



Support induced effects on the activity and stability of Ga₂O₃ based catalysts for the CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane

Alexandra Florou^a, Georgios Bampos^b, Panagiota D. Natsi^b, Aliko Kokka^a, Paraskevi Panagiotopoulou^{a,*}

^a Laboratory of Environmental Catalysis, School of Chemical and Environmental Engineering, Technical University of Crete, Chania GR-73100, Greece

^b Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Patras, Patras GR-26504, Greece

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

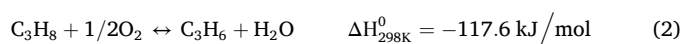
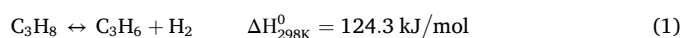
CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane
Propylene production
Surface basicity/acidity
Ga₂O₃-TiO₂
Ga₂O₃-SiO₂
Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃

ABSTRACT

The influence of the support nature (Al₂O₃, TiO₂, SiO₂) on the activity and stability of supported Ga₂O₃ (10 wt%) catalysts was investigated for the production of propylene through the CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane (CO₂-ODP). Catalytic activity was found to be higher when gallium oxide was dispersed on alumina support which was characterized by the highest acid site density and moderate surface basicity. Below 650 °C propylene yield increased in the order Ga₂O₃-TiO₂<Ga₂O₃-SiO₂<Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃, which was modified as Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃<Ga₂O₃-TiO₂<Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ for higher reaction temperatures. Propylene selectivity decreased with increasing reaction temperature followed by an increase of ethylene and methane selectivity implying that the side reactions of propane hydrogenolysis and propane/propylene decomposition were facilitated at higher temperatures hindering the CO₂-ODP reaction. Gallium oxide catalysts supported on TiO₂ and SiO₂ exhibited sufficient stability for 30-35 hours on stream at 660 and 710 °C, contrary to Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ which although was stable at 710 °C it was gradually deactivated when the reaction was taking place at 600 °C. Temperature programmed oxidation experiments showed that carbon deposition was favored over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst when the reaction was conducted at low temperature, which may be related to the higher surface acidity of this sample and be responsible for its deactivation with time. SEM images and elemental mapping obtained from both the freshly prepared and used Ga₂O₃-M_xO_y samples showed that Ga and M (M: Si, Ti, Al) were uniformly present even after prolonged catalyst interaction with the reaction mixture. EDS analysis indicated that carbon formation was accelerated with increasing reaction temperature.

1. Introduction

The production of propylene (C₃H₆), which ranks among the most critical building blocks for the industrial production of numerous chemical compounds (propylene glycol, propylene oxide, acrolein, polypropylene, acetone etc), can be achieved by employing various processes like Fischer-Tropsch synthesis to olefins, methanol conversion to olefins, steam cracking of naphtha, fluid catalytic cracking, thermal dehydrogenation of propane (DP) (1) and oxidative dehydrogenation of propane (C₃H₈) (ODP) (2) [1–3]. The latter two approaches are considered to be attractive due to (a) the abundant availability of propane contained in shale gas condensates which can be easily extracted in large scale and (b) the relatively high propylene selectivity that they can achieve addressing the continuously rising demands for its production [3,4].



The ODP process outperforms the thermal DP which suffers from high requirements of thermal energy due to its high endothermicity as well as from thermodynamic restrictions by the operating reaction conditions including feed composition, reaction temperature and pressure [2,5]. However, the use of molecular O₂ as oxidant in the ODP reaction may result in deep oxidation of the produced propylene decreasing its selectivity. Alternatively, the use of a milder oxidant like CO₂ (3) has been proposed as an effective and innovative technology able (a) to address the equilibrium limitations by removing the produced H₂ from the gas stream via the reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction (4) while simultaneously maintaining high propylene selectivity, and (b)

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: ppanagiotopoulou@tuc.gr (P. Panagiotopoulou).

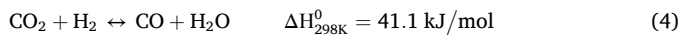
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2024.114603>

Received 10 June 2024; Received in revised form 19 September 2024; Accepted 28 October 2024

Available online 29 October 2024

2213-3437/© 2024 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved, including those for text and data mining, AI training, and similar technologies.

to reduce CO₂ emissions, contributing to its utilization and therefore, the mitigation of global warming and climate change [2].



Raising of reaction temperature favors the cleavage of both the C-H bond leading to propane dehydrogenation and the C-C bond which enhances side reactions, such as propane cracking towards methane and ethylene or carbon, and propane hydrogenolysis yielding ethane and methane, decreasing propylene selectivity and, in certain cases, promoting carbon deposition [4]. However, CO₂ may also act as decarburation compound removing the so formed coke from the catalyst surface through the reverse Boudouard reaction, thus contributing to the increase of catalyst lifetime. [1,3,6]. It is worth mentioned that depending on the catalyst used the interaction of C₃H₈ with CO₂ may result in syngas (CO/H₂) production via the dry propane reforming reducing propylene yield [1,3]. Therefore, the development of coke-resistance catalysts with tunable properties able to activate both C₃H₈ and CO₂ by promoting the strong scission of C-H bond and the weak cracking of C-C bond leading to high C₃H₆ yields is of great challenge [3,5,6]. Moreover, ODP catalysts should be characterized by high hydrothermal stability in order to inhibit deactivation by the produced H₂O molecules [3].

Several catalyst formulations have been investigated so far for the CO₂-ODP reaction including SiO₂-, Al₂O₃-, TiO₂- and ZrO₂-supported metal oxide catalysts such as Cr₂O₃-SiO₂ [7,8], V₂O₅-SiO₂ [9], Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ [8,10], Cr₂O₃-Al₂O₃ [7,11], VO_x-Al₂O₃ [12] Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ [8, 13–16], Cr₂O₃-ZrO₂ [11], Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ [1,8] and Ga₂O₃-ZrO₂ [8,17]. Platinum based catalysts were also found to exhibit high propane dehydrogenation activity due to Pt affinity for paraffinic C-H bonds enabling the superior activation of C-H bond and the weak scission of C-C bond [3,4]. Zeolites were also explored as catalyst supports for the CO₂-ODP reaction and found to be effective materials to disperse metal (e.g. Pt) or metal oxide (e.g. CrO_x, Ga₂O₃) particles due to their high specific surface area, uniform and well-ordered micro- or mesoporous-channels with control pore sizes and excellent hydrothermal stability [3,5,18–20].

Among the investigated catalysts those containing gallium oxide either as the active phase or as a support component were found to exhibit exceptional activity for the oxidative dehydrogenation of propane due to Ga₂O₃ ability to control the physicochemical properties of catalyst, especially surface acidity and basicity, as well as to facilitate the activation of C-H bond by a non-redox pathway [4,21,22]. According to this scheme CO₂ participates in H₂ consumption via the RWGS (4) and contributes to equilibrium position shift leading to higher C₃H₆ yields [14]. It should be noted, however, that some researchers suggested that the Mars-van Krevelen mechanism may also be applicable over gallium containing catalysts according to which the lattice oxygen ions act as the selective oxygen species and the oxygen vacancies as the adsorption sites with CO₂ participating in the re-oxidation of the partially reduced Ga^{δ+} (δ < 2) [15]. Moreover, some research groups were focused on the development of metal oxide-supported Ga₂O₃ catalysts employing alternative methods such as the atomic layer deposition method which was found to be beneficial compared to the wet impregnation method, at least over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts, due to the induced increase of Ga₂O₃ dispersion and enhancement of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ interaction leading to the formation of Ga-O-Al linkages and improved surface acidity [14]. The hydrothermal synthesis method was also proposed as an effective method for the preparation of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts leading to high specific surface area, high number of tetrahedral Ga ions and medium-strong Lewis acid sites and thus, to superior activity for the CO₂-ODP reaction [15].

In our recent study, the CO₂-ODP reaction was investigated over various metal oxides supported on TiO₂ (M_xO_y-TiO₂, M: Zr, Ce, Ca, Cr,

Ga). A significant increase of both propane conversion and propylene yield was demonstrated with the Cr₂O₃ and Ga₂O₃ containing catalysts exhibiting superior performance. A synergistic effect between M_xO_y and TiO₂ was found to occur leading to modification of the physicochemical properties of catalysts including the surface acidity and basicity, the reducibility, the anatase/rutile content and the primary crystallite size of TiO₂ support which affect catalytic activity and propylene yield. Among these characteristics a moderate surface basicity and small titania crystallite size were found to be desirable in order to achieve high propane conversion and propylene yield. *In situ* FTIR spectroscopy experiments conducted under reaction conditions indicated that the adsorption/activation of CO₂ was facilitated with the addition of metal oxides on TiO₂ surface due to the improved surface basicity leading to higher C₃H₆ yields.

In the present study, the influence of the support nature (Al₂O₃, TiO₂, SiO₂) on the activity and stability of supported Ga₂O₃ (10 wt%) catalysts was investigated for the CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane. The correlation of physicochemical properties with catalysts' ability to convert propane towards propylene was explored and discussed in detail. The time on stream (TOS) stability of the synthesized catalysts was investigated at various reaction temperatures, whereas advanced surface characterization of both the freshly prepared and used samples (denoted in the following as "fresh" and "spent") was carried out in order to understand the catalysts' tendency to coke formation and possible deactivation phenomena. The new findings of the present study lie in the following key points: (a) Identification of the support role and the key physicochemical characteristics that determine catalytic activity and stability; (b) the development of active catalysts with sufficient stability for 30–35 hours on stream contrary to previous studies where a rapid catalyst deactivation was observed and (c) the determination of catalyst properties following prolonged interaction of catalyst with the CO₂/C₃H₈ mixture and their correlation with the promotion of undesired reactions.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Catalysts synthesis and characterization

Gallium based composite metal oxides (10 %Ga₂O₃-M_xO_y) were synthesized employing the incipient wetness impregnation method using commercial SiO₂ (Alfa Aesar), TiO₂ (Evonik) or Al₂O₃ (Alfa Aesar) as supports and Ga(NO₃)₃·6 H₂O (Sigma Aldrich) as the precursor of gallium oxide. The procedure involved dissolution of the appropriate amount of Ga(NO₃)₃·6 H₂O in water followed by the addition of the suitable support amount. The volume of the precursor solution per mass of support used was in all cases equal to 11. The resulting slurry was progressively heated at 80 °C under continuous stirring and maintained at that temperature until water evaporation. The remained solid was dried at 120 °C overnight and calcined in air at 600 °C for 3 hours.

Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method following N₂ physisorption at liquid nitrogen temperature conducted on a Gemini III 2375 instrument (Micromeritics) was used to estimate the specific surface area (SSA) of the supported gallium oxide catalysts following the procedure described in the Supplementary Material. The phase identification analysis of the synthesized catalysts was carried out by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) technique using a Bruker D8 Advance instrument operated at 40 kV and 40 mA with a Cu-Kα radiation (λ = 0.15496 nm) source and a scan rate of 0.05 °/s. Comparison of the diffraction peaks with those supplied by the JCPDS data base enabled their identification. The catalysts' surface basicity was investigated by temperature-programmed desorption of CO₂ (CO₂-TPD) experiments in a fixed bed reactor using an Omnistar (Pfeiffer Vacuum, Asslar, Germany) mass spectrometer (MS) directly connected with the reactor outlet and following the procedure described in detail in our recent study [1]. The same reactor/instrumentation was utilized for the investigation of catalysts' reducibility by temperature-programmed reduction with H₂ (H₂-TPR) as

well as the possible carbon deposition on the catalyst surface under reaction conditions by means of temperature-programmed oxidation (TPO) experiments [1,23]. The surface basicity was also studied by in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) performed on a FTIR (Nicolet iS20, Thermo Fischer Scientific) spectrometer (operating with a MCT detector and a KBr beam splitter), which was directly connected with a flow measuring system enabling the desired gas mixture composition to be provided to the diffuse reflectance cell where the catalyst was placed [1].

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) experiments were conducted under N₂ atmosphere on a TA Q50, Thermal Analysis instrument (TA instruments/WATERS) to determine the surface acidity of the gallium oxide based catalysts after ammonia adsorption following the procedure described in detail elsewhere [1]. In an attempt to identify the nature of acid sites, pyridine adsorption experiments combined with FTIR spectroscopy were carried out using the FTIR spectrometer described above. The experimental procedure involved overnight drying of catalyst powder at 110 °C prior to its saturation with pyridine for 2 h at 25 °C using a 5 %Pyridine/H₂O solution (Sigma Aldrich). The suspension was then filtered and the solid residue was evacuated at 60 °C for 1 h to remove water and physisorbed or weakly chemisorbed pyridine. The catalyst was then placed in the DRIFT cell and the spectrum was collected at 25 °C by subtracting the background spectrum of the corresponding sample that had been previously dried at 110 °C overnight.

A Transmission Electron Microscope (TEM) (JEOL JEM-2100) operated at 200 kV (point resolution 0.23 nm) using an Erlangshen CCD Camera (Gatan Model 782 ES500W) was used to explore the morphology of both “fresh” and “spent” composite metal oxides. The formed crystallographic structures as recorded in TEM images were furtherly analyzed employing selected area electron diffraction (SAED) technique [23]. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images were also collected on a JEOL JSM 6300 microscope which was equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) for elemental analysis [24].

2.2. Catalytic performance tests

The CO₂-ODP reaction was performed in a fixed bed cylindrical reactor (length of 45 cm, I.D.: 4 mm) made of quartz in the temperature range of 500–750 °C under ambient pressure. In a typical experiment, the catalyst (0.5 g) was sieved to obtain a uniform particle size of 0.15–0.25 mm and placed in an expanded section of 5 cm length (I.D.: 10 mm) in the middle of the reactor where a small amount of quartz wool was placed to immobilize the catalyst powder. Prior to the reaction onset the catalyst was treated in He at 450 °C for 1 hour. Subsequently, the temperature was increased at 500 °C and a gas stream of 5 % C₃H₈+25 %CO₂/He was introduced into the reactor with a total flow rate of 50 cm³ min⁻¹ regulated by using mass-flow controllers. Reactants and products were analyzed after 30 minutes of catalyst on stream on a gas chromatograph (GC Shimadzu 2014) online connected with the reactor outlet. The gaseous products CO, CO₂ and CH₄ were separated using a packed Carboxen column and detected by a thermal conductivity (TCD) detector, whereas C₃H₈, C₃H₆, C₂H₆ and C₂H₄ were separated by a packed Porapak-Q column and detected by a flame ionization detector (FID). A stepwise increase of temperature up to 750 °C was then followed and a similar analysis was carried out at the desired reaction temperatures. A K-type thermocouple was used to measure the temperature in the middle of the catalyst bed.

The C₃H₈ conversion ($X_{C_3H_8}$), C₃H₆ yield ($Y_{C_3H_6}$) and the selectivity towards each product (S_{C_n}) were estimated as follows:

$$X_{C_3H_8} = \frac{[C_3H_8]_{in} \cdot F_{in} - [C_3H_8]_{out} \cdot F_{out}}{[C_3H_8]_{in} \cdot F_{in}} \times 100 \quad (5)$$

$$Y_{C_3H_6} = (X_{C_3H_8} \cdot S_{C_3H_6}) / 100 \quad (6)$$

$$S_{C_n} = \frac{[C_n] \cdot n}{[CO] + [CH_4] + 2 \cdot ([C_2H_4] + [C_2H_6]) + 3 \cdot ([C_3H_6])} \times 100 \quad (7)$$

F_{in} and F_{out} referred to the inlet and outlet mole flow rate, $[C_3H_8]_{in}$ and $[C_3H_8]_{out}$ represent the v/v concentrations of C₃H₈ in the inlet and outlet of the reactor, respectively, [CO], [CH₄], [C₂H₄], [C₂H₆] and [C₃H₆] are the v/v concentrations of the generated CO, CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆ and C₃H₆, respectively and n is the number of carbon atoms in each molecule (e.g. 1 for CO and CH₄, 2 for C₂H₄ and C₂H₆, 3 for C₃H₆).

The reaction rate was calculated using the following expression:

$$r_{C_3H_8} = \frac{[C_3H_8]_{in} \cdot F_{in} - [C_3H_8]_{out} \cdot F_{out}}{W} \quad (8)$$

where $r_{C_3H_8}$ is the molar rate of C₃H₈ conversion (mol s⁻¹ g_{cat}⁻¹) and W is the mass of catalyst (g_{cat}).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalyst characterization

Results of BET measurements showed that the SSA of Ga₂O₃-TiO₂, Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ and Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalysts was 47.9, 73.1 and 183.3 m² g⁻¹, respectively. The XRD patterns obtained from these catalysts are presented in Fig. 1 where only crystallographic peaks assigned to TiO₂, SiO₂ or Al₂O₃ support were identified indicating that in all cases Ga₂O₃ particles were well dispersed on the support surface [10,25–27]. Specifically, in the case of Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ sample crystallographic peaks at 25.36°, 36.95°, 37.81°, 38.51°, 48.09°, 53.93°, 55.14°, 62.75°, 70.36°, 75.15° and 76.16° were detected which can be attributed to (1 0 1), (1 0 3), (0 0 4), (1 1 2), (2 0 0), (1 0 5), (2 1 1), (2 0 4), (2 2 0), (2 1 5) and (3

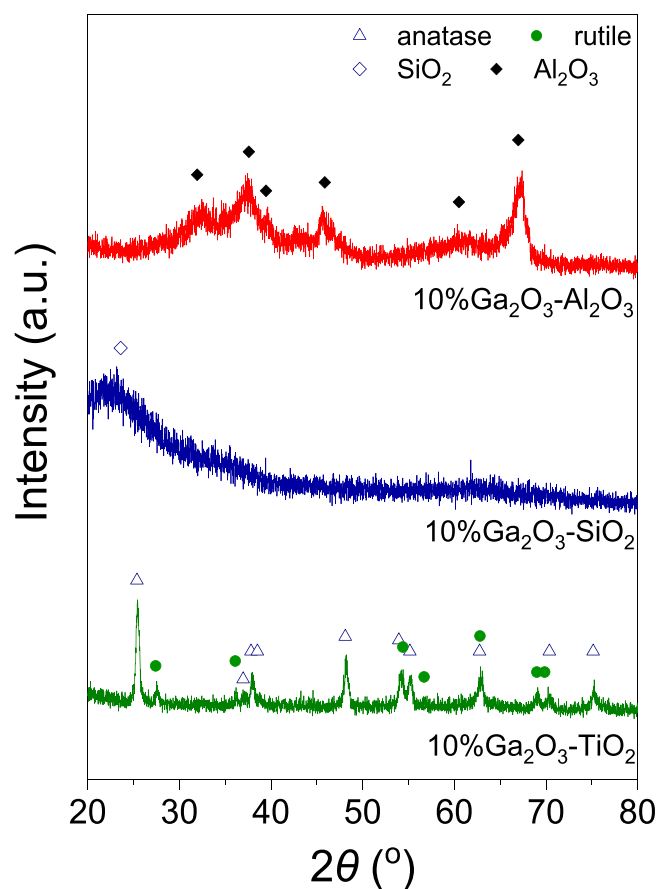


Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction patterns obtained over 10 %Ga₂O₃-TiO₂, 10 %Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ and 10 %Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts.

0 1) planes, respectively, of tetragonal anatase TiO_2 (JCPDS Card No. 4-477), as well as peaks located at 27.42° , 36.09° , 39.21° , 41.28° , 44.15° , 54.38° , 56.70° , 62.80° , 64.11° , 69.0° and 69.86° assigned to (1 1 0), (1 0 1), (2 0 0), (1 1 1), (2 1 0) (2 1 1), (2 2 0), (0 0 2), (3 1 0), (3 0 1) and (1 1 2) planes, respectively, of tetragonal rutile TiO_2 (JCPDS Card No. 21-1276). The anatase content was found equal to 78 % with a primary crystallite size calculated by the Scherrer's equation of 18.3 nm. The crystallite size of rutile phase was found to be lower and equal to 14.9 nm.

The X-ray diffractogram obtained from $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ was characterized by a broad peak located at 23.59° attributed to (2 0 1) reflection of tetragonal SiO_2 (JCPDS Card No. 32-993), while that of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was characterized by crystallographic peaks detected at $2\theta=31.93^\circ$, 37.57° , 39.45° , 45.86° , 60.49° and 66.97° corresponding to (2 2 0), (3 1 1), (2 2 2), (4 0 0), (5 1 1) and (4 4 0) planes of cubic Al_2O_3 (JCPDS Card No. 29.63). The primary crystallite size of Al_2O_3 was estimated equal to 6.3 nm, whereas that of SiO_2 couldn't be accurately measured due to the broadness of the single peak detected and its development initiation below 20° where no scans were collected.

Supported gallium oxide catalysts were also characterized with respect to their surface basicity employing $\text{CO}_2\text{-TPD}$ experiments. In these experiments, the as prepared catalysts were treated at 450°C in He for 15 min. Pretreatment conditions were selected based on our previous tests which showed that any adsorbed surface species can be easily removed from the catalyst surface by heating it at 450°C . The catalyst was then cooled followed by 1 % CO_2/He adsorption at 25°C for 30 min and subsequently, 30 minutes purging with He. The TPD was then initiated using a heating rate of $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ and a total flow rate of $30\text{ cm}^3\text{ min}^{-1}$. The $\text{CO}_2\text{-TPD}$ profiles are presented in Fig. 2 where it is observed that in the case of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst two CO_2 desorption regions were detected; a low-temperature (LT) region where a weak peak centered at 77°C can be discerned and a high-temperature (HT) region above 500°C where more than one peaks of significantly higher intensity were evolved which were present up to 750°C , at which point the TPD was stopped. The LT peak was previously assigned to CO_2 desorption from weak basic sites while the HT features were attributed to CO_2 desorption from medium and/or strong basic sites [28–32].

Qualitatively similar results were obtained over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and

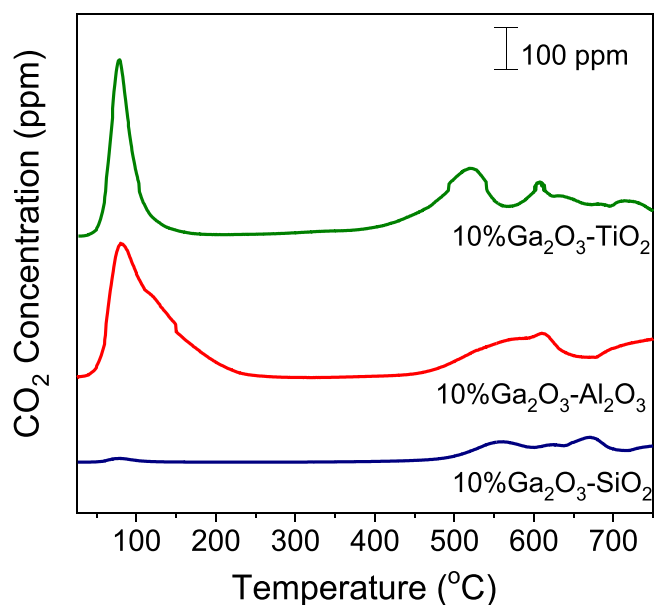


Fig. 2. $\text{CO}_2\text{-TPD}$ profiles obtained from 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$, 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts. Experimental conditions: Mass of catalyst: 0.15 g; particle diameter: $0.15 < d_p < 0.25\text{ mm}$; heating rate $\beta=10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$; total flow = $30\text{ cm}^3\text{ min}^{-1}$.

$\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts (Fig. 2) which, however, exhibited the following differences: both the HT and, especially, the LT desorption peak increased in intensity, with the former started evolving at lower temperatures (above 410°C for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and above 350°C for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$). The amount of CO_2 desorbed (in $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) from the weak and medium/strong basic sites was calculated by integrating the area below the LT and HT peak, respectively (Table S1). To eliminate the factor attributed to the SSA which was significantly varied (from 47.9 to $183.3\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$), the estimated values of desorbed CO_2 were normalized with respect to the SSA and results obtained (in $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$) are presented in Table 1. It was found that the amount of CO_2 desorbed in the LT region increased from 0.002 to $0.313\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$ in the order $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2 < \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2 < \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Although the amount of CO_2 desorbed in the HT region was also lower for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst ($0.022\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$), it was found to be higher for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ ($0.305\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$) than for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ($0.233\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$). Results provide evidence that the number of weak basic sites was higher over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst compared to $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ while the opposite occurred for medium/strong basic sites. The lowest number of both weak and medium/strong basic sites was observed for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst. The total amount of desorbed CO_2 and therefore, the total surface basicity, was estimated by integrating the total area below the CO_2 response curve and was found to increase in the order $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ ($0.024\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$) $< \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ($0.546\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$) $< \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ ($0.582\text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$).

Qualitatively, similar results were obtained over bare TiO_2 ($36.9\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$), Al_2O_3 ($95.7\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) and SiO_2 ($222.1\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$) supports (Fig.S2, Table 1 and S1). Comparison with the corresponding results obtained over the Ga_2O_3 containing samples (Fig. 2, Table 1) showed that the intensity of both peaks and thereby, the total amount of desorbed CO_2 were significantly lower for bare supports, indicating that the surface basicity was improved with the addition of Ga_2O_3 , which, however, followed the same trend with respect to the nature of the support.

The surface basicity of Ga_2O_3 based catalysts was also examined by Xu et al. [8], who found that the number of basic sites on the catalyst surface increased following the order $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2 < \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2 < \text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Similarly, Petre et al. [33] demonstrated that the CO_2 uptake was higher over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ followed by $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalysts which both exhibited very weak basicity. The increase of surface basicity by gallium oxide deposition on alumina surface was also reported by Michorczyk et al. [34]. According to these authors, an increase of Ga_2O_3 loading resulted in an increase of the selectivity of products formed on basic sites for two tests reactions (conversion of isopropanol and conversion of 2-methyl-3-butyn-2-ol), suggesting an increase of the overall surface basicity. The small differences observed between the catalysts' ranking with respect to their basicity reported in literature and the results of the present study can be attributed to the different commercial metal oxide powders used as supports and/or the different method applied for catalysts synthesis.

Similar experiments were conducted by in situ DRIFTS over the synthesized catalysts where the following procedure was employed: heating in He flow at 450°C for 15 min \rightarrow cooling at 25°C in He flow \rightarrow switch of the flow to 5 % CO_2/He for 30 min \rightarrow purging with He for 30 min \rightarrow DRIFT spectrum collection at 25°C \rightarrow stepwise increase of

Table 1
Total amount of desorbed CO_2 during $\text{CO}_2\text{-TPD}$ experiments.

Catalyst	LT peak ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$)	HT peak ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$)	Total amount of desorbed CO_2 ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$)
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$	0.002	0.022	0.024
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$	0.278	0.305	0.582
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	0.313	0.233	0.546
SiO_2	0.001	0.007	0.008
TiO_2	0.111	0.055	0.166
Al_2O_3	0.126	0.034	0.160

temperature up to 450 °C during which DRIFT spectra were collected at selected temperatures after an equilibration time of 3 min. It should be clarified that, besides the times of CO₂ adsorption and purging with He, which were the same, the reaction conditions used in CO₂-TPD experiments were different than those used in DRIFTS studies (e.g. reactor type/operation, mass of catalyst, CO₂ concentration etc.). Results of DRIFTS experiments can only be used to extract information related to the nature and relative variation of adsorbed surface species with temperature, and can only be qualitatively compared with those obtained by Mass Spectrometry studies (Fig. 2), which are able to quantitatively identify the number and strength of basic sites on the catalyst surface.

Results obtained over Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalyst are presented in Fig. 3A. The spectrum recorded at 25 °C (trace a) was characterized by a single weak band located at 1629 cm⁻¹ previously assigned to bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) species associated with Ga₂O₃ surface [35–37]. The intensity of this band decreased with increasing temperature and disappeared above 150–200 °C implying that CO₂ was weakly adsorbed on the surface of Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalyst most possibly due to the acidic character of SiO₂ support in agreement with previous studies [38,39].

Fig. 3B shows the corresponding DRIFT spectra obtained from Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalyst following CO₂ adsorption. As it can be seen, the spectrum recorded at 25 °C (trace a) consisted of two bands at 1649 and 1416 cm⁻¹ previously attributed to bicarbonate species and two bands at 1580 and 1320 cm⁻¹ due to bidentate carbonates adsorbed on TiO₂ [40–44] and/or Ga₂O₃ [35–37] surface. Increase of temperature at 150 °C resulted in the development of a band at 1538 cm⁻¹ which can be attributed to monodentate carbonate species associated with TiO₂ [40–42,44,45] and may be pre-existed at lower temperatures but couldn't be distinct due to overlapping with the broad band at 1649 cm⁻¹. Although the intensity of all bands decreased with further increase of temperature, they did not disappear even at 450 °C (trace i) indicating that the corresponding surface species were strongly adsorbed on the catalyst surface.

The adsorption of CO₂ on Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ surface led to the formation

of similar surface species with those discussed above over Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ (Fig. 3C). Particularly, bands due to bicarbonates (1642 and 1402 cm⁻¹), monodentate and bidentate carbonates (1521, 1557 and 1361 cm⁻¹) were detected on the spectrum obtained at 25 °C [35,37, 46–50]. The relative population of surface species decreased upon heating the catalyst under He flow and was eliminated above 300 °C (trace f) indicating their desorption from the catalyst surface. Results of Fig. 3 imply that the adsorption strength of CO₂ was enhanced following the order Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ < Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ < Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ in excellent agreement with CO₂-TPD results of Fig. 2.

Regarding the structure of basic sites, two general types of basic sites have been suggested to be present on metal oxides, namely surface hydroxyl groups (weak Brønsted basic sites) and low-coordination oxygen anions (strong basic sites) [51,52]. Previous studies demonstrated that CO₂ is preferentially adsorbed on these sites leading to the formation of bicarbonate species (via its interaction with OH groups) and bidentate, monodentate and/or bridged carbonate species (via its interaction with oxygen anions) [46,49–51,53,54] in accordance to the results of Fig. 3. Aziz et al. [52] stated that the former species are desorbed from the catalyst surface at low temperatures contributing to the low temperature CO₂ evolution in the CO₂-TPD profiles, while the latter species are responsible for the CO₂ peaks evolved at high temperatures. Basic sites of medium strength may be also present on the catalyst surface contributing to CO₂ desorption at medium temperatures during CO₂-TPD experiments [52]. Therefore, concerning the results of Figs. 2 and 3, it can be suggested that, in the case of titania and alumina supported catalysts, the LT peak in the CO₂-TPD profile was due to desorption of bicarbonate species formed via interaction of CO₂ with basic hydroxyl groups and the HT peak to desorption of bidentate and monodentate carbonate species generated by interaction of CO₂ with basic surface oxygen species. However, in the case of silica supported catalyst, the interaction of which with CO₂ led to the development of a single weak peak due to bicarbonates, the CO₂ release both in the low and high temperature region seems to be due to decomposition of these

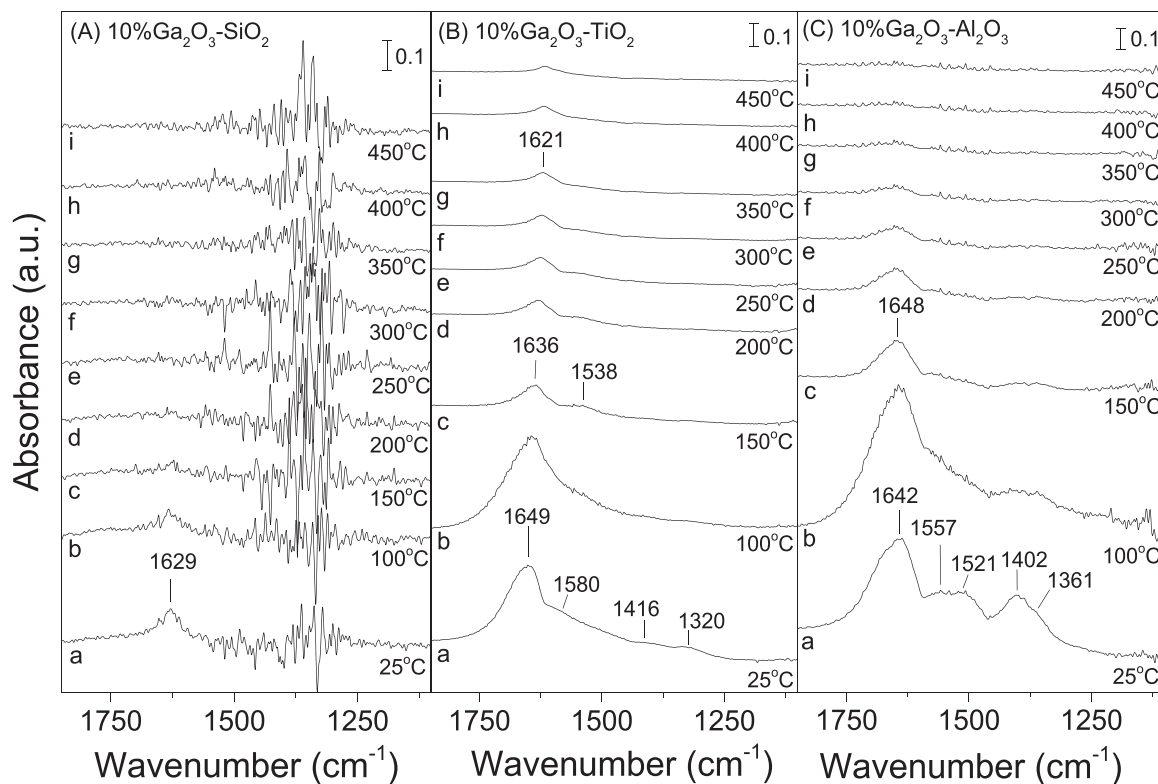


Fig. 3. DRIFT spectra obtained from (A) 10 %Ga₂O₃-SiO₂, (B) 10 %Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and (C) 10 %Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts following adsorption of CO₂ at 25 °C for 30 min and subsequent stepwise heating at the indicated temperatures under He flow.

species.

The acidity of the investigated catalysts was probed by TGA experiments following NH_3 adsorption at 25 °C [1]. The corresponding weight loss (%) and TGA derivative curves as a function of temperature are depicted in Fig. 4 and S2. It was observed that all catalysts exhibited three weight loss regions centered at ~200–280 °C, 350–420 °C and 480–530 °C assigned to weak, moderate and strong acid sites, respectively [27,55–60]. Any weight loss observed at temperatures lower than 120 °C was possibly due to removal of residual physisorbed water [61]. The weight loss was found to be higher for the $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst followed by $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and then $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ (Fig. 4). The acid sites density was calculated following the procedure described in the Supplementary Material [1] and results are presented in Table S2. As it can be seen the total surface acidity was found to be $673.5 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$, $1082.1 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $1548.3 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ implying that the silica supported catalyst was characterized by the highest number of acid sites per gram of catalyst while the titania supported catalyst was the least acidic one. Comparison of these values with the SSA of the investigated catalysts showed that the acid site density per gram of catalyst increases monotonically with increasing the SSA. Therefore, if the aforementioned values are expressed per unit surface area, the catalysts ranking with respect to the density of surface acid sites is modified as follows: $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ ($8.45 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ ($14.07 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ($14.80 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) (Table 2). Results are in agreement with those reported by Shao et al. [60], who found that $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst exhibited higher total acidity, estimated by NH_3 -TPD experiments, compared to $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$. Similar experiments were conducted by Xu et al. [8] who found that the number of medium to strong acid sites increased in the sequence $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Similarly, Petre et al. [33] demonstrated that the number of acid sites measured by pyridine adsorption increased in the order $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, which was correlated with the degree of Ga_2O_3 dispersion as well as the Ga_2O_3 -support interactions. In addition, Shen et al. [56] reported that the acidity of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3/\text{HZSM-5}$ catalyst decreased with increasing the Si/Al ratio of the support.

Similar TGA experiments following NH_3 adsorption were carried out over bare TiO_2 , Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 supports and results obtained showed that, in all cases, the surface acidity was lower compared to that measured for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-M}_y\text{O}_y$ catalysts (Fig.S3). The total acid site density was found to increase following the order SiO_2 ($4.42 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) < TiO_2 ($8.44 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) < Al_2O_3 ($11.97 \mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) which was the same with

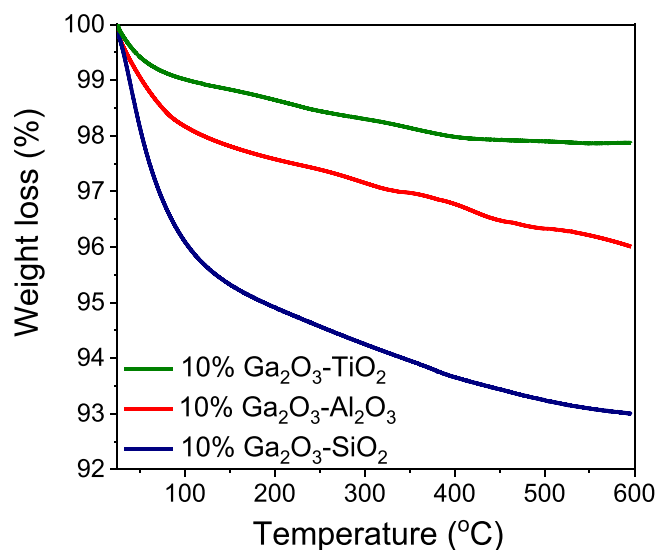


Fig. 4. TGA curves following NH_3 adsorption at 25 °C obtained from the 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$, 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts.

Table 2

Acid site density estimated from TGA experiments over 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$, 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ and 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$.

Catalyst	Acid Site Density ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$)			
	Weak	Moderate	Strong	Total
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$	3.76	3.41	1.28	8.45
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$	5.48	5.35	3.24	14.07
10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	7.32	4.69	2.78	14.80
SiO_2	-	2.78	1.64	4.42
TiO_2	3.82	4.62	-	8.44
Al_2O_3	7.61	3.07	1.29	11.97

that found in the presence of Ga_2O_3 (Table 2). Results imply that surface acidity was enhanced by Ga_2O_3 addition in agreement with our previous study [1].

The nature of acid sites on the catalyst surface was determined by adsorption of pyridine coupled with FTIR spectroscopy and results obtained over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-M}_y\text{O}_y$ are presented in Fig. 5. The spectrum recorded for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst was characterized by four characteristic peaks located at 1622, 1492, 1458 and 1598 cm^{-1} assigned to pyridine adsorption on Lewis acid sites as well as by two bands detected at 1640 and 1549 cm^{-1} due to pyridine protonated by strong Brønsted acid sites [62–65]. The band at 1492 cm^{-1} may also contain contribution from pyridine adsorption on Brønsted acid sites [62,65]. A weak peak at 1578 cm^{-1} and a shoulder at 1446 cm^{-1} were also observed which can be attributed to physisorbed pyridine [62–64]. It should be noted that the bands at 1622 and 1458 cm^{-1} were previously associated with strong Lewis acid sites, while that at 1598 cm^{-1} with moderate and weak Lewis acid sites indicating the presence of different strength of acid sites on the catalyst surface in agreement with the results of Fig. 4 and S2 [64,66,67].

The spectra collected for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst (Fig. 5) consisted of

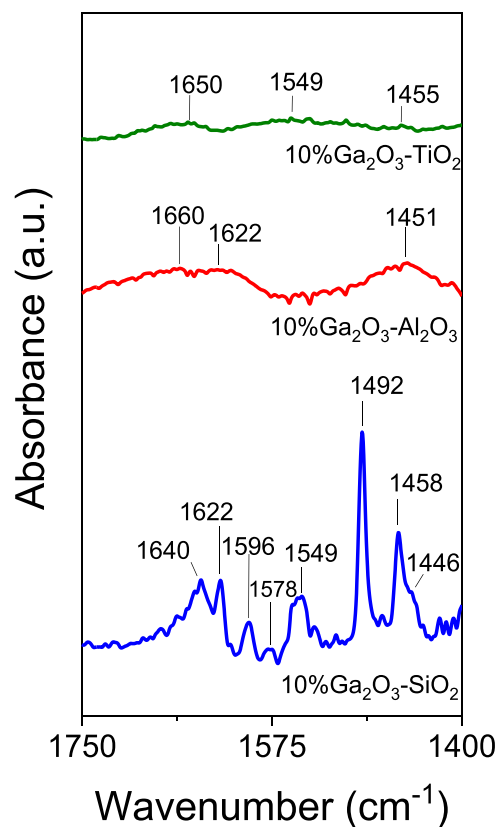


Fig. 5. DRIFT spectra obtained following pyridine adsorption at 25 °C over 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$, 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts.

two broad bands related to the interaction of adsorbed pyridine species with Lewis acid sites (1622 and 1452 cm^{-1}) [13,67–69] and a broad band at 1660 cm^{-1} which, although was appeared at higher wavenumbers, may contain contribution from pyridine species adsorbed on Brønsted acid sites. However, no band was observed in the $1540\text{--}1550\text{ cm}^{-1}$ region assigned to pyridinium anions, implying that the number/strength of Brønsted acid sites was low in order to protonate the adsorbed pyridine in agreement with previous studies over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts [13,68]. It should be also mentioned that more than one overlapping peaks may coexist in the three detected regions, which cannot be clearly distinguished in the obtained spectra due to the broadness of the detected bands. This was also the case for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst, the interaction of which with pyridine gave rise to the development of two broad bands at 1650 and 1558 cm^{-1} attributed to protonated pyridine on Brønsted acid sites and a weak peak at 1455 cm^{-1} most possibly due pyridine coordinated with Lewis acid sites in agreement with previous studies over titania based catalysts [70–72].

Temperature programmed reduction experiments using H_2 as the reducing agent were also carried out using the following procedure: heating in He flow at $450\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 15 min \rightarrow oxidation at $300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ under 20.5 % O_2/He flow ($30\text{ cm}^3\text{ min}^{-1}$) \rightarrow heating in He flow at $450\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 15 min \rightarrow cooling at $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ in He flow \rightarrow switch of the flow to 3 % H_2/He \rightarrow increase of temperature up to $750\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ using a rate of $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. Results (Fig.S4) showed that no reduction peaks were observed in the $\text{H}_2\text{-TPR}$ profiles of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts implying that reduction of these catalysts by hydrogen was limited (at least below $750\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) in agreement with previous studies [8,60]. In contrast, the $\text{H}_2\text{-TPR}$ profile obtained from the $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst was characterized by two hydrogen consumption peaks located at $338\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $598\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The former peak can be attributed to the reduction of well dispersed Ga species and/or GaO^+ species interacting with the support, while the latter peak can be assigned to reduction of bulk or larger Ga_2O_3 particles [1,60,73,74]. It should be noted that the high temperature peak may also contain contributions from the reduction of the TiO_2 surface [1,75,76]. The total amount of H_2 consumed estimated by the area below the H_2 response curve of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst was found equal to $106.5\text{ }\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$. Based on our recent study, the reducibility of TiO_2 was significantly enhanced with the addition of Ga_2O_3 on TiO_2 surface with the amount of consumed hydrogen being increased by a factor of 3.5 [1]. The inability of hydrogen consumption by $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts may be related to the well-known “irreducible” character of SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 supports which prevents stabilization of small gallium oxide particles or GaO^+ [60].

3.2. Effect of the support nature on catalytic performance

The effect of the nature of the oxide carrier (SiO_2 , TiO_2 , Al_2O_3) on the catalytic performance of supported 10 wt% Ga_2O_3 catalysts for the $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ reaction was investigated and results obtained are presented in Fig. 6. The selection of Ga_2O_3 content was based on preliminary experiments conducted over $x\%\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts which showed that both $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ were progressively increased with increasing Ga_2O_3 loading while side products formation was suppressed as the Ga_2O_3 content increased up to 10 wt% (Fig.S5). Although higher propane conversions can be achieved with further increase of Ga_2O_3 loading to 20 wt%, selectivities towards all reaction products remained constant providing evidence that 10 wt% of Ga_2O_3 was a suitable content, which may also ensure a better dispersion of gallium oxide particles compared to that of 20 wt%. It was found that $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts were both activated above $570\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and reached $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}=80\%$ at $745\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (Fig. 6A). Alumina supported Ga_2O_3 catalyst exhibited higher catalytic activity below $700\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ giving measurable propane conversions at temperatures higher than $510\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. However, $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ at $745\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ was found to be equal (80 %) to that measured for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts. The effect of the support nature on propylene yield was more pronounced and be dependent on the reaction temperature (Fig. 6B). Specifically, below $650\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ the $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ increased in the order $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ (5.4 % at $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ (7.8 % at $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) < $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (18.7 % at $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), whereas higher reaction temperatures had a negative effect on propylene yield of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst. In particular, the $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ for this sample presented a maximum value around $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and then decreased with further increase of temperature contrary to the $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ measured for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalysts which was gradually increased with increasing temperature.

In addition to propylene, the products detected under reaction conditions were CO , CH_4 , C_2H_4 and traces of C_2H_6 . The effect of reaction temperature on products selectivity for the investigated catalysts is presented in Fig. 7. As it can be seen, propylene selectivity ($S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$) measured for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst decreased from 69 % to 23 % with increasing temperature from 590 to $745\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, whereas CO selectivity (S_{CO}) remained almost stable in the entire temperature range examined fluctuating between 13 % and 19 % (Fig. 7A). The selectivity towards C_2H_4 ($S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$) and CH_4 (S_{CH_4}) progressively increased from 8 % to 36 % and from 4.5 % to 22 %, respectively, with increasing temperature in the range of $590\text{--}745\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, whereas that of C_2H_6 ($S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}$) was not exceeded 1.2 % in the entire temperature range examined. The production of both C_3H_6 and CO provides evidence that the desired CO_2 -assisted ODP reaction was taking place. However, the decrease of $S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ with

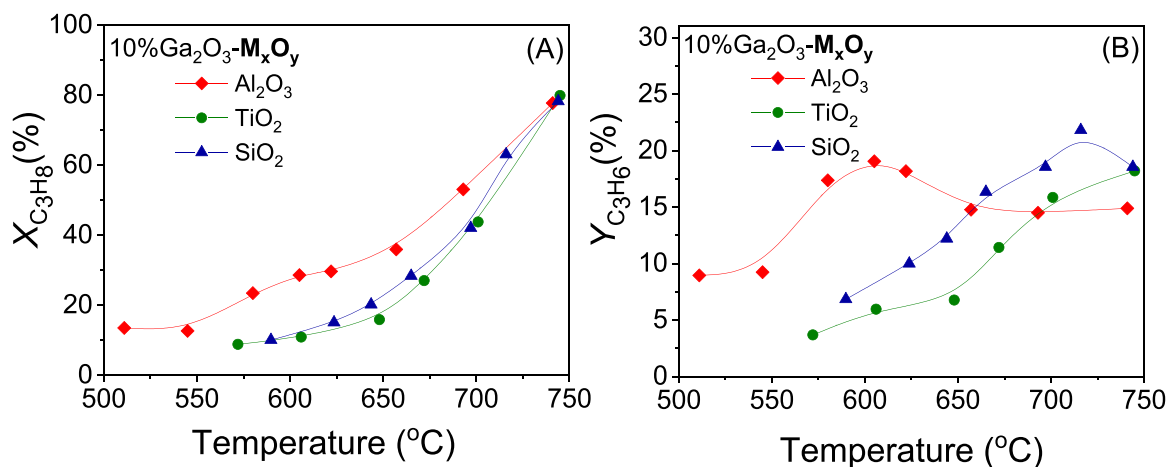


Fig. 6. Effect of reaction temperature on the (A) conversion of C_3H_8 and (B) C_3H_6 yield obtained over 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$, 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts. Experimental conditions: Mass of catalyst: 0.5 g; particle diameter: $0.15 < d_p < 0.25\text{ mm}$; Feed composition: 5 % C_3H_8 , 25 % CO_2 (balance He); Total flow rate: $50\text{ cm}^3\text{ min}^{-1}$.

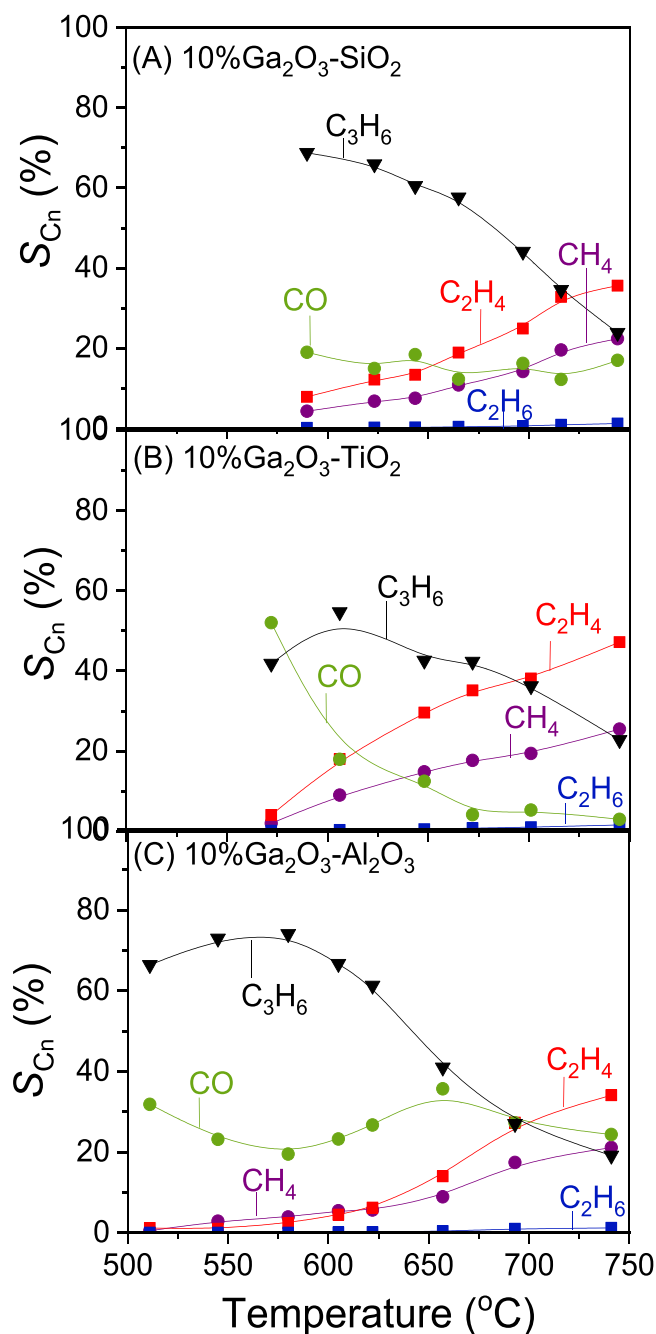
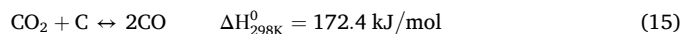
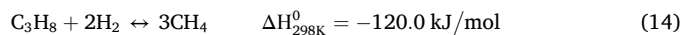
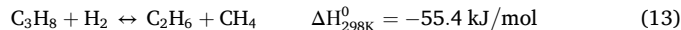
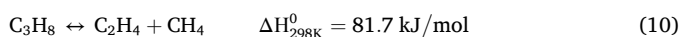
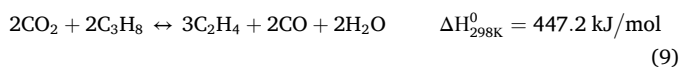


Fig. 7. Selectivities towards reaction products as a function of temperature obtained over (A) 10 %Ga₂O₃-SiO₂, (B) 10 %Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and (C) 10 %Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts. Experimental conditions: same as in Fig. 6.

temperature in combination with the progressive increase of both $S_{C_2H_4}$ and S_{CH_4} indicates that propane or propylene decomposition (9–12) as well as propane hydrogenolysis (13, 14) may run in parallel hindering further production of propylene. The occurrence of reaction (9) may also be responsible for the almost stable selectivity towards CO which was expected to be decreased under conditions where CO₂-ODP (3) reaction was suppressed. In addition, production of CO may also take place via the reverse Boudouard reaction (15).



The same products were detected over Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ (Fig. 7B) and Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ (Fig. 7C) catalysts. Comparison of the results obtained with those discussed above over Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ (Fig. 7A) showed the following differences: (a) $S_{C_3H_6}$ was lower in the whole temperature range examined over Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ (e.g. $S_{C_3H_6}$ = 50 % at 600 °C) contrary to Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ and Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ which exhibited comparable selectivities towards propylene (e.g. $S_{C_3H_6}$ = 68 % at 600 °C); (b) S_{CO} was significantly higher at low reaction temperatures and progressively decreased (from 52 % to 3 %) with temperature for Ga₂O₃-TiO₂, indicating that the reactions leading to CO production were favored at low temperatures and suppressed above 670 °C. On the other hand, S_{CO} measured over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ decreased slightly with temperature below 580 °C and then increased again exhibiting a maximum value of 36 % at ~660 °C; (c) Silica- and alumina-supported catalysts exhibited similar values of $S_{C_2H_4}$ and S_{CH_4} at a given temperature which were found to be lower compared to those measured for titania-supported sample, implying that the side reactions of propane or propylene decomposition (9–12) and propane hydrogenolysis (13, 14) were facilitated over Ga₂O₃-TiO₂

catalyst. Interestingly, the production of undesired C₂H₄ and CH₄ over the most active Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst was limited below 600 °C where propylene yield presented its maximum values, indicating that C₃H₈ was mainly converted to C₃H₆ and CO via CO₂-ODP reaction at temperatures of practical interest.

Concerning the physicochemical properties of catalysts discussed above a general trend was observed according to which catalytic performance is strongly correlated with the amount of CO₂ desorbed during CO₂-TPD experiments (Fig. 2, Table 1). As it can be seen in Fig. 8A, propane conversion, propylene yield and reaction rate normalized with respect to the SSA ($r_{C_3H_8}$, in $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$) measured at 600 °C were optimized for the Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst characterized by a moderate surface basicity. This is in agreement with results of our previous study over titania based composite metal oxides (M_xO_y-TiO₂, M: Ce, Zr, Ca, Cr, Ga) where a moderate surface basicity was found to be crucial for the activation of CO₂ and thus, the efficient conversion of propane towards propylene via CO₂-ODP reaction [1].

Regarding surface acidity, a similar diagram of $X_{C_3H_6}$, $Y_{C_3H_6}$ and $r_{C_3H_8}$ measured at 600 °C as a function of the acid site density estimated by TGA experiments (Fig. 4) was plotted (Fig. 8B). No monotonous trend of $X_{C_3H_8}$ and $Y_{C_3H_6}$ was observed with respect to surface acidity expressed in $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$. The most acidic Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst was found to be superior in activity for the CO₂-ODP reaction whereas the least acidic Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalyst exhibited intermediate performance which was slightly improved compared to Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ characterized by moderate acidity. However, a clearer trend was observed by correlating the normalized reaction rate with the acid site density, according to which $r_{C_3H_8}$ increased by one order of magnitude with increasing the surface acidity, following the order Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ < Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ < Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃.

Based on the above, it is evident that the observed catalyst ranking with respect to ODP activity is strongly related to the catalysts' acid/base properties. A high surface acidity and a moderate surface basicity seem to be desirable in order to achieve high rates of propane conversion towards propylene at temperatures of practical interest (<650 °C).

The effect of the support nature for the CO₂-assisted propane dehydrogenation over supported Ga₂O₃ catalysts was also investigated by Xu et al. [8], who found that propane conversion decreased in the order

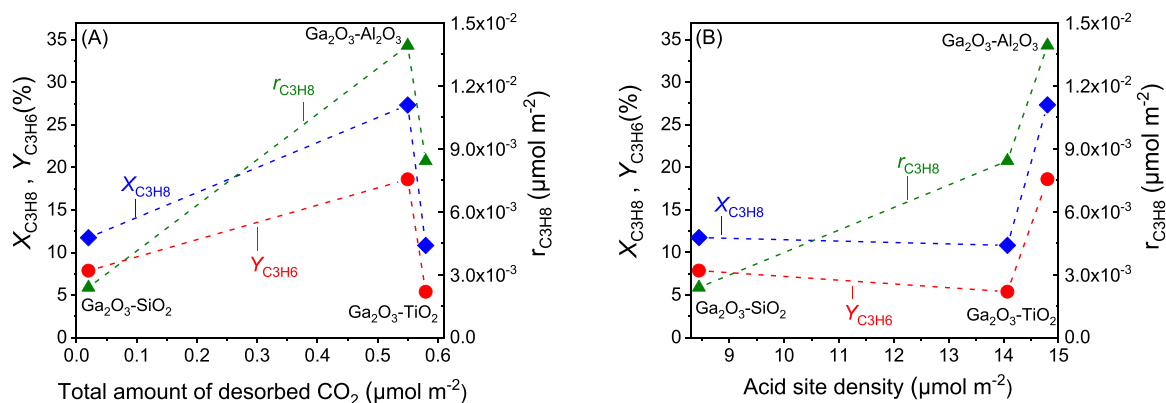


Fig. 8. Propane conversion, propylene yield and normalized reaction rate per unit surface area obtained at 600 °C as a function of (A) the total amount of CO₂ desorbed during CO₂-TPD experiments and (B) the surface acidity estimated by TGA following NH₃ adsorption over the supported Ga₂O₃ catalysts.

Ga₂O₃/TiO₂ > Ga₂O₃/ZrO₂ > Ga₂O₃/Al₂O₃ > Ga₂O₃/SiO₂ > Ga₂O₃/MgO. According to the authors the interactions between the gallium oxide and the support caused variations in H₂ adsorption capacities and acid-base properties which were found to be responsible for the observed differences in catalytic activity as well as for the observed different support effects on the promoting or not role of CO₂ on propylene production. The higher catalytic activity of alumina- compared to silica-supported gallium oxide was also demonstrated by Zhou et al. [20]. Similarly, Xiao et al. [15] found that when the Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst was prepared by the hydrothermal synthesis method it was able to achieve propane conversion of 35.2 % and propylene selectivity of 95 % at temperatures as low as 550 °C. This was attributed to the high

surface area (234 m² g⁻¹) of this catalyst and the higher amount of tetrahedral Ga ions correlated with the medium-strong Lewis acid sites. Moreover, Shao et al. [60] reported that when gallium oxide was dispersed on alumina support, a higher initial propane conversion of 46 % was achieved at 620 °C compared to the case that it was dispersed on silica which resulted in a low propane conversion of 5.5 % for the propane dehydrogenation reaction. According to these authors the weak interactions between Ga species and SiO₂ support in combination with the limited reducibility and the low amount of well-dispersed Ga species observed for Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalyst were responsible for its lower catalytic activity.

Regarding results of the present study, a synergistic interaction be-

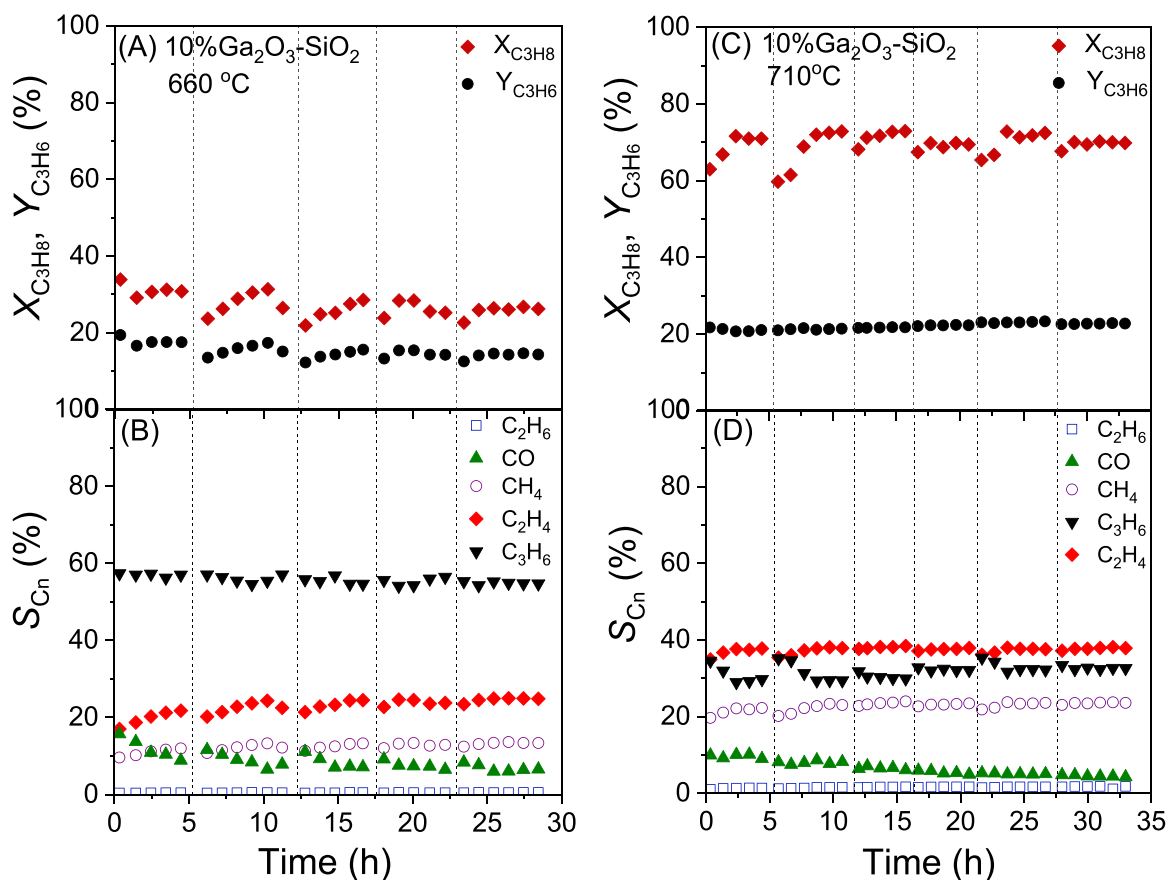


Fig. 9. TOS stability test of the 10%Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalyst conducted at (A, B) 660 °C and (C, D) 710 °C under conditions of oxidative dehydrogenation of C₃H₈ with CO₂. Alterations of (A, C) X_{C₃H₈} and Y_{C₃H₆}, and (B, D) products selectivity with time-on-stream. Experimental conditions: Same as in Fig. 5. Dashed vertical black lines indicate shutting down of the system overnight where the catalyst remained under He flow.

tween gallium oxide particles and the support employed seems to be occurred in all cases examined as evidenced by the improved catalytic performance of the supported Ga_2O_3 catalysts compared to that of the bare Ga_2O_3 and the corresponding bare support (Fig.S6). This synergy was found to be enhanced when alumina was used as support as $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ at 600°C increased from $\sim 3\text{--}4\%$ for bare Al_2O_3 and Ga_2O_3 to 29% for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (Fig.S6E). This was also the case for $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ which was found to be 19-fold higher for $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ than that measured for the corresponding bare metal oxides (Fig.S6F).

3.3. Time-on-stream (TOS) stability tests

The time on stream stability of $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst for the $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ reaction was investigated at 660 and 710°C and results obtained are presented in Fig. 9. It was observed that $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ measured at 660°C were varied in the ranges of $30\text{--}34\%$ and $16.6\text{--}19.4\%$, respectively, during the first five hours on stream (Fig. 9A). The measurements obtained following shutting down of the system overnight and remaining in He flow showed that both $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ were slightly lower. However, they both increased with time regaining their initial values and then were slightly decreased again until the next shutting down of the system. This indicates that $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst loose part of its initial activity during shutting down of the system which can be, however, retrieved with subsequent catalyst exposure to the reaction mixture. The same trend was observed with further increase of time which was, however, smoothed out after 17 hours on stream leading to stabilization of both $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ at 26 and 14.5% , respectively. Results of products distribution (Fig. 9B) showed that $S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ was almost stable ($54.5\text{--}57\%$) during the entire stability test contrary to S_{CO} which

exhibited a small decrease after each shutting down of the system during the night. On the other hand, $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$ and S_{CH_4} were gradually increased from 17% to 24.5% and from 9.6% to 13.4% , respectively, after 30 hours on stream, while $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}$ was always lower than 0.5% .

Qualitatively similar results were obtained at 710°C with $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$, $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ and S_{C_n} exhibiting the same trends with those observed at 660°C . As it was expected, propane conversion ($60\text{--}72\%$) and propylene yield ($21\text{--}23\%$) were higher at 710°C (Fig. 9C). This was also the case for $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$ ($35\text{--}38\%$), S_{CH_4} ($19.7\text{--}23.6\%$) and $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}$ ($1\text{--}1.8\%$), whereas $S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ ($29\text{--}35\%$) and S_{CO} ($4.3\text{--}10\%$) exhibited lower values compared to those obtained at 660°C (Fig. 9D). Results imply that prolonged catalyst exposure to the gas stream and/or increase of reaction temperature led to a slight inhibition of the $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ reaction favoring the undesired reactions of propane or propylene decomposition ($8\text{--}11$) and propane hydrogenolysis ($12, 13$).

The TOS stability for the CO_2 -assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane was also investigated over $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst and results obtained are presented in Fig. 10. As it can be seen, $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$ measured at 660°C remained constant with time on stream taking values of $22\text{--}26\%$ and $9\text{--}11\%$, respectively (Fig. 10A). This was also the case for all products selectivities ($S_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}=40\text{--}41\%$, $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}=34\text{--}36\%$, $S_{\text{CH}_4}=17\text{--}19\%$, $S_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}=0.7\text{--}0.8\%$) with the exception of S_{CO} which was decreasing from $\sim 7.9\text{--}4\%$ by the end of the day where the flow was switched and remained in He overnight. However, the initial values of S_{CO} were regained upon subsequent catalyst exposure to the reaction mixture (Fig. 10B).

A similar stability test was conducted at 710°C and, as it was discussed in our previous study, $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst exhibited excellent stability for 25 hours on stream with $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ varied in the range of

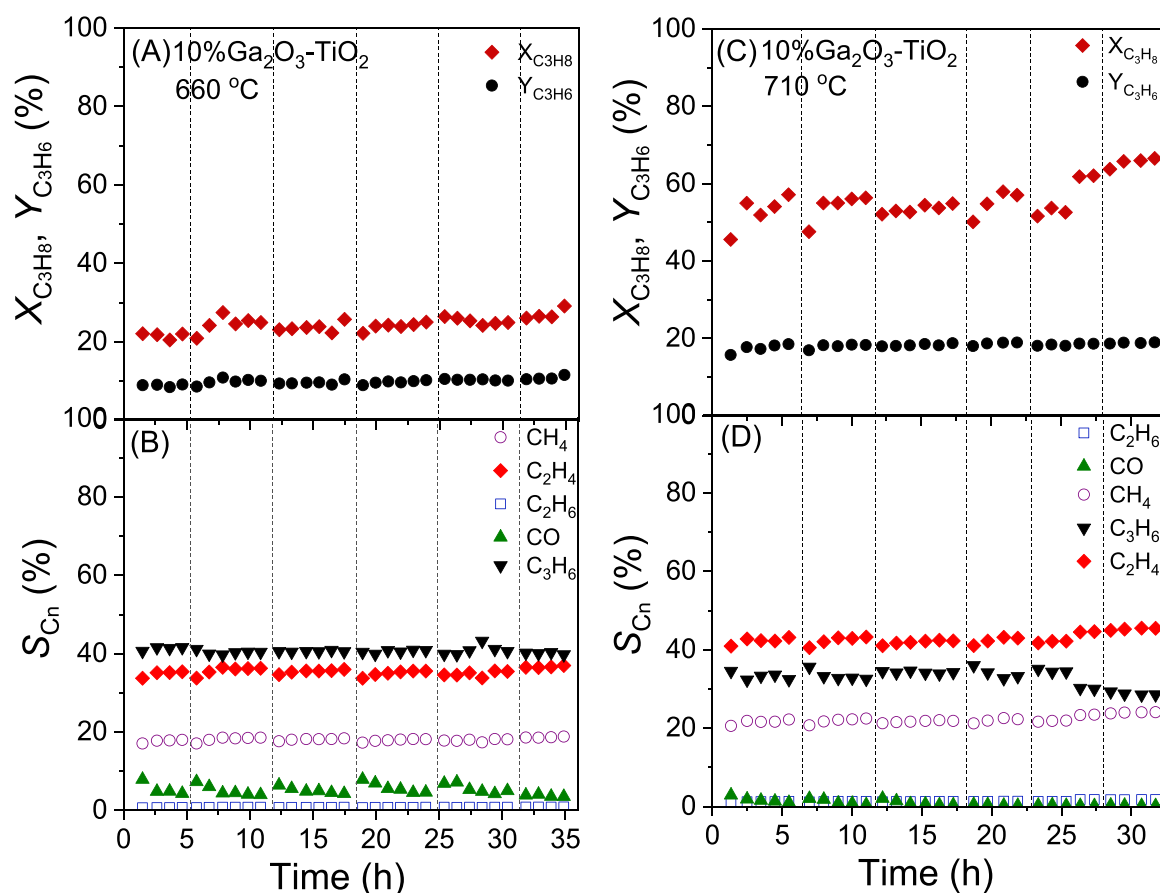


Fig. 10. TOS stability test of the $10\%\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst conducted at (A, B) 660°C and (C, D) 710°C under conditions of oxidative dehydrogenation of C_3H_8 with CO_2 . Alterations of (A, C) $X_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$ and $Y_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_6}$, and (B, D) products selectivity with time-on-stream. Experimental conditions: Same as in Fig. 5. Dashed vertical black lines indicate shutting down of the system overnight where the catalyst remained under He flow. (A) and (B) are reproduced from Ref [1].

52–57 % (Fig. 10C) [1]. However, increase of reaction time to 32 hours led to a gradual increase of propane conversion to 66.5 %. The observed increase of $X_{C_3H_8}$ influenced the variation of products selectivities with time, which although were found to be stable during the first 25 hours on stream ($S_{C_3H_6}=32.5\text{--}36\%$, $S_{CO}=0.5\text{--}2\%$, $S_{C_2H_4}=40\text{--}43\%$, $S_{CH_4}=20\text{--}22.5\%$, $S_{C_2H_6}\sim 1\%$) a slight increase of $S_{C_2H_4}$ (45.5 %) and S_{CH_4} (24 %) was observed with further increase of reaction time which was accompanied by a simultaneous $S_{C_3H_6}$ reduction to 28.5 % (Fig. 10D). Results indicate that the side reactions (9–14) promoting further production of C_2H_4 and CH_4 were facilitated after extended $Ga_2O_3\text{-TiO}_2$ interaction with the 5 % $C_3H_8+25\%$ CO₂/He mixture. It should be noted however, that $Y_{C_3H_6}$ remained unaffected by the observed increase of propane conversion, taking values of 17–19 % during the whole stability test duration (Fig. 10C). As it was also observed for $Ga_2O_3\text{-SiO}_2$ catalyst (Fig. 9), higher reaction temperature hindered C_3H_6 formation and enhanced the production of the undesired C_2H_4 and CH_4 over $Ga_2O_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalyst (Fig. 10).

Contrary to what observed over $Ga_2O_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $Ga_2O_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts, the interaction of $Ga_2O_3\text{-Al}_2O_3$ with the gas stream at 600 °C resulted in a progressive catalyst deactivation with the $X_{C_3H_8}$ and $Y_{C_3H_6}$ decreasing from 29 % to 7.3 % and from 21 % to 3.3 % after 18 hours on stream (Fig. 11A). It should be noted that the selection of a lower reaction temperature (600 °C) for the stability test conduction compared to that used (660 °C) for $Ga_2O_3\text{-SiO}_2$ and $Ga_2O_3\text{-TiO}_2$ catalysts was made in order to achieve comparable propane conversions since $Ga_2O_3\text{-Al}_2O_3$ exhibited significantly higher activity (Fig. 6). The gradual loss of catalytic activity was accompanied by a decrease of $S_{C_3H_6}$ from 72 % to 45 % and an increase of S_{CH_4} and $S_{C_2H_4}$ from 5 % to 10.5 %, and from 4.4 % to 20 %, respectively (Fig. 11B). This provides evidence that catalyst

deactivation was possibly induced by carbon deposition taking place via propylene and propane decomposition (11, 12) reactions, which both favor methane and ethylene generation. The observed increase of S_{CO} (17.9–31.6 %) with time on stream was maybe due to the reverse Boudouard reaction (15) which converted part of the coke formed to CO (Fig. 11B). Selectivity towards ethane also exhibited an increase (from 0.18 % to 0.37 %) most possibly due to the parallel occurrence of propane hydrogenolysis (13). Interestingly, $Ga_2O_3\text{-Al}_2O_3$ catalyst exhibited excellent stability at 710 °C for 30 hours on stream with $X_{C_3H_8}$ and $Y_{C_3H_6}$ stabilizing at 57–60 % and 18–19 %, respectively, during the first 5 hours of reaction (Fig. 11C). Propylene selectivity was found to be constant (32–33 %) whereas those of ethylene, methane and ethane were progressively increased from 28 % to 45 %, from 18 % to 22 %, and from 0.9 % to 1.3 %, respectively, with time on stream. On the other hand, S_{CO} was significantly decreased from 30.7 % to 0.4 % after ~30 hours on stream. This may indicate that propylene was mainly produced via propane dehydrogenation rather than CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation as evidenced by the observed stable $X_{C_3H_8}$ and $Y_{C_3H_6}$ in combination with an observed progressive decrease of X_{CO_2} (not shown here) from 10 % to 1 %.

This implies that CO₂ participation in propane conversion was suppressed with time on stream when the reaction was taking place at 710 °C over $Ga_2O_3\text{-Al}_2O_3$ catalyst. This may be due to competitive adsorption of CO₂ on the same basic sites with one or more reaction products. According to the results reported by Davydov et al. [53], strong basic sites participate in methane activation for the reaction of oxidative coupling of methane. Similarly, the increased surface basicity was found to be responsible for the improved and selective conversion of methane towards C_{2+} hydrocarbons [77]. Thus, it can be suggested that

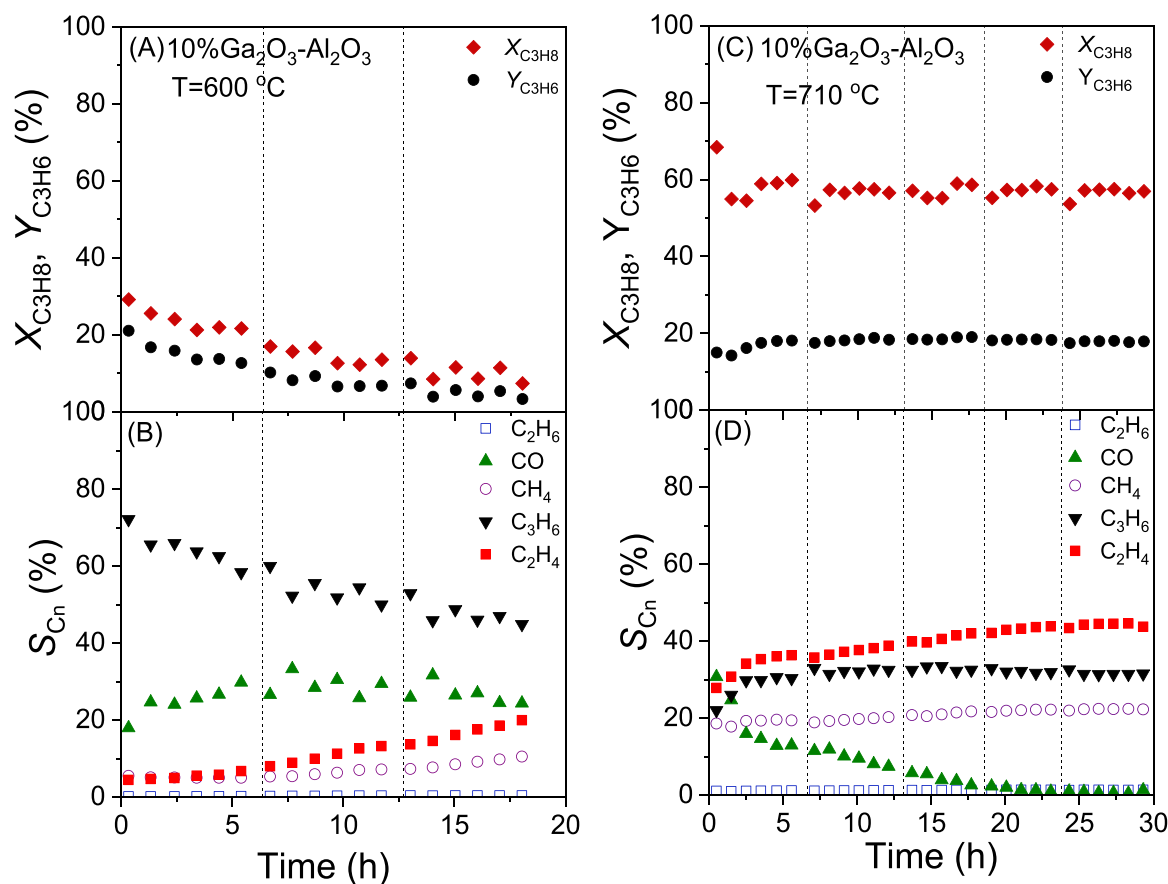


Fig. 11. TOS stability test of the 10 % $Ga_2O_3\text{-Al}_2O_3$ catalyst conducted at (A, B) 600 °C and (C, D) 710 °C under conditions of oxidative dehydrogenation of C_3H_8 with CO_2 . Alterations of (A, C) $X_{C_3H_8}$ and $Y_{C_3H_6}$, and (B, D) products selectivity with time-on-stream. Experimental conditions: Same as in Fig. 5. Dashed vertical black lines indicate shutting down of the system overnight where the catalyst remained under He flow.

part of the produced CH₄ was accumulated on the catalyst surface hindering the activation of CO₂ and its participation in propane conversion to propylene.

Therefore, if the DP reaction dominates the CO₂-ODP at 710 °C, H₂O generation through reaction (3) was expected to be suppressed. This may explain the contradictory stable performance of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst at 710 °C compared to its rapid deactivation at 600 °C, since the presence of water molecules has been suggested to be among the reasons of catalyst deactivation under CO₂-ODP conditions [3].

It should be noted that, with the exception of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst which was found to be gradually deactivated with time when the reaction was taking place at 600 °C, the investigated catalysts exhibited sufficient stability for about 30–35 hours on stream contrary to previous studies where a rapid catalyst deactivation was observed. For example Xu et al. [8] found that the initial propane conversion measured for Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃, Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalysts was significantly decreased with time on stream due to coke formation with all catalysts being practically inactive after 160 min. A drastic catalyst deactivation during the first 45 minutes on stream at 600 °C was also observed by Gashoul Daresibi et al. [14] over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst prepared employing the atomic layer deposition method. This deactivation was attributed either to the higher number of acidic sites which promotes coke formation or to migration of incorporated Ga to the surface under reaction conditions, leading to surface reconstruction through the formation of Ga₂O₃ particles characterized by lower activity and weak interaction with the alumina support. A rapid decrease of propane conversion from 50 to ~21 % after 16 hours of reaction was also reported by Chen et al. [16] over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst with Ga/Al ratio of 4:1 at 500 °C. The rate of catalyst deactivation was increased with increasing the reaction temperature and time and was assigned to acceleration of carbon deposition. Although the deactivation effects were eliminated for Ga/Al ratios of 1:4 and 1:1, propane conversion and propylene yield were found to be lower. Similarly, Xiao et al. [15] found that Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts synthesized by three different methods (hydrothermal, grind-mixture and coprecipitation) were deactivated after 9 hours on stream at 550 °C due to coke deposition.

3.4. X-ray diffraction measurements obtained over “spent” catalysts

In an attempt to clarify the effect of support on variations of products selectivity and/or catalyst deactivation with time on stream all “spent” catalysts following the stability tests were characterized by XRD technique and results obtained are presented in Fig.S7. It was observed that, in all cases, the XRD patterns obtained from the “spent” catalysts are qualitatively similar with those obtained from the corresponding “fresh” samples with respect of the detected crystallographic peaks. The primary crystallite size of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ was not altered after the stability tests conducted at 600 and 710 °C, taking values of 6.9 and 6.3 nm, respectively. Contrary, prolonged interaction of Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalyst with the reaction mixture at 660 and 710 °C led to an increase of the TiO₂ crystallite size from 18.3 nm to 21.4 and 22.3 nm, respectively, for the anatase phase, and from 14.9 nm to 28.7 and 32.3 nm, respectively, for the rutile phase. The anatase content remained stable (78–79 %) after 30 hours on stream at both reaction temperatures investigated. Results imply that titania particles were sintered under reaction conditions without, however, affecting significantly the catalytic performance which remained almost constant with time on stream. In our previous study it was demonstrated that propylene production via ODP with CO₂ reaction was favored over small TiO₂ crystallites [1]. Therefore, it can be suggested that the increase of titania particles size may be related, at least in part, to the observed small decrease of S_{C₃H₆} after 25 hours on stream at 710 °C. It is of interest to note that no crystallographic peaks assigned to carbon was detected for any of the “spent” catalysts examined indicating that either the amount of coke was small and/or the deposited coke was in an amorphous phase [78].

3.5. Transmission electron microscopy measurements

The morphology of the “fresh” and “spent” supported gallium oxide catalysts was studied by Transmission Electron Microscopy. TEM images obtained from Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalysts are presented in Fig.S8 where it is observed that the “fresh” sample (Fig.S8A) was characterized by irregular spherical particles. Prolonged catalyst exposure to the reaction mixture at 660 and 710 °C did not induce any significant variation in its structural characteristics (Fig.S8B and C). Selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern recorded from the area shown with dashed lines in the corresponding TEM image is presented only for the “spent” sample after the TOS stability test at 710 °C (Ga₂O₃-SiO₂_Spent 710 °C, Fig.S8D) due to inability to receive diffraction rings in the case of the “fresh” (Ga₂O₃-SiO₂_Fresh) and the “spent” sample after the TOS stability test at 660 °C (Ga₂O₃-SiO₂_Spent 660 °C). The ring denoted by spot 1 (Fig. S8D) corresponds to (201) plane of tetragonal SiO₂ (JCPDS Card No. 32–993) in agreement with the XRD results (Fig. 1).

A representative TEM image obtained from the “fresh” Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalyst (Ga₂O₃-TiO₂_Fresh) is shown in Fig.S9A where irregular spherical TiO₂ particles of approximately 18–20 nm diameter can be observed. Regarding the corresponding SAED analysis (Fig.S9B), the observed diffraction rings mentioned by spot 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 correspond to d-spacing 3.51, 2.43, 2.33, 1.89, 1.7, 1.49 and 1.36 Å attributed to (101), (103), (112), (200), (105), (213) and (116) Miller indices of anatase phase (JCPDS Card No. 4–477), respectively. Catalyst interaction with the reaction mixture at 660 and 710 °C for ~35 hours resulted in the development of larger titania nanoparticles with a mean size of 23 nm and 24 nm, respectively as evidenced by the TEM images presented in Figs.S9C and E in excellent agreement with XRD results (Fig.S7). Regarding the analysis of the electron diffractogram of the “spent” sample following the TOS stability experiment at 660 °C (Ga₂O₃-TiO₂_Spent 660 °C, Fig. S9D), the spots 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 correspond to (101), (103), (112), (200), (105), (213), (116), (215) and (303) facets of anatase titania (JCPDS Card No. 4–477), respectively, whereas the spots 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 recorded for the Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ sample following the TOS stability experiment at 710 °C (Ga₂O₃-TiO₂_Spent 710 °C, Fig. S9F) are due to (101), (112), (105), (213), (116) and (215) planes of anatase titania (JCPDS Card No. 4–477), respectively. Crystallographic rings attributed to the rutile phase of TiO₂ were not detected via SAED analysis for both the “fresh” (Fig. S9B) and “spent” (Figs. S9D and F) samples, contrary to XRD measurements where the characteristic crystallographic peaks assigned to the rutile phase were identified. This may be due to the smaller rutile content (~21–22 %) compared to that of anatase (78–79 %) for both “fresh” and “spent” titania-supported catalysts.

The TEM images and the selected area electron diffractograms obtained for the “fresh” (Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Fresh) and “spent” Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ (Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 600 °C, Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 710 °C) samples showed that all catalysts are composed of Al₂O₃ spherical nanoparticles with an approximate diameter of 6–8 nm (Fig. 12). Concerning the SAED spectrum of the “fresh” sample (Fig. 12B) each spot corresponds to a specific facet of the Al₂O₃ structure (JCPDS Card No. 2–1422). Specifically, spots 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 are attributed to reflections of the planes with a d-spacing value equal to 3, 2.4, 1.98, 1.63, 1.43 and 1.39 Å of an unknown Al₂O₃ structure. This was also the case for both the Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 600 °C (Fig. 12D) and Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 710 °C (Fig. 12F) samples. Contrary to SAED analysis, XRD results demonstrated a cubic Al₂O₃ structure for both the “fresh” and “spent” Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts. These findings may imply that the structure of alumina used as support was polycrystalline.

It should be noted that for all gallium oxide-support combinations employed no reflections attributed to Ga₂O₃ structure or carbon formations (for the “spent” samples) were detected, corroborating the XRD measurements and further supporting our previous suggestion that gallium oxide particles are well dispersed [10] and that the carbon deposited on the catalytic surface during reaction was amorphous [79].

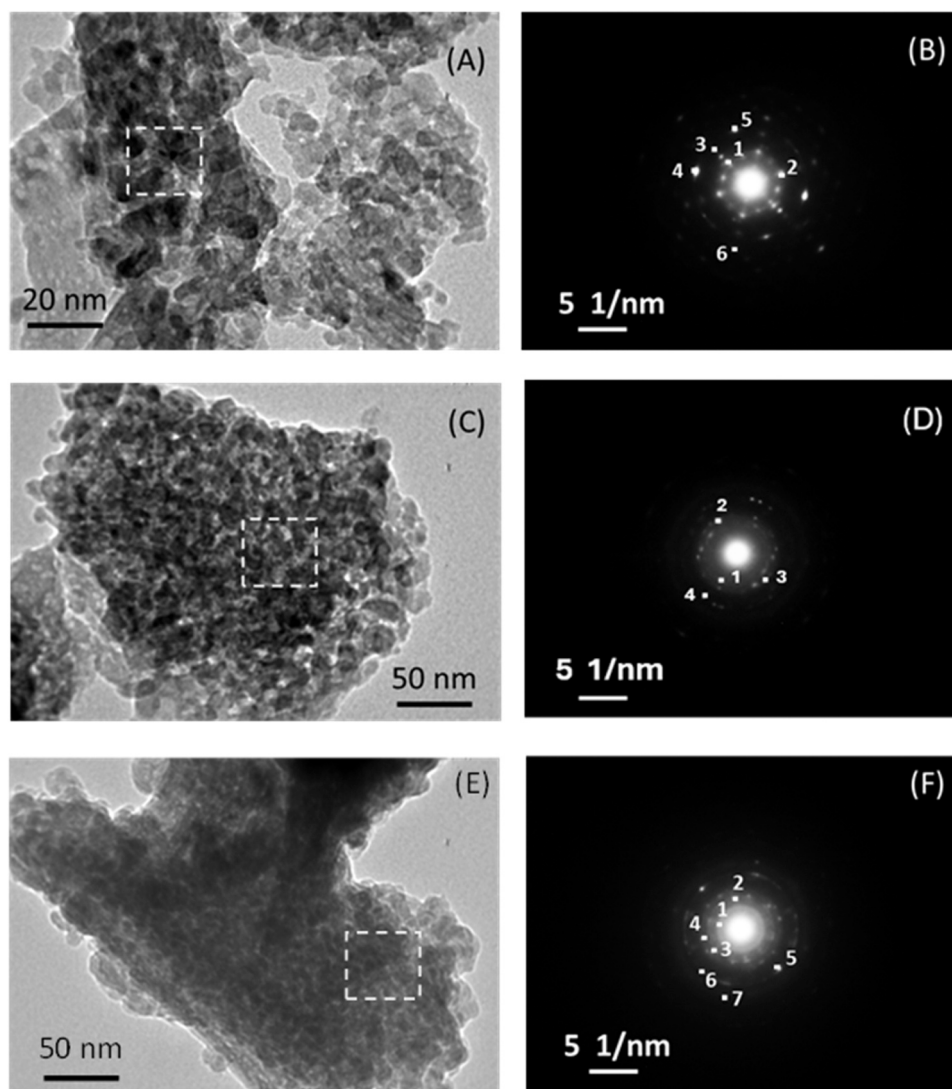


Fig. 12. TEM micrographs of the (A) “fresh” and (C and E) “spent” 10 % Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts following TOS test at 600 °C and 710 °C. Corresponding selected area electron diffractograms for the (B) “fresh” and (D and F) “spent” samples at 600 °C and 710 °C acquired from the area denoted by the dashed lines in (A), (C) and (E), respectively.

3.6. Scanning electron microscopy measurements

The morphology and the distribution of the elements contained in the synthesized catalysts were examined with SEM, and representative images obtained from the “fresh” Ga₂O₃-SiO₂, Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts are shown in Fig. 13A, B and C. The corresponding energy-dispersive X-ray spectra (EDS) of these SEM images (Fig. 13G, H and I) confirmed the presence of Ga, O and Si or Ti or Al elements, whereas elements quantification demonstrated that the Ga content (wt %) was practically the same (5–6 wt%) for the three catalysts examined (Table S3). Elemental mapping illustrates that Ga was homogeneously distributed on the surface of Al₂O₃, TiO₂ or SiO₂ (Fig. 13D, E and F).

Similar SEM/EDS analysis was conducted over all “spent” catalysts investigated. Results obtained from “spent” Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ catalysts are presented in Fig.S10. The element mapping for Si (Fig.S10C and F), Ga (Fig.S10D and G) and C (Fig.S10E and H) indicated that the Si and Ga are uniformly present on both “spent” samples whereas carbon was uniformly deposited on their surface. The weight percentage of Si, Ga, O and C estimated by the EDS analysis (Fig. S10I and J) for the Ga₂O₃-SiO₂_Spent 660 °C catalyst was found to be equal to ca. 40 wt%, 7 wt%, 43 wt% and 10 wt%, respectively, while that for the Ga₂O₃-SiO₂_Spent 710 °C was equal to 14 wt%, 2 wt%, 29 wt% and 55 wt%, respectively

(Table S3). Results clearly show that the amount of carbon formed on the catalyst surface after prolonged catalyst exposure to the gas stream was significantly higher when the reaction was taking place at 710 °C compared to 660 °C, implying that the undesired reactions leading to coke formation were facilitated at higher reaction temperatures in agreement with results of Figs. 7 and 9.

SEM/EDS results obtained from the “spent” Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts are presented in Fig.S11 where it can be observed that the uniform presence of Ti and Ga was retained following the TOS stability tests at 660 °C (Fig. S11C and D) and 710 °C (Fig.S11F and G). The coke formed under reaction conditions was homogeneously distributed on the catalysts’ surface (Fig.S11E and H) and found to be significantly higher (26 wt%) for the Ga₂O₃-TiO₂_Spent 710 °C than that measured (8 wt%) for the Ga₂O₃-TiO₂_Spent 660 °C sample in accordance to the results discussed above for Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ (Table S3). Qualitatively similar results were obtained over the “spent” Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts with Ga and Al being uniformly present and the deposited carbon being homogeneously distributed on the surface of both samples and higher over the Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 710 °C (15 wt%) compared to Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃_Spent 600 °C (9 wt%) (Fig. 14, Table S3).

It should be noted that in all cases the variations observed in the content of Ga and Si or Ti or Al between the “fresh” and the “spent”

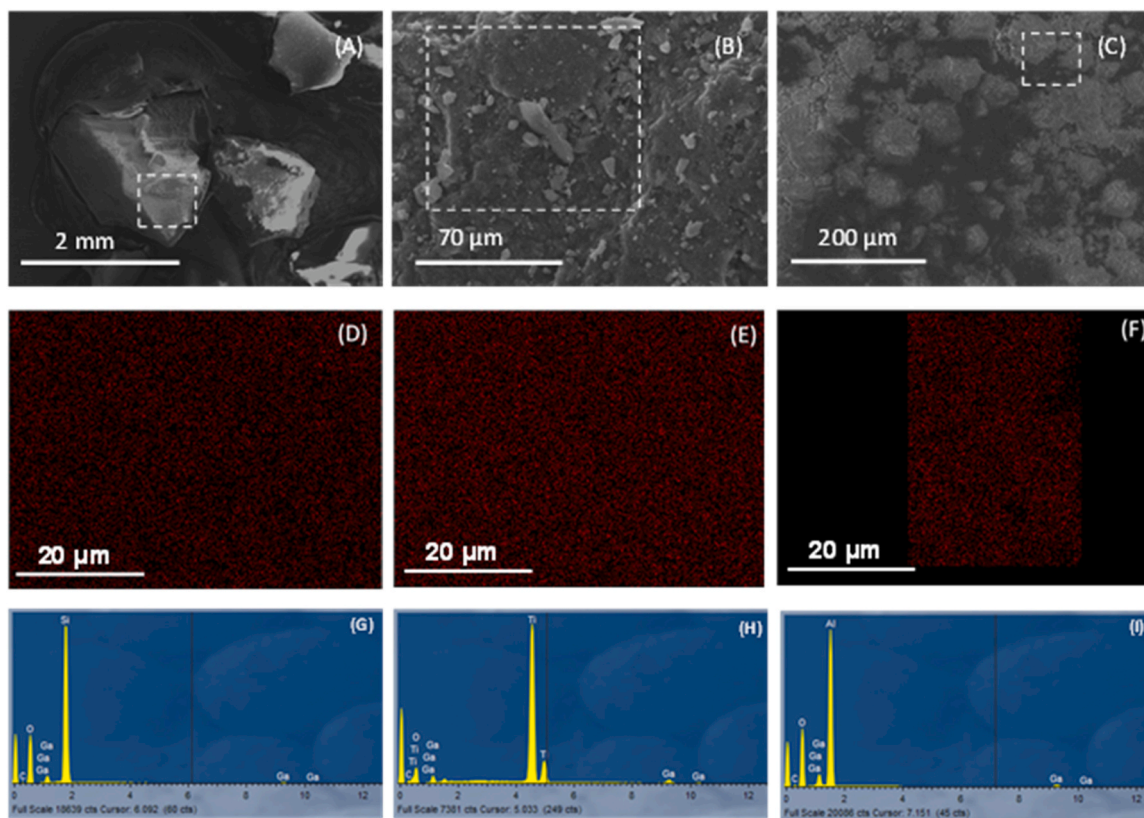


Fig. 13. SEM images with element mapping of Ga and EDS profiles obtained from the “fresh” (A, D, G) 10 % Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ (B, E, H) 10 % Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and (C, F, I) 10 % Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts.

samples could be attributed to the carbon deposition becoming more pronounced as the reaction temperature increased (Table S3).

3.7. Temperature programmed oxidation measurements

Comparison between results of TOS stability experiments and SEM analysis shows that Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst lost rapidly its initial activity, when the reaction occurred at 600 °C, despite the comparable values of carbon content (8–10 wt%) found based on EDS analysis of the three catalysts investigated. In order to accurately estimate the amount of carbon deposited on the catalyst surface under reaction conditions, TPO experiments were performed over the Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ Spent 600 °C, Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ Spent 660 °C and Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ Spent 660 °C catalysts and results obtained are illustrated in Fig. 15A. The profile of CO₂ produced during a linear increase of temperature (10 °C/min) under a 3 % O₂/He stream exhibited, for all catalysts, a single peak with its maximum being varied with respect to the support nature following the order Al₂O₃ (T_{max}=549 °C) < TiO₂ (T_{max}=574 °C) < SiO₂ (T_{max}=685 °C). Similar peaks were previously attributed to oxidation of amorphous carbonaceous deposits [80,81]. In all cases the production of CO was negligible.

The opposite trend with that of T_{max} was observed concerning the amounts (μmol g⁻¹) of CO₂ produced during TPO experiments (estimated by the area below the CO₂ response curve) which was estimated to be 4000 μmol g⁻¹ for Ga₂O₃-SiO₂, 6000 μmol g⁻¹ for Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and 7000 μmol g⁻¹ for Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃. Results indicate that carbon deposition was significantly enhanced over Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ which may be responsible for the deactivation observed in Fig. 11A and B. This may be due to the higher surface acidity of this catalyst, which according to previous studies promotes coke formation, leading to gradual loss of activity with time on stream [14,15,60,82]. It should be mentioned that, the evolution of CO₂ at higher temperatures over Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ and, especially, Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ provides evidence that carbon formation on the

surface of these catalysts was more stable compared to Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃, leading to lower carbon oxidation rate during the TPO experiment. This may imply that besides the higher amount of coke formation when Al₂O₃ was used as support, the gasification of carbon (e.g. via the reverse Boudouard reaction) may be facilitated over this sample under reaction conditions in accordance to the observed increase of S_{CO} (Fig. 11B) with time on stream, which however, was not sufficient to avoid catalyst deactivation.

It should be noted that Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ deactivation due to reconstruction of the catalytic surface under reaction conditions proposed by Gashoul Daresibi et al. [14] and/or by water molecules generated during CO₂-ODP reaction [3] cannot not be excluded although cannot be confirmed based on the results of the present study. As discussed above, the latter approach could explain the stable performance of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst at 710 °C where propylene was mainly produced via DP reaction rather than CO₂-ODP reaction (Fig. 11C and D), suppressing water generation through reaction (3). Furthermore, propane aromatization which is promoted by the presence of both strong acid sites and Ga species may be responsible for the short life time of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst [60,82,83]. In any case, results of the present study clearly show that an appropriate balance between the acid and basic sites is essential in order propane conversion to propylene to be enhanced and simultaneously catalyst stability to be ensured hindering any deactivation phenomena.

Similar TPO experiments were conducted for the samples obtained following the TOS stability tests at 710 °C. Results showed that, in all cases, CO₂ production initiated above 550 °C after exposure of spent catalysts to 3 %O₂/He stream indicating that carbon was strongly adsorbed on the catalyst surface (Fig. 15B). All catalysts had to remain at 800 °C for a long time (20–50 min) until the whole amount of carbon to be oxidized to CO₂. Comparison with the results presented in Fig. 15A showed that the amount of carbon deposited on the catalyst surface was higher when the stability test was conducted at 710 °C, which was rather

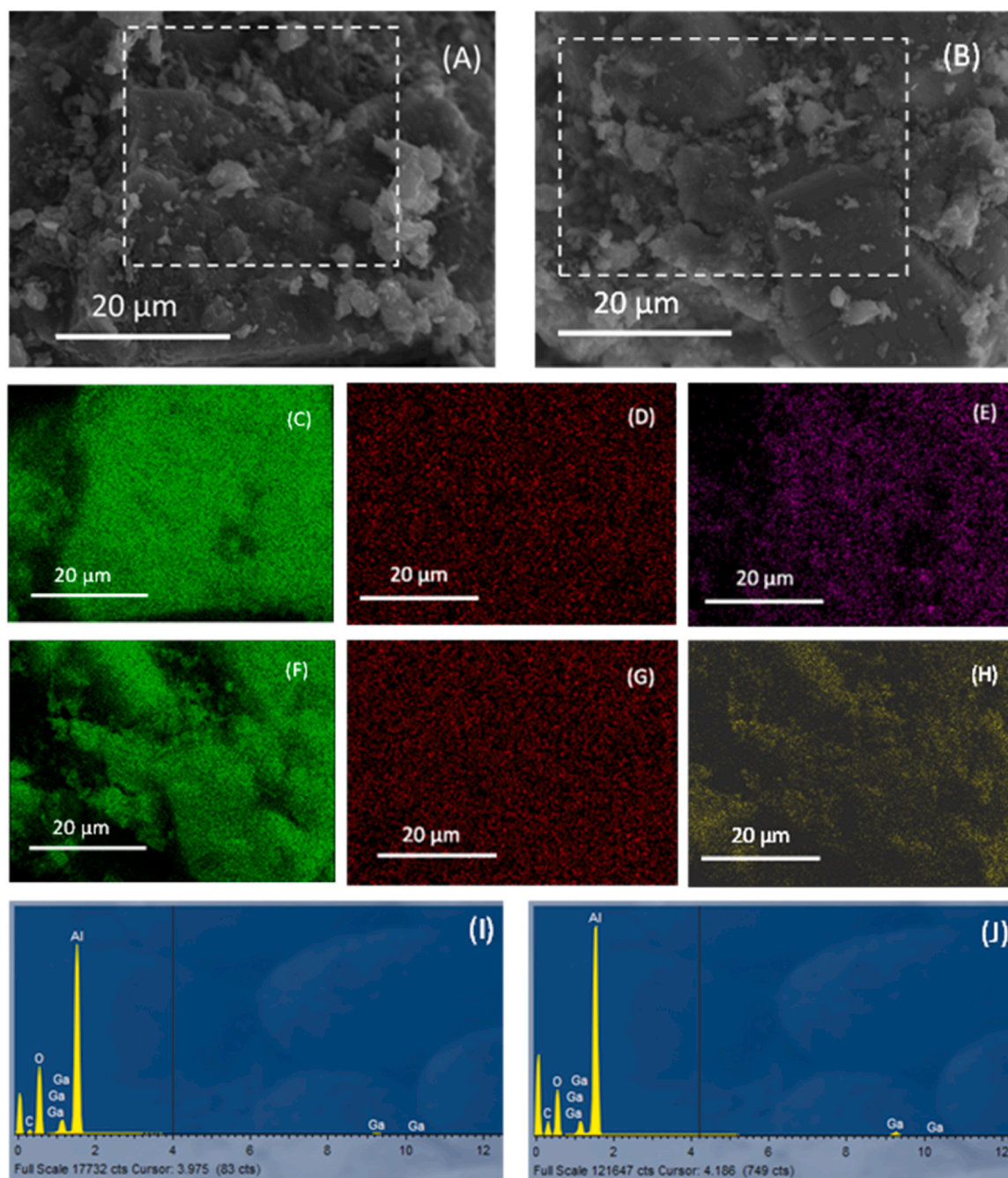


Fig. 14. SEM images of the “spent” 10 % $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst obtained following the TOS stability tests at (A) 600 °C and (B) 710 °C. EDS mapping results showing the distribution of (C) Al, (D) Ga and (E) carbon elements and (I) the corresponding EDS spectrum for the “spent” sample tested at 600 °C. EDS mapping results showing the distribution of (F) Al, (G) Ga and (H) carbon elements and (J) the corresponding EDS spectrum for the “spent” sample tested at 710 °C.

expected since the selectivity towards side products accompanied by carbon formation was enhanced with increasing temperature (Fig. 7). Silica supported catalyst exhibited the highest tendency to coke formation ($18476 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$), in agreement with EDS analysis (Table S3), followed by $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ($16812 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$) and subsequently $\text{Ga}_2\text{O}_3\text{-TiO}_2$ ($11084 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$). Results indicated that the catalyst ranking with respect to their resistance to carbon deposition was different at 710 °C compared to 600 (or 660) °C. In any case, carbon formation at 710 °C was not able to deactivate any of the investigated catalysts even after 30–35 hours on stream which is of significant importance for the practical application of the $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ process.

In an attempt to determine the selectivity of catalysts towards carbon deposition, we estimated the ratio of the amount of carbon formed at the

end of each TOS stability test to the mean C_3H_8 converted per unit time, $S_{\text{C}/\text{Xc}_3\text{H}_8}$ (in $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$). It was found that the $S_{\text{C}/\text{Xc}_3\text{H}_8}$ depended on the reaction temperature and increased in the order (a) SiO_2 ($516.1 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) < TiO_2 ($586.1 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) < Al_2O_3 ($2397.6 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) for the low temperature TOS stability test and (b) TiO_2 ($626.1 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) < SiO_2 ($807.5 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) < Al_2O_3 ($1001.7 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$) for the high temperature TOS test, indicating that the alumina supported catalyst exhibited the lowest anti-coke ability under $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ conditions.

4. Conclusions

The production of propylene via the $\text{CO}_2\text{-ODP}$ reaction over gallium oxide dispersed on SiO_2 , TiO_2 and Al_2O_3 supports was reported herein

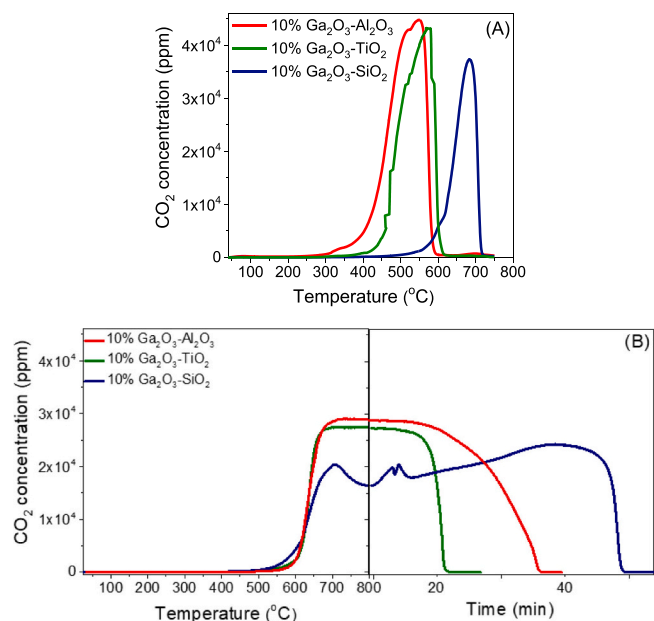


Fig. 15. Responses of CO₂ produced during temperature programmed oxidation with 3% O₂ (in He) occurred after the TOS stability tests presented in Figs. 8–10 conducted at (A) 600 °C over 10% Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalyst and 660 °C over 10% Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ and 10% Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts and (B) 710 °C over 10% Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃, 10% Ga₂O₃-SiO₂ and 10% Ga₂O₃-TiO₂ catalysts. In (B), CO₂ responses above 800 °C were recorded as a function of time since catalysts needed to remain at 800 °C for 20–50 min until complete oxidation of carbon.

attempting to identify the effect of the support on both catalytic activity and stability. SEM/EDS analysis performed over the “fresh” samples illustrated that Ga was homogeneously distributed on the surface of Al₂O₃, TiO₂ or SiO₂ support. No reflections attributed to Ga₂O₃ structure was detected by TEM/SAED and XRD measurements indicating that gallium oxide particles were well dispersed. Both propane conversion and propylene yield were found to be higher when gallium oxide was dispersed on alumina support which was characterized by the highest acid site density and moderate number of basic sites. Low reaction temperatures favored the conversion of C₃H₈ towards C₃H₆ which was hindered above 650 °C where the undesired reactions of C₃H₈ or C₃H₆ decomposition and C₃H₈ hydrogenolysis were facilitated yielding C₂H₄ and CH₄ and promoting coke formation on the catalyst surface. The TOS stability tests demonstrated that all catalysts exhibited sufficient stability for ~30–35 hours with the exception of Ga₂O₃-Al₂O₃ at 600 °C which became practically inactive after 18 hours on stream due to enhanced coke formation, as measured by TPO experiments, induced by the increased surface acidity of this catalyst. EDS analysis also confirmed the formation of carbon which was found to increase with increasing temperature in agreement with TPO results. The tendency of catalysts towards carbon deposition with respect to the support nature was altered when the TOS stability test was conducted at 710 °C, which however was not able to deactivate any of the investigated samples. No carbon formation was detected by conducting TEM and XRD experiments over all the “spent” catalysts investigated providing evidences that the so formed carbon was amorphous. Results of the present study demonstrated that the role of the support in the CO₂-ODP process is to provide the appropriate number of active acid/base sites, which can be significantly modified via its interaction with gallium oxide particles, thus affecting catalytic activity, selectivity and stability.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Alexandra Florou: Investigation, Data curation. **Georgios Bampos:** Investigation, Data curation. **Panagiota D. Natsi:** Investigation. **Aliki**

Kokka: Investigation, Data curation. **Paraskevi Panagiotopoulou:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

The research project was supported by the Hellenic Foundation for Research and Innovation (H.F.R.I.) under the “2nd Call for H.F.R.I. Research Projects to support Faculty Members & Researchers” (Project Number: 3367). The authors would like to thank M. Kollia and K. Govatsi, staff of the Laboratory of Electron Microscopy and Microanalysis (L.E.M.M.) at the University of Patras for TEM and SEM images.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.jece.2024.114603](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2024.114603).

Data availability

The data that has been used is confidential.

References

- [1] A. Florou, G. Bampos, P.D. Natsi, A. Kokka, P. Panagiotopoulou, Propylene production via oxidative dehydrogenation of propane with carbon dioxide over composite M_xO_y-TiO₂ catalysts, *Nanomaterials* 14 (2024) 86, <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano14010086>.
- [2] K. Zhang, S. Sun, K. Huang, Combined carbon capture and catalytic oxidative dehydrogenation of propane to propylene conversion through a plug-flow dual-phase membrane reactor, *Chem. Eng. J.* 481 (2024) 148395, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.148395>.
- [3] H. Wang, X. Zhang, Z. Su, T. Chen, Dealuminated Beta stabilized bimetallic PtCo nanoparticles for oxidative dehydrogenation of propane with CO₂, *Fuel* 358 (2024) 130248, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2023.130248>.
- [4] S. Chen, X. Chang, G. Sun, T. Zhang, Y. Xu, Y. Wang, C. Pei, J. Gong, Propane dehydrogenation: catalyst development, new chemistry, and emerging technologies, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 50 (2021) 3315–3354, <https://doi.org/10.1039/DOCS00814A>.
- [5] I. Chung, H. Jeong, D. Lee, J. Oh, O. Seo, A. Tayal, Y. Yun, Effect of Mo content on oxidative dehydrogenation of propane with CO₂ over ZnO_x catalysts supported on Mo–Zr mixed-oxides, *Catal. Today* 425 (2024) 114340, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2023.114340>.
- [6] X. Zhang, J. Li, W. Liu, Y. Zheng, J. An, W. Xin, Z. Liu, L. Xu, X. Li, X. Zhu, Synergistic effect of zinc and iron in the CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane, *ACS Catal.* 13 (2023) 14864–14873, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.3c04371>.
- [7] M. Kocoń, P. Michorczyk, J. Ogonowski, Effect of supports on catalytic activity of chromium oxide-based catalysts in the dehydrogenation of propane with CO₂, *Catal. Lett.* 101 (2005) 53–57, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-004-3749-6>.
- [8] B. Xu, B. Zheng, W. Hua, Y. Yue, Z. Gao, Support effect in dehydrogenation of propane in the presence of CO₂ over supported gallium oxide catalysts, *J. Catal.* 239 (2006) 470–477, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2006.02.017>.
- [9] I. Takahara, M. Saito, M. Inaba, K. Murata, Dehydrogenation of propane over a silica-supported vanadium oxide catalyst, *Catal. Lett.* 102 (2005) 201–205, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-005-5856-4>.
- [10] M.A. Tedeeva, A.L. Kustov, P.V. Pribytkov, G.I. Kapustin, A.V. Leonov, O. P. Tkachenko, O.B. Tursunov, N.D. Evdokimenko, L.M. Kustov, Dehydrogenation of propane in the presence of CO₂ on GaO_x/SiO₂ catalyst: influence of the texture characteristics of the support, *Fuel* 313 (2022) 122698, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2021.122698>.
- [11] X. Zhang, Y. Yue, Z. Gao, Chromium oxide supported on mesoporous SBA-15 as propane dehydrogenation and oxidative dehydrogenation catalysts, *Catal. Lett.* 83 (2002) 19–25, <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1020693028720>.
- [12] Y. Gambo, S. Adamu, R.A. Lucky, M.S. Ba-Shammakh, M.M. Hossain, Decoupling reaction network and designing robust VO_x/Al₂O₃ catalyst with suitable site diversity for promoting CO₂-mediated oxidative dehydrogenation of propane, *Chem. Eng. J.* 479 (2024) 147458, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.147458>.

- [13] M. Chen, J. Xu, F.-Z. Su, Y.-M. Liu, Y. Cao, H.-Y. He, K.-N. Fan, Dehydrogenation of propane over spinel-type gallia–alumina solid solution catalysts, *J. Catal.* 256 (2008) 293–300, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2008.03.021>.
- [14] F. Gashoul Daresibi, A.A. Khodadadi, Y. Mortazavi, Atomic layer deposition of Ga₂O₃ on γ -Al₂O₃ catalysts with higher interactions and improved activity and propylene selectivity in CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 655 (2023) 119117, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2023.119117>.
- [15] H. Xiao, J. Zhang, P. Wang, X. Wang, F. Pang, Z. Zhang, Y. Tan, Dehydrogenation of propane over a hydrothermal-synthesized Ga₂O₃–Al₂O₃ catalyst in the presence of carbon dioxide, *Catal. Sci. Technol.* 6 (2016) 5183–5195, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C5CY02161H>.
- [16] M. Chen, J. Xu, Y.-M. Liu, Y. Cao, H.-Y. He, J.-H. Zhuang, K.-N. Fan, Enhanced activity of spinel-type Ga₂O₃–Al₂O₃ mixed oxide for the dehydrogenation of propane in the presence of CO₂, *Catal. Lett.* 124 (2008) 369–375, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-008-9478-5>.
- [17] H. Li, Y. Yue, C. Miao, Z. Xie, W. Hua, Z. Gao, Dehydrogenation of ethylbenzene and propane over Ga₂O₃–ZrO₂ catalysts in the presence of CO₂, *Catal. Commun.* 8 (2007) 1317–1322, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catcom.2006.11.034>.
- [18] E.-H. Yuan, Y. Niu, X. Huang, M. Li, J. Bao, Y.-H. Song, B. Zhang, Z.-T. Liu, M.-G. Willinger, Z.-W. Liu, Finned Zn-MFI zeolite encapsulated noble metal nanoparticle catalysts for the oxidative dehydrogenation of propane with carbon dioxide, *J. Energy Chem.* 80 (2023) 479–491, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jechem.2023.01.055>.
- [19] M. Igonina, M. Tedeeva, K. Kalmykov, G. Kapustin, V. Nissenbaum, I. Mishin, P. Pribytkov, S. Dunaev, L. Kustov, A. Kustov, Properties of Cr_xO_y/MCM-41 and its catalytic activity in the reaction of propane dehydrogenation in the presence of CO₂, *Catalysts* 13 (2023) 906, <https://doi.org/10.3390/catal13050906>.
- [20] W. Zhou, Y. Jiang, Z. Sun, S. Zhou, E. Xing, Y. Hai, G. Chen, Y. Zhao, Support effect of Ga-based catalysts in the CO₂-assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of propane, *Catalysts* 13 (2023) 896, <https://doi.org/10.3390/catal13050896>.
- [21] Z.-Y. Wang, Z.-H. He, L.-Y. Li, S.-Y. Yang, M.-X. He, Y.-C. Sun, K. Wang, J.-G. Chen, Z.-T. Liu, Research progress of CO₂ oxidative dehydrogenation of propane to propylene over Cr-free metal catalysts, *Rare Met.* 41 (2022) 2129–2152, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12598-021-01959-y>.
- [22] M.A. Atanga, F. Rezaei, A. Jawad, M. Fitch, A.A. Rowanghi, Oxidative dehydrogenation of propane to propylene with carbon dioxide, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 220 (2018) 429–445, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.08.052>.
- [23] A. Kokka, A. Petala, P. Panagiotopoulou, Support effects on the activity of ni catalysts for the propane steam reforming reaction, *Nanomaterials* 11 (2021) 1948, <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano11081948>.
- [24] T. Ramantani, G. Bampos, A. Vavatsikos, G. Vatskalis, D.I. Kondarides, Propane steam reforming over catalysts derived from noble metal (Ru, Rh)-substituted LaNiO₃ and La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}NiO₃ perovskite precursors, *Nanomaterials* 11 (2021) 1931, <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano11081931>.
- [25] K.-i Shimizu, M. Takamatsu, K. Nishi, H. Yoshida, A. Satsuma, T. Tanaka, S. Yoshida, T. Hattori, Alumina-supported gallium oxide catalysts for NO selective reduction: influence of the local structure of surface gallium oxide species on the catalytic activity, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 103 (1999) 1542–1549, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp983790w>.
- [26] A. Jawad, S. Ahmed, Analysis and process evaluation of metal dopant (Zr, Cr)-promoted Ga-modified ZSM-5 for the oxidative dehydrogenation of propane in the presence and absence of CO₂, *RSC Adv.* 13 (2023) 11081–11095, <https://doi.org/10.1039/D2RA08235G>.
- [27] R. Koirala, R. Buechel, F. Krumeich, S.E. Pratsinis, A. Baiker, Oxidative dehydrogenation of ethane with CO₂ over flame-made Ga-loaded TiO₂, *ACS Catal.* 5 (2015) 690–702, <https://doi.org/10.1021/cs500685d>.
- [28] W. Li, G. Zhang, X. Jiang, Y. Liu, J. Zhu, F. Ding, Z. Liu, X. Guo, C. Song, CO₂ Hydrogenation on unpromoted and M-promoted Co/TiO₂ Catalysts (M = Zr, K, Cs): effects of crystal phase of supports and metal–support interaction on tuning product distribution, *ACS Catal.* 9 (2019) 2739–2751, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.8b04720>.
- [29] Q. Li, H. Wang, M. Zhang, G. Li, J. Chen, H. Jia, Suppressing strong metal–support interactions on ruthenium/TiO₂ promote light-driven photothermal CO₂ reduction with methane, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 62 (2023) e202300129, <https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.202300129>.
- [30] E. Al-Shafei, M. Aljishi, M. Albahar, A. Alahmed, M. Sanhoob, Effect of CO₂/propane ratio and trimetallic oxide catalysts on maximizing dry reforming of propane, *Mol. Catal.* 537 (2023) 112945, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mcat.2023.112945>.
- [31] A. Bermejo-López, B. Pereda-Ayo, J.A. Onrubia-Calvo, J.A. González-Marcos, J. R. González-Velasco, Tuning basicity of dual function materials widens operation temperature window for efficient CO₂ adsorption and hydrogenation to CH₄, *J. CO₂ Util.* 58 (2022) 101922, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2022.101922>.
- [32] H. Krishna, M.O. Haus, R. Palkovits, Basic silica catalysts for the efficient dehydration of biomass-derived compounds – elucidating structure–activity relationships for Na₂O/SiO₂-type materials, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 286 (2021) 119933, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.119933>.
- [33] A.L. Petre, A. Auroux, P. Gélín, M. Caldaru, N.I. Ionescu, Acid–base properties of supported gallium oxide catalysts, *Thermochim. Acta* 379 (2001) 177–185, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0040-6031\(01\)00615-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0040-6031(01)00615-3).
- [34] P. Michorczyk, E. Sikora, J. Ogonowski, Study of the acid–base properties of Ga₂O₃/Al₂O₃ by using test reactions, *React. Kinet. Catal. Lett.* 94 (2008) 243–252, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11144-008-5296-4>.
- [35] Y.-x Pan, C.-j Liu, D. Mei, Q. Ge, Effects of hydration and oxygen vacancy on CO₂ adsorption and activation on β -Ga₂O₃(100), *Langmuir* 26 (2010) 5551–5558, <https://doi.org/10.1021/la903836v>.
- [36] A. Vimont, J.C. Lavalley, A. Sahibed-Dine, C. Otero, Areán, M. Rodríguez Delgado, M. Daturi, Infrared spectroscopic study on the surface properties of γ -gallium oxide as compared to those of γ -alumina, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 109 (2005) 9656–9664, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp050103+>.
- [37] S.E. Collins, M.A. Baltanás, A.L. Bonivardi, Infrared spectroscopic study of the carbon dioxide adsorption on the surface of Ga₂O₃ polymorphs, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 110 (2006) 5498–5507, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp055594c>.
- [38] A. Boudjemaa, C. Daniel, C. Mirodatos, M. Trari, A. Auroux, R. Bouarab, In situ DRIFTS studies of high-temperature water–gas shift reaction on chromium-free iron oxide catalysts, *Comptes Rendus Chim.* 14 (2011) 534–538, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crci.2010.11.007>.
- [39] A. Erdohelyi, K. Fodor, G. Suru, Reaction of carbon monoxide with water on supported iridium catalysts, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 139 (1996) 131–147, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0926-860X\(95\)00316-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0926-860X(95)00316-9).
- [40] J. Baltrusaitis, J. Schuttlefield, E. Zeitler, V.H. Grassian, Carbon dioxide adsorption on oxide nanoparticle surfaces, *Chem. Eng. J.* 170 (2011) 471–481, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2010.12.041>.
- [41] C.E. Nanayakkara, W.A. Larish, V.H. Grassian, Titanium dioxide nanoparticle surface reactivity with atmospheric gases, CO₂, SO₂, and NO₂: roles of surface hydroxyl groups and adsorbed water in the formation and stability of adsorbed products, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 118 (2014) 23011–23021, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp504402z>.
- [42] L. Liu, C. Zhao, Y. Li, Spontaneous dissociation of CO₂ to CO on defective surface of Cu(I)/TiO₂-x nanoparticles at room temperature, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 116 (2012) 7904–7912, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp300932b>.
- [43] G. Martra, Lewis acid and base sites at the surface of microcrystalline TiO₂ anatase: relationships between surface morphology and chemical behaviour, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 200 (2000) 275–285, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-860X\(00\)00641-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-860X(00)00641-4).
- [44] L. Jin, E. Shaaban, S. Bamonte, D. Cintron, S. Shuster, L. Zhang, G. Li, J. He, Surface basicity of metal@TiO₂ to enhance photocatalytic efficiency for CO₂ reduction, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces* 13 (2021) 38595–38603, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acami.1c09119>.
- [45] K. Wang, M. Cao, J. Lu, Y. Lu, C.H. Lau, Y. Zheng, X. Fan, Operando DRIFTS-MS investigation on plasmon-thermal coupling mechanism of CO₂ hydrogenation on Au/TiO₂: the enhanced generation of oxygen vacancies, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 296 (2021) 120341, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2021.120341>.
- [46] J. Szanyi, J.H. Kwak, Dissecting the steps of CO₂ reduction: 1. The interaction of CO and CO₂ with γ -Al₂O₃: an in situ FTIR study, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.* 16 (2014) 15117–15125, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C4CP00616J>.
- [47] D. Qin, D. Xie, H. Zheng, Z. Li, J. Tang, Z. Wei, In-situ FTIR study of CO₂ adsorption and methanation mechanism over bimetallic catalyst at low-temperature, *Catal. Lett.* 151 (2021) 2894–2905, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-021-03539-2>.
- [48] G. Bampos, T. Ramantani, P. Panagiotopoulou, X.E. Vervykios, Effect of support on the reactive adsorption of CO from low CO concentration streams on the surface of Pd based catalysts, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 60 (2021) 18722–18738, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.iecr.1c02710>.
- [49] C. Weilach, C. Spiel, K. Föttinger, G. Rupprechter, Carbonate formation on Al₂O₃ thin film model catalyst supports, *Surf. Sci.* 605 (2011) 1503–1509, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.susc.2011.05.025>.
- [50] W.S. Epling, C.H.F. Peden, J. Szanyi, Carbonate formation and stability on a Pt/BaO/ γ -Al₂O₃ NO_x storage/reduction catalyst, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 112 (2008) 10952–10959, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp721280q>.
- [51] Z. Wu, A.K.P. Mann, M. Li, S.H. Overbury, Spectroscopic investigation of surface-dependent acid–base property of ceria nanoshapes, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 119 (2015) 7340–7350, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jpcc.5b00859>.
- [52] M.A.A. Aziz, A.A. Jalil, S. Wongsakulphasatch, D.-V.N. Vo, Understanding the role of surface basic sites of catalysts in CO₂ activation in dry reforming of methane: a short review, *Catal. Sci. Technol.* 10 (2020) 35–45, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C9CY01519A>.
- [53] A.A. Davydov, M.L. Shepotko, A.A. Budneva, Basic sites on the oxide surfaces: their effect on the catalytic methane coupling, *Catal. Today* 24 (1995) 225–230, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0920-5861\(95\)00029-F](https://doi.org/10.1016/0920-5861(95)00029-F).
- [54] L. Mino, G. Spoto, A.M. Ferrari, CO₂ capture by TiO₂ anatase surfaces: a combined DFT and FTIR study, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 118 (2014) 25016–25026, <https://doi.org/10.1021/jp507443k>.
- [55] W. Zhou, Y. Zhang, X. Tao, Y. Zhou, Q. Wei, S. Ding, Effects of gallium addition to mesoporous alumina by impregnation on dibenzothiophene hydrodesulfurization performances of the corresponding NiMo supported catalysts, *Fuel* 228 (2018) 152–163, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2018.04.084>.
- [56] Z. Shen, J. Liu, H. Xu, Y. Yue, W. Hua, W. Shen, Dehydrogenation of ethane to ethylene over a highly efficient Ga₂O₃/HZSM-5 catalyst in the presence of CO₂, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 356 (2009) 148–153, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2008.12.038>.
- [57] V. La Parola, L.F. Liotta, G. Pantaleo, M.L. Testa, A.M. Venezia, CO₂ reforming of CH₄ over Ni supported on SiO₂ modified by TiO₂ and ZrO₂: effect of the support synthesis procedure, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 642 (2022) 118704, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2022.118704>.
- [58] K.N. Papageridis, N.D. Charisiou, S.L. Douvartzides, V. Sebastian, S.J. Hinder, M.A. Baker, S. Alkhoori, K. Polychronopoulou, M.A. Goula, Effect of operating parameters on the selective catalytic deoxygenation of palm oil to produce renewable diesel over Ni supported on Al₂O₃, ZrO₂ and SiO₂ catalysts, *Fuel Process. Technol.* 209 (2020) 106547, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuproc.2020.106547>.

- [59] C.A. Barrales-Cortés, H. Pérez-Pastenes, J.C. Piña-Victoria, T. Viveros-García, Hydrogenation of citral on Pt/SiO₂ catalysts: effect of Sn addition and type of solvent, *Top. Catal.* 63 (2020) 468–480, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11244-020-01312-0>.
- [60] C.-T. Shao, W.-Z. Lang, X. Yan, Y.-J. Guo, Catalytic performance of gallium oxide based-catalysts for the propane dehydrogenation reaction: effects of support and loading amount, *RSC Adv.* 7 (2017) 4710–4723, <https://doi.org/10.1039/C6RA27204E>.
- [61] D. Das, H.K. Mishra, K.M. Parida, A.K. Dalai, Preparation, physico-chemical characterization and catalytic activity of sulphated ZrO₂-TiO₂ mixed oxides, *J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem.* 189 (2002) 271–282, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1381-1169\(02\)00363-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1381-1169(02)00363-1).
- [62] C. Otero Areán, X. Rodri, M. Guez Delgado, V. Montouillout, J.C. Lavalley, C. Fernandez, J.J. Cuat Pascual, J.B. Parra, NMR and FTIR spectroscopic studies on the acidity of gallia-silica prepared by a sol-gel route, *Microporous Mesoporous Mater.* 67 (2004) 259–264, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micromeso.2003.11.009>.
- [63] A.S. Al-Dughaiher, H. de Lasa, HZSM-5 zeolites with different SiO₂/Al₂O₃ ratios. Characterization and NH₃ desorption kinetics, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 53 (2014) 15303–15316, <https://doi.org/10.1021/ie4039532>.
- [64] P. Castro-Fernández, D. Mance, C. Liu, I.B. Moroz, P.M. Abdala, E.A. Pidko, C. Copéret, A. Fedorov, C.R. Müller, Propane dehydrogenation on Ga₂O₃-based catalysts: contrasting performance with coordination environment and acidity of surface sites, *ACS Catal.* 11 (2021) 907–924, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.0c05009>.
- [65] W. Lueangchaichaweng, N.R. Brooks, S. Fiorilli, E. Gobechiya, K. Lin, L. Li, S. Parres-Esclapez, E. Javon, S. Bals, G. VanTendeloo, J.A. Martens, C.E. A. Kirschhock, P.A. Jacobs, P.P. Pescarmona, Gallium oxide nanorods: novel, template-free synthesis and high catalytic activity in epoxidation reactions, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* 53 (2014) 1585–1589, <https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201308384>.
- [66] C. Torres, S. Rostom, H. de Lasa, An eco-friendly fluidizable Fe_xO_y/CaO-γ-Al₂O₃ catalyst for tar cracking during biomass gasification, *Catalysts* 10 (2020) 806, <https://doi.org/10.3390/catal10070806>.
- [67] J. Mazumder, H. de Lasa, Fluidizable Ni/La₂O₃-γ-Al₂O₃ catalyst for steam gasification of a cellulosic biomass surrogate, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 160–161 (2014) 67–79, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2014.04.042>.
- [68] S.-Z. Zhou, X.-Q. Gao, F. Wu, W.-C. Li, A.-H. Lu, Enriching GaHx species via co-feeding hydrogen to boost efficient propane dehydrogenation over Ga₂O₃/Al₂O₃ catalysts, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 668 (2023) 119488, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2023.119488>.
- [69] S.A. Al-Ghamdi, H.I. de Lasa, Propylene production via propane oxidative dehydrogenation over VO_x/γ-Al₂O₃ catalyst, *Fuel* 128 (2014) 120–140, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2014.02.033>.
- [70] X. Wang, J.C. Yu, P. Liu, X. Wang, W. Su, X. Fu, Probing of photocatalytic surface sites on SO₄²⁻/TiO₂ solid acids by in situ FT-IR spectroscopy and pyridine adsorption, *J. Photochem. Photobiol. A: Chem.* 179 (2006) 339–347, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jphotochem.2005.09.007>.
- [71] F. Lin, Y. Chen, L. Zhang, D. Mei, L. Kovarik, B. Sudduth, H. Wang, F. Gao, Y. Wang, Single-facet dominant anatase TiO₂ (101) and (001) model catalysts to elucidate the active sites for alkanol dehydration, *ACS Catal.* 10 (2020) 4268–4279, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acscatal.9b04654>.
- [72] S. Songtawe, B. Rungtaweivoranit, C. Klaysom, K. Faungnawakij, Tuning Brønsted and Lewis acidity on phosphated titanium dioxides for efficient conversion of glucose to 5-hydroxymethylfurfural, *RSC Adv.* 11 (2021) 29196–29206, <https://doi.org/10.1039/D1RA06002C>.
- [73] T.N. Phan, H.-S. Kim, D.-H. Kim, C.H. Ko, Mesoporous titania as a support of gallium-based catalysts for enhanced ethane dehydrogenation performance, *Catal. Lett.* 151 (2021) 2748–2761, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-020-03521-4>.
- [74] A. Ausavasukhi, T. Sooknoi, D.E. Resasco, Catalytic deoxygenation of benzaldehyde over gallium-modified ZSM-5 zeolite, *J. Catal.* 268 (2009) 68–78, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2009.09.002>.
- [75] D. Zhao, T. Su, D. Rodríguez-Padrón, H. Lü, C. Len, R. Luque, Z. Yang, Efficient transfer hydrogenation of alkyl levulinates to γ-valerolactone catalyzed by simple Zr-TiO₂ metal oxide systems, *Mater. Today Chem.* 24 (2022) 100745, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mtchem.2021.100745>.
- [76] H. Zhu, Z. Qin, W. Shan, W. Shen, J. Wang, Pd/CeO₂-TiO₂ catalyst for CO oxidation at low temperature: a TPR study with H₂ and CO as reducing agents, *J. Catal.* 225 (2004) 267–277, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcat.2004.04.006>.
- [77] J. Liu, J. Yue, M. Lv, F. Wang, Y. Cui, Z. Zhang, G. Xu, From fundamentals to chemical engineering on oxidative coupling of methane for ethylene production: a review, *Carbon Resour. Convers.* 5 (2022) 1–14, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crcon.2021.11.001>.
- [78] K. Ishimaru, T. Hata, P. Bronsveld, T. Nishizawa, Y. Imamura, Characterization of sp²- and sp³-bonded carbon in wood charcoal, *J. Wood Sci.* 53 (2007) 442–448, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10086-007-0879-7>.
- [79] J. Jana, T. Van Phuc, J.S. Chung, W.M. Choi, S.H. Hur, Nano-dimensional carbon nanosphere supported non-precious metal oxide composite: a cathode material for sea water reduction, *Nanomaterials* 12 (2022) 4348, <https://doi.org/10.3390/nano12234348>.
- [80] I.V. Yentekakis, G. Goula, M. Hatzisymeon, I. Betsi-Argyropoulou, G. Botzolaki, K. Kousi, D.I. Kondarides, M.J. Taylor, C.M.A. Parlett, A. Osatiashtiani, G. Kyriakou, J.P. Holgado, R.M. Lambert, Effect of support oxygen storage capacity on the catalytic performance of Rh nanoparticles for CO₂ reforming of methane, *Appl. Catal. B: Environ.* 243 (2019) 490–501, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.10.048>.
- [81] M. Rezaei, S.M. Alavi, S. Sahebdehfar, Z.-F. Yan, Syngas production by methane reforming with carbon dioxide on noble metal catalysts, *J. Nat. Gas. Chem.* 15 (2006) 327–334, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1003-9953\(07\)60014-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1003-9953(07)60014-0).
- [82] C.H. Bartholomew, Mechanisms of catalyst deactivation, *Appl. Catal. A: Gen.* 212 (2001) 17–60, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-860X\(00\)00843-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0926-860X(00)00843-7).
- [83] B. Xu, T. Li, B. Zheng, W. Hua, Y. Yue, Z. Gao, Enhanced stability of HZSM-5 supported Ga₂O₃ catalyst in propane dehydrogenation by dealumination, *Catal. Lett.* 119 (2007) 283–288, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10562-007-9232-4>.