



Investigation on Ni/CeO₂ catalyst derived from Ce-MOFs for CO₂ hydrogenation to methane

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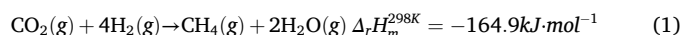
ABSTRACT

The continued reliance on traditional fossil fuels and the consequent accumulation of greenhouse gases has made CO₂ conversion and utilization a critical issue for sustainable global development. Hydrogenating CO₂ to methane offers a promising method by harnessing renewable energy sources. In this work, we systematically studied the catalytic performance of the Ce-MOFs-derived Ni/CeO₂ catalysts (10 wt% Ni loading) in CO₂ hydrogenation to methane. The metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) exhibit a distinctive pore structure that enables the effective dispersion of active Ni species on the CeO₂ surface. This feature prevents Ni agglomeration and sintering at elevated temperatures, thereby enhancing catalytic activity. Characterization (XRD, TEM, N₂ adsorption-desorption, XPS, Raman and CO₂-TPD) results show that the morphology of the support significantly impacts catalytic performance in CO₂ reduction. The rod-like Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst contains more oxygen vacancies, which improves its ability to adsorb and activate CO₂ on the surface of Ni-CeO₂. Consequently, Ni/CeO₂-BTC demonstrates the highest CO₂ conversion, reaching 61.9%, and methane selectivity, reaching 85.8% at 375 °C and atmospheric pressure. Density functional theory (DFT) calculation results also confirm that, in the presence of oxygen vacancies, CO₂ is more easily adsorbed and activated at the interface of Ni-O-Ce. The research revealed the intrinsic relationship between reactivity and microscopic physical-chemical properties, as well as the activation mechanism of CO₂, which is crucial to develop Ni/CeO₂ catalysts with various morphologies for CO₂ methanation.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, the global consumption of non-renewable fossil fuels, including coal and oil, surges to meet the growing demand for energy [1, 2]. Meanwhile, the massive burning of these fuels generates excessive carbon emissions, driving carbon dioxide (CO₂) accumulation in the atmosphere, which in turn exacerbates global warming and the greenhouse effect. Carbon capture, utilization, and storage (CCUS) technologies have emerged as critical strategies in the effort to cope with these challenges. The utilization of undesirable CO₂ offers an efficient pathway for yielding valuable chemical compounds such as fuels and chemicals [3,4]. Among various optional routes, the utilization of “green” hydrogen produced by renewable energy-driven for the CO₂ reduction to methane (Sabatier reaction), as shown in Eq. (1), has garnered extensive research attention for its benefits: (1) A proved

alternative to CO₂ recycling; (2) Methane (CH₄) is an essential basic raw material for the synthesis of other chemicals [5,6]. This reaction also is regarded as an effective way to achieve safe hydrogen energy storage and transportation through chemical transformation [7].



Sabatier reaction is well-known to be exothermic, thus thermodynamically favors at lower-level reaction temperature [8]. However, since the thermodynamic stability of CO₂ molecules, extra energy is required to activate the C=O duplex or an effective catalyst to cut down the activation energy. Several studies have already been conducted on the development of catalysts based on active components from precious metals or non-precious metals, and their catalytic behavior in CO₂ hydrogenation under diverse reaction conditions has been explored [9]. Due to the relatively low cost, great availability, and excellent catalytic

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performance, diverse Nickel-based catalysts, including Ni/Al₂O₃ [10], Ni/SiO₂ [11], Ni/ZrO₂ [12], have been performed for CO₂ hydrogenation to CH₄. Cerium (Ce) is the most abundant element among rare earth elements, and its oxide CeO₂ is widely used as a support in various catalytic reactions as its abundant oxygen vacancies and unique redox properties [13,14]. Moreover, the valence switch between Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ promotes the formation of VOs, which could enable relatively more CeO₂ to adsorb on the catalyst surface thereby facilitating CO₂ activation. Zhou et al. [15] prepared Ni/CeO₂ catalyst by conventional impregnation method and achieved approximately 91.1 % CO₂ conversion, which was attributed to the redox cycle formed on the surface of Ni/CeO₂ catalyst. Unfortunately, for the CO₂ methanation, the traditional metal/carrier Ni-based catalysts are prone to loss the activity at high temperature owing to agglomeration, sintering and carbon deposition [16, 17]. A proposed strategy to this issue is to develop metal-based catalysts with high dispersion, which could achieve efficient and stable CO₂ reduction.

Recently, diverse rational design strategies have been employed to boost catalytic performance, encompassing metal-doped, optimizing metal-support interactions, and modifying the support structure [18–20]. Among them, Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) are porous materials formed through the self-assembly of metal ions and organic ligands, characterized by a high specific surface area, large porosity, and tunable pore structures [21]. MOFs featuring diverse compositions have been extensively studied for supercapacitors, electrochemical detection and catalyst synthesis [22–24]. Khan et al. [23] fabricated a VY-MOF@CNTs composite via probe sonication-assisted hydrothermal method for advanced supercapacitors. The electrochemical performance was enhanced owing to the high specific surface area and redox properties of MOFs, coupled with the conductivity of CNT network. Additionally, the related work has confirmed that the metal oxides derived from MOFs precursors possess excellent physicochemical properties, which can promote the interaction between metal/carriers and improve catalytic activity [25]. Tang et al. [26] fabricated Ce-MOF/Bi₂MoO₆ heterostructure for the photoreduction of CO₂ via the electron-coupled. They discovered that the generation of HCOOH occurred exclusively over the composites, which was attributed to the inhibition of the rapid interaction between the photoexcited electrons and CO₂-reduced intermediates. Feng et al. [27] designed a novel structure Ni/CeO₂ catalyst by immersing Ni precursor onto Ce-MOF and following by calcination. The confinement effect of MOF's porous structure resulted in high dispersion of Ni species. The Ni/CeO₂ catalyst calcined at 600 °C exhibited good stability and a high number of VOs. Liu et al. [28] explored the performance of Ni/CeO₂-MOF catalysts in dry reforming of methane by optimizing support, which effectively improved the oxygen storage and release capacity of catalyst while improving the catalytic activity and carbon deposition tolerance in high-temperature system. As aforementioned, a few studies have been conducted on the rational design of Ce-MOF materials for efficient catalytic reactions. However, the performance of Ni/CeO₂ catalysts prepared using various Ce-MOFs supports for CO₂ methanation remains extensively explored.

Based on density functional theory (DFT) calculation research contributes to providing theoretical ideas for the design of high-efficient catalysts by molecular perspective, which also can uncover the catalytic mechanism deeply. Zhang et al. [29] systematically investigated all possible reaction pathways of CO₂ methanation by DFT calculation, uncovered the intrinsic reaction mechanism over Ni/CeO₂ catalyst. Guo et al. [30] focused on the effect of loaded-metal size on the catalytic performance of the Pd-CeO₂ system for CO₂ reduction. The results demonstrated the superiority of Pd₈/CeO₂ as an electrocatalyst for the electrochemical reduction of CO₂ to CH₃OH rather than CO₂ methanation. Therefore, understanding the interaction between reaction substrates and catalytic active sites using DFT calculation is crucial to elucidate induced chemical state changes.

In this work, the MOF modification method was employed to prepare synthesized a highly dispersed catalyst for the CO₂ methanation. Easily

accessible and representative Ce-MOFs (Ce-BTC, Ce-MOF-808, and Ce-UiO-66) were synthesized to serve as precursors of CeO₂. Subsequently, the Ni species were loaded onto these CeO₂ via impregnation method to prepare Ni/CeO₂ catalysts. Through the integration of experimental tools and characterization analysis, the catalytic activity and performance of Ni/CeO₂ catalyst derived from Ce-MOFs were thoroughly investigated, and using these results the influence of CeO₂ morphologies on catalytic activity was revealed. DFT calculations were also performed to study the interaction between the reaction substrate and catalyst surface, which is helpful for uncovering the catalytic mechanism deeply.

2. Experiments

2.1. Materials

Cerium (III) nitrate (Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O), cerium (IV) ammonium nitrate, ((NH₄)₂Ce(NO₃)₆), 1,3,5-Benzenetricarboxylic acid (BTC), 1,4-Benzenedicarboxylic acid (BDC), methanol (CH₄O), ethanol (C₂H₆O), N,N-Dimethylformamide (DMF), and formic acid (CH₂O₂) were purchased from Macklin Biochemical Co. Ltd, Shanghai, China. Nickel nitrate (Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O) and acetone (CH₃)₂CO were obtained from Guangdong Chemical Reagent Factory, Guangzhou, China. All chemical materials were of analytical grade. The deionized water was supplied by Huankai Biotechnology Co. Ltd, Guangdong, China.

2.2. Catalyst preparation

2.2.1. Synthesis of Ce-MOFs

The Ce-MOF was synthesized by using methods as previously reported in the literature elsewhere with some modification [31–33]. Concretely, 2.1 g (≈0.01 mol) BTC was dissolved into 20 mL ethanol/deionized water (v: v = 1:1), and heated to 60 °C under water bath. Then 4.34 g (≈0.001 mmol) Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O was added to 45 mL of deionized water and was dropped into above solution with vigorous stirring. After being magnetically stirred for 1 h at 60 °C. The sample was filtered and washed with ethanol and water. Finally, the collected solid was dried overnight at 70 °C to obtain Ce-BTC.

0.224 g BTC was dissolved into 12 mL DMF in a glass bottle, and then was the dropwise of 6 mL aqueous solution of (NH₄)₂Ce(NO₃)₆. Meanwhile, 2.57 mL formic acid was also added into mixture as a regulator. The mixed solution was sealed and heated for 15 min at 100 °C. Subsequently, the glass bottle was removed cooling in a room temperature. The suspension was centrifuged and washed with DMF and acetone. Finally, the pale-yellow product was dried overnight at 70 °C in an oven to obtain Ce-MOF-808.

The synthesis of Ce-UiO-66 was carried out following the procedure of Ce-MOF-808, the differences were 0.531 g BDC was dissolved into 12 mL DMF in a glass bottle, instead of BTC as organic ligand, and Formic acid was not included as a regulator.

2.2.2. Synthesis of CeO₂ supports

The Ce-BTC, Ce-MOF-808 and Ce-UiO-66 were calcined at 460 °C in a Muffle furnace for 3 h. The heating rate was set at 3 °C/min as its structure is susceptible to damage at high heating rate. To further investigate the influence of the preparation method on the catalytic performance, CeO₂ carrier was also synthesized via direct calcination. Typically, 10 g Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O was calcined in a muffle furnace at 500 °C for 6 h. Finally, the samples obtained were denoted as CeO₂-X (X = BTC, MOF-808, UiO-66 and Cal).

2.2.3. Synthesis of Ni/CeO₂ catalyst

As illustrated in Fig. 1, the schematic representation of the synthesized catalysts is presented. The active Ni species was loaded onto the support using impregnation method. A certain amount of Ni (NO₃)₂·6H₂O was dissolved in 10 mL deionized water, then added 1 g

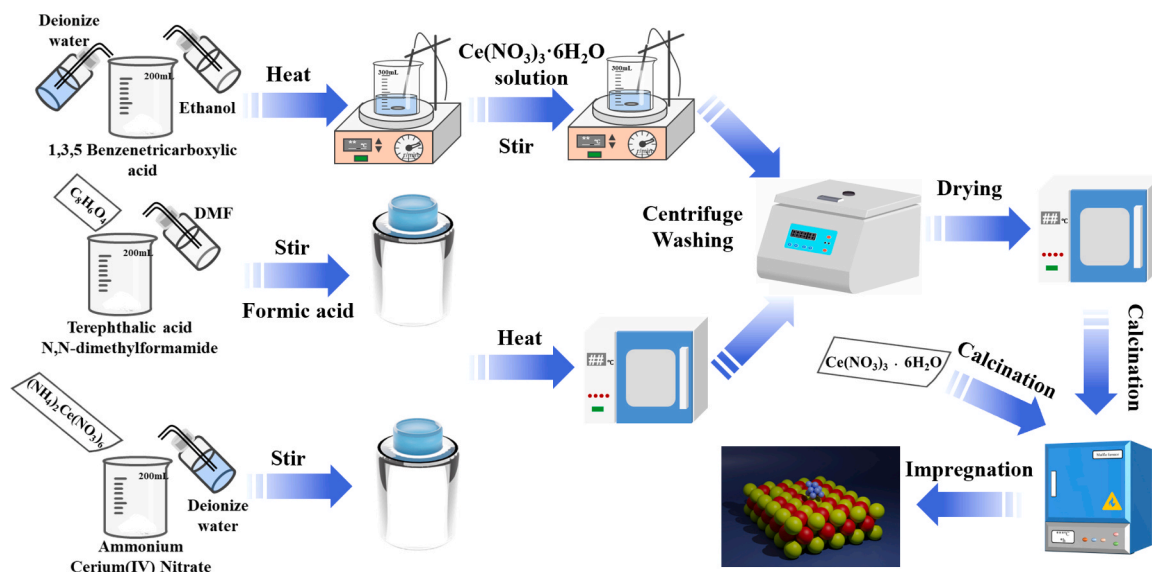


Fig. 1. Illustration of the synthesis process for the catalyst.

CeO₂-X under magnetically stirring at room temperature for 12 h. Subsequently, the sample was dried at 105 °C for 12 h, then calcined at 600 °C in a Muffle furnace at a heating rate of 3 °C/min for 3 h. Finally, Ni/CeO₂ catalysts were obtained, which were defined as Ni/CeO₂-X (X = BTC, MOF-808, UiO-66 and Cal), and the nickel loading of all catalysts as 10 wt% CeO₂ derived from Ce-MOFs.

2.3. Computational details

The Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) [34,35] was used based on first principles in density-functional theory (DFT) calculations. The projector augmented wave (PAW) method [36] was described the core and valence electrons, and the energy cutoff of the plane-wave basis functions was set at 400 eV. The energy was calculated utilizing Generalized gradient approximation (GGA) and Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) exchange-correlation functional was used in all calculations [37]. The DFT + U approach is employed to

characterize the 4 f electrons of Ce due to highly localized Ce 4 f orbital, with U and J values feature 5.0 and 0.5 eV, respectively [38]. The k-points in the Brillouin zone were sampled using a 1 × 1 × 1 Gamma-centered Monkhorst-Pack grid for structural optimization, because of the large size of model (a=11.624307, b=11.624307, c=22.909340). The convergence tolerance was set as 1 × 10⁻⁵ eV for energy, and a maximum force criterion of 0.05 eV/Å was set for ionic relaxation.

The calculated CeO₂ lattice parameter was to be 5.479751 Å by further configuration optimization. This value is well agreement with experimental value of XRD (5.4124 Å Fm3m (225) space group) and the percentage error is 1.24 % < 5 %, which indicates the rational of calculation model and parameter (Fig. 2(a)). CeO₂ (111) was constructed by a slab model comprising 27 Ce atom and 54 O atom. A 15 Å vacuum layer in z direction was added to refrain the interaction of periodic image. The bottom layers were fixed (O-Ce-O), atoms in the remaining layers, as well as Ni cluster and adsorbates were completely

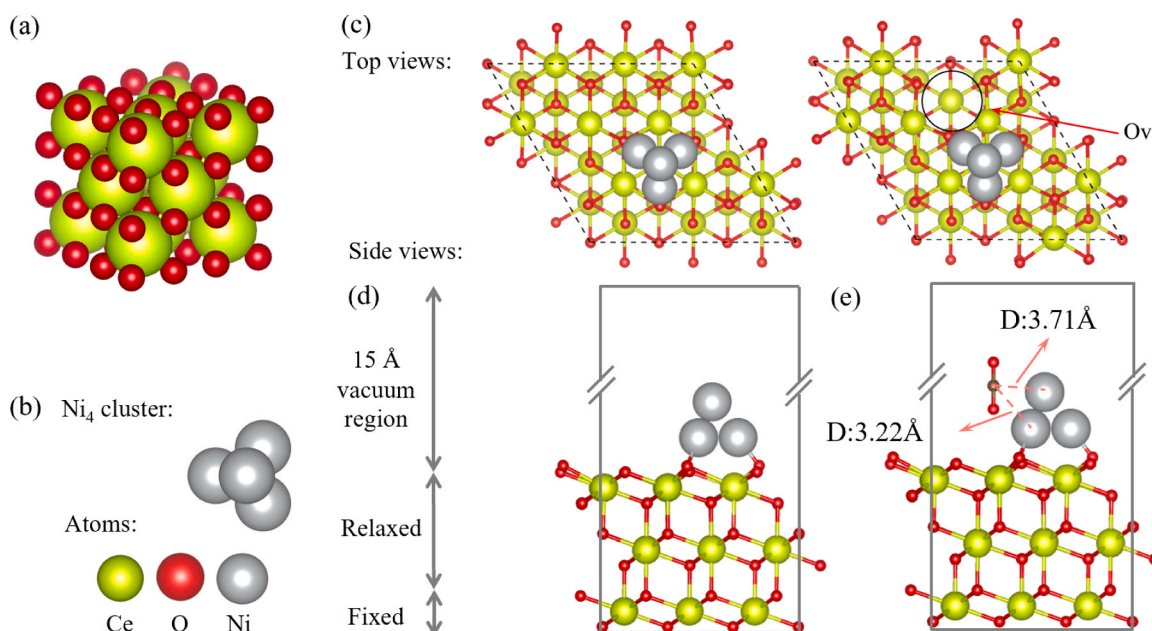


Fig. 2. (a) CeO₂ conventional cell; (b) Ni₄ clusters; (c) Ni₄/CeO₂(111)-Perfect/Defect- Optimized; (d) Initial adsorption model of Ni₄/CeO₂(111)-Perfect/Defect.

relaxed. The CeO₂-supported Ni species was simulated as Ni₄ cluster on the CeO₂ (111) surface. (see Fig. 2(b) and (d))

To investigate CO₂ adsorption behavior at perfect and defect crystal surface of Ni₄/CeO₂, the molecule was placed in the surface of catalyst with approximately 2.5 Å of distance, as shown in Fig. 2(c), (e). The adsorption energy (ΔE_{ads}) estimates by the Eq. (2) [30]:

$$\Delta E_{\text{ads}} = E_{\text{slab/adsorbate}} - E_{\text{slab}} - E_{\text{adsorbate}} \quad (2)$$

where $E_{\text{slab/adsorbate}}$, E_{slab} and $E_{\text{adsorbate}}$ are respectively the total energy of the adsorbed system, total energy of pure catalyst surface and total energy of adsorbed molecule.

2.4. Catalyst characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was used to identify the crystal structure of the catalyst, employing Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) on a Rigaku Smartlab instrument (Rigaku, Japan). The 2θ scanning range was from 10° to 80°, with a scanning rate of 3°/min. The metal Ni loading amount for all fresh catalysts was carried out using Agilent ICP-OES 720 ES spectrometer. Nitrogen (N₂) physical adsorption-desorption measurements were performed to determine the pore structure on a 3Flex physical adsorption instrument (Micromeritics, America). The specific surface area and pore size were calculated by Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET) and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) methods. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) analysis were carried out on a JEM-1400Flash (JEOL, Japan), with Energy-Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) also performed on the same instrument. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were conducted on a Thermo K-Alpha instrument (Thermo Fisher Scientific, America). Raman spectra were conducted on LabRAM Odyssey (Horiba Scientific) instrument. The basicity of the reduced catalysts was determined using CO₂-TPD on TP-5080 (Xianquan, China) instrument. Typically, certain sample was first heated in pure He at 300 °C for 1 h. The CO₂ was injected (30 mL/min) for 1 h after the sample was cooled to 50 °C. Next, the He (30 mL/min) was used for purging, and the temperature was increased to 800 °C at 10 °C/min.

2.5. Catalytic activity measurements

The thermal CO₂ reduction test was conducted in a quartz tube reactor (inner diameter = 14 mm). Internal and external mass diffusion effects were ruled out via pre-experiments prior to assessing catalytic performance. In each test, 50 mg of the catalyst (100 mesh) was placed in the constant temperature zone of the reactor and heated in a 60 mL/min pure N₂ to the desired reduction temperature (600 °C). The catalyst was reduced *in situ* in 60 mL/min H₂/N₂(volume ratio H₂:N₂=1:4) for 1 h. Then, the reactor was cooled to 200 °C under a N₂ atmosphere at the same flow rate. Subsequently, the reaction gases (volume ratio CO₂:H₂:N₂=1:4:15) were introduced. Once the reaction time and temperature specified in the protocol were reached, the emitted gases were analyzed by a gas chromatograph to evaluate CO₂ reduction reaction. The conversion of CO₂ (X_{CO_2}), selectivity of methane (S_{CH_4}) and product yield (Y_{CH_4}) were calculated using the following formulas.

$$X_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{(F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} - F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}})}{F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

$$S_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}}{(F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} - F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}})} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

$$Y_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}}{m_{\text{cat}}} \quad (5)$$

where $F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}$ and $F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}$ are the molar flow rates of CO₂ at inlet or outlet, $F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}$ and $F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}$ represent are the volume flow rates of CH₄ and CO at outlet.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalytic CO₂ reduction performance

The CO₂ reduction tests over Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts were conducted at ambient pressure, with temperatures ranging from 200 to 450 °C and a WHSV of 72,000 mL_{g_{cat}}⁻¹h⁻¹. As depicted in Fig. 3(a), the CO₂ conversion curves were initially increased with the rising temperature from 200 to 400 °C for all catalysts and gradually approached the predicted-equilibrium values, which can be assigned to the exothermic nature of the Eq. (1). While increasing the temperature to 400 °C resulted the best CO₂ conversion for all samples, the boost was only 0.1–1.2 % compared with 375 °C, showing no significant improvement. Thus, the optimal reaction temperature is 375 °C. It can be clearly seen that CO₂ conversion for Ni/CeO₂-BTC was higher than the others under the identical condition and reached 61.9 % at 375 °C. Noteworthy, the temperature exerts a negative effect on CO₂ conversion at 400–450 °C, particularly Ni/CeO₂-Cal. This shift stems from the metal Ni being prone to aggregation at higher temperatures. However, the CO₂ conversion of Ni/CeO₂ catalysts derived from Ce-MOFs remained nearly unchanged, suggesting enhanced anti-agglomeration ability under higher temperatures. Moreover, all catalysts produce CH₄ as the primary product. In comparison with other catalysts, the Ni/CeO₂-Cal catalyst exhibits higher CH₄ selectivity in the lower temperature range, but its selectivity significantly drops within 300–400°C. Excepting Ni/CeO₂-Cal catalyst, the selectivity for CH₄ over Ni/CeO₂-X exceeds 85 % in the reaction temperature window of 300–400 °C, slightly lower than the reported values (Table 1). The variation can be attributed to the reactants/intermediates failing to be adsorbed and converted promptly on catalyst surface at higher WHSV, leading to poor selectivity [11,39]. The CH₄ yield for all obtained catalysts were presented in Fig. 3(c). The CH₄ yield from the Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst maintains the most superior in the present study, with generation rates of 0.086 mol_{g_{cat}}⁻¹h⁻¹.

Additionally, the catalytic stability of Ni/CeO₂-BTC was further assessed by performing continuous CO₂ methanation over 24 h at the optimal reaction temperature of 375°C (see Fig. 3(d)). During the 24 h time on stream (TOS), the CO₂ conversion displayed only a minor decline, from an initial 60.1–59.6 %, while CH₄ selectivity remained consistently more than 85 %. This underscores the reliable catalytic stability of Ni/CeO₂-BTC. A comparison of the catalyst performance with data from published literature was provided in Table 1. The catalytic performance of Ni based catalysts manifest a substantial difference due to the variation in loading of active species and WHSV conditions. As for the synthesized Ni/CeO₂ catalysts derived from Ce-MOFs in present study, the CO₂ conversion was relatively promoted compared with the reported catalysts in higher WHSV.

3.2. Catalyst characterization

The XRD patterns obtained for the different Ce-MOFs are shown in Fig. 4. All samples were in the form of microcrystalline powders. In Fig. 4(a), all observed peaks of Ce(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)₆ were closely related to the known bulk phase La(1,3,5-BTC)(H₂O)₆ [44]. The strong peak and peak positions clearly indicate the good crystallinity of Ce-MOFs. The crystal structure of Ce-BTC with space group Cc, involved Ce atom, 1,3,5-H₃BTC ligands and water molecules. The cluster unit of synthesized Ce-MOF-808 with Fd-3m space group was composed by OH⁻, H₂O and BTC³⁻ linkers (Fig. 4(b)), with final in the formula [Ce₆(μ_3 -O)₄(μ_3 -OH)₄(BTC)₂(OH)₆(H₂O)₆]. And it featured a 3,6-connected three-dimensional framework with spn topology [33]. As for Ce-Uio-66 in Fig. 4(c), it was constructed from [Ce₆O₄(OH)₄]¹²⁺ clusters and BDC²⁻ linkers, with final in formula [Ce₆O₄(OH)₄(BDC)₆] and crystallizing in space group Fm-3m [33]. As depicted in Fig. 4, the experimental data exhibits good consistency with the simulation results, supporting the successful synthesis of Ce-MOFs.

The metal Ni weight of the as-prepared catalysts was measured by

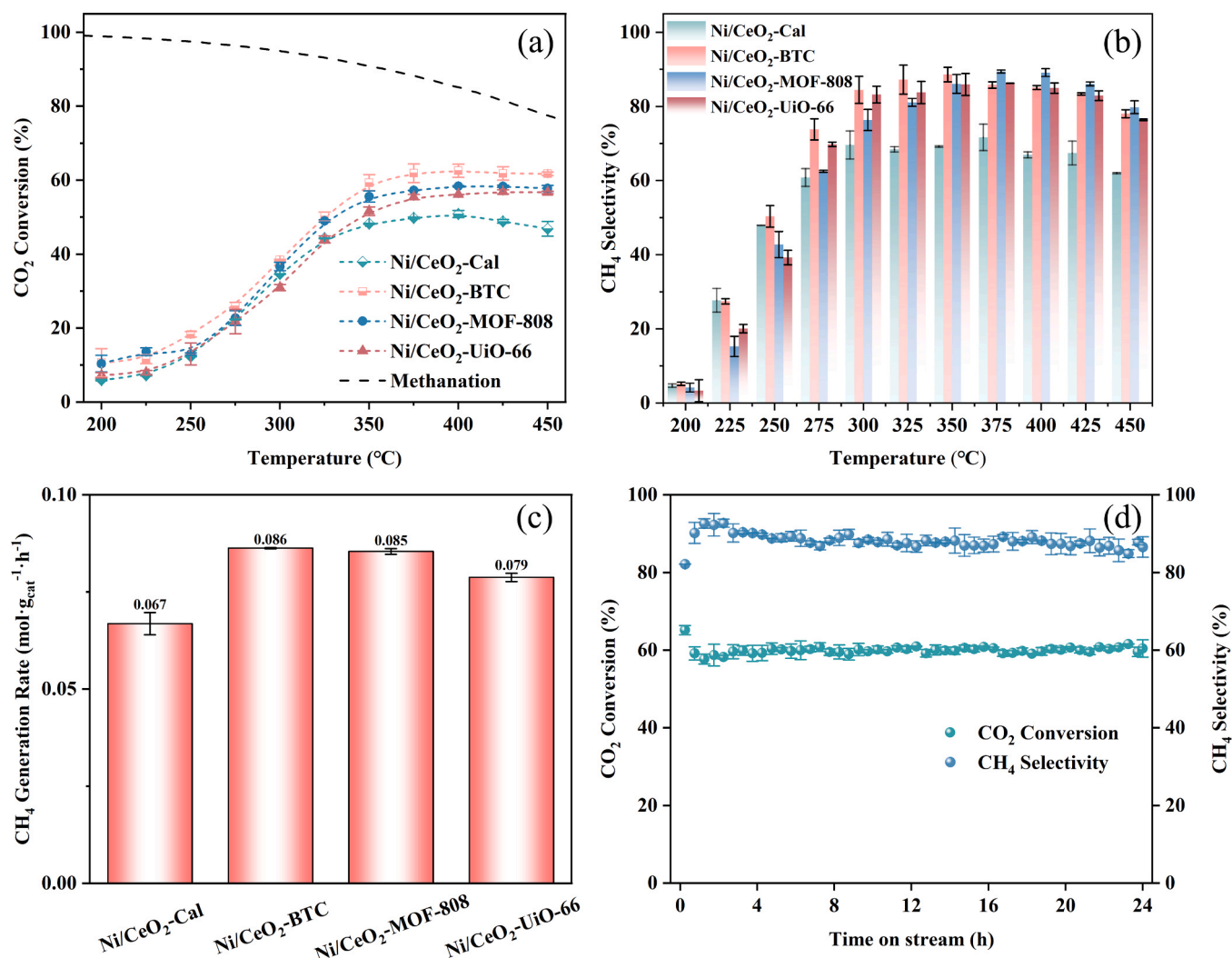


Fig. 3. The CO₂ reduction performance over Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts (a) CO₂ Conversion; (b) CH₄ Selectivity; (c) CH₄ Yield; (d) The stability test for CO₂ methanation at 375 °C for 24 h. (Reaction conditions: T = 375 °C, P = 1 atm, WHSV = 72,000 mL.g_{cat}⁻¹.h⁻¹).

Table 1

Comparison of catalytic activity between various Ni catalysts for CO₂ methanation.

Catalyst	Temperature (°C)	WHSV (mL.g _{cat} ⁻¹ .h ⁻¹)	CO ₂ Conversion (%)	CH ₄ Selectivity (%)	Ref
10 wt% Ni/CeO ₂ -SG	300	30,000	70	98	[40]
20 wt% Ni/CeO ₂ -SGM	250	10,000	82.5	94.8	[41]
Ni/SiO ₂	450	12,000	80	88	[11]
Ni/ZrO ₂	350	60,000	50.2	100	[12]
10 wt% Ni/CeO ₂	300	22,000	84.1	100	[15]
20 wt% Ni-HT	400	5,000	83.5	97	[39]
15 wt% Ni/CeO ₂	350	45,000	82	96	[42]
10 % Ni/CeO ₂	250	14,000	42	100	[43]
Ni/CeO ₂ -BTC	375	72,000	61.9	86	This work
Ni/CeO ₂ -MOF-808	375	72,000	57.3	89	This work
Ni/CeO ₂ -UiO-66	375	72,000	55.4	85	This work

ICP-OES (Table S1). The real Ni content closely matches the theoretical value. The XRD patterns obtained for the Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts derived from different Ce-MOFs are shown in Fig. 5. The diffraction peaks observed at $2\theta = 28.53, 33.05, 47.48, 56.35, 59.08829, 69.37, 76.76,$ and 79.08° ascribe to (111), (200), (220), (311), (222), (400), (331), and (420) crystal facets of CeO₂ (ICDD PDF No.81-0792) with space group Fm3m (225), which agrees well with those previous studies in the literature [45,46]. No significant variations in diffraction peaks were observed across CeO₂ originating from different Ce-MOFs. The

diffraction peaks with relatively high intensity indicate good crystallinity of CeO₂ in the prepared catalysts. For fresh catalysts, three weak characteristic peaks at $2\theta = 37.28, 43.32,$ and 62.93° , corresponding to the (111), (200), and (220) crystal faces of NiO phase, respectively [20]. This result could be attributed to the high dispersion and the low contents of Ni metals on CeO₂ support resulted by special structure of Ce-MOFs. Furthermore, as shown in Fig. 5(b), the crystal faces (111), (200), and (220) of Ni (ICDD PDF No.87-0712) are detected at $2\theta = 45.50, 51.11,$ and 78.37° , respectively. The weaker peak of

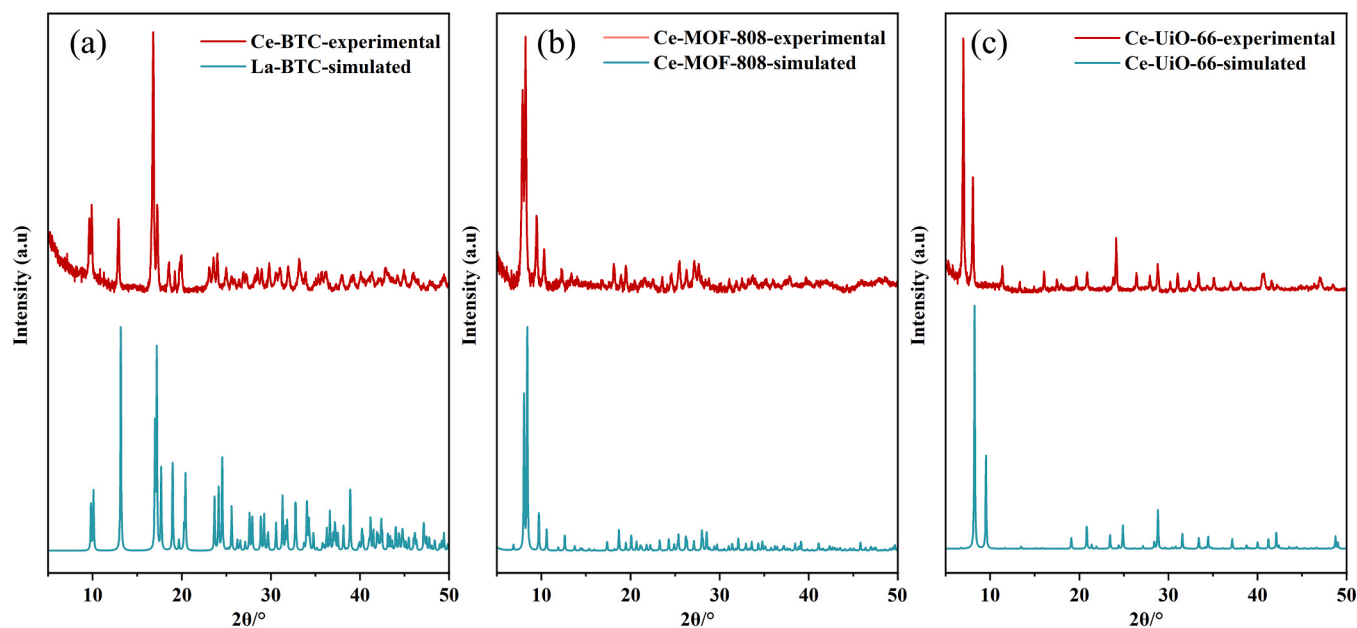


Fig. 4. XRD patterns obtained for the Ce-MOFs (a) Ce-BTC; (b) Ce-MOF-808; (c) Ce-UiO-66.

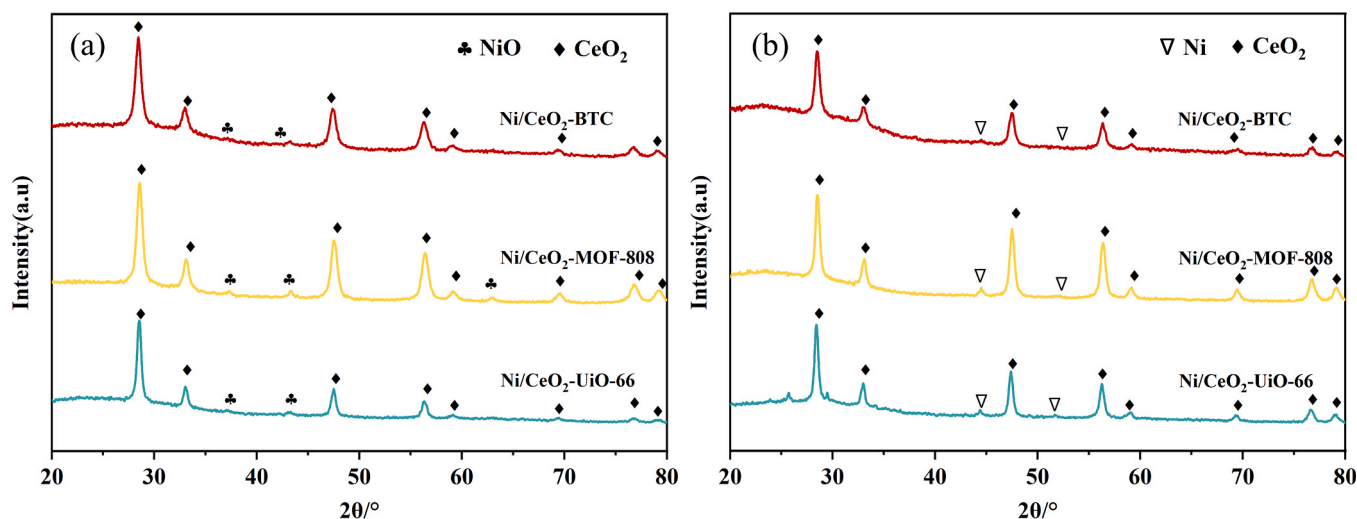


Fig. 5. XRD patterns obtained for the Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts derived from Ce-MOFs (a) fresh and (b) reduced.

Ni/CeO₂-BTC at $2\theta = 45.50^\circ$ compared to the other catalysts suggests a more uniform distribution of Ni species on the support, which is a primary reason contributing to its superior catalytic activity observed in CO₂ reduction tests. Based on the Debye–Scherrer equation, the average grain sizes of the CeO₂ for all catalysts are presented in Table 2. The average crystalline size of CeO₂ increases upon completion of hydrogen reduction process, with the Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst exhibiting the smallest size. The small average crystalline boosts the specific surface area and pore volume of the catalyst, thereby improving catalytic activity [47].

The N₂ adsorption-desorption curves obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts derived from different Ce-MOFs are illustrated in Fig. 6 and Table 2 displayed supplementary contents. Fig. 6(a) shows a typical V isotherm obtained for the Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts with a H3-type hysteresis loop, such as Ni/CeO₂-BTC and Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66, which implies the presence of slit-like pores [47]. While, Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst possesses a type IV isotherms with H4-type hysteresis loop, indicating the mesoporous structure [48]. Compared to the fresh Ni/CeO₂-X in Fig. S1, the type of adsorption curve remained unchanged. Also, as observed in

Table 2

Texture properties of the Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts derived from different Ce-MOFs.

Samples	Surface area (m ² ·g ⁻¹)	Total pore volume (cm ³ ·g ⁻¹)	Average pore diameter (nm)	CeO ₂ grain size (nm) ^c
Ni/CeO ₂ -BTC ^a	44.43	0.32	28.62	13.11
Ni/CeO ₂ -MOF-808 ^a	36.98	0.09	10.09	12.81
Ni/CeO ₂ -UiO-66 ^a	26.92	0.13	19.27	16.26
Ni/CeO ₂ -BTC ^b	38.98	0.24	24.83	15.08
Ni/CeO ₂ -MOF-808 ^b	31.63	0.08	9.89	15.74
Ni/CeO ₂ -UiO-66 ^b	27.33	0.13	18.90	19.89

^a Fresh.

^b Reduced.

^c Calculated by XRD patterns.

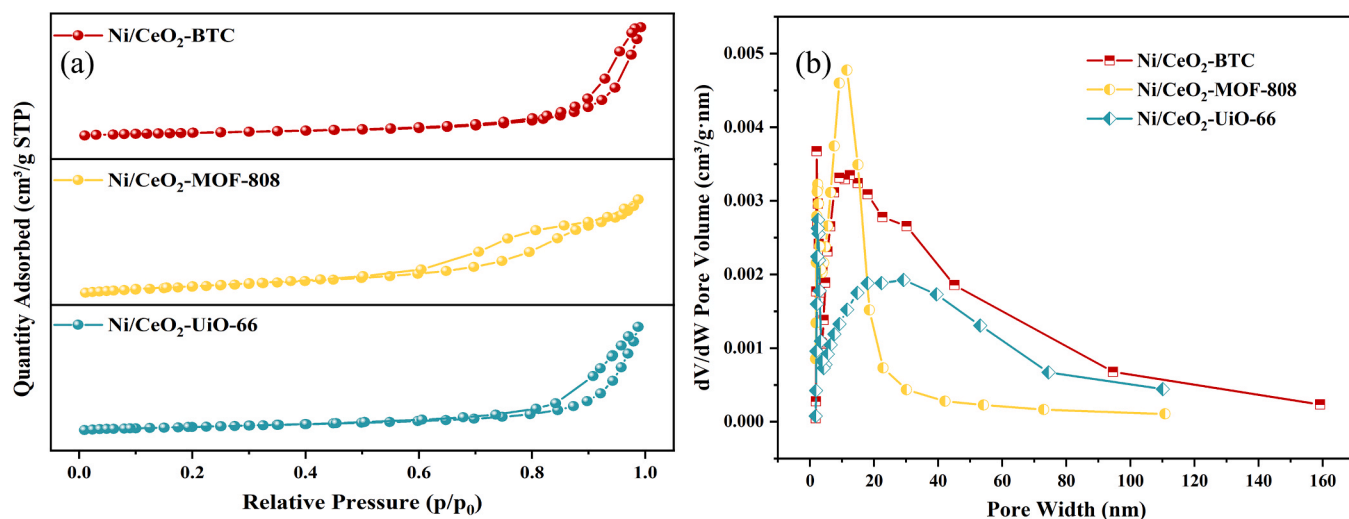


Fig. 6. N₂ adsorption-desorption curves (a) and pore size distribution (b) obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts.

Fig. 6(b), the pore size distribution of all samples is not regular and primarily ranges from 2 to 70 nm, encompassing both the mesopores (2–50 nm) and macropores regions (>50 nm). And the differences in pore size of the catalysts likely influence the adsorption and dissociation

of CO₂, thereby resulting in different performance of CO₂ to methane [39].

From the results in Table 2, the BET specific surface areas for the reduced catalysts follow the order: Ni/CeO₂-BTC > Ni/CeO₂-MOF-

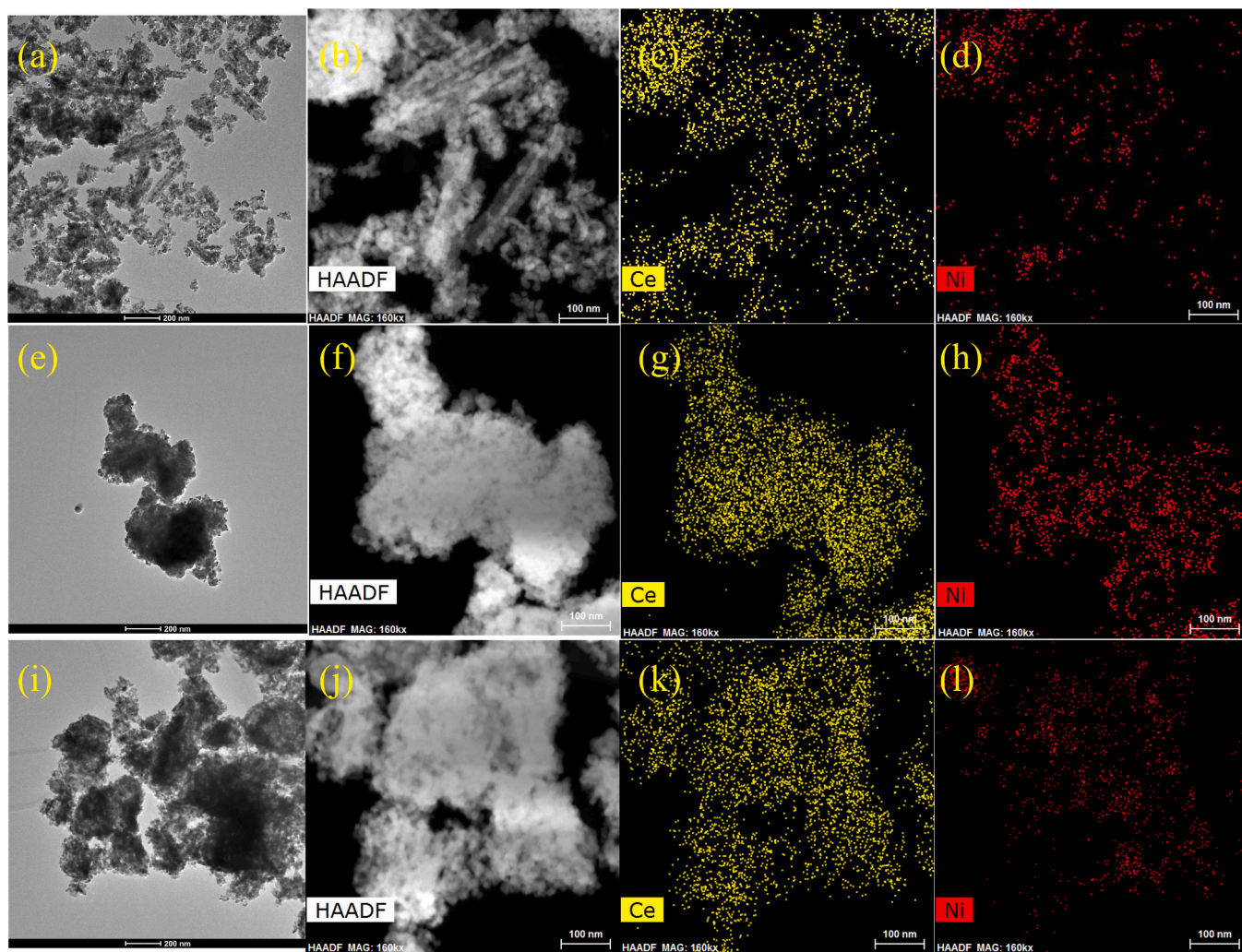


Fig. 7. TEM images obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts, (a, e, i) Ni/CeO₂-BTC, Ni/CeO₂-MOF-808, Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66 and corresponding EDS mapping of Ce (c, g, k) and Ni (d, h, l).

808 > Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66. Compared with Ni/CeO₂-MOF-808 and Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66, Ni/CeO₂-BTC still has highest specific surface areas and average pore diameters with values of 38.98 m²·g⁻¹ and 24.83 nm. Furthermore, Ni/CeO₂-BTC has two peaks, the wide peak between 5 and 50 nm means more pores and the peak at 3–5 nm is narrower, meaning more uniform, and the highest peak at approximate 3 nm indicates more pores of this pore size. Generally, better pore structure favors the gaseous reactants adsorption and diffusion as well as the activation of intermediate products [42]. Also, based on the literature, CO₂ adsorption and dissociation occurred on the surface of catalyst is the first step in CO₂ reduction [49]. Consequently, the Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst having superior specific surface area, pore volume and pore size help to better Ni metal particles dispersion and then enhance the adsorption and dissociation of CO₂, which corresponds with the results of XRD.

The surface morphology and structure of the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts observed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to reveal the morphological discrepancies of samples, and the results are summarized in Fig. 7. The irregular shape may be attributed to the CeO₂ support being observed on a brighter background. The smaller and blacker regions are assigned to metallic Ni particles on the surface or in mesoporous of Ni/CeO₂-X. It is a well-documented fact that rod-like structure of Ni/CeO₂-BTC has lower reduction temperature, causing an excellent performance in CO₂ reduction [42]. Also, it can be observed that the reduced Ni/CeO₂-BTC still maintains a rod-like shape contrasted with the fresh in Fig. S2 [50]. By contrast, Ni/CeO₂-MOF-808 and Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66 exhibits similar octahedral structure as shown in Fig. 8 (HRTEM) maintaining their original shapes (Fig. S3) [51]. In Fig. 8, the lattice fringes reflect the interplanar distance of about 0.20 nm corresponding to Ni (111) plane. The crystal face (111) of Ni

element is generally believed to possess high catalytic activity in CO₂ hydrogenation to methane [39]. CeO₂ support is dominated by (111) plane, and the lattice fringes distance is around 0.31 nm. The crystal face results of this part demonstrate consistency with XRD analyses.

EDS semi-quantitative analysis confirmed Ni existed and effectively loaded on CeO₂ support derived from various Ce-MOFs. Elemental mapping in Fig. 7(d), (h), (l) further revealed that active Ni particles on the reduced Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst exhibited more uniform dispersion, as evidenced by the nickel element (red) being predominantly distributed in area without Ce (yellow), compared to other catalysts. This not only enhanced homogeneity effectively mitigates Ni phase agglomeration, but also contributing to the formation of metal-support interface, highlighting the structural advantage of the Ni/CeO₂-BTC system [11].

The surface properties of the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X were conducted by XPS profiles and the characterization results shown in Fig. 9. The Ce 3d region can be deconvoluted into 10 characteristic peaks. The characteristics peaks labeled u₁ (~882.5), u₃ (~887.1 eV), v₁ (~898.4 eV), and v₃ (~901.1 eV) exhibit the Ce³⁺ species of Ce₂O₃ while the remaining six characteristics peaks, namely u₂ (~885.4 eV), u₃ (~890.3 eV), v₀ (~899.9 eV), v₂ (~903.2 eV), v₄ (~908.8 eV) and u₄ (~918.5 eV) are corresponded to the Ce⁴⁺ species of CeO₂ [41]. The existence of Ce³⁺ usually leads to the formation of oxygen vacancies in it. Furthermore, the simultaneous presence of Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ in all reduced Ni/CeO₂-X samples was affirmed, as a consequence, favoring for the cycling of oxygen species on catalyst surface [46].

The O1s spectra of the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts were also investigated to obtain information about oxygen vacancies. Generally, oxygen vacancies on an oxide catalyst as valuable reactive sites could affect deeply in several catalytic reaction [52]. Fig. 9 exhibits three

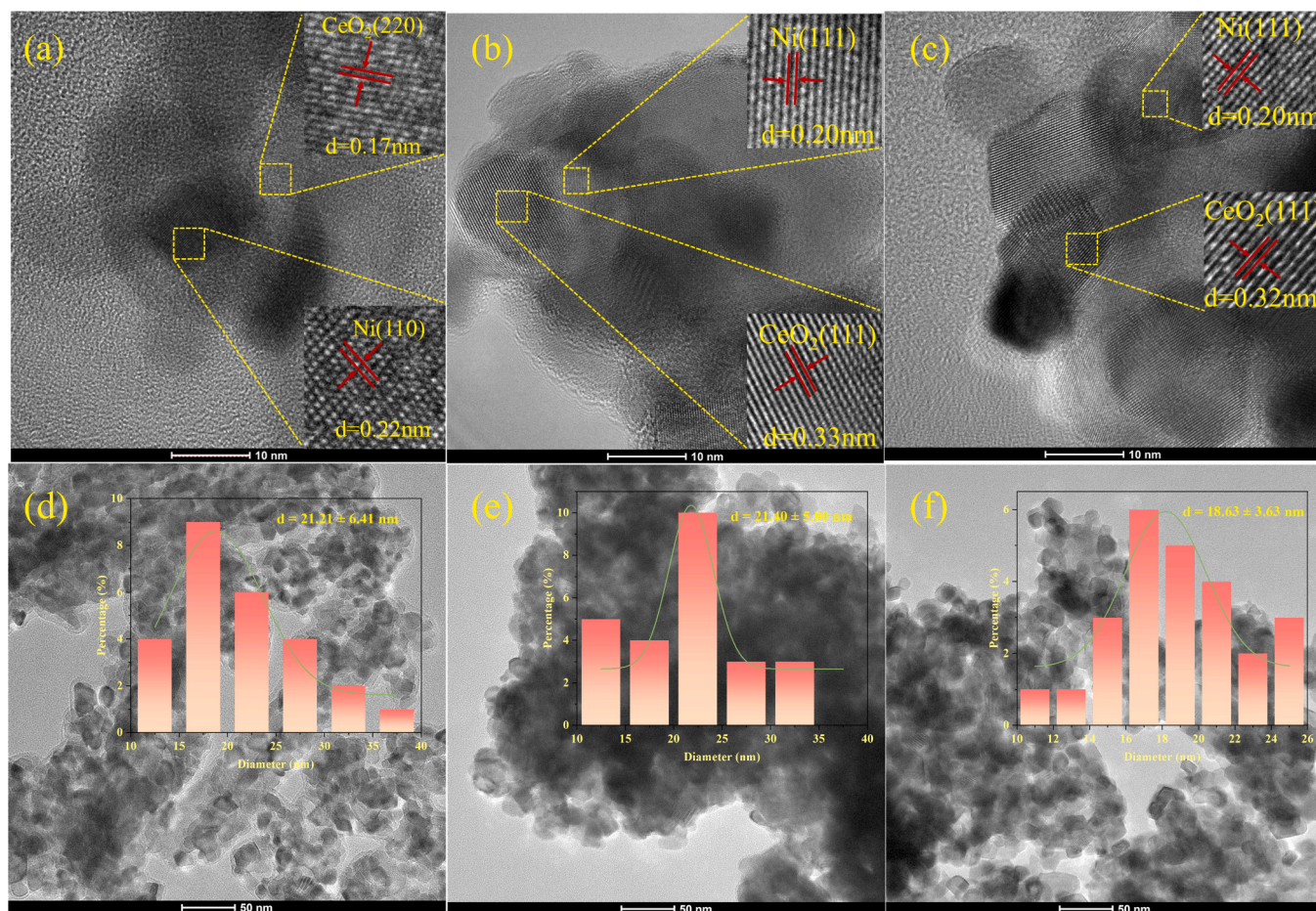


Fig. 8. HRTEM images obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts, (a, d) Ni/CeO₂-BTC, (b, e) Ni/CeO₂-MOF-808, (c, f) Ni/CeO₂-UiO-66.

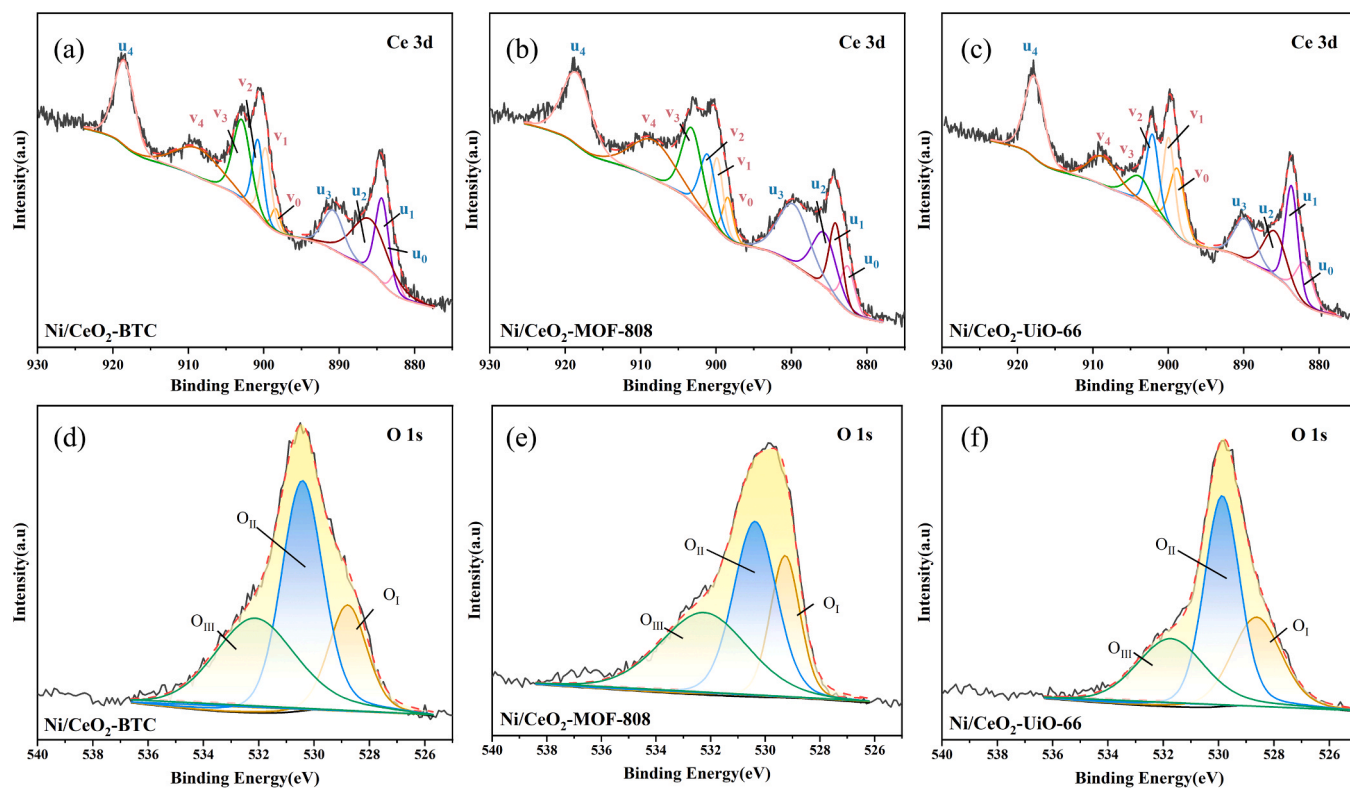


Fig. 9. XPS spectra obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts, (a, b, c) Ce 3d, (d, e, f) O 1s.

characteristic peaks of O1s, which can be assigned to lattice oxygen O_I (~528.8 eV), oxygen vacancy O_{II} (~530.4 eV) and surface adsorbed oxygen O_{III} (~532.1 eV) [20,53]. Usually, oxygen vacancies play a key role in activating CO₂. Table 3 shows the proportion of O_{II}/(O_I + O_{II} + O_{III}) from fitting peak area of all catalysts. Calculations indicate that the reduced Ni/CeO₂-BTC has the highest O_{II}/(O_I + O_{II} + O_{III}) ratios, so it implies more oxygen vacancies amounts. The above results show that CeO₂ derived from various MOFs has a major impact on the content of oxygen vacancies.

In comparison to the fresh catalysts (Fig. S4 and Table. S2), the binding energies of Ce and O elements remained largely unchanged across all catalysts (the fresh and reduced). However, a marked increase

in oxygen vacancy concentration was observed specifically in Ni/CeO₂-BTC and Ni/CeO₂-MOF-808. This phenomenon is likely attributable to its unique microstructural features, which may facilitate enhanced defect formation.

The oxygen vacancy information of the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts were recorded by Raman spectra, as illustrated in Fig. 10(a). All three samples exhibit a prominent peak at 460 cm⁻¹, caused by the local octahedral symmetry vibration of CeO₂ lattice (F_{2g}) [41,53]. The F_{2g} peak shifts to lower wavenumbers compared to pure CeO₂, which arises from the oxygen vacancy in Ni/CeO₂ catalyst derived from Ce-MOFs. A weak peak at 560 cm⁻¹ may ascribe to the Ni-induced extrinsic oxygen vacancies in CeO₂, and the characteristic peak at 590 cm⁻¹ belonged to vibration peak caused by surface defect-induced mode of CeO₂ (F_D) [54]. As aforementioned these features, verifying the generation of oxygen vacancy.

The basic strength and basicity site density obtained for the Ni/CeO₂-X catalysts derived from Ce-MOFs were evaluated by CO₂-TPD, as depicted in Fig. 10(b) and Table 4. The CO₂ desorption peaks (<320 °C) corresponded to the weak basic site. These peaks are typically associated with -OH groups and other oxygen species arising from weakly adsorbed oxygen on surface oxygen vacancies or Ni-O-Ce interfacial sites, where CO₂ is adsorbed in the form of bicarbonates [18,19]. The broad peaks (320–730 °C) were medium basic site resulting from the Lewis alkali on metal oxides, primarily due to the decomposition of bidentate carbonates [55]. The peaks (>730 °C) were attributed to strong basic site namely the O²⁻ anions as Lewis basic sites [56]. The CO₂ desorption curves of all samples were divided into three temperature regions including 50–320 °C, 320–730 °C and 730–800 °C, respectively. The CO₂ adsorption sites for the three catalysts are mainly composed of weak and medium basic sites, especially the weak basic site. The reported studies have manifested weak and medium basic sites are more favorable for the performance of CO₂ adsorption and activation than strong alkali sites [19,56]. While strong basic sites adverse to desorb the intermediate species/reactants [56]. Distinctly, despite possessing fewer effective basic sites than others, Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst achieved the

Table 3

Surface composition of the reduced Ni CeO₂-X catalysts calculated by their XPS results.

Catalyst	Ce (eV)		O (eV)			O _{II} /(O _I + O _{II} + O _{III})
	Ce ³⁺	Ce ⁴⁺	O _I	O _{II}	O _{III}	
Ni/CeO ₂ -BTC	882.5,	884.3,	528.8	530.4	532.1	0.45
	885.9	890.7				
	898.4,	899.8,				
	900.8	902.9				
		908.7,				
	918.5					
Ni/CeO ₂ -MOF-808	882.5,	884.1,	529.3	530.4	532.2	0.39
	885.7	889.7				
	898.4,	899.8,				
	901.1	903.2				
		908.3,				
	918.5					
Ni/CeO ₂ -UiO-66	882.0,	883.7,	528.6	529.9	531.7	0.44
	885.9	889.8				
	898.7,	899.9,				
	901.9	903.7				
		908.6,				
	917.8					

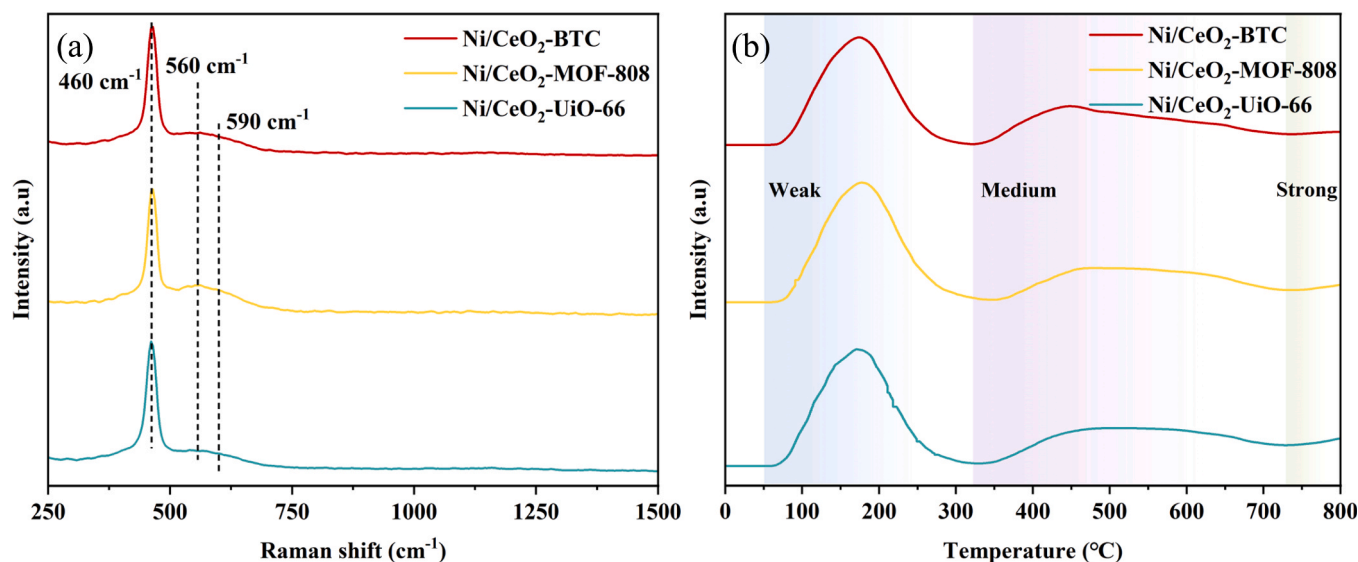


Fig. 10. Raman and CO₂-TPD profiles obtained for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-X catalyst, (a) Raman spectra, (b) CO₂-TPD.

Table 4

Basic sites on the Ni/CeO₂-X catalytic surface.

Catalyst	Temperature range (°C)	CO ₂ desorbed (mmol·g ⁻¹)	Effective basic sites (mmol·g ⁻¹) ^a	Total (mmol·g ⁻¹)
Ni/CeO ₂ -BTC	50–320	0.165	0.295	0.306
	320–730	0.130		
	730–800	0.011		
Ni/CeO ₂ -MOF-808	50–320	0.190	0.318	0.331
	320–730	0.128		
	730–800	0.013		
Ni/CeO ₂ -UiO-66	50–320	0.121	0.223	0.238
	320–730	0.102		
	730–800	0.015		

^a Effective basic site = Weak basic site (50–320 °C) + Moderate basic site (320–730 °C).

highest CO₂ conversion under identical conditions, suggesting that basic strength alone is not unique factors for catalytic activity. Lastly, based on those results in present paper, the CO₂ conversion of different catalysts was analyzed in relation to their specific surface area, oxygen vacancies, and total base density, as illustrated in Fig. S8. Results show that the CO₂ conversion of Ni/CeO₂ catalysts derived from Ce-MOFs exhibits only linearly related to the specific surface area of the catalyst, with no linear relationship observed for other factors. This discrepancy may stem from variations in catalyst morphology.

3.3. Molecular simulation models and DFT studies

Based on the results of XRD and according to XPS profiles for the reduced Ni/CeO₂-BTC catalyst, the oxygen vacancy resulted in the shift between Ce³⁺ and Ce⁴⁺ was to be formed in those catalysts. Also, CeO₂ (111) is the most easily exposed plane in our present work, which also means it has abundant oxygen vacancies, as well as indicating this crystal facet demonstrates greater potential for effective loading of active Ni species. Further DFT calculations on the reactant's adsorption at the surface of catalyst were carried out using Ni₄/CeO₂ (111). The adsorbed CO₂ serves as a prerequisite for the subsequent reactions continuing. The oxygen vacancy formation energies (E_{vac}) are calculated by the Eq. (6):

$$E_{vac} = E_{def} - E_{per} + 1/2E_{O_2} \quad (6)$$

where E_{def} is the defect model energy, E_{per} is the perfect model energy, E_{O_2} is the free oxygen molecule energy.

The vacancy formation energy for the Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) surface

generating one oxygen vacancy was calculated to be 2.5 eV, which is a similar value with the results of Yang et al. [57]. Seen from the optimized configurations of Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) in Fig. 11(a), three Ni atoms interact with O atoms from CeO₂ (111) surface, suggesting that CeO₂ (111) stabilizes Ni₄ clusters.

As being critical initial step in the hydrogenation process, the adsorption of CO₂ on the Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) surface was investigated in this work. The CO₂ adsorption at site 1 was presented as depicted in Fig. 2(d) and Fig. 11(b). For the perfect and defect Ni₄/CeO₂ (111), CO₂ molecule tilts from a perpendicular orientation to approximately 45° relative to the surface. However, the ΔE_{ads} were extremely low, only -0.039 eV and -0.047 eV respectively (Fig. S5(c)). The difference in ΔE_{ads} suggested that defective Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) was more favorable for CO₂ adsorption and C=O bond activation by serving as the Lewis basic site for CO₂ adsorption [57]. Based on this case, subsequent calculations for some possible initial adsorption sites on the defective surface were carried out. The ΔE_{ads} for these sites were listed in Fig. 11(c), it was found that strong chemisorption of CO₂ in sites 2, site 3 and sites 4 was shown, while site 1 only was a physisorption process. And the highest ΔE_{ads} of CO₂ on Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) was at site 4 (-0.77 eV), where CO₂ adsorption at the interface of Ni-O-Ce. The ΔE_{ads} of site 2 and site 3 ranged from -0.64 eV to 0.66 eV (i.e., close with each other), where CO₂ adsorbed at the edge and vertex of the cluster respectively. The largest ΔE_{ads} at site 4 compared with other sites can be attributed to the influence exerted on CO₂ molecular by both supported Ni atoms and the CeO₂ (111) surface O atoms.

For site 4 (Fig. 11(b) and Table 5), the C=O bond length elongated to 1.29 Å without cleavage, and C atom approached CeO₂ (111) surface O atom, causing the destruction of initial CO₂ configuration from linear to

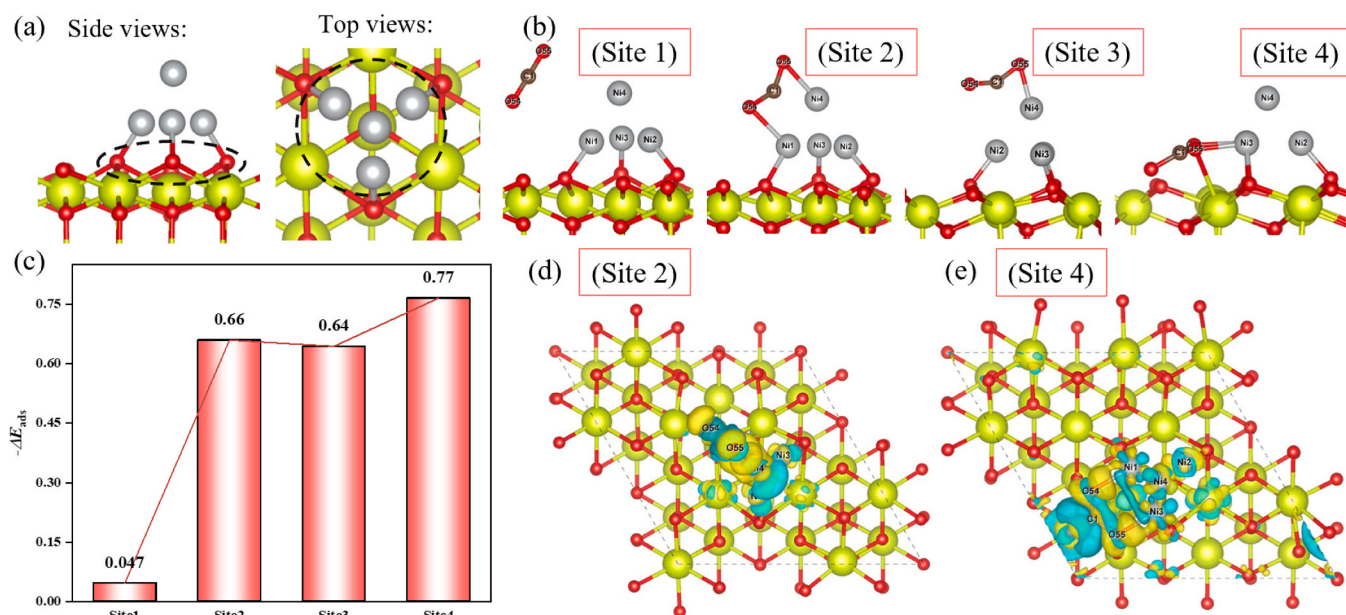


Fig. 11. (a) Ni₄/CeO₂ (111)-Perfect/Defect-Optimized configurations side and top view; (b), (c) The four different adsorption configuration and their ΔE_{ads} of CO₂ on defective Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) surface; (d), (e) Charge density difference distribution of CO₂ adsorption on defect configuration at site 2 and site 4: yellow (electron-rich)/blue (electron-deficient).

Table 5

The C=O bond lengths ($D: c=O_{54,55}$), the bond angle of $O=C=O$, and the charge transfer to the adsorbed CO₂ on CeO₂ (111) supported Ni₄ cluster at site 1, site 2, site 3, site 4 (corresponding to Fig. 11b and d).

Site	$D: c=O_{54}$ (Å)	$D: c=O_{55}$ (Å)	Angle: $o=c=O$ (°)	$\Delta Q(e)$
1	1.178	1.178	179.2	/
2	1.235	1.253	142.0	-0.59
3	1.202	1.257	147.4	/
4	2.095	2.058	122.1	-0.49

bent with the bond angle of 122.1°. The bent shape is an activating CO₂ adsorbed on catalyst surface, but it does not mean the carbonate structure [58]. To further uncover the intrinsic causes of adsorption energy variations, the relevant electronic structure information was obtained. Additionally, considering that the ΔE_{ads} of site 2 and site 3 were quite close with each other, only sites 2 and 4 were calculated. Differential charge density and Bader charge analysis (Fig. 11(d), (f) and Fig. S5(a), (b)) showed that charge density redistribution occurred between CO₂ and Ni₄ cluster due to electron transfer from Ni to O atoms. The adsorbed CO₂ molecule was negatively charged (-0.59 |e|, -0.49 |e|, respectively), which indicated that the CO₂ molecule had been activated.

Projected density of states (PDOS¹) of the whole system adsorbing CO₂ on the sites 2 and 4 were calculated, which contributes to comprehending the activation progress of gas molecules on the catalyst surface accurately. Sites 2 and 4 showed mutual changes in some regions. Fig. 12(a), (c) and Fig. S6(a), (c) revealed that the s orbital of CO₂ at two sites was of no obvious change. The band of adsorbed CO₂ at two sites moved to higher energy level compared with isolated CO₂. The electron states of Partial density of states (PDOS²) of all CO₂ are all contributed by s and p orbital electrons at low and high energy positions, respectively. Besides, an apparent overlap between the p orbital of CO₂ and d orbital of Ni originating from the interaction between Ni and CO₂ under Fermi energy level, which led to the original double degenerate $1\pi_g$ orbital of CO₂ having an apparent energy level split (Fig. 12(d), (f) and Fig. S6(d), (f)). However, the overlap of p orbitals of CO₂ and d orbitals of Ni between site 2 and site 4 was differed, with overlapping at site 4 being more obvious. This indicates differences in the interaction between CO₂ and substrate, corresponding to weak and strong

adsorption behaviors on the Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) surface, respectively. Near the Fermi energy level (Fig. 12(f)), a new DOS contribution emerged resulting from the interaction between $2\pi^*$ orbital of CO₂ and d orbital of Ni, with the β spin orbital showing better energy matching. As aforementioned, those analyses indicate that the defect Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) surface is conducive to the activation of CO₂ molecules.

4. Conclusions

In this work, a series of MOFs derived Ni/CeO₂-X with various morphologies had been successfully fabricated and 10 wt% Ni was loaded via impregnation method, as well as their efficiencies were tested in catalyzing CO₂ hydrogenation to CH₄. Moreover, by combining theoretical calculations, we explored the adsorption and activation of CO₂ in Ni₄/CeO₂ catalyst surface. The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

- (1) The Ni/CeO₂ catalysts with different CeO₂ morphologies exhibited differences in catalytic performance for CO₂ methanation. Comprehensive characterization results demonstrated that Ni/CeO₂-BTC exhibited superior physical and chemical properties, including oxygen vacancies, specific surface area, and as well as catalytic activity in CO₂ conversion under the same conditions.
- (2) It was found that Ni/CeO₂-BTC with rod-like structures exhibited the best CO₂ conversion in all testing conditions, although its methane selectivity was not the highest among all the samples. The metallic Ni particles achieve good dispersion on the MOF-derived CeO₂ support due to the special pore structure of the MOFs. Additionally, the redox couple of Ce³⁺/Ce⁴⁺ associated with oxygen vacancy was also crucial for improving catalytic activity towards CO₂ reduction.
- (3) DFT calculation also demonstrated that oxygen vacancies as the Lewis basic site were conducive to the adsorption and activation of CO₂ on the Ni₄/CeO₂ (111). Compared with the other adsorption sites in paper, it preferred adsorbing at the interface of Ni-O-Ce. This enhanced adsorption was ascribed to a stronger interaction between Ni and the adsorbate, which facilitated charge transfer and promoted CO₂ activation.

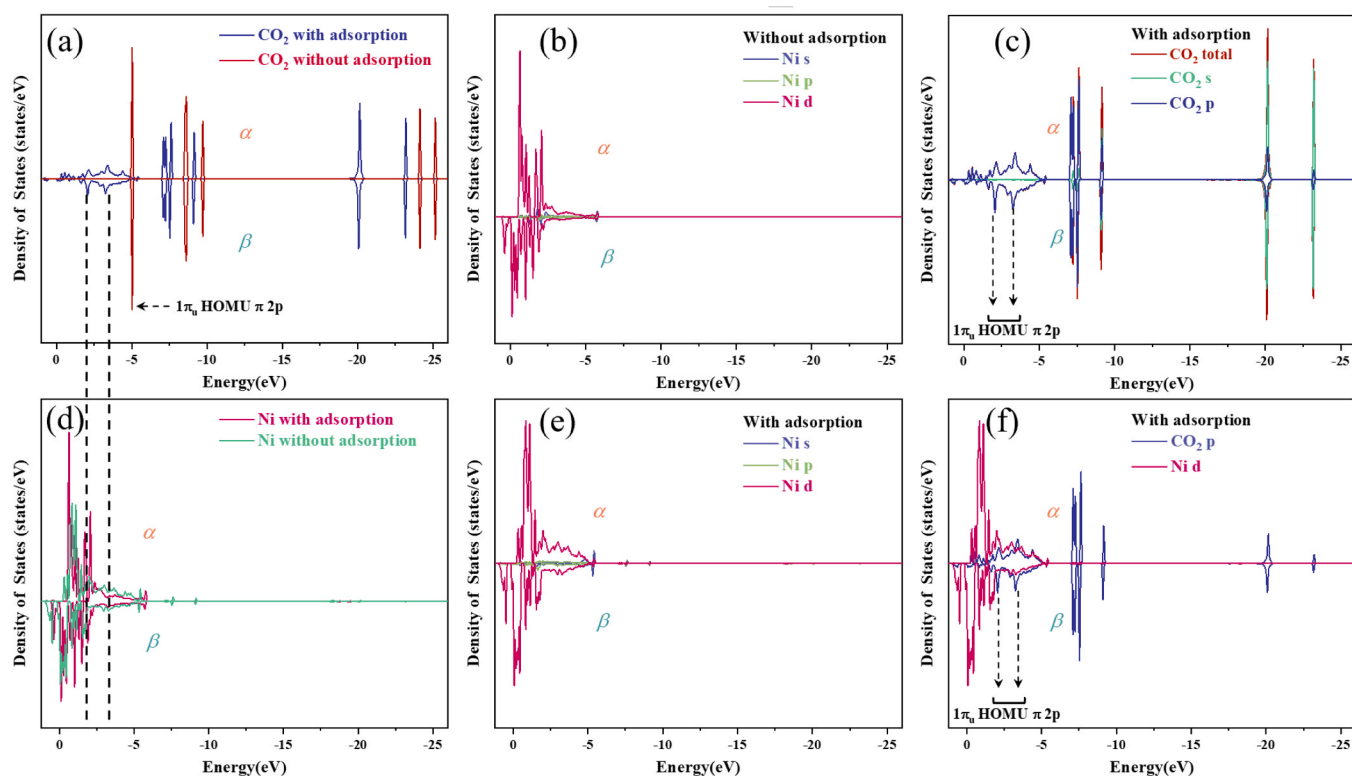


Fig. 12. (a), (d) Projected Density of States (PDOS¹) of CO₂ and Ni of site 4 on defect configuration with and without adsorption; (b) Partial density of states (PDOS²) of Ni₄/CeO₂ (111) without adsorption; (c) PDOS² of s and p orbital of adsorbed CO₂ at site 4; (e) PDOS² of Ni s, p, d orbital interacting with O of CO₂ at site 4; (f) PDOS² of CO₂ p, Ni d orbital post-adsorption of site 4.

The significance of this study lies in exploring the performance of catalysts with various MOF morphologies in CO₂ reduction, potentially benefiting the synthesis of valuable chemical in the carbon circular economy. Given the complexity of the CO₂ methanation mechanism, advanced in-situ characterization methods are expected to be employed to thoroughly analyze the chemical state changes of intermediates and gradually clarify the reaction mechanism. In DFT simulation, factors such as multiple oxygen vacancies on the surface or bulk, the molecular dynamic and metal Ni loading are worth considering for a comprehensive investigation of reaction mechanisms from the atomic level. It is essential to broaden the application scope (Electrochemical catalysis, Green H₂ production and large-scale synthetic natural gas) in view of the superior physical and chemical properties of MOFs-derived catalyst in the future.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Zehua Huang: Visualization, Supervision. **Xi Chen:** Formal analysis. **Jidong Lu:** Writing – review & editing, Project administration, Conceptualization. **Jinke Wu:** Writing – original draft, Software, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Meirong Dong:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Hongchuan Liu:** Writing – review & editing, Conceptualization. **Junshu Yang:** Data curation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced this work.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.jece.2025.118575](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jece.2025.118575).

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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