

Ultra-durable Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts for dry reforming of methane enabled by dynamic balance between carbon deposition and elimination

Haocheng Li

East China Normal University

Cong Hao

Xiamen University

Jingqing Tian

East China Normal University

Shuai Wang

Xiamen University <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4618-4162>

Chen Zhao (✉ czhao@chem.ecnu.edu.cn)

East China Normal University

Article

Keywords:

Posted Date: February 11th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1335282/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

1

2

3

4

5 **Ultra-durable Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts for dry**
6 **reforming of methane enabled by dynamic balance**
7 **between carbon deposition and elimination**

8

9 **Abstract**

10 Carbon deposition is the main cause for the catalyst deactivation of methane dry
11 reforming, and researchers are committed to exploring effective catalyst systems with
12 zero carbon deposition in order to achieve a practically long life-time. In this work, we
13 propose an equilibrium theory with matched rates of CH₄ dissociation and CO₂
14 activation to establish a balance between carbon deposition and carbon elimination, and
15 construct highly dispersed Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ alloy catalysts accordingly, where Ni
16 activated CH₄, MgAl₂O₄ adsorbed CO₂ to form surface carbonates, and Ir effectively
17 utilized the carbonates to eliminate carbon species generated by CH₄ dissociation.
18 Theoretical assessment further unveiled that the preferred CO₂ activation on Ir over Ni
19 is derived from its stronger oxophilicity. With an optimal Ni/Ir atomic ratio of 1/2, high
20 activity and long-period stability (600 h) with zero carbon deposition were obtained
21 concurrently for dry reforming of methane at industrially-relevant temperature (650 °C).
22

23 Introduction

24 Dry reforming of methane (DRM) is a primary method for producing syngas (a
25 mixture of CO and H₂) that acts as a key platform for the industrial production of fuels
26 and chemicals [1-5]. Among group VIII metals [6-10], low-cost Ni has drawn the most
27 attention for DRM because of its strong CH₄ dissociation ability, which endows Ni with
28 an excellent catalytic performance of DRM [11-15]. However, Ni-based catalysts suffer
29 from serious carbon deposition and metal sintering issues under the high-temperature
30 condition of DRM (700-1000 °C), which limits their large-scale application [16-20]. The
31 main causes of carbon deposition include the disproportionation of carbon monoxide
32 ($2 \text{ CO(g)} \rightleftharpoons \text{C(s)} + \text{CO}_2\text{(g)}$; $\Delta H = -171 \text{ kJ/mol}$) and the deep dissociation of methane
33 ($\text{CH}_4\text{(g)} \rightleftharpoons \text{C(s)} + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{(g)}$; $\Delta H = 75 \text{ kJ/mol}$), while the latter prevails at temperatures
34 above 600 °C [21].

35 Various methods have been attempted to suppress the carbon deposits in DRM. By
36 using supports rich in oxygen vacancies such as CeO₂ [22-24] or alkaline oxide supports
37 like MgO [25-26], CO₂ activation can be strengthened to accelerate the elimination of
38 carbon deposits. This enhances the redox property of the catalyst and inhibits the
39 development of carbon deposition [27, 28]. The accumulation and sintering of metallic Ni
40 at high temperatures (700-1000 °C) can result in the formation of larger Ni particles,
41 which promotes the carbon deposition [29]. The strong metal-support interaction (SMSI)
42 between metallic Ni and the hydroxyapatite [Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂] (HAP) support [30] was
43 found to enhance the dispersion of Ni particles and alleviate sintering and carbon
44 deposits concurrently. In addition, it was reported that decorating the Ni surface with
45 Co prevented the continuous formation of carbon nanotubes on the Ni surface [31]. The
46 redox recycling on Ni-Fe/Mg_xAl_yO_z catalysts, where metallic Fe was oxidized by CO₂
47 to form FeO_x and the adsorbed C atom obtained from the dissociation of CH₄ reduced
48 FeO_x back to Fe, can effectively eliminate carbon deposits [32]. Ni-Mo nanoparticles
49 were stabilized on the edge of a single MgO crystal to inhibit the particle sintering at
50 high temperatures and effectively prevent the generation of carbon deposits over a long
51 reaction period (850 h) [33].

52 The core issue for achieving practically-durable DRM catalysts with minimal
53 carbon deposition is to establish an efficient equilibrium between CH₄ dissociation and
54 CO₂ activation on the catalyst surface. In this work, we show that a highly efficient and
55 stable DRM system can be built on bimetallic Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts, brought forth
56 by a synergy between the CH₄ dissociation on Ni sites and MgAl₂O₄-enhanced CO₂
57 adsorption and activation on Ir sites that can scavenge surface carbon species generated
58 from the CH₄ dissociation step. Through in-situ spectroscopic characterization of the
59 generation and elimination of carbon species and theoretical calculations on the CO₂
60 activation, we propose an equilibrium mechanism of carbon generation and elimination
61 for designing the effective and durable catalysts for the DRM process.

62

63 **Results and discussion**

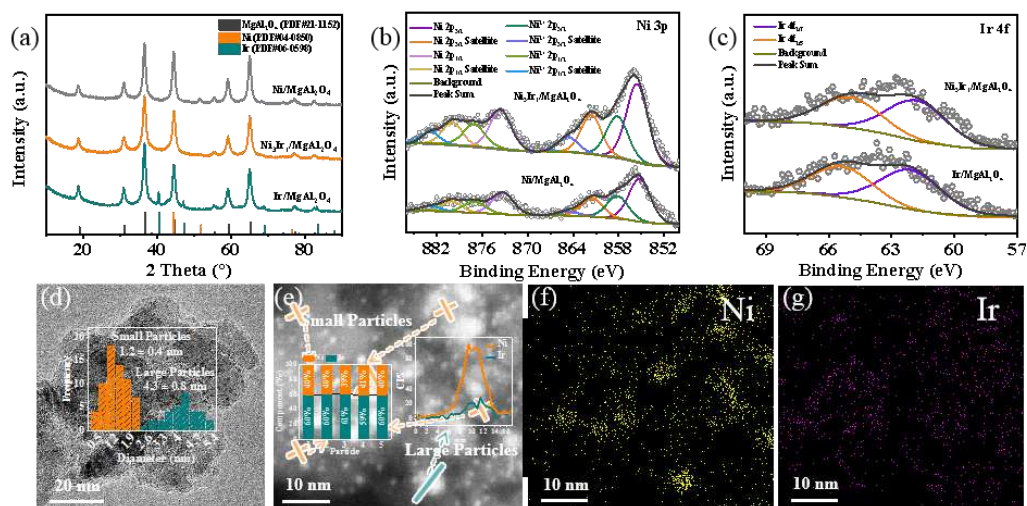
64 **Structural characterization of supported Ni-Ir catalysts**

65 MgAl₂O₄-supported Ni, Ni₃Ir₁, and Ir catalysts were synthesized using a
66 conventional co-impregnation method, and the surface areas of these catalysts were
67 126.0, 133.9, and 136.1 m²/g, respectively, as determined by nitrogen physical
68 adsorption (Fig. S1). X-ray diffraction (XRD) results (Fig. 1a) showed that the
69 diffraction peaks of metallic Ni for Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ had a much lower intensity
70 compared to the pure Ni catalyst. Similarly, compared with the pure Ir catalyst, the
71 diffraction peaks of Ir had a lower intensity for Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄. Such weakened
72 diffraction peaks for the Ni-Ir catalyst implies that the interaction of Ni and Ir increased
73 metal dispersion compared to the single-metal catalyst system. The Ni-Ir interaction is
74 further evidenced by a shift of the signal peaks of metallic Ir in the presence of Ni (e.g.,
75 from 40.46° to 40.92° for the Ir(111) plane and from 47.12° to 47.66° for the Ir (200)
76 plane, Fig. S2), consistent with the smaller atomic radius of Ni than Ir.

77 As shown in XPS profiles of Fig. 1b, the Ni⁰ 2p_{3/2} (855.2 eV) and Ni²⁺ 2p_{3/2} (858.2
78 eV) signals were observed for the Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst. The presence of Ni²⁺ cations
79 indicates the formation of NiAl₂O₄ species on the support surface during the synthesis
80 process. Compared with Ni/MgAl₂O₄, the Ni²⁺ content and binding energy position in

81 the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst changed minimally, while the Ni⁰ 2p_{3/2} signal increased to
82 858.6 eV (by 0.4 eV). In contrast, the binding energy of Ir⁰ 4f_{2/7} was 62.2 eV for the
83 pure Ir catalyst (Fig. 1c), 0.4 eV higher than that in the Ni₃Ir₁ catalyst (61.8 eV). With
84 respect to the monometallic Ni and Ir catalysts, these binding energy changes indicate
85 the electrons were transferred from Ni to Ir, suggesting the formation of Ni-Ir alloy in
86 the Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ system. Ni and Ir K-edge X-ray adsorption fine structure (XAFS)
87 spectroscopy was also used to identify the localized structure of the Ni-Ir alloy (Fig. S3,
88 Table S1), which shows the existence of Ni-Ir coordination bonds (2.63–2.65 Å) in the
89 Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst.

90 The structural information for the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst was further confirmed
91 by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS)
92 elemental mapping (Figs. 1d–g). The metal nanoparticles were uniformly dispersed on
93 the MgAl₂O₄ spinel support surface with a typical bimodal particle size distribution, for
94 which the corresponding average particle diameters were 1.2 and 4.3 nm and the smaller
95 particles were predominant. In contrast, the average diameters of metal particles for
96 Ir/MgAl₂O₄ and Ni/MgAl₂O₄ were 1.1 and 5.7 nm, respectively (Fig. S4). It is clearly
97 indicated that the formation of the Ni-Ir alloy improved the dispersion of Ni, consistent
98 with the XRD results shown above (Fig. 1a). In addition, the EDS analysis (Fig. 1e)
99 showed that the small particles in the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst possessed a higher
100 content of Ir (Ni/Ir \approx 2/3), while Ni dominated in the large particles (Ni/Ir \approx 4/1). The
101 uniform distributions of the Ni and Ir elements within each kind of the Ni-Ir particles
102 (Figs. 1f–g, S5) agree well with the formation of alloys in the Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst.
103 Taken together, XRD, XPS, XAFS, TEM, and EDS were combined to verify that Ni-Ir
104 alloys were formed in the bimetallic Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ system, which significantly
105 improved the dispersion of the Ni nanoparticles on the MgAl₂O₄ support and provided
106 a basis for the efficient coupling between CH₄ dissociation and CO₂ activation on the
107 Ni and Ir active sites, respectively, as demonstrated next for DRM.



108

109 Fig. 1 (a) XRD patterns of Ni/MgAl₂O₄, Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄, and Ir/MgAl₂O₄, (b) Ni 3p
 110 XPS patterns of Ni/MgAl₂O₄ and Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, (c) Ir 4f XPS patterns of
 111 Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and Ir/MgAl₂O₄, (d) HRTEM and particle size distribution of the metal
 112 nanoparticles, (e) EDS, and (f–g) EDS-mapping of Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄.

113

114 Catalytic performances of Ni-Ir catalysts in DRM

115 From the view of thermodynamics, the DRM process is favorable at high
 116 temperatures due to its endothermic nature. At medium to low temperatures (below
 117 700 °C), the impact of carbon deposits will be significant. The results for the
 118 Ni/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, and Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts are shown in Figs. 2a and S6
 119 (650 °C, GHSV = 40,000 mL·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, 1 bar). For the pure Ni catalyst, the initial
 120 conversion of CH₄ was 59.4% and decreased to 47.3% after 100 hours of testing, in
 121 which the corresponding conversion of CO₂ decreased from 71.5% to 61.6%. It is
 122 reflected that the Ni catalyst was not able to maintain a good stability during DRM,
 123 although its initial activity was high. For the Ir catalyst, the initial conversions of CH₄
 124 and CO₂ were only 50.2% and 63.6%, respectively, but the catalyst activity did not
 125 decrease significantly during the 100-hour test. For the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts, the
 126 conversions of CH₄ and CO₂ slightly decreased from 61.5% to 60.2% and 73.3% to
 127 72.8% during the 100-hour test, respectively, indicating the Ni-Ir alloy catalyst
 128 possessed both of high activity and improved stability. As shown in Table S2, we
 129 summarize the typical catalyst systems for DRM, and the Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ system

130 developed in our study had superior conversion rates of CH₄ and CO₂ than the state-of-
131 the-art catalysts [9, 34-41].

132 For the DRM test with different temperatures (600–800 °C, Fig. S7), the initial
133 conversion of CH₄ on the Ni, Ni₃Ir₁ and Ir catalysts increased with increasing
134 temperature from 42.1%, 46.8%, and 20.9% at 600 °C to 89.8%, 90.4%, and 90.2% at
135 800 °C, respectively. Although the three catalysts showed significant differences in
136 activity at the lower temperature, the gap decreased as the temperature increased until
137 the activity was almost identical at 800 °C. The ratio of H₂/CO in the syngas showed a
138 similar phenomenon, increasing from 0.67, 0.80, and 0.60 at 600°C to 0.96, 0.97, and
139 0.94 at 800 °C. It is suggested that DRM is preferred over the reverse water-gas shift
140 reaction (RWGS; CO₂ + H₂ → CO + H₂O) at temperatures above 600 °C, which leads
141 to an increase in the H₂/CO ratio and gradually approaches unity as the temperature
142 rises.

143 The different performances of the three catalysts in DRM may be directly related
144 to their intrinsic abilities for the adsorption and activation of the CH₄ and CO₂ reactants.
145 Kinetic studies (Figs. 2e–f) showed that the measured reaction order of CO₂ for
146 Ni/MgAl₂O₄ was 0.12, while for Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and Ir/MgAl₂O₄, the reaction order
147 values were –0.13 and –0.57, respectively. These data indicate the adsorption strength
148 of CO₂ on the three catalysts decreased with an order of Ir/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄,
149 and Ni/MgAl₂O₄. As shown below, DFT calculations unveil that the higher oxophilicity
150 of Ir than Ni accounts for the stronger CO₂ adsorption on Ir/MgAl₂O₄.

151 The measured reaction orders for CH₄ over the Ni, Ni₃Ir₁, and Ir catalysts were
152 –0.38, –0.50, and –1.14, respectively, indicating the dissociative adsorption of CH₄ on
153 Ir/MgAl₂O₄ was also the strongest among the three catalysts. This outstanding
154 adsorption ability of Ir made it difficult for the reactive species to desorb from the
155 catalyst surface, which limited the catalytic activity at medium to low temperatures. As
156 the temperature increased, the desorption of the reactive species became easier and the
157 catalytic activity of Ir/MgAl₂O₄ increased faster compared with the other two catalysts
158 as evidenced by the changes of CH₄ conversion with increasing temperature (Fig. S7).

159

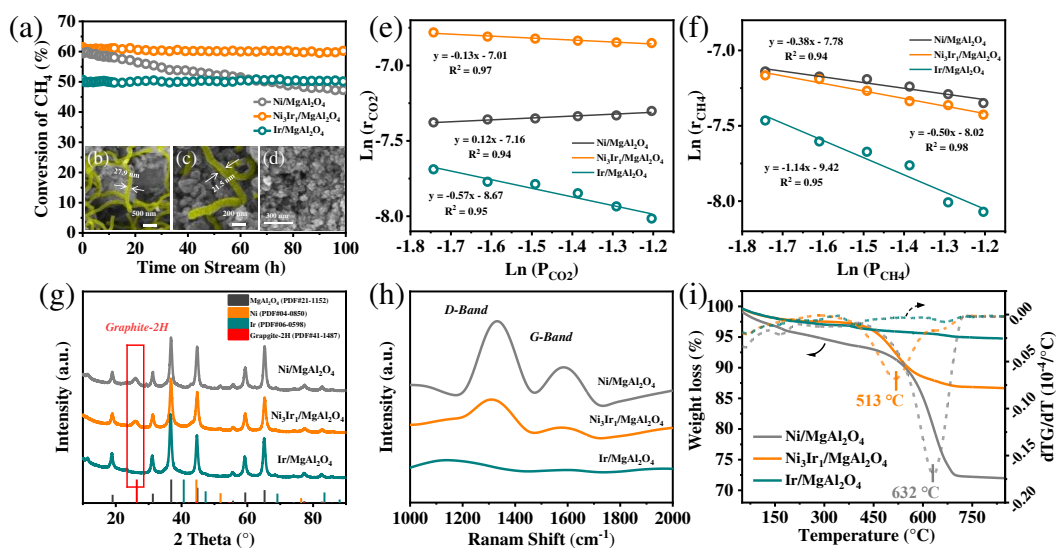
160 **Characterization of spent Ni-Ir catalysts**

161 It is generally accepted that carbon deposition is one of the main causes of catalyst
162 deactivation in DRM [16,18]. SEM images (Figs. 2b–d) of the spent catalysts clearly
163 showed the appearance of carbon deposits after the DRM reaction, which were
164 interlaced and attached to the catalyst surface, blocking contact between the active
165 metal site and the reactants and thus inhibiting the catalytic activity. Specifically,
166 Ni/MgAl₂O₄ had more carbon deposits than Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, and the carbon chains on
167 Ni/MgAl₂O₄ were longer and thicker than the latter, with average diameters of about
168 27.9 nm versus 21.5 nm. The carbon deposits also showed different morphologies for
169 each catalyst, presumably due to the different amount of carbon species provided for
170 the carbon chain growth for each catalyst. It is worth noting that the carbon deposition
171 was nearly negligible on the Ir catalyst (Fig. 2d), consistent with the high stability of
172 this catalyst for DRM.

173 XRD patterns of the spent Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst showed an obvious graphite-2H
174 signal ($2\theta = 25.9^\circ$), which is typical of amorphous carbon species produced in DRM
175 (Fig. 2g). The intensity of the graphite-2H signal for Ni₃Ir₁ was lower than that for Ni,
176 while this signal was not detectable on the Ir catalyst. Raman spectra of these spent
177 catalysts (Fig. 2h) showed peaks at 1334 and 1598 cm⁻¹ for both Ni and Ni₃Ir₁, which
178 were assigned to the D-band and G-band signals of carbon species. Although the peak
179 intensity of Ni was higher, the peak intensity ratios of the D-band and G-band signals
180 were similar between the two catalysts, indicating no significant differences in the types
181 of carbon deposits formed. For the spent Ir catalyst, no corresponding peaks were
182 observed, consistent with the XRD characterization. To quantify the amount of carbon
183 deposits formed on the spent catalysts, TGA analysis was conducted (Fig. 2i). No
184 significant weight loss was observed for the Ir catalyst during the TGA process, while
185 the Ni and Ni₃Ir₁ catalysts showed weight losses of 16.7% and 10.2%, respectively.
186 These data unambiguously reflect that the addition of Ir suppressed the formation of
187 carbon deposits in DRM.

188 TEM characterization was further applied to analyze the structure and morphology
189 of the spent catalysts after long-time reaction (Fig. S8). The average diameter of the Ni

190 nanoparticles on Ni/MgAl₂O₄ increased from 5.7 to 8.2 nm (5.7 nm for the fresh sample)
 191 after 100 hours of testing, indicative a severe sintering of the Ni particles at the
 192 condition of DRM. In contrast, the metal particle sizes of the spent Ni₃Ir₁ and Ir
 193 catalysts (1.2 and 4.1 nm for Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄; 1.1 nm for Ir/MgAl₂O₄) did not change
 194 significantly compared with the fresh ones. It is surmised that metallic Ir has a strong
 195 interaction with the MgAl₂O₄ support, which results in the smaller metal particles and
 196 stronger anti-sintering ability for the Ir-containing catalysts.



197
 198 Fig. 2 (a) CH₄ conversion on Ni/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, and Ir/MgAl₂O₄ (reaction
 199 conditions for the catalytic test: 650 °C, CH₄/CO₂=1/1, GHSV = 40,000 mL·g⁻¹·h⁻¹,
 200 and 1 bar); (e-f) kinetic analysis; (b-d) SEM images, (g) XRD patterns, (h) Raman
 201 spectra, (i) TGA, and of the spent catalysts.

202

203 In-situ DRIFTS study of DRM

204 Adsorption of CO₂ on the MgAl₂O₄ support can form carbonate species, which
 205 may promote the fixation and activation of CO₂ during the DRM. In-situ diffuse
 206 reflectance infrared fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) analysis showed that
 207 MgAl₂O₄ adsorbed CO₂ and converted it into carbonate species readily at 650 °C in a
 208 CO₂ atmosphere (Fig. S9a). TGA was further performed to assess the CO₂ adsorption
 209 capacity of MgAl₂O₄ (Fig. S9b), which was approximately 1.0 wt% at 650 °C. As the
 210 temperature decreased, the adsorption capacity of MgAl₂O₄ continued to increase, and

211 reached about 2.6 wt% at 50 °C. Although the adsorption capacity was not significant
212 at high temperatures, the adsorption and desorption of CO₂ occurred simultaneously
213 during the DRM process and could dynamically provide CO₂ for the active metal sites,
214 beneficial for the capture and utilization of gaseous CO₂.

215 To further ascertain the specific impact of carbonates on MgAl₂O₄ for DRM, in-
216 situ DRIFTS was employed to analyze the activation process through the step-by-step
217 introduction of CO₂-CH₄-CO₂ atmosphere. Within the first minute of introducing CO₂,
218 all the three catalysts showed vibrational peaks at 1643 and 1542 cm⁻¹ (attributed to
219 monodentate carbonate species [42-43]), indicating all the catalysts can adsorb CO₂ to
220 form carbonate (Fig. S10). Subsequently, the IR reactor cell was purged with Ar, and
221 CH₄ was introduced in the second stage. The in-situ DRIFTS spectra for the three
222 catalysts during the CH₄ stage are shown in Figs. 3a–c; the carbonate signals slowly
223 decreased over time and those for Ni/MgAl₂O₄ decreased faster than the other two
224 catalysts. It is worth noting that, at the beginning of the CH₄ stage for Ni/MgAl₂O₄, the
225 gaseous CO₂ signal initially increased and then slowly decreased; however, no gaseous
226 CO₂ was detectable on the other two catalysts. In addition, all the catalysts were
227 observed generating CO (twin peak at 2150 cm⁻¹), and the generation rate of CO was
228 relatively slow on the Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, with a noticeable CO signal observed only
229 after 1 minute of introducing CH₄, while the other catalysts showed obvious CO
230 formation upon the initiation of the stage.

231 In the third stage, we again used Ar to purge the residual CH₄ and then reintroduced
232 CO₂. The in-situ DRIFTS spectra of the catalysts during this stage again showed that
233 carbonate species were formed on the catalysts (Figs. 3d–f). This occurred more slowly
234 on the Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, requiring 2.5 minutes to reach carbonate species saturation
235 while on the other two catalysts, the saturation was reached after just 1 minute. Further,
236 the signal peak for gaseous CO only appeared for the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst.

237 Two distinct reaction pathways are proposed to explain the observed difference
238 during the in-situ DRIFTS experiments described above. The Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst
239 followed reaction path A (Fig. 3g). Namely, when CO₂ was first introduced, the
240 MgAl₂O₄ support adsorbed gaseous CO₂ and formed monodentate carbonate species

241 $(\text{CO}_2 (\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CO}_3^{2-}{}_{\text{ads}})$, thus allowing the carbonate species to reach saturation. When
242 CH_4 was introduced in the second stage, it was dissociated on the active metal sites,
243 forming surface CH_x^* ($x = 0-3$) species ($\text{CH}_4 (\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{H}^* + \text{CH}_x^*$), which continued to
244 accumulate and form carbon deposits. The carbonate species on MgAl_2O_4 cannot be
245 used by the active Ni sites directly, while it can decompose into gaseous CO_2 ($\text{CO}_3^{2-}{}_{\text{ads}}$
246 $\rightarrow \text{CO}_2 (\text{g})$) again, which then adsorbed on the active Ni sites and further reacted with
247 CH_x^* to form CO^* ($\text{CO}_2^* + \text{CH}_x^* \rightarrow 2\text{CO} (\text{g}) + x/2 \text{H}_2$). CO^* was finally released from
248 the catalyst surface to form gaseous CO. Therefore, when CH_4 was introduced during
249 the second stage, CO was not produced until sufficient carbonate was consumed to
250 generate CO_2 . Only easily eliminated carbon species were activated and removed by
251 the reaction with CO_2 released by the support in the second stage, leaving the catalyst
252 surface covered by the recalcitrant carbon chains produced by overgrowth. Since Ni
253 could not effectively activate and utilize CO_2 to eliminate the carbon chains, when CO_2
254 was reintroduced in the third stage, only the accumulation of carbonate species on the
255 support occurred without the formation of CO.

256 In contrast to $\text{Ni/MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$, the $\text{Ir/MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$ catalyst followed reaction path B (Fig.
257 3h). The difference was that the Ir active sites could directly use and activate the
258 carbonate species on the support, eliminating the CH_x^* and forming gaseous CO ($\text{CO}_3^{2-}{}_{\text{ads}}$
259 $+ \text{CH}_x^* \rightarrow \text{CO} (\text{g})$). The carbonate species did not have to decompose into $\text{CO}_2 (\text{g})$
260 to be reused, therefore there was a large amount of CO formed without obvious CO_2
261 formation. The direct utilization of carbonate on the Ir based catalysts increased the
262 utilization rate of carbonate species, resulting in a slower rate of consumption compared
263 to route A. Compared with Ni, Ir had an insufficient ability to activate CH_4 , therefore
264 the carbonate species that adsorbed on the surface of MgAl_2O_4 in the first stage was
265 sufficient to eliminate the CH_x^* generated during the second stage, which resulted in
266 no CO formation in the third stage. We also increased the time for CH_4 introduction in
267 the second stage of the $\text{Ir/MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$ catalyst to ensure that enough CH_x^* were generated.
268 After CO_2 was introduced again, gaseous CO signals appeared indicating that the
269 $\text{Ir/MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$ catalyst could reduce the carbon species and CO_2 to CO (Fig. S11).

270 The $\text{Ni}_3\text{Ir}_1/\text{MgAl}_2\text{O}_4$ catalyst also followed reaction path B. Due to the presence

271 of Ni, the dissociation ability of CH₄ was better than the Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, therefore
272 CH_x* species were not completely eliminated and grew into carbon chains in the second
273 stage. In the third stage, gaseous CO formed in addition to the carbonate but was slower
274 because the carbonate was not saturated during the initial stage of CO₂ introduction.
275 With saturation of the carbonate species, the formation rate of gaseous CO increased
276 accordingly, which further confirmed that carbonate was used as a bridge to adsorb and
277 convert CO₂ rather than directly utilize gaseous CO₂. Both the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and
278 Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts generated carbon species, which grew into carbon chains in the
279 second stage. However, in the third stage, only the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst following
280 path B eliminated the carbon species completely and formed gaseous CO. This suggests
281 that path B was more beneficial to the activation of CO₂ and the elimination of carbon
282 species.

283 To verify the unique roles of MgAl₂O₄ in the DRM, an Ir/Al₂O₃ catalyst was
284 further characterized by the in-situ DRIFTS experiment (Fig. S12). When CO₂ was
285 introduced in the first stage, no carbonate species formed and only obvious gaseous
286 CO₂ signal peaks appeared. In the second stage, no gaseous CO signal peak appeared
287 during the introduction of CH₄, because the carbon species were eliminated in a CH₄
288 atmosphere without carbonates formed on the support surface. The third stage was the
289 same as the second stage, with no obvious gaseous CO signal peaks. Although carbon
290 species were produced by the activation of CH₄ (TPSR-MS, in-situ DRIFTS) in the
291 second stage, Ir weakly utilized gaseous CO₂ to eliminate carbon species, and only a
292 small amount of carbon species which had not continued to grow was further activated,
293 forming a small amount of CO. Therefore, only the Ir-CO signal (2000 cm⁻¹) was
294 observed on the Ir catalyst, and the amount of gaseous CO did not reach the detection
295 limit. This proves that the carbonate formed on the MgAl₂O₄ support played a key role
296 in the effective removal of carbon by Ir during the DRM.

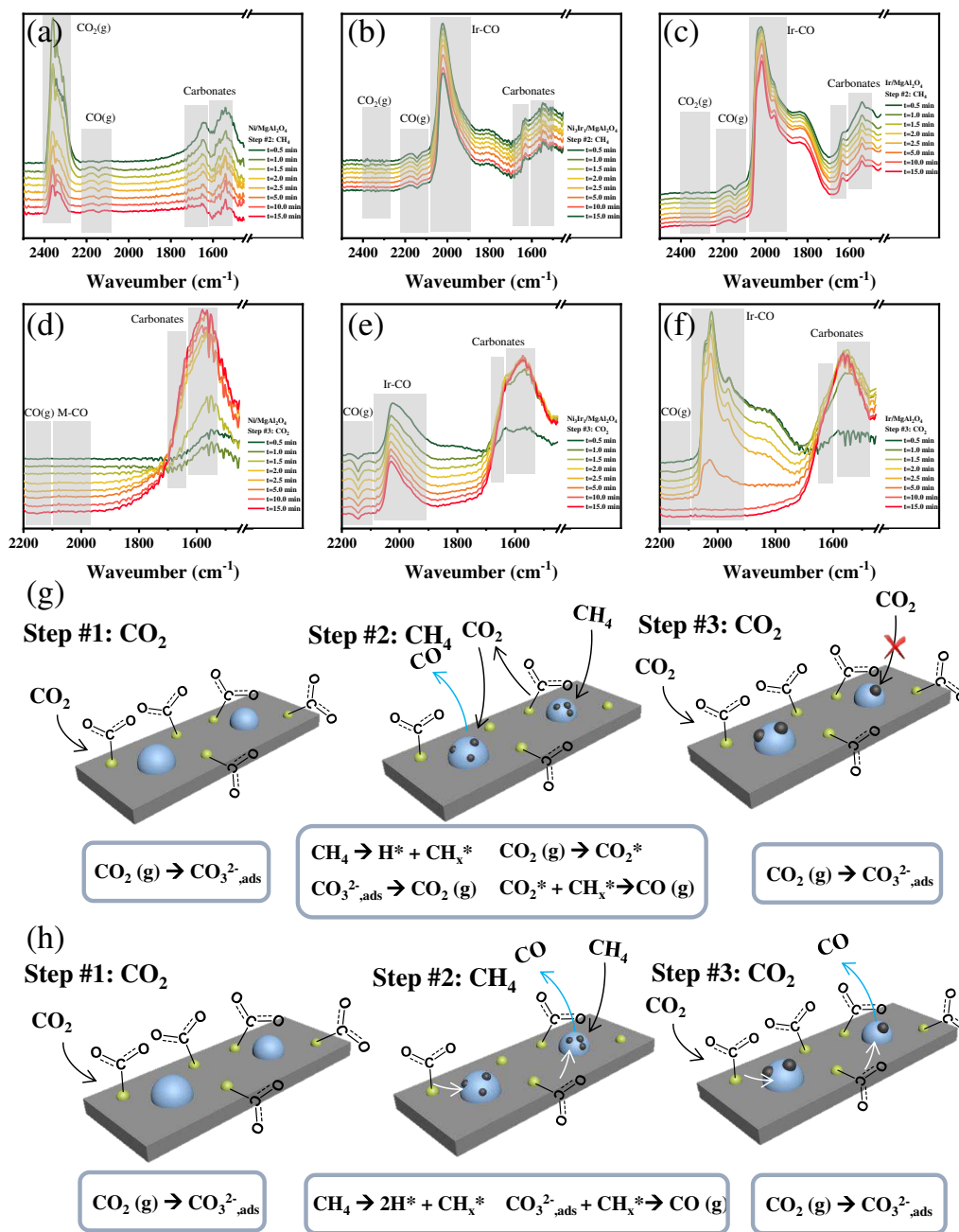
297 In order to further explore the adsorption and activation ability of CO₂ on different
298 catalysts, the catalysts were characterized with temperature programmed desorption of
299 CO₂ (CO₂-TPD) showed a signal peak appeared only at 614 °C on MgAl₂O₄, and the
300 peak position of Ni/MgAl₂O₄ was similar to that of MgAl₂O₄, but with a lower intensity

301 (Fig. S13). For Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, in addition to a peak appeared at 621 °C (similar to the
302 support), there were peaks at 778 and 873 °C, and the peaks at 621 °C and 809 °C were
303 present for Ir/MgAl₂O₄. This was because Ir had better dispersion and CO₂ could be
304 effectively adsorbed and utilized at the Ir-MgAl₂O₄ interface, while the Ni-MgAl₂O₄
305 interface has no effect on CO₂ adsorption. This further supports the findings from the
306 kinetics studies and in-situ DRIFTS, which Ir sites impacted adsorption and activation
307 of CO₂ and restricted carbon deposits during the DRM.

308

309

310



311

312 Fig. 3 In-situ DRIFTS with (a-c) introduction of CH₄ in the second stage, (d-f)

313 introduction of CO₂ in the third stage of Ni/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, Ir/MgAl₂O₄, the

314 schematic diagram of the mechanism to activate CO₂ (g) with the help of carbonate and

315 (h) without the help of carbonate.

316

317 **TPSR-MS analysis of the activation of methane and the elimination of carbon**

318 **deposits**

319

The activation and dissociation of CH₄ is the main cause of carbon deposition

320 during DRM. Temperature programmed surface reaction-mass (TPSR-MS) was used to
321 explore the activation ability of CH₄ during the DRM process. First, CH₄ was
322 introduced during the temperature-programming process (Figs. S14a and S15). The
323 Ni/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, and Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts exhibited CH₄ activation
324 abilities at 289, 328, and 347 °C, respectively. The carbon species generated by the
325 dissociation of CH₄ blocked the active sites, restricting the activation of CH₄. This
326 caused the CH₄ activation ability to decrease at 490, 610, and 590 °C, respectively. This
327 indicates that Ni was better than Ir for dissociation of CH₄, and the dissociation rate
328 increased with raising temperature.

329 Subsequently, TPSR-MS was performed on the catalysts after CH₄ treatment to
330 explore how the different catalytic systems eliminate carbon deposits in a CO₂
331 atmosphere (Fig. S14b). Overall, the carbon removal temperature on Ni/MgAl₂O₄ was
332 higher than that on Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and Ir/MgAl₂O₄, which confirmed the
333 Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts had stronger carbon removal abilities. The
334 Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst had a relatively small amount of activated CH₄ due to the blockage
335 of active sites at lower temperatures, and the amount of carbon deposits and the
336 resulting peak area were both relatively small. The above results show that
337 Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ and Ir/MgAl₂O₄ which followed path B had advantages in the process
338 of activating CO₂ and removing carbon species.

339 Raman spectra of the catalysts treated with CH₄ showed that all of them had D-
340 band and G-band carbon peaks (Fig. S16) and the carbon content followed Ni-Ir > Ir >
341 Ni, which was consistent with the TPSR-MS-CO₂ results. In addition, the ratio of the
342 D-band to the G-band indicated that the catalysts formed the same type of carbon
343 species upon the dissociation of CH₄. The different temperatures for CO₂ removal
344 reflect the difference in the activation mechanism of CO₂ as described in the previous
345 section.

346

347 **Theoretical assessment of CO₂ activation on supported metal catalyst**

348 As shown above, the activation of CO₂ over metal surface is critical for the
349 efficient removal of carbon deposits during DRM. DFT calculations were further

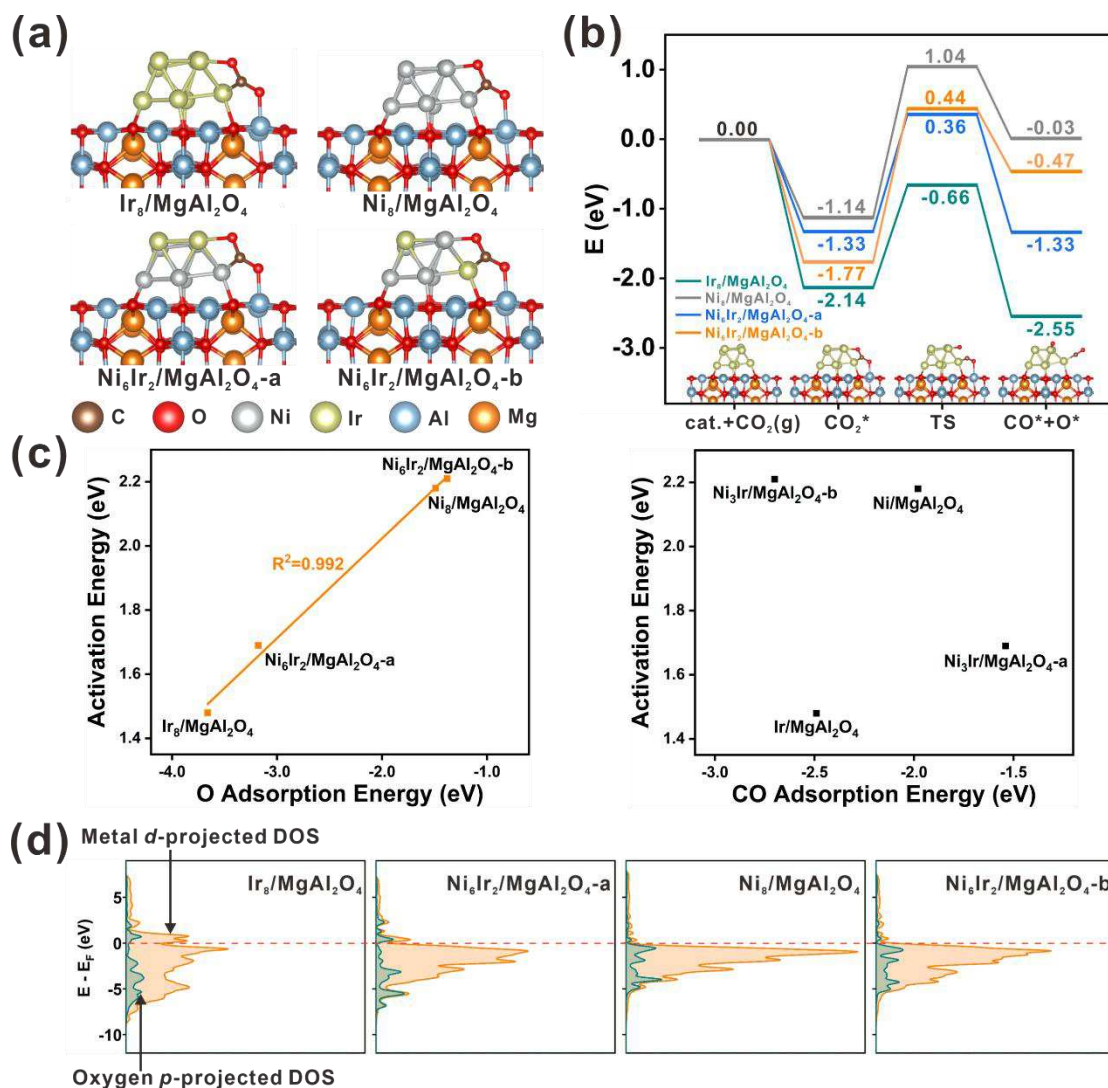
350 performed to understand the difference between Ir and Ni on CO₂ activation at a
351 molecular level. Herein, a Ni₈ cluster, a Ir₈ cluster, and two Ni₆Ir₂ clusters with distinct
352 configurations (denoted as Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-a and Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-b) were constructed
353 on a MgAl₂O₄ (100) surface for modeling the Ir/MgAl₂O₄, Ni/MgAl₂O₄ and
354 Ni₃Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts, respectively (Fig. 4a). Previous studies indicate that such M₈
355 (M = metal) clusters were sufficient to reflect the characteristic of supported metal
356 nanoparticles. [44-45]

357 Considering that the elimination of carbon deposits during DRM mainly depends
358 on the active O* species generated from CO₂ dissociation [46-50], we therefore focused
359 on the adsorption and dissociation processes of CO₂ at the metal-support interface. As
360 shown in Fig. 4b, CO₂ adsorption was much stronger on Ir₈/MgAl₂O₄ than
361 Ni₈/MgAl₂O₄ (-2.14 eV vs -1.14 eV), consistent with the in-situ DRIFTS experiments.
362 For Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄, the adsorption energy of CO₂ was between those for the Ir₈ and
363 Ni₈ clusters, no matter the C atom of the adsorbed CO₂ on the Ni₆Ir₂ clusters was bound
364 to the Ni site (i.e., Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-a; -1.33 eV) or the Ir site (i.e., Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-b; -
365 1.77 eV).

366 DFT calculations showed that the CO₂ dissociation (CO₂* → CO* + O*, Fig. 4b)
367 at the Ir₈/MgAl₂O₄ interface was exothermic by -0.41 eV with an activation barrier of
368 1.48 eV, which was considerably lower than that on Ni₈/MgAl₂O₄ interface (2.18 eV).
369 The difference of the activation barrier for CO₂ dissociation indicates, compared with
370 the Ni₈ cluster, the generation of O* species on the Ir₈ cluster was much more efficient,
371 rendering a fast elimination of carbon deposits and thus a high catalyst stability during
372 DRM. For the two Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄ models, CO₂ was dissociated on Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-a
373 with the formed CO* species bound to a Ni site via a C-Ni coronation and the formed
374 O* atom bound to a vicinal Ir site, while these two moieties formed on Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-
375 b were bound to the Ni and Ir sites inversely. CO₂ dissociation on Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-a
376 showed a much lower activation barrier than that for Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-b (1.69 vs. 2.21
377 eV, Fig. 4b), further reflecting different stabilities of the incipiently formed CO* and
378 O* species at the transition state (TS) of CO₂ dissociation on the Ir and Ni sites (TS
379 structures shown in Fig. S17).

380 In order to unveil the determining factors on the activity of CO₂ dissociation,
381 adsorption energies for O atom and CO on the supported M₈ clusters were calculated
382 independently to compare the stabilities of these two species on different metal sites.
383 As shown in Fig. 4c, the CO₂ dissociation barrier presented a nearly linear correlation
384 with the O adsorption energy, while no apparent correlation was observed between the
385 CO₂ dissociation barrier and the CO adsorption energy. These data clearly imply that
386 the activity of CO₂ dissociation is mainly determined by the stabilization of the O*
387 species at the TS, which prefers the Ir site over the Ni site.

388 The projected density of states (DOS) distributions of adsorbed O and M₈ clusters
389 were further analyzed (Fig. 4d) to obtain a deeper understanding of the higher oxygen
390 affinity of Ir. It is found that the antibonding states of O_{2p} became more populated in
391 the trend of Ir₈/MgAl₂O₄, Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-a, Ni₈/MgAl₂O₄ and Ni₆Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄-b,
392 accounting for the decrease of the stability of the O* species and the increase of the
393 CO₂ dissociation barrier with this trend. Accordingly, the excellent stability of
394 Ir/MgAl₂O₄ and Ni₃Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts during DRM is attributable to their stronger
395 oxophilicity derived from metal Ir.



396

397 Fig. 4 (a) Four M₈/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst models applied in the theoretical calculations of
 398 DRM (with CO₂ adsorbed on the metal clusters). (b) DFT-derived energy changes of
 399 CO₂ dissociative adsorption on M₈/MgAl₂O₄. (c) Correlations of the CO₂ activation
 400 barrier with the adsorption energies of O-atom and CO on M₈/MgAl₂O₄. (d) Local
 401 density of states projected onto the adsorbed oxygen 2p state and M₈ cluster d state for
 402 the oxygen chemisorption on M₈/MgAl₂O₄.

403

404 Mechanism of carbon deposits-elimination balance in DRM and its application

405 With respect to the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, Ni mainly played the role of
 406 dissociating CH₄, while MgAl₂O₄ not only acted as the support of the active metal sites,
 407 but also adsorbed CO₂, forming carbonate species to enrich CO₂. These carbonate
 408 species could be effectively activated by Ir to eliminate carbon species and inhibit

409 carbon deposition. Since the main activation sites of CH₄ and CO₂ were different (Ni
410 for CH₄; Ir for CO₂), the ratios of Ni and Ir atoms can greatly modulate the activation
411 rates of CH₄ and CO₂.

412 During the DRM process, although the Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ system had more carbon
413 deposits, it maintained high stability. Interestingly, the formed carbon deposits seemed
414 to have no effect on the catalytic activity. Therefore, carbon deposits formed on the
415 catalysts along with the reaction were examined (Fig. 5a). We found that Ni/MgAl₂O₄
416 had a faster rate of carbon deposition at the beginning and steadily increased. Further,
417 as the carbon deposits increased, carbon chains blocked the contact between the active
418 metal site and CH₄. The reduction in the amount of active sites for CH₄ dissociation led
419 to a decrease in the rate of carbon deposition and DRM activity. In contrast, the
420 Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst did not form carbon deposits during the 100-hour test, while carbon
421 deposits increased within the first 20 hours for Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, which was then
422 stabilized with no significant additional increase until 100 hours.

423 Accordingly, we proposed a carbon deposits-elimination balance mechanism (Fig.
424 5b). With excessive Ni, the activation rate of CH₄ would be faster than that for CO₂,
425 and the dissociated carbon species would not be eliminated in time, leading to the
426 generation of carbon deposits. This type of carbon deposition occurred on Ni, the site
427 activated by CH₄, which would block some of the Ni active sites. With a decrease in
428 the Ni active sites, the activation rate of CH₄ decreased, resulting in a balance in the
429 activation rate of CH₄ and CO₂. Similarly, excessive carbon deposits led to higher
430 activation rates for CO₂ than CH₄, leading to the elimination of carbon deposits and
431 exposing the Ni active sites previously covered. This caused the activation rate of CH₄
432 to increase until it matched that for CO₂ activation.

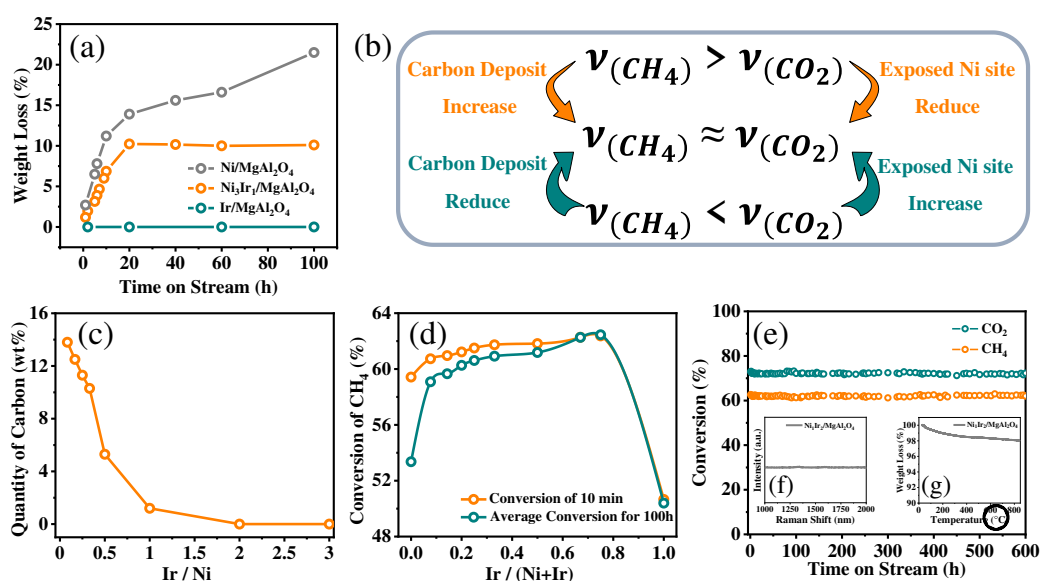
433 In the long-term test, this system gradually approached equilibrium until $v(\text{CH}_4)$
434 $\approx v(\text{CO}_2)$ ($v(\text{CH}_4)$: the activation rate of CH₄; $v(\text{CO}_2)$: the activation rate of CO₂). This
435 was also why numerous carbon deposits were observed in the Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalytic
436 system, but the effect on the catalytic activity was minimal. As $v(\text{CH}_4)$ approached
437 $v(\text{CO}_2)$, the carbon deposits would no longer increase, but the existing carbon deposits
438 would not be eliminated. In other words, the system achieved a balance between carbon

439 deposition and elimination, and the overall reactivity was determined by the activation
440 of CO₂. Over the Ni/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, the dissociation of CH₄ and the activation of
441 CO₂ occurred at the same active site, which did not follow this mechanism; thus, carbon
442 deposits increased throughout the test. For the Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄ catalyst, the Ni sites
443 were reduced sufficiently such that the reaction system reached $v(\text{CH}_4) \approx v(\text{CO}_2)$
444 equilibrium after 20 hours.

445 Based on these results, Ni-Ir/MgAl₂O₄ catalysts were prepared with different Ni/Ir
446 ratios for a 100-hour test to assess carbon deposition (Figs. 5c–d, S18–S19). With an
447 increase in the Ir content from Ni/Ir = 12/1 to 1/3, the initial CH₄ conversion of the
448 catalyst increased from 60.7% to 62.5%, and the average conversion of CH₄ increased
449 from 59.1% to 62.4%. With increasing the Ir content, the activity and stability both
450 increased. When the Ir/Ni ratio was 2, both of the initial and average conversions
451 reached the highest level, and there was no further impact with an additional increase
452 of the Ir content. In addition, the carbon deposits decreased from 14.2 wt% (Ni/Ir =
453 12/1) to 0 wt% (Ir/Ni = 2), and no carbon deposition occurred with further increasing
454 the Ir content. This was because the increased Ir content brought more catalytic sites
455 for CO₂ activation, allowing the system to reach the equilibrium between carbon
456 deposition and elimination faster. Therefore, while maintaining high activity, the
457 amount of carbon deposits was regularly reduced during the test. As the number of CO₂
458 activation sites increased, the activity of the rate-determining step in the reaction
459 increased, and the system exhibited higher activity. This result was consistent with the
460 balance theory, as when Ir/Ni = 2, $v(\text{CO}_2)$ matched $v(\text{CH}_4)$ during the initial stage of
461 the test. Therefore, the carbon deposition was almost negligible, with almost no
462 differences between the initial activity and the average activity of the reaction,
463 indicating an extremely high stability of the catalytic system.

464 We anticipated that a match between $v(\text{CO}_2)$ and $v(\text{CH}_4)$ in the initial state of the
465 reaction by tuning the Ni-Ir relative contents would achieve a balance between the
466 generation and elimination of carbon deposits, leading to a DRM catalytic system with
467 zero carbon deposits. Because Ir is a precious metal, it was necessary to reduce the Ir
468 content as much as possible. As shown in Figs. 5c–d, the Ir/Ni ratio of 2 was found as

469 the best catalyst ratio. We then conducted a 600 hours long-time test under the
 470 conditions of 650 °C, GHSV = 40,000 mL·g⁻¹·h⁻¹, and 1 bar (Fig. 5e). The initial
 471 conversion rates of CH₄ and CO₂ were 62.67 % and 72.94 %, respectively, with no
 472 significant change in activity after 600 hours. Raman spectra of the spent catalyst
 473 showed no obvious signal peaks for amorphous carbon at 1334 cm⁻¹ or 1598 cm⁻¹ (Fig.
 474 5f). In addition, no significant weight loss was observed from TGA (Fig. 5g). These
 475 results confirmed that no obvious carbon deposition occurred on the catalyst, consistent
 476 with the results of the catalytic system optimized based on our proposed theory.



477

478 Fig. 5 (a) Relationship between carbon deposits and time on stream for Ni/MgAl₂O₄,
 479 Ni₃Ir₁/MgAl₂O₄, and Ir/MgAl₂O₄, (b) schematic diagram of the balance theory in DRM,
 480 (c) weight percent of carbon deposits from spent catalysts with varying Ir/Ni ratios, (d)
 481 relationship between the Ir content and catalytic activity, (e) catalytic performance
 482 during a long-term test of Ni₁Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄ for DRM, (f) Raman spectra, and (g) TGA
 483 of the spent catalysts after the long-term test of DRM.

484

485 Conclusions

486 Dry reforming of methane (DRM) to generate syngas can serve as a bridge for the
 487 high-volume utilization of greenhouse gases and synthesis of industrial platform
 488 molecules. The core of the stable DRM reaction is the equilibrium between efficient
 489 CH₄ dissociation and CO₂ activation. We designed and constructed an ultra-stable Ni-

490 Ir/MgAl₂O₄ alloy system for DRM showing high activity, where Ni played the role of
491 activating CH₄ and MgAl₂O₄ adsorbed CO₂ to form carbonate species that can be
492 effectively utilized by Ir to eliminate carbon species generated from CH₄ activation on
493 Ni. Based on the feature of Ni, Ir and MgAl₂O₄, we proposed a balance mechanism
494 between the active sites and the carbon deposits-eliminations over Ni₁Ir₂/MgAl₂O₄
495 catalytic system, which achieved equilibrium of $v(\text{CH}_4) \approx v(\text{CO}_2)$ at the beginning of
496 the reaction, and effectively inhibited the generation of carbon deposits while
497 maintaining high activity and stability. This deeper understanding of the relationship
498 among the activity of CH₄ dissociation, CO₂ activation, and carbon deposition-
499 elimination would inspire new ideas on the rational design and development of novel
500 catalysts for activation of inert C₁ molecules.

501

502 References

- 503 1 Emiel de Smit, E. & Weckhuysen, B. M. The renaissance of iron-based Fischer-Tropsch
504 synthesis: on the multifaceted catalyst deactivation behaviour. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **37**, 2758-2781,
505 doi:10.1039/b805427d (2008).
- 506 2 Xiong, H., Jewell, L. L. & Coville, N. J. Shaped Carbons As Supports for the Catalytic
507 Conversion of Syngas to Clean Fuels. *ACS Catal.* **5**, 2640-2658, doi:10.1021/acscatal.5b00090
508 (2015).
- 509 3 Chen, Y. *et al.* Sintered precipitated iron catalysts with enhanced fragmentation-resistance
510 ability for Fischer-Tropsch synthesis to lower olefins. *Catal. Sci. Technol.* **8**, 5943-5954,
511 doi:10.1039/c8cy01392f (2018).
- 512 4 Chen, Y. *et al.* Ruthenium silica nanoreactors with varied metal-wall distance for efficient
513 control of hydrocarbon distribution in Fischer-Tropsch synthesis. *J. Catal.* **365**, 429-439,
514 doi:10.1016/j.jcat.2018.06.023 (2018).
- 515 5 Andrei Y. K., Wei C. & Pascal F. Advances in the Development of Novel Cobalt
516 Fischer-Tropsch Catalysts for Synthesis of Long-Chain Hydrocarbons and Clean Fuels. *Chem.*
517 *Rev.* **107**, 5, 1692-1744, doi:org/10.1021/cr050972v (2017).
- 518 6 Yentekakis, I. V. *et al.* Effect of support oxygen storage capacity on the catalytic performance
519 of Rh nanoparticles for CO₂ reforming of methane. *Appl. Catal. B-Environ.* **243**, 490-501,
520 doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.10.048 (2019).
- 521 7 Zhang, Y. *et al.* Ru/TiO₂ Catalysts with Size-Dependent Metal/Support Interaction for Tunable
522 Reactivity in Fischer-Tropsch Synthesis. *ACS Catal.* **10**, 12967-12975,
523 doi:10.1021/acscatal.0c02780 (2020).
- 524 8 Zhang, J.-C. *et al.* Robust Ruthenium-Saving Catalyst for High-Temperature Carbon Dioxide
525 Reforming of Methane. *ACS Catal.* **10**, 783-791, doi:10.1021/acscatal.9b03709 (2019).
- 526 9 Singha, R. K., Shukla, A., Sandupatla, A., Deo, G. & Bal, R. Synthesis and catalytic activity of
527 a Pd doped Ni-MgO catalyst for dry reforming of methane. *J. Mater. Chem. A* **5**, 15688-15699,
528 doi:10.1039/c7ta04452f (2017).
- 529 10 Kobayashi, T., Furuya, T., Fujitsuka, H. & Tago, T. Synthesis of Birdcage-type zeolite
530 encapsulating ultrafine Pt nanoparticles and its application in dry reforming of methane. *Chem.*
531 *Eng. J.* **377**, doi:10.1016/j.cej.2018.10.140 (2019).
- 532 11 Rodriguez, J. A., Grinter, D. C., Liu, Z., Palomino, R. M. & Senanayake, S. D. Ceria-based
533 model catalysts: fundamental studies on the importance of the metal-ceria interface in CO
534 oxidation, the water-gas shift, CO₂ hydrogenation, and methane and alcohol reforming. *Chem.*
535 *Soc. Rev.* **46**, 1824-1841, doi:10.1039/c6cs00863a (2017).
- 536 12 Muraleedharan Nair, M. & Kaliaguine, S. Structured catalysts for dry reforming of methane.
537 *New J. Chem.* **40**, 4049-4060, doi:10.1039/c5nj03268g (2016).
- 538 13 Li, S. & Gong, J. Strategies for improving the performance and stability of Ni-based catalysts
539 for reforming reactions. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **43**, 7245-7256, doi:10.1039/c4cs00223g (2014).
- 540 14 Tian, J., Ma, B., Bu, S., Yuan, Q. & Zhao, C. One-pot synthesis of highly sintering- and coking-
541 resistant Ni nanoparticles encapsulated in dendritic mesoporous SiO₂ for methane dry reforming.
542 *Chem. Commun. (Camb)* **54**, 13993-13996, doi:10.1039/c8cc08284g (2018).
- 543 15 Tian, J. *et al.* Facile immobilization of Ni nanoparticles into mesoporous MCM-41 channels for
544 efficient methane dry reforming. *Chinese J. Catal.* **40**, 1395-1404, doi:10.1016/s1872-

- 2067(19)63403-0 (2019).
- 546 16 Pakhare, D. & Spivey, J. A review of dry (CO₂) reforming of methane over noble metal catalysts.
547 *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **43**, 7813-7837, doi:10.1039/c3cs60395d (2014).
- 548 17 Ochoa, A. *et al.* Deactivation dynamics of a Ni supported catalyst during the steam reforming
549 of volatiles from waste polyethylene pyrolysis. *Appl. Catal. B-Environ.* **209**, 554-565,
550 doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2017.02.015 (2017).
- 551 18 Lisiane V. M., Gary J., Burtron H. D. & Fábio B. N. Production of Hydrogen from Ethanol:
552 Review of Reaction Mechanism and Catalyst Deactivation. *Chem. Rev.* **112**, 7, 4096-4123, doi:
553 org/10.1021/cr2000114 (2012).
- 554 19 Saib, A. M. *et al.* Fundamental understanding of deactivation and regeneration of cobalt
555 Fischer–Tropsch synthesis catalysts. *Catal. Today* **154**, 271-282,
556 doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2010.02.008 (2010).
- 557 20 Tsakoumis, N. E., Rønning, M., Borg, Ø., Rytter, E. & Holmen, A. Deactivation of cobalt based
558 Fischer–Tropsch catalysts: A review. *Catal. Today* **154**, 162-182,
559 doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2010.02.077 (2010).
- 560 21 Wang, C. *et al.* Coking and deactivation of a mesoporous Ni–CaO–ZrO₂ catalyst in dry
561 reforming of methane: A study under different feeding compositions. *Fuel* **143**, 527-535,
562 doi:10.1016/j.fuel.2014.11.097 (2015).
- 563 22 Wang, F. *et al.* Enhanced catalytic performance of Ir catalysts supported on ceria-based solid
564 solutions for methane dry reforming reaction. *Catal. Today* **281**, 295-303,
565 doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2016.03.055 (2017).
- 566 23 Mortola VB, Damyanova S, Zanchet D, Bueno JMC. Surface and structural features of Pt/CeO₂-
567 La₂O₃-Al₂O₃ catalysts for partial oxidation and steam reforming of methane. *Appl. Catal. B-
568 Environ.* **107**, 221-236, doi: 10.1016/j.apcatb.2011.07.012 (2011).
- 569 24 Jeong D-W, Potdar HS, Shim J-O, Jang W-J, Roh H-S. H₂ production from a single stage water–
570 gas shift reaction over Pt/CeO₂, Pt/ZrO₂, and Pt/Ce_(1-x)Zr_(x)O₂ catalysts. *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy*
571 **38**, 4502-4507, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2013.01.200 (2013)
- 572 25 Alipour, Z., Rezaei, M. & Meshkani, F. Effect of Ni loadings on the activity and coke formation
573 of MgO-modified Ni/Al₂O₃ nanocatalyst in dry reforming of methane. *J. Energy Chem.* **23**, 633-
574 638, doi:10.1016/s2095-4956(14)60194-7 (2014).
- 575 26 Jabbour, K., Massiani, P., Davidson, A., Casale, S. & El Hassan, N. Ordered mesoporous “one-
576 pot” synthesized Ni-Mg(Ca)-Al₂O₃ as effective and remarkably stable catalysts for combined
577 steam and dry reforming of methane (CSDRM). *Appl. Catal. B-Environ.* **201**, 527-542,
578 doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2016.08.009 (2017).
- 579 27 Ay, H. & Üner, D. Dry reforming of methane over CeO₂ supported Ni, Co and Ni–Co catalysts.
580 *Appl. Catal. B-Environ.* **179**, 128-138, doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2015.05.013 (2015).
- 581 28 Faria, E. C., Neto, R. C. R., Colman, R. C. & Noronha, F. B. Hydrogen production through CO₂
582 reforming of methane over Ni/CeZrO₂/Al₂O₃ catalysts. *Catal. Today* **228**, 138-144,
583 doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2013.10.058 (2014).
- 584 29 Jin-Hong Kim, Dong Jin Suh, Tae-Jin Park, Kyung-Lim Kim. Effect of metal particle size on
585 coking during CO₂ reforming of CH₄ over Ni–alumina aerogel catalysts. *Appl. Catal. A-Gen.*
586 **197**, 191-200, doi: 10.1016/S0926-860X(99)00487-1 (2000).
- 587 30 Kunitski, M. *et al.* Double-slit photoelectron interference in strong-field ionization of the neon
588 dimer. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 1, doi:10.1038/s41467-018-07882-8 (2019).

589 31 Cao, K. *et al.* Nickel catalyst with atomically-thin meshed cobalt coating for improved
590 durability in dry reforming of methane. *J. Catal.* **373**, 351-360, doi:10.1016/j.jcat.2019.04.017
591 (2019).

592 32 Theofanidis, S. A., Galvita, V. V., Poelman, H. & Marin, G. B. Enhanced Carbon-Resistant Dry
593 Reforming Fe-Ni Catalyst: Role of Fe. *ACS Catal.* **5**, 3028-3039, doi:10.1021/acscatal.5b00357
594 (2015).

595 33 Song Y. *et al.* Dry reforming of methane by stable Ni–Mo nanocatalysts on single-crystalline
596 MgO. *Science* **367**, 777-781, doi: 10.1126/science.aav2412 (2020).

597 34 Pan, C., Guo, Z., Dai, H., Ren, R. & Chu, W. Anti-sintering mesoporous Ni-Pd bimetallic
598 catalysts for hydrogen production via dry reforming of methane. *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy* **45**,
599 16133-16143, doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2020.04.066 (2020).

600 35 Garc í a-Di é guez, M., Pieta, I. S., Herrera, M. C., Larrubia, M. A. & Alemany, L. J.
601 Nanostructured Pt- and Ni-based catalysts for CO₂-reforming of methane. *J. Catal.* **270**, 136-
602 145, doi:10.1016/j.jcat.2009.12.010 (2010).

603 36 de Miguel, S. R. *et al.* Influence of Pt addition to Ni catalysts on the catalytic performance for
604 long term dry reforming of methane. *Appl. Catal. A-Gen.* **435-436**, 10-18,
605 doi:10.1016/j.apcata.2012.05.030 (2012).

606 37 Al-Fatesh, A. *et al.* Rh promoted and ZrO₂/Al₂O₃ supported Ni/Co based catalysts: High activity
607 for CO₂ reforming, steam-CO₂ reforming and oxy-CO₂ reforming of CH₄. *Int. J. Hydrog.*
608 *Energy* **43**, 12069-12080, doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2018.04.152 (2018).

609 38 Turap, Y. *et al.* Co - Ni alloy supported on CeO₂ as a bimetallic catalyst for dry reforming of
610 methane. *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy* **45**, 6538-6548, doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2019.12.223 (2020).

611 39 Siang, T. J. *et al.* Hydrogen production from CH₄ dry reforming over bimetallic Ni-Co/Al₂O₃
612 catalyst. *J. Energy Inst.* **91**, 683-694, doi:10.1016/j.joei.2017.06.001 (2018).

613 40 Song, K. *et al.* Effect of alloy composition on catalytic performance and coke-resistance
614 property of Ni-Cu/Mg(Al)O catalysts for dry reforming of methane. *Appl. Catal. B-Environ.*
615 **239**, 324-333, doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.08.023 (2018).

616 41 Al-Fatesh, A. S. Promotional effect of Gd over Ni/Y₂O₃ catalyst used in dry reforming of CH₄
617 for H₂ production. *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy* **42**, 18805-18816, doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2017.06.165
618 (2017).

619 42 Das S, *et al.* Effect of Partial Fe Substitution in La_{0.9}Sr_{0.1}NiO₃ Perovskite-Derived Catalysts on
620 the Reaction Mechanism of Methane Dry Reforming. *ACS Catal.* **10**, 12466-12486 (2020).

621 43 Azancot L, Bobadilla LF, Centeno MA, Odriozola JA. IR spectroscopic insights into the coking-
622 resistance effect of potassium on nickel-based catalyst during dry reforming of methane. *App.*
623 *Catal. B-Environ.* **285**, (2021).

624 44 Cheng, F., Duan, X. & Xie, K. Dry reforming of methane by stable Ni nanocrystals on porous
625 single-crystalline MgO monoliths at reduced temperature. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **60**, 18792-
626 18799, doi:10.1002/anie.202106243 (2021).

627 45 Guo, Y.-P., Li, W.-Y. & Feng, J. Reaction pathway of CH₄/CO₂ reforming over Ni₈/MgO(100).
628 *Surf. Sci.* **660**, 22-30, doi:10.1016/j.susc.2017.02.010 (2017).

629 46 Akri, M. *et al.* Atomically dispersed nickel as coke-resistant active sites for methane dry
630 reforming. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 5181, doi:10.1038/s41467-019-12843-w (2019).

631 47 Wu, P. *et al.* Cooperation of Ni and CaO at interface for CO₂ reforming of CH₄: A combined
632 theoretical and experimental study. *ACS Catal.* **9**, 10060-10069, doi:10.1021/acscatal.9b02286

633 (2019).
634 48 Tang, Y. *et al.* Synergy of single-atom Ni₁ and Ru₁ sites on CeO₂ for dry reforming of CH₄. *J.*
635 *Am. Chem. Soc.* **141**, 7283-7293, doi: 10.1021/jacs.8b10910 (2019).
636 49 Joo, S. *et al.* Enhancing thermocatalytic activities by upshifting the d-band center of exsolved
637 Co-Ni-Fe ternary alloy nanoparticles for the dry reforming of methane. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.*
638 **60**, 15912-15919, doi:10.1002/anie.202101335 (2021).
639 50 Foppa, L. *et al.* Contrasting the role of Ni/Al₂O₃ interfaces in water-gas shift and dry reforming
640 of methane. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **139**, 17128-17139, doi: 10.1021/jacs.7b08984 (2017).
641

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [NlrSifinal.pdf](#)