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Dual functional catalytic materials of Ni over Ce-modified CaO sorbents for integrated CO₂ capture and conversion

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Abstract

Excessive anthropogenic CO₂ emission in the atmosphere is considered as one of the main contributions to the serious climate changes. However, with the growth of global economics, more fossil fuels will be consumed to feed the global activity, especially in developing countries. Thus, CO₂ needs to be captured for storage or converted to fuels or value-added chemicals. Herein, we propose and demonstrate a one-pot method synthesized dual functional materials (DFMs), which contain a sorbent coupled with a catalyst component, allowing the sorbent regeneration and CO₂ conversion to CO to perform simultaneously in a single reactor. This process requires no additional thermal energy for the regeneration of sorbents. In addition, CeO₂ is incorporated into the DFMs to largely enhance the stability of the materials for the process, and the influence of different Ce loadings on the performance of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion is studied. It is found that the DFMs with a Ca/Ni/Ce molar ratio of 1:0.1:0.033 displays an excellent CO yield (7.24 mmol g⁻¹) in the reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction and a remarkable cyclic stability after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion. Therefore, the incorporation of Ce into DFMs has two profits, for one thing, the oxygen vacancies generated by CeO₂ directly reduces the dissociated CO₂ regenerated from the DFMs, demonstrating the high CO yield; for another, the well-dispersed CeO₂, which could act as a physical barrier, effectively prevents the growth and agglomeration of CaO crystallite and NiO species.

Keywords: CO₂ capture and conversion, calcium looping, the reverse water-gas shift, dual functional materials, Ce-modified CaO sorbents

1. Introduction

Excessive anthropogenic CO₂ emission in the atmosphere is considered as one of the main contributions to the serious climate changes [1, 2]. The 21st conference on global warming (COP21) reached a landmark agreement (the Paris Agreement) to limit the increase of the global average temperature to 2.0 °C in 2100 [3]. To achieve such an objective made on the Paris Agreement, CO₂ emissions from energy- and industry-related sources must decrease dramatically after 2030 and reach net-zero levels between 2060 and 2080 [4]. There are a number of materials (e.g., amine-based solvents [5, 6], alkaline metal oxide-based sorbents [7, 8], ionic liquids [9, 10] and porous materials [11]) applicable for CO₂ capture from the use of fossil fuels. The carbon capture process usually relies on a temperature swing process for carbon capture and sorbent regeneration [12]. This process is energy intensive. Thus, considerable efforts have been devoted to developing more efficient and economical CO₂ capture technologies. Calcium-Looping (CaL) process based on the reversible carbonation/calcination reaction of CaO (Eq.1) has been applied for large-scale CO₂ capture from fossil fuel power plants [13-15] as originally proposed by Shimizu et al. [16] because of the high reactivity with CO₂ (theoretical capture capacity of CaO is 17.8 mmol g⁻¹) and the availability of low-cost natural CaO precursors [17-19]. The techno-economic modelling of CaL process has estimated that the carbon capture cost was \$ 16-44 per ton CO₂, which is very competitive with the current amine scrubbing technologies costing about \$ 32-80 per ton CO₂ [20, 21].

Currently, the great challenge of CaL process lies in the logistics and energy penalties of managing the concentrated CO₂, which must be transported to an underground injection facility (CCS) or a processing plant for conversion to useful products (CCU) [22, 23]. Compared to CCS, which is very expensive to run and could cause negative environmental impacts [24], CCU seems to be more attractive and promising due to CO₂ can be used as carbon source to offer an alternative to produce carbon-containing value-added products [25]. Thus, there is a growing interest in exploring the possibility of utilizing the captured CO₂ as a carbon feedstock and converting it to fuels or value-added chemicals [26-28].

Robert J. Farrauto's research group [22, 26] reported that using dual function materials (DFMs) for CO₂ capture and the conversion to synthetic natural gas at the same temperature (320 °C) simultaneously in the same reactor, requiring no additional heat input. The DFMs consisted of Ru as the methanation catalyst and nano-dispersed CaO as the CO₂ adsorbent. Both active sites were supported on a porous γ -Al₂O₃ carrier. A spillover process drove CO₂ from the sorbent to the Ru sites where methanation occurred using stored H₂ from excess renewable power. However, in this

process, the low loading of CaO (10 wt.%) resulted in a relatively low CO₂ capture capacity and consequent low methane yield. In addition, the main drawback of the mentioned process is the substantial utilization of noble metal Ru (10 wt.%), which can greatly increase the industrialization cost of such materials. In addition, Christoph Müller's research group [28] proposed and experimentally demonstrated a process that directly integrated CO₂ utilization (dry reforming of methane) into CO₂ capture allowing for the full conversion of the CO₂ captured. Importantly, a non-precious metal catalyst (Ni/MgO-Al₂O₃) and an inexpensive naturally occurring CO₂ sorbent (limestone) were utilized in this integrated process. This process is attractive economically and the coupled reactions are performed in a single reactor to avoid the transportation of solid sorbent which requires a strong mechanical strength of the sorbent in conventional CaL. However, the synthesis of materials consists of two discrete steps including the synthesis of dry reforming catalyst and the mixture of the catalyst with CO₂ capture sorbents, which is complex.

Another important product from the reduction of CO₂ is CO, which serves as a feedstock for producing chemicals and fuels via Fischer-Tropsch synthesis [29, 30]. The reverse water-gas shift (RWGS, Eq.2) is one of the most established reactions to convert CO₂ into the water and CO [31, 32], which can be exploited for introducing carbonyl functionalities into a plethora of molecules in both an academic and an industrial setting [33, 34].

However, the major challenge for the CaO-based sorbents and the Ni-based catalysts is the fast decay of CO₂ capture performance and the deactivation of catalytic performance with the number of cycles, respectively [35]. CeO₂, with a Tammann temperature of 1064 °C [36, 37], also has a possibility to be incorporated into CaO as a good inert material. Wang et al. synthesized a series of Ce-doped sorbents by a simple sol-gel method, and the sample (Ca/Ce = 15:1) showed a favourable capture capacity and cyclic stability, maintaining a CO₂ uptake capacity of 13.4 mmol g⁻¹ after 18 cycles [36]. In addition, ceria exhibits excellent redox properties due to the rapid reduction of Ce⁴⁺ to Ce³⁺ associated with the creation of oxygen vacancies [38]. It has the ability to release oxygen under reducing atmosphere and storing oxygen under an oxidizing environment by filling oxygen vacancies [39]. The introduction of CeO₂ acting as a support to improve the catalytic activity has been studied extensively for the development of Ni-based catalysts [40-42]. Du et al. studied the catalytic properties of Ni/CeO₂ nanostructure for CO₂ reforming of methane and found that the strong metal-support effect can be helpful to prevent the sintering of Ni particles, reducing the deactivation of catalytic activity [40]. In addition, a series of Ni/CeO₂ catalysts with Ni loading ranging from 7 to 26 wt% were prepared via combustion synthesis and the stability was enhanced during methane dry reforming process [41]. Here, we propose and demonstrate a one-pot method to

synthesize DFMs, which contain a sorbent CaO coupled with a catalyst component Ni, as well as a physical barrier Ce, allowing the sorbent regeneration and CO₂ conversion to perform simultaneously in a single reactor via the reaction in Eq. (3).

The comparison between the conventional CaL process and the proposed process that integrates RWGS directly into CO₂ capture yielding a synthesis gas is shown in Fig. 1. Obviously, in the conventional CaL process as shown in Fig. 1a, two reactors including a carbonator and a calciner as well as the energy produced by the combustion are required for the cyclic performance of sorbents [43]. However, in this integrated process (Fig. 1b), both CO₂ capture and conversion are performed at the same temperature and a single reactor without an energy-intensive thermal swing process, eliminating the energy requirement, corrosion, and transportation issues associated with CCS. To the best of our knowledge, the simultaneous conversion of the captured CO₂ in a single reactor via the one-pot synthesized DFMs in the RWGS process has not been reported yet. In addition, the influence of different Ce loadings, as well as the mechanism on the performance of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion, were studied in details.

Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of (a) the conventional CaL process and (b) proposed process that integrates the RWGS process directly into the CO₂ capture process yielding a synthesis gas.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Dual functional materials preparation

All the DFMs were synthesized by a standard sol-gel combustion method reported by Santos et al. [44] and a typical synthesis process is as follows. Initially, predetermined amounts of analytical reagent-grade calcium nitrate tetrahydrate ($\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.99%), nickel nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Ni}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.99%) and citric acid monohydrate (Sigma-

Aldrich, 99.99%) working as the chelation agent were added to distilled water at room temperature (water, citric acid and Ni^{2+} to Ca^{2+} molar ratios were 40:1, 1:1 and 0.1:1, respectively). Subsequently, for the Ce-doped DFMs, appropriate amounts of cerium nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Ce}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.99%) were added to the mixture solution and the Ce^{2+} to Ca^{2+} molar ratios were 1:60 and 1:30. Then, the mixture was continuously stirred at 80 °C to form a well-dispersed translucent pale green sol. The pale green sol was dried overnight at 130 °C. After drying, a low-density foam was obtained. The foam was easily crushed in a porcelain mortar and then calcined in a muffle furnace at 850 °C for 5 h with a heating rate of 2 °C min^{-1} . The obtained samples are designated as $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$, $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.017}$, and $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$, respectively. Pure sol-gel CaO was also prepared according to the same method used as the reference adsorbent.

2.2. Dual functional materials characterization

Elemental analyses of the catalysts were performed with a Perkin Elmer Optima 5300DV inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) equipped with a Teflon sample introduction system. The sample was dissolved into the nitric acid and heated in the CEM MARS microwave system to 180 °C for 10 min and then cooled down to room temperature.

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on PANalytical empyrean series 2 diffractometer with Cu $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation. The data was collected in the 5-80° 2 θ range and analysed by X'pert Highscore plus software. Scherrer equation was used to estimate the average crystallite size based on the diffraction peaks at 42.2° of NiO particles and 28.5° of CeO_2 particles.

Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were measured using ASAP 2020 analyzer at 77 K. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area was measured using the adsorption branch data in the relative pressure (P/P_0) range from 0.06 to 0.2, and the micropore volume (V_{micro}) was calculated by the t-plot method. The pore size distribution was calculated by the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method using nitrogen desorption branch data.

The surface morphology of samples was measured by a Stereoscan 360 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) coupled with an energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (EDX). The detailed structure of DFMs was characterized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM, a JEOL 2010) with an elemental mapping and high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM, FEI talos F200). The preparation of samples for analysis involved being ultrasonically dispersed in absolute acetone and dropped cast on carbon-coated Cu grids.

The atomic concentrations of metals at the surface of the DFMs were determined by X-ray photoelectronic spectrometer (XPS, Thermo Fisher Scientific Escalab 250Xi) using Mg $\text{K}\alpha$ radiation. The binding energies were calibrated using the C1s peak (284.6 eV) of adventitious

carbon. The ratios of Ce^{3+} to Ce^{4+} and Ni^{2+} to Ni^{3+} in DFMs were calculated using the deconvoluted Ce3d and Ni2p peak areas of the XPS spectra, respectively.

Raman spectroscopy (Thermo Scientific) was used to characterize the coke deposition. The Raman spectra were acquired in the range of 500-3500 cm^{-1} using a laser with a wavelength of 514.5 nm. The spectral resolution employed was 4 cm^{-1} .

2.3. Integrated CO₂ capture and conversion

A fixed-bed reactor coupled with a gas analyser operated under atmospheric pressure (as shown in Fig. S1) was used to determine the integrated CO₂ capture and conversion performance of the DFMs. Two sets of experiment were conducted to determine the influence of process parameters: the effect of different DMFs using CaO, Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017} and Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}; the influence of carbonation and conversion temperatures of 650, 700, 750 °C. In a typical experiment, 250 mg powdered DFMs was loaded into the tube fixed by the quartz wool. The sample received a pre-reduction at 650 °C in a flow of 5% H₂ balanced with N₂ for 3 h with the heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. After reduction, the carbonation reaction was conducted in 15% CO₂ balanced with N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) for 25 min. Subsequently, the DFMs were regenerated under 5% H₂ in N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) after the fixed reactor was purged by N₂ for 5 min. With the further increase of temperature to 700 °C and then 750 °C, the carbonation reaction was carried out in 15% CO₂ balanced with N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) for 25 min. After the fixed reactor was purged by N₂ for 5 min, the regeneration of DFMs was performed under 5% H₂ in N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹).

In-situ DRIFTS experiments were conducted by an FTIR spectrometer (JASCO-4600) coupled with a DRIFTS cell (Bruker). All spectra were recorded over accumulative 32 scans with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in the range of 4000-400 cm^{-1} . Prior to each experiment, the sample (~10 mg) was pre-reduced in 5% H₂ stream balanced with N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) at 650 °C for 30 min. And then the carbonation was performed in 15% CO₂ balanced with N₂ for 25 min. Subsequently, the DFMs were regenerated under 5% H₂ in N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) after the in-situ reactor was purged by N₂ for 5 min.

2.4. Cyclic CO₂ capture and conversion tests

Cyclic CO₂ capture and conversion performance of DFMs was conducted in a fixed-bed reactor coupled with a gas analyser under atmospheric pressure (as shown in Fig. S1). Approximately 250 mg of powdered DFMs was loaded into the tube fixed by the quartz wool. The sample received a pre-reduction at 650 °C in a flow of 5% H₂ balanced with N₂ for 3 h with the heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. Subsequently, the carbonation reaction was conducted in 15% CO₂ balanced with N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) for 25 min. After carbonation, the DFM was regenerated under 5% H₂ in N₂ (100 mL

min⁻¹) after the fixed reactor was purged by N₂ for 3 min. In total, 20 cycles of the integrated CO₂ capture and conversion process were performed.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Characterization of fresh dual functional materials

Fig. 2. XRD patterns of fresh DFMs.

Table 1 Elemental analysis, average crystallite size and textural properties and of fresh DFMs.

Samples	Molar ratio ^a			NiO ^b (nm)	CeO ₂ ^b (nm)	<i>S</i> _{BET} ^c (m ² g ⁻¹)	<i>V</i> _p ^d (cm ³ g ⁻¹)
	Ca	Ni	Ce				
CaO	1	0	0	n.a.	n.a.	38.5	0.15
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1}	1	0.10	0	15	n.a.	12.8	0.11
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.017}	1	0.09	0.016	12	8	22.5	0.20
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.033}	1	0.10	0.032	12	8	20.7	0.14

^a Molar ratios normalized with Ca=1 measured by ICP

^b Average crystallite size calculated by Scherrer equation

^c BET surface areas

^d Total pore volume measured at a relative pressure (*P*/*P*₀) of 0.99

ICP-OES is used to obtain elemental analysis data for DFMs, and the results are shown in Table 1. The atomic ratio of Ni to Ca are around 0.1 for all the DFMs, which is inconsistent with the predetermined metal contents. As for Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017} and Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}, the atomic ratios of Ce to Ca are 0.017 and 0.032, respectively, which are used for the investigation of the influence of Ce loadings on integrated CO₂ capture and conversion.

The XRD patterns of fresh DFMs are presented in Fig. 2. The results evidence the presence of CaO in fresh samples, along with low-intensity peaks of Ca(OH)_2 . It is attributed to the reaction between CaO powder and moisture in the cooling process of calcination and storage. After the incorporation of Ni, the DFMs exhibit a diffraction peak at $2\theta=43.2^\circ$, indicating the characteristic peak of NiO (2 0 2) [45]. The average crystallite size corresponding to NiO phase is calculated as 15, 12, and 12 nm for $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$, $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.017}$, and $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$, respectively. Therefore, it is concluded that CeO_2 , considered as a physical barrier, prevented the growing and agglomeration of the NiO crystallite and led to the decrease of the average crystallite size of NiO, which has been reported in other literature [46]. According to the Scherrer equation, the sharp and broad diffraction peaks are related to the large and small average crystallite size, respectively [47]. So the broad diffraction peak at 28.5° in $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$ is corresponding to CeO_2 instead of Ca(OH)_2 due to the large crystallite size property of Ca(OH)_2 . In addition, the appearance of diffraction peaks at 47.3 and 56.3° pertaining to CeO_2 crystallite phase is also obvious in the Ce-doped samples.

Fig. 3. (a) N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and (b) pore size distribution calculated from the BJH desorption branch.

N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and pore size distributions are conducted to determine the structure of the DFMs (Fig. 3). Textural properties derived from different DFMs are summarised in Table 1. All the isotherms obtained for DFMs exhibit a type IV isotherm shape. The shape of the hysteresis loops for all DFMs is type H3 resulting from the slit-shaped pores generated by the addition of citric acid. The surface area ($12.75 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) and pore volume ($0.106 \text{ cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$) of $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$ are lower than those of the reference sol-gel CaO ($38.51 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ and $0.153 \text{ cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$, respectively) due to the introduction of NiO particles. With the doping of Ce, the BET surface area and pore volume are slightly increased. The BJH pore size distribution (Fig. 3b) indicates the formation of pores smaller than 4 nm in $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.017}$ and $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$ and the disappearance of the mesopores ranging from 4 nm to 10 nm.

Fig. 4. SEM images and EDX of fresh DFMs (a) CaO, (b) $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$, (c) $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.017}$, (d) $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$.

The morphologies and active components of the fresh DFMs are determined by SEM-EDX analysis, as shown in Fig. 4. In the calcination process of DFMs preparation using the sol-gel method, a large amount of gas and heat would release during the reaction and enhance the formation of a porous and fluffy structure [48]. Therefore, it can be observed in Fig. 4a that the synthesized sol-gel CaO possesses a fluffy and porous structure, which is in agreement with the pore size distribution in Fig. 3b. After the introduction of NiO into the adsorbents, a peak belonging to Ni is observed in the EDX results and the surface of the DFMs become loose, which is favorable for the reaction between CaO and CO_2 . The morphologies of the CeO_2 -doped DFMs are much different from others, appearing as a more loose structure with lots of micropores and mesopores. This morphology can contribute to the excellent cyclic performance of CO_2 capture due to the efficient diffusion of CO_2 inward in the sorbent and reacts with CaO in the interior and exterior of the sorbent at the same time [49]. In the carbonation process, there exists a critical product layer thickness of CaCO_3 , at which

the reaction transforms from the kinetic-controlled stage of carbon capture to the diffusion-controlled stage [50]. When the product layer thickness achieves this critical value, there is more CaO reacting with CO₂ for the Ce-doped DFMs. In addition, the EDX results show a small peak assigned to Ce in Fig. 4c and Fig. 4d indicating the successful incorporation of Ce into DFMs. It is noted that doping cerium can bring a large number of oxygen vacancies and an improved oxygen transport capacity ($\text{Ce}^{3+} \leftrightarrow \text{Ce}^{4+}$) [51, 52]. The oxygen vacancy is favorable to the diffusion of CO₂ and the mobility of O²⁻ according to the proposed adsorption mechanism of CO₂ [53]. The process is shown as follows:

Fig. 5. TEM images of fresh DFMs (a) CaO, (b) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, (c) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017}, (d) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}. High-resolution TEM (e) and elemental mappings (f-i) of Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}.

The porous structure and particle distribution are shown in Fig. 5. The pure sol-gel CaO as shown in Fig. 5a exhibits a porous structure without apparent particles, which is in agreement with the SEM results. There are irregular particles distributed on the sol-gel CaO matrix, which are assigned to NiO particles as shown in Fig. 5. As for the Ce-doped DFMs, the metal particle size exhibits a dramatic decrease. It is verified that nano-sized particles with the more coordinative unsaturated sites on the surfaces are easier to absorb CO₂, and they enable faster diffusion rate of CO₂ through the layer of formed CaCO₃ [54, 55]. With further increase of Ce loading, the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} displays the obvious lattice fringes (Fig. 5e) indicating the high crystallinity of CeO₂ and NiO. The interplanar spacing of 0.312 nm and 0.209 nm represent (111) lattice plane of CeO₂ and (202) lattice plane of NiO, respectively. The elemental mapping of Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} demonstrates the uniform distribution of Ca, O, Ni and Ce elements, which is effective to delay the sintering and prevent the aggregation of CaO particles, resulting in an outstanding stability.

Fig. 6. XPS spectra of (a) Ce3d and (b) Ni2p of fresh DFMs.

Table 2 XPS results of DFMs

Samples	Ce ³⁺ /Ce ⁴⁺	Ni ²⁺ /Ni ³⁺
CaO	/	/
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1}	/	0.72
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.017}	0.52	0.90
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.033}	0.58	1.10

XPS analysis is performed on DFMs to identify the valence states and the chemical composition. The Ce3d spectra are complicated due to the existence of two different cerium oxidation states, the hybridization of the O2p valance band with the Ce4f level as well as spin-orbit coupling [53]. The main features of the Ce3d are composed of ten peaks marked as u and v, which are corresponding to five pairs of spin-orbit components attributed to 3d_{3/2} and 3d_{5/2} [56, 57]. Six of the peaks labelled as U, U'', U''', V, V'', V''' are associated to Ce⁴⁺ ions, and the other four peaks denoted by U⁰, U', V⁰, V' are connected to Ce³⁺ ions. As shown in Fig. 6a, six main binding energy peaks can be observed including 916.3, 907.4, 888.9 and 881.8 eV assigned to Ce⁴⁺3d_{5/2}, as well as 900.6 and 898.0 eV ascribed to Ce³⁺3d_{3/2}. Therefore, Ce mainly exists in +3 and +4 oxidation states in the DFMs. The Ce³⁺ to Ce⁴⁺ ratios of the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017} and the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} are 0.52 and 0.58, respectively, indicating more oxygen vacancies created by the Ce³⁺ with the increase of Ce loading.

By using a Gaussian fitting method, the Ni2p spectrum (Fig. 6b) is fitted by considering two spin-orbit doublet characteristic of Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺ and two shakeup satellites [58]. According to the fitting data, the fitting peaks at the binding energy of 854.1 and 871.6 eV are indexed to Ni²⁺, while the fitting peaks at the binding energy of 855.8 and 873.8 eV are ascribed to Ni³⁺ [59]. In addition, the satellite peaks at 861.0 eV and 879.4 eV are two shake-up type peaks of Ni at the high binding energy side of the Ni2p_{3/2} and Ni2p_{1/2} edge, respectively [60]. Two peaks at 881.8 and 888.9 eV of both Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017} and Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} are caused by the introduction of Ce. Compared to the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, the Ni²⁺ to Ni³⁺ ratios of the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.017} and Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} are increased to 0.90 to 1.10, respectively, due to the reducing properties of Ce³⁺ as shown in Eq. (7). Besides, the binding energies of Ca2p_{1/2} and Ca2p_{3/2} as shown in Fig. S2a exhibit a separation of 3.5 eV and an intensity ratio of 1/2, indicating the existing of Ca²⁺ [56]. Fig. S2b displays the high resolution spectrum for O1s, which exhibits three different peaks (marked as O1, O2, and O3), corresponding to the metal oxygen bonds (O1, ~529.5 eV), oxygen ions (O2, ~531.2 eV) and physic or chemisorbed water at or within the surface (O3, ~533.1 eV) [58]. Based on these analyses, the surface of as-prepared DFMs possesses a composition containing Ni²⁺, Ni³⁺, Ca²⁺, and O²⁻.

3.2. Integrated CO₂ capture and conversion performance

Fig. 7. Integrated CO₂ capture and conversion reactions at 650 °C of (a) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}; (b) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}.

Table 3 The CO₂ capture capacity, CO₂ and CO yields, as well as turnover frequency (TOF) of different DFMs at 650 °C.

Samples	Capture capacity ^a mmol g ⁻¹	CO ₂ yield ^a mmol g ⁻¹	CO yield ^a mmol g ⁻¹	Carbon Balance (%)	CO ₂ conversion (%)	TOF ^b s ⁻¹
CaO	15.7	7.6	3.2	68.4	23.4	/
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1}	15.0	7.2	6.9	94.4	46.0	0.72
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.017}	14.2	6.8	7.2	98.0	50.7	0.75
Ca ₁ Ni _{0.1} Ce _{0.033}	14.1	6.7	7.3	99.2	51.8	0.78

^a calculated by per gram of sorbents

$$\text{TOF} = \frac{r_{AC}}{n_{OF}} = \frac{n_{\text{conversion per gram of sorbent per second}}}{n_{\text{total metal}} \times \text{Ni dispersity}}$$

The integrated CO₂ capture and conversion performances of DFMs are depicted in Fig. 7. The difference between the recorded CO₂ concentrations in the outlet gas stream during CO₂ capture stage and a blank experiment (as shown in Fig. S3, i.e., without any CO₂ sorbent) is equal to the capacity of CO₂ captured. The CO₂ capture capacity, CO₂ and CO yields, as well as the TOF derived from different DFMs, are summarised in Table 3. The capture capacity of the synthesized CaO is determined as 15.68 mmol g⁻¹ in the first step, which is much higher than that reported in the previous literature due to the porous structure generated by the sol-gel method [61, 62]. In the second step, a flow of 100 ml min⁻¹ of 5% H₂ balanced with N₂, ensuring a ratio of H₂ to CO₂ over 3:1, is used. Only a small amount of CO (3.16 mmol g⁻¹) is observed in Fig. S4a for the synthesized CaO due to the absence of Ni active sites, while the majority of captured CO₂ (7.56 mmol g⁻¹) is released through the regeneration of the DFMs in the H₂ atmosphere. The CO₂ conversion is only

23.4% without the introduction of Ni and Ce species. The unreleased CO₂ is proposed to be contained inside the synthesized CaO as the regeneration temperature is the same as capturing temperature.

After the incorporation of Ni, CO₂ capture capacity is slightly decreased due to the reduced mass content of CaO in the DFMs and CO yield is dramatically increased to 6.88 mmol g⁻¹ as shown in Fig. 7a indicating that the addition of Ni can promote the reaction of Eq. (3) in a positive direction through the reaction of CO₂ and H₂. After the incorporation of Ce with a Ca/Ce molar ratio of 1:0.017, the CO yield is slightly increased in Fig. S4b because of the small amount doping of Ce. Further increasing the loading of Ce, Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} (Fig. 7b) exhibits the best integrated CO₂ capture and conversion performance with a highest CO yield (7.24 mmol g⁻¹) and a relatively lower CO₂ yield (6.70 mmol g⁻¹). The highest TOF of the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} is 0.780 s⁻¹ indicating a promising catalytic activity of the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} due to the enhanced oxygen storage capacity of Ca-Ce promoted the catalytic performance of Ni species. The Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} exhibited the highest CO₂ conversion of 51.8% coupled with a nearly 100% CO selectivity, which is much better than the performance reported by Ranjbar et al. (CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity are 38% and 95%, respectively at 650 °C with 10% Ni loading) [63] and Wang et al. (CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity are 38% and 100%, respectively at 600 °C with 10% Co loading) [64]. The detailed comparison of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion and reported in the literature are summarised in Table S1. It was found compared the conversional RWGS reaction, the performance of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion proposed in this work exhibited a good CO₂ conversion and a remarkable CO selectivity, as well as a good stability.

To date, two main reaction mechanisms have been proposed: a redox process (Scheme 1) [65-67] and an associative “formate” mechanism (Scheme 2) [68-70].

Scheme 1:

Scheme 2:

In the redox mechanism, the interaction of CO_2 over oxygen vacancy results in the oxidation of catalyst and release of CO molecule. The oxidized catalyst is subsequently reduced by H_2 . In the associative mechanism, σ refers to sites on the oxide support. The main reaction intermediate is a bidentate formate, which decomposes to form CO and terminal hydroxyl groups. As shown in Fig. 8 and Fig. S5, the in-situ DRIFTS spectra show peaks around 1780 and 2120 cm^{-1} corresponding to the carbonyl, which is caused by the stretching mode of CO molecules bound at on-top metal sites. The characteristic peaks around 2450, 2850 and 2950 cm^{-1} are assigned to the formate species, indicating the co-existence of Scheme 1 and 2. The spectra of the $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$ and $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$ in Fig. 8 are quite similar to the spectra of CaO and $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.017}$ in Fig. S5. However, the performance of integrated CO_2 capture and conversion exhibits a great difference between various DFMs. Thus, we propose that the surface formate and carbonyl observed by DRIFTS were not the main reaction intermediates for the formation of CO , which has also been reported by Alexandre et al. [71]. Thus, a model for the reaction mechanism of the integrated CO_2 capture and conversion over DFMs is proposed in Fig. 9. As for the DFMs without cerium doping, after switching the gas to H_2 , CO_2 will spillover from the surface of the DFMs and react with Ni active sites resulting in the formation of CO and NiO (Eq. (8)). The reduction of NiO by the adsorbed H_2 species is proposed by Eq. (6). In this case, Ni^{2+} becomes Ni and the oxygen reacts with hydrogen to form water. Ce^{3+} and Ce^{4+} represent reduced ceria (oxygen vacancy) and oxidized ceria, respectively. After the incorporation of cerium, the first step involves the interaction of CO_2 over oxygen vacancy resulting in the oxidation of catalyst and release of CO molecule as represented by Eq. (10). The adsorbed H_2 species extracts lattice oxygen from ceria, giving out H_2O molecule along with the reduction of catalyst (Eq. (11)).

Fig. 8. In-situ DRIFTS spectra of the species formed over (a) $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}$; (b) $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$ after switching gas to H_2 for 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 and 20 min.

Fig. 9. Reaction mechanism of the RWGS reaction over DFMs.

The influence of reaction temperature was studied using the $\text{Ca}_1\text{Ni}_{0.1}\text{Ce}_{0.033}$ catalyst. When increasing the carbon capture and conversion temperature from 650 to 700 and further to 750 °C, as shown in Fig. S6, it is found that the decomposition rate of CaCO_3 is dramatically increased after switching to H_2 . However, the rate of the RWGS reaction is marginally increased due to the controlling step of CO_2 conversion with limited active Ni species. Therefore, 650 °C is optimal for carbon capture and CO production in this work.

3.3. Cyclic CO₂ capture and conversion performance

Fig. 10. Cyclic CO₂ capture and conversion reactions of (a) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}; (b) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}.

The cyclic performance of the integrated CO₂ capture and conversion of DFMs with the doping of Ce is evaluated by 20 cycles and the experimental results are presented in Fig. 10. The Ca₁Ni_{0.1} shows an initial CO released capacity of 6.88 mmol g⁻¹; however, the CO released capacity is reduced rapidly with increasing cycle numbers, dropping to about 4.62 mmol g⁻¹ at the 20th cycle. This decay of carbonation conversion over repeated cycles is attributed to the agglomeration and sintering of unsupported CaO and the carbon deposition of the Ni-based catalyst. However, it shows that the integrated CO₂ capture and conversion performance of Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} is kept completely unchangeable after 20 cycles due to the doping of CeO₂. The decay of CO₂ conversion in the Ca₁Ni_{0.1} is not caused by the deposited carbon on the active sites due to no peak can be observed in the Raman spectra in Fig. S7.

Fig. 11. SEM images of DFMs after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion (a) and (b) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, (c) and (d) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}.

Fig. 11 displays the SEM images of DFMs after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion. By comparing the porous structure, the obvious changes can be observed between the spent Ca₁Ni_{0.1} and Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}. As for the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, the porous structure is almost disappeared and the surface morphology is changed into a bulk structure, indicating the sintering of CaO particles and Ni active sites, which is in agreement with the performance after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion. However, a porous structure is observed for the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion due to the doping of CeO₂ acting as a support of DFMs. This porous structure can also be confirmed by the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms and pore size distribution in Fig. S8. Thus, the Ce-doped DFMs exhibited an excellent stability in the integrated CO₂ capture and conversion.

Fig. 12. TEM, elemental mappings and high-resolution TEM images of DFMs after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion (a-e) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}, (f-k) Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033}.

The porous structure and particles distribution of DFMs after 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion are characterized by TEM and HRTEM, as presented in Fig. 12. It is evident that the porous structure of Ca₁Ni_{0.1} is almost disappeared and the Ni element mapping exhibits an agglomeration, which is in agreement with the SEM images. In addition, the metal particle size of Ca₁Ni_{0.1} after 20 integrated cycles is dramatically increased as shown in Fig. S9. The exposed planes are (202) planes of NiO with an interplanar spacing of 0.209 nm calculated from the corresponding HRTEM images. After the incorporation of Ce, the Ca₁Ni_{0.1}Ce_{0.033} still exhibits a porous structure with a uniform distribution of Ni element after 20 integrated cycles and the metal particle size is slightly increased due to the CeO₂ acting as a physical barrier to prevent the aggregation of Ni active sites. The interplanar spacing of 0.312 nm and 0.209 nm represent (111) lattice plane of CeO₂ and (202) lattice plane of NiO, respectively.

4. Conclusions

The CO₂ capture and conversion process integrating the RWGS directly into CO₂ capture is proposed using a one-pot method synthesized DFMs, which contain a sorbent coupled with a catalyst component. In this integrated process, the sorbent regeneration and CO₂ conversion are performed simultaneously in a single reactor, requiring no additional heat input. The synthetic natural gas can be recycled to an industrial facility, conserving fuel while reducing CO₂ emissions. It is found that with the incorporation of CeO₂, the DFMs exhibited an outstanding CO yield (7.24 mmol g⁻¹) and the highest TOF value (0.780 s⁻¹) due to the dissociated CO₂ can be directly oxidized by the oxygen vacancies generated by the ceria support. In addition, the dissociated CO₂ and hydrogen over nickel surface can directly form CO and supply spillover hydrogen to nearby oxygen vacancies, respectively. After 20 cycles of integrated CO₂ capture and conversion, the Ce-doping DFMs exhibit an excellent stability due to the well-dispersed CeO₂, which could act as a physical barrier, effectively prevents the growth and agglomeration of CaO crystallite and NiO species.

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