	PtW/(SiO ₂)					2.6					92.2
	Imp. Pt/(SiO ₂)					0.4					1.9
Sol-immob. ^c	PdZn/(ZnO)	2, 250	(W) 3600 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	10.7	60	0.07744	N.A.	N.A.	104	
	Imp. PdZn/(ZnO)				8.7	1	0.00176				
Hetero-junction	Pd@Zn/(ZnO+CdSe)	4.5, 270	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	14.4	64.9	0.60	12.0	0.33	55	
		2, 270	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹		7	67.3	0.30	6.1	0.19	56	
Commercial Cu/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃		4.5, 270	(W) 18000 mL g ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	3	N.A.	N.A.	0.38	N.A.	N.A.	101	

^a Impregnation method

^b Co-precipitation method

^c Sol-immobilisation

^d (G) = GHSV = volume flow rate/bed volume, (W) = WHSV = mass flow rate/catalyst mass.

^e Space time yield of methanol (g_{MeOH}·g_{cat}⁻¹·h⁻¹)

^f Weight time yield of methanol (g_{MeOH}·g_{active metal}⁻¹·h⁻¹)

3.2.1 Impregnation method

Impregnation is the simplest method for mounting of dissolved aqueous metal precursors on oxide supports to prepare supported catalysts. A knowable advantage of impregnation method is that the materials dissolved in the solution will not get lost, which makes this method attractive when preparing precious metal-containing catalysts. Pd-containing bimetallic catalysts made via impregnation method were first discovered in the 1900s by Iwasa et al.¹⁰⁵ The authors observed that the original catalytic functions of monometallic Pd for steam reforming of methanol, the reverse reaction of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, was greatly modified by the formation of bimetallic alloys, i.e., Pd-Zn, Pd-Ga and Pd-In, upon the reduction of the Pd-metal oxides. It was found that the reactions proceeded selectively when using the catalysts having the alloy phase, whereas poor selectivities were exhibited on the catalysts having monometallic phase.¹⁰⁶ A few years later the Pd-Ga system was further investigated by other researchers⁸⁹, and the Pd-Ga bimetallic particles were found to be the sites responsible for the increased selectivity to methanol in CO₂ hydrogenation as well as the inhibition of the methanol decomposition and/or reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction to produce CO. As a result, the Ga-modified Pd catalyst showed much better selectivity and TOF toward methanol production⁸⁹. Qu et al.⁹⁰ further proposed that using the plate-form Ga₂O₃, which has a higher degree of defects and electron-rich polar (002) surface, could exert a stronger electronic interaction with Pd than the rod-form surface Ga₂O₃. This would lead to a deep reduction of Ga³⁺ to generate bimetallic PdGa_x nanoparticles with superior catalytic properties for methanol synthesis by CO₂ hydrogenation. As the importance of bimetallic nanoparticles has been increasingly recognised, the characterisation techniques for revealing the structures of bimetallic catalysts become more and more valuable. By using a combination of advanced electron microscopy techniques and structure characterisation tools, highly dispersed GaPd₂ nanoparticles on a high-surface-area SiO₂ support synthesised by impregnation of the high-surface-area SiO₂ with Pd and Ga nitrates were identified. Besides, this nanodispersed intermetallic GaPd₂ catalyst showed a much better methanol selectivity than the traditional Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst under ambient pressure¹⁰⁷.

Apart from the Pd-Ga system, several supported Pd catalysts have also been found to exhibit considerable activity and selectivity for hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol. Liang et al.⁹¹ incorporated multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) into Pd/ZnO catalysts prepared via a stepwise incipient wetness method. They found that the unique features of MWCNTs were leading to the increase of the surface concentration of the Pd⁰ species in the form of

PdZn alloys as well as helping with H₂ activation, thus increasing the rate of surface hydrogenation reactions. On the other hand, amorphous silica supported Pd-Cu bimetallic catalysts prepared by co-impregnation method also found to have a strong synergistic promotion compared to the monometallic Pd and Cu catalysts⁹²: The production rate of methanol on the Pd-Cu bimetallic catalyst is 2 times as much as the sum of those on the monometallic catalysts, indicating a considerable bimetallic promotion on methanol synthesis from hydrogenation of CO₂. Another example of the precious bimetallic metal surface for enhancing methanol production can be found in the Rh-Co catalyst⁸⁸. Although the methanol selectivity was very low (< 20%), Rh-Co alloy was suggested to change the electronic states of rhodium, resulting in promotion of methanol formation. On the other hand, non-precious Ni-Ga catalysts synthesised via impregnation method was recently discovered to be superior to the traditional Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst with respect to their ability to inhibit the RWGS activity⁵⁴. The Ni-Ga intermetallic compounds were found to possess mixed sites: the gallium-rich sites facilitate methanol synthesis, whereas the nickel-rich sites perform RWGS and methanation until they get poisoned by CO and carbon, which makes the Ni-Ga catalysts to display good methanol synthesis activity with considerably lower production of CO as compared to the conventional Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts under atmospheric pressure⁵⁴.

3.2.2 Co-precipitation method

The catalysts based on more than one component can be prepared by the simultaneous precipitation from a solution containing desired soluble species to generate a homogeneous distribution of catalyst components or catalyst precursors with a definite stoichiometry. Co-precipitation method provides the advantage of obtaining high dispersions of catalyst components, which is difficult to achieve by other synthesis approaches. Therefore, it is very suitable to use in preparing multi-component catalysts and catalyst precursors.

3.2.2.1 Cu/ZnO based catalysts

The industrial Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst for methanol synthesis is made via coprecipitation method. Since the prevailing of Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalyst, the Cu/ZnO based catalysts have attracted increasing attention and many systematic studies have focused on elucidating the structure of active sites^{58,84,108}. Although the active sites of methanol synthesis over commercial Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts have recently been the subject of intense debate, many studies over the past 20 years have shown that the good performance of Cu/ZnO based

catalysts for methanol synthesis could be attributed to the active Zn-Cu bimetallic sites. Early researches done by Fujitani et al.^{93,109,110} focused on the promotion mechanism of ZnO to Cu catalysts for methanol synthesis. Their result revealed that the partially reduced ZnO_x could migrate to the surface of Cu particles to form Cu-Zn alloy when reducing a Cu/ZnO catalyst with H₂ at above 600 K. The Cu-Zn alloy phase was then believed to be a catalytically active species for the methanol synthesis from CO₂ and H₂^{111,112}. Topsøe and co-workers observed that Cu/ZnO changed the CO adsorption properties under severe reducing conditions from in-situ IR during methanol synthesis, suggesting that Cu-Zn alloy structures could be formed due to the migration of reduced ZnO species¹¹³. After conducting careful investigations using other in-situ techniques, which includes electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS), the presence of Cu-Zn alloy in the reduced Cu/ZnO catalysts was further confirmed^{114,115}. Recently, with the rapid development of advanced characterisation techniques, it has been shown that Cu steps stabilised by bulk defects and decorated with Zn atoms upon reduction can lead to a subtle change in the geometric and electronic structure of Cu due to the desirable bimetallic properties⁸⁴. Consequently, the high activity of Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ methanol synthesis catalyst is attributed to the surface alloy of Zn and Cu^{83,108}.

It is noted that Cu/ZnO based catalysts prepared by coprecipitation are much more active than those prepared by impregnation methods. Moreover, the structure of catalyst precursor obtained in the coprecipitation synthesis, such as malachite Cu₂CO₃(OH)₂, zincian malachite (sometimes called rosasite) (Cu,Zn)₂CO₃(OH)₂, aurichalcite (Cu,Zn)₅(CO₃)₂(OH)₆, or hydrozincite Zn₅(CO₃)₂(OH)₆, can significantly affect the catalytic activity for methanol production^{112,116,117}. Baltes et al.¹¹⁸ discovered that the synthesis history would influence strongly to the catalytic activity of methanol production. In their study, ternary Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts were systematically prepared via the coprecipitation method under various synthetic parameters, and the best methanol productivity was found in the catalysts with the following preparation conditions: Precipitation temperature of 70 °C, pH of 6-8, time of aging in the mother liquor of 20-60 min, and calcination at 300 °C, which resulted in the catalysts with relatively high BET and Cu⁰ surface areas¹¹⁸. Other studies on this system by Behrens et al.¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹ further concluded that zincian malachite was the optimum precursor for the methanol synthesis catalyst due to its interwoven, nano-scale needle morphology that facilitates the formation of a highly porous mesostructure catalyst. On the other hand, it was recently reported that a disordered zincian georgeite catalyst precursor could be prepared using supercritical antisolvent (SAS) precipitation method¹²², which enabled the preparation

of an active Cu/ZnO catalysts that could compete with those catalysts prepared from other hydroxycarbonates precursors. Soon after it was found that zincian georgeite could be readily prepared by co-precipitation method⁹⁴. Although the zincian georgeite made by co-precipitation led to a catalyst with a slightly poorer performance than those derived from SAS precipitation due to the impurity contamination and less-disordered structure in the co-precipitated phases, it still displayed superior performance for methanol synthesis compared to a conventional preferred zincian malachite derived catalyst⁹⁴.

3.2.2.2 Precious metal based bimetallic catalysts

Apart from the Cu/ZnO based catalysts, co-precipitation method was also widely employed in the preparation of precious metal based bimetallic catalysts. Fujitani et al.⁹⁵ synthesised a series of palladium catalysts by co-precipitation method. The authors found that the Pd/Ga₂O₃ catalyst was more active than Cu/ZnO by a factor of 2 in term of yield and 20 in term of turnover frequency (TOF) for the synthesis of methanol from CO₂ and hydrogen, due to the optimal amount of Pdⁿ⁺ (0 < n < 2) stabilised by Ga_xO_y on the surface of palladium. Remember that many studies have identified the formation of Pd-Ga bimetallic alloys in such catalyst composition, as discussed previously in section 3.2.1 of this minireview, which are experimentally proven to be active for methanol production from CO₂ and hydrogen. On the other hand, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) was found to play a dual role (acting as a catalyst supporter as well as a promoter) for Pd-based catalysts⁹¹. CNTs-promoted Pd-Zn and Pd-Ga catalysts were synthesised via co-precipitation method and studied for methanol production from CO₂ hydrogenation by Zhang and co-workers^{91,123}. The authors found that Pd-Zn and Pd-Ga catalyst with an appropriate incorporation of CNTs displayed enhanced activity for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol compared to those non-promoted Pd-based bimetallic catalysts.

3.2.2.3 Layered double hydroxide (LDH)-derived catalysts

Recently, hydrotalcite-like compounds (or layered double hydroxide, LDH) with the general formula $[M^{2+}_{1-x}M^{3+}_x(OH)_2]^{x+}(An^-)_{x/n} \cdot mH_2O$ where M²⁺ and M³⁺ are divalent and trivalent cations, respectively, have attracted increasing attention. LDH structure provides a homogeneous distribution of all metal cations inside the layers, which is believed to offer a suitable matrix for generating small, stable, and well-dispersed metal nanoparticles after

calcination and reduction. It was reported that monophasic catalyst precursor containing M^{2+} and M^{3+} could be obtained by controlled thermal treatment of an LDH structure¹²⁴, since that, the application of LDH as a catalyst precursor for CO_2 hydrogenation reaction has been developed accordingly. Many studies have discussed the advantages of LDH precursors for Cu/ZnO-based catalysts^{125,126}, such as good dispersion of M^{2+} (Cu^{2+} , Zn^{2+}) and M^{3+} (Al^{3+} , Y^{3+} or Ga^{3+}) at an atomic level, homogeneous microstructure, good thermal stability against sintering/reduction, high dispersion for small Cu clusters, and high specific surface area. An active catalyst derived from a phase pure Cu, Zn, Al hydrotalcite-like precursor was prepared and studied by Kühn et al.⁹⁶. This sample showed intrinsically more active than a conventionally prepared reference catalyst. Furthermore, Gao et al.⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹ synthesised a series of Cu/ZnO/ Al_2O_3 catalysts derived from hydrotalcite-like precursors with modifier (Mn, La, Ce, Zr and Y) or promoter (Y_2O_3) and tested for the CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol. They have concluded that the introduction of additives to Cu/ZnO/ Al_2O_3 catalysts derived from hydrotalcite-like compounds could give higher BET specific surface area, Cu surface area and Cu dispersion, thus leading to an enhanced catalytic performance with high stability⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹. Tsang and co-workers^{100,101} have recently reported a new CuZnGa catalyst derived from ultra-thin (1-3 cationic-layers) $(CuZn)_{1-x}Ga_x-CO_3$ layered double hydroxides (AMO-LDH) nanosheets using the aqueous miscible organic solvent method (AMOST)¹²⁷. It has been found that upon reduction, the AMO-LDH-derived catalysts give consistently and significantly higher Cu surface areas and dispersions than the catalysts prepared from conventional co-precipitation methods. It is also evident that Zn metal atoms decorating on Cu nanoparticles can be formed in the catalyst derived from ultrathin LDH precursor, thus exerting a great promoting effect to the CO_2 hydrogenation reaction to methanol and leading to a high methanol production rate. On the other hand, Ota et al.¹⁰² synthesised Pd-based catalysts derived from ternary hydrotalcite-like compounds obtained by co-precipitation from aqueous solutions. They found that the intermetallic Pd_2Ga and $PdZn$ nanoparticles with a homogeneous distribution of Pd and intimate interaction with the other reducible metal species were formed upon reduction in hydrogen, which were more active for methanol synthesis from CO_2 hydrogenation than the monometallic Pd catalyst.

3.2.3 Other synthesis method.

Shao et al.¹⁰³ reported the supported PtW and PtCr bimetallic catalysts made by the bimetal carbonyl hydride complexes precursors. The PtW and PtCr bimetallic catalysts exhibited higher activity and methanol selectivity in CO₂ hydrogenation reaction than the monometallic or bimetallic catalysts prepared via impregnation method. Nerlov et al.¹²⁸ applied CO as a promoter in the catalyst system and observed a CO gas phase induced surface segregation of Ni on Cu(100). The authors also found that the Ni/Cu(100) bimetallic sites were 60 times more active for CO₂ activation compared with pure Cu ones¹²⁹. Hartadi et al.⁷⁰ found that a commercially available Au/ZnO catalyst prepared by deposition-precipitation could benefit from the same effect as the Cu/ZnO catalyst: the partially reduced ZnO in the highly reductive atmosphere could induce the formation of AuZn (surface) alloys or the formation of a partially reduced ZnO_x shell, implying the potential of Au/ZnO catalysts for the application in hydrogenation of CO₂ to methanol. Bahruji et al.¹⁰⁴ identified the PdZn alloy nanoparticles with a controlled particle size from the Pd/ZnO catalysts prepared by sol-immobilisation. The authors suggested that the catalysts prepared by sol-immobilisation were relatively stable to thermal treatment and showed a higher conversion of CO₂ towards methanol than the classic impregnated catalysts.

Tsang and co-workers^{55,56} reported a novel hetero-junction approach to synthesize supported Pd@Zn nano-structures with tuneable Zn shell thickness by a simple reduction of Pd/CdSe-ZnO solid precursors in hydrogen. The precursors contained CdSe-ZnO type II hetero-junction interfaces that could promote the reduction process of ZnO to metallic Zn⁰ atom and form Zn decorate Pd nanoparticles, which would exert enhanced catalytic performance in methanol production from CO₂ hydrogenation. The similar hetero-junction approach was then applied to the Cu/ZnO based catalyst. It was found that the presence of a small amount of Ga³⁺ in the Cu/ZnO system could lead to the formation of Ga-containing spinel structure, which would create electronic heterojunction with excess ZnO phase to account for the facilitated reduction of Zn²⁺ to Zn⁰ in contact with Cu to form highly active CuZn bimetallic nanoparticles and offer catalytic sites. The authors also discovered a correlation between Zn⁰ concentration in the CuZn alloy nanoparticle to the catalytic performance, showing that CO₂ conversion and methanol selectivity were significantly improved by increasing the Zn⁰ content in these CuZn bimetallic catalysts⁸⁵.

4. Conclusion

To deal with the problems imposed by global warming, an immediate action toward reducing CO₂ emissions is necessary. Recent years have seen a growing interest in capturing CO₂ with hydrogen generated from renewables to produce green methanol, which can contribute to the mitigation of greenhouse gasses. This minireview has provided a survey of the recent advancements in the CO₂ capture, hydrogen production, CO₂/H₂ derived from biomass, and the use of bimetallic alloy catalysts for methanol production via CO₂ hydrogenation. To assess whether the green methanol production process is technological and economically attractive, the availability of upstream feedstocks including CO₂ capture as well as H₂ production technologies should be considered. On the other hand, biomass conversion is a feasible way to obtain both CO₂ and H₂ for methanol synthesis. However, a large excess CO₂ exists in the biomass-derived gas mixture is not favourable for the direct methanol production, hence the stoichiometric adjustment is required either by adding hydrogen or by removing CO₂. As for the catalyst systems for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, at present the commonly used Cu-based catalyst, especially Cu-Zn based catalysts, still at the benchmark position due to their superior activity and economic advantages. However, Cu-based catalysts often show low methanol selectivity under low reaction pressure or low H₂/CO₂ conditions, presumably due to the poor intrinsic H₂ activation capability of Cu. Therefore, the development of new non-Cu based catalysts with low cost, good performance, and high stability that can be effectively coupled with the above-mentioned feedstocks generation processes, would be highly desirable. In this context, rational design of novel bimetallic alloy systems as well as developing new synthesis approaches that can lead to unique structural properties and enhanced activities toward methanol synthesis are required.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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