Catalytic CO2 Hydrogenation - Literature Review: Technology Development since 2014

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Catalytic CO₂ Hydrogenation – Literature Review: Technology Development since 2014

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Abstract

Global atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration from fossil fuel combustion has generated much concern because of the several environmental issues associated with high levels of atmospheric CO₂, a major greenhouse gas. In order to reduce the risks associated with global warming, the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration must be prevented. CO₂ capture and conversion not only mitigates the risks associated with increasing CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere, but also addresses the problem of fossil fuel depletion by providing sustainable production of industrial demanded fuels and chemicals.

This literature review analyzes several of the most promising products that can be generated via catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation and discusses advancements in catalysis. Primary focus is on CO₂ conversion, selectivity to desired products, and stability of the catalysts. A summary is included at the end of the review that discusses the most promising catalytic advancements since 2014.
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1. Introduction

Global atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentration from fossil fuel combustion has grown dramatically since the beginning of the industrial revolution. The rise in atmospheric CO₂ levels due to fossil fuel combustion has generated much concern because of the several environmental issues associated with CO₂, a major greenhouse gas. This includes the acidification of oceans and the rise in average global temperatures, known as global warming, which can cause the melting of ice caps and increased severity in weather patterns [1]. In order to reduce the risks associated with global warming, the increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration must be prevented. As a result, CO₂ capture is a developing field with many new publications.

Carbon dioxide capture and sequestration has received much attention, but the recycling of carbon contained in CO₂ through chemical transformation into industrially valuable chemicals and fuels has a more promising outlook. CO₂ capture and conversion not only mitigates the risks associated with increasing CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere, but also addresses the problem of fossil fuel depletion by providing sustainable production of industrial demanded fuels and chemicals.

Considering the global production of CO₂ and the increasing capacity of CO₂ capture, technologies capable of utilizing large quantities of CO₂ as building blocks for commodity chemicals must be produced. A particularly significant developing technology is catalytic hydrogenation of CO₂, important due to its ability to convert large quantities of CO₂ in a short timeframe [2]. However, CO₂ is kinetically and thermodynamically stable; thus CO₂ conversion reactions are endothermic and require efficient catalysts to obtain a high yield of the desired product [1].
2. Carbon Dioxide Hydrogenation

The reactions of CO\textsubscript{2} with hydrogen (H\textsubscript{2}) offer various pathways for fuel and industrial chemical production. Primary fuels and chemicals include carbon monoxide (CO), formic acid and formaldehyde, methane, higher hydrocarbons and oxygenates, and methanol as shown in Figure 1. These products can be produced through direct CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation or via an intermediate product.

Several products generated from CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation are currently demanded in industrial quantities, due to existing infrastructure, while there is potential for other hydrogenation products to be demanded in similar quantities in the coming decades [3]. Renewable energy sources, such as solar, wind, and hydroelectric energy, have been proposed as the energy source for CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation. Utilizing renewable energy sources as a means to produce fuels and chemicals is promising as the intermittent energy sources can be converted to stable chemical energy, which can be transported and used as demanded [1, 3].

![Figure 1. CO\textsubscript{2} hydrogenation pathways to major products discussed in this review.](image-url)
Due to the kinetic stability of the \( \text{CO}_2 \) molecule, \( \text{CO}_2 \) hydrogenation requires efficient catalysts; these processes have historically utilized metal-based catalysts. Precious metals, which are used in the production of formic acid and other chemicals, typically demonstrate good catalytic activity and selectivity, but are expensive and are often deactivated by oxidation. Other metal-based catalysts include copper-based, which have been highly studied for CO production via the Reverse Water Gas Shift (RWGS) reaction, cobalt-based, and nickel-based systems. Copper based systems have poor thermal stability, thus, are not suitable for high temperature reactions without a thermal stabilizer. Cerium-based catalysts have also shown good activity and selectivity for \( \text{CO}_2 \) hydrogenation process, but are easily deactivated by a small coverage of deposited carbon [4].

All historically utilized catalysts are limited by conversion and selectivity. Various catalytic modifications and supports have been researched in order to enhance the conversion of \( \text{CO}_2 \) and the selectivity to the desired product. Catalyst optimization will lead to enhanced performance at ideal process conditions [3, 4].

2.1 Synthesis Gas

Methane-\( \text{CO}_2 \) reforming is utilized to produce synthesis gas, typically called syngas. Traditionally, this mixture of carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrogen (\( \text{H}_2 \)) is produced by steam reforming. In steam reforming, a carbon containing source material, usually methane (\( \text{CH}_4 \)), is converted into a mixture of CO and \( \text{H}_2 \) via steam injection, as shown.

\[
\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO} + 3\text{H}_2
\]
Evaluating the source of H₂ utilized in further CO₂ hydrogenation steps is necessary, as steam reforming requires large energy inputs; thus, large CO₂ emissions are associated with steam reforming plant operations and sustainable operations are not achieved. Instead, syngas can be produced via dry or wet CH₄-CO₂ reforming. In dry methane reforming, methane is converted into a mixture of CO and H₂ via CO₂ injection, as shown.

\[ \text{CH}_4 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO} + 2\text{H}_2 \]

In wet methane reforming, methane is converted into a mixture of CO and H₂ via simultaneous steam and CO₂ injection; this process if often called bi-reforming and produced a different ratio of CO:H₂ than either steam reforming or methane-CO₂ reforming.

\[ 3\text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{CO} + 8\text{H}_2 \]

The use of CO₂ as a carbon source for synthesis gas production is advantageous, as it could potentially enable sustainable plant operations via CO₂ recycling. That is, CO₂ produced during fuel combustion can be utilized directly in methane reforming.

Synthesis gas produced via methane reforming has many utilizations. H₂ can be directly utilized as an environmentally attractive fuel, with uses including the Proton Exchange Membrane (PEM) fuel cell or can be used in the production of valuable chemicals and fuels via CO₂ hydrogenation. Carbon monoxide is an industrial gas used as a raw product in many bulk chemical manufacturing and other industrial processes. It serves as a carbon source for the production of hydrocarbon fuels, lubricants, and
oxygenates via FT synthesis [3]. The direct CO$_2$ hydrogenation reaction to hydrocarbons is similar to the FT synthesis, but favors the production of methane.

2.2 Methane and Higher Hydrocarbons

Methane is the major constituent of natural gas and is widely utilized for both electricity generation and heating. It is currently in high demand due to existing infrastructure for both transport and distribution, but is also in abundance because of development in the production of shale gas and tight gas [3]. Higher hydrocarbons include those used for transport fuels like gasoline and diesel fuel. Transport fuels are currently useful due to the compatibility with existing transportation infrastructure and technology and are expected to remain in high demand as primary uses include use in combustion engines [3].

The primary technology utilized to produce liquid hydrocarbon fuels from synthesis gas is FT synthesis, but CO$_2$ can also be hydrogenated to hydrocarbons in a similar synthesis. This can occur by either direct or indirect methods and typically favors the production of light hydrocarbons, such as methane. Catalytic hydrogenation of CO$_2$ to methane, or the Sabatier reaction, is well known. It is a thermodynamically favorable process, but is kinetically limited. Thus, catalysts are required to achieve acceptable rates of methane production. The Sabatier reaction is less promising than other hydrogenation processes due to its larger consumption of H$_2$ and lower energy per volume [5].

$$CO_2 + 4H_2 \rightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$$

As stated, CO$_2$ hydrogenation to methane can be completed in either an indirect or direct method. The indirect route can be occur in a single or multi-step process; both
processes perform multiple reactions, typically with a methanol intermediate formation [5]. The first reaction is the hydrogenation of CO\(_2\) to CO and water.

\[ CO_2 + H_2 \rightarrow CO + H_2O \]

The second reaction is the FT synthesis, or hydrogenation of CO, to produce hydrocarbons.

\[ CO + 2H_2 \rightarrow (CH_2) + H_2O \]

If a single step process is utilized, a hybrid catalyst can used to simultaneously catalyze both hydrogenation reactions; if a multi-step process is utilized, a different catalyst can be used for each reaction.

Although the indirect route includes more reactions and the use of multiple or hybrid catalysts, it allows for a higher degree of selectivity. The competition between CO\(_2\) and CO must be considered and has been widely studied. Zhang et al. have shown that, using cobalt catalysts, CO\(_2\) hydrogenation proceeds very slowly in the presence of CO; that is, CO is adsorbed on the cobalt surface to a much greater extent than CO\(_2\).

While the hydrogenation of pure CO or CO\(_2\) show similar catalytic activities, very different selectivities are seen. That is, CO\(_2\) hydrogenation products contained about 70% more methane than CO hydrogenation product distributions [6]. Figure 2 shows the selectivity to CH\(_4\) for both CO and CO\(_2\) as a function of Time on Stream (TOS) over a Co-SiO\(_2\) catalyst for pure feed streams of CO and CO\(_2\), respectively. This extreme difference in selectivity requires that methane formation occurs by two separate and
different reaction pathways in CO and CO₂ conversion [6].

Figure 2. CO₂ hydrogenation as a function of Time on Stream (TOS) over a Co-SiO₂ catalyst.

The indirect route also allows for the enhancement of overall conversion. Figure 3 shows the overall conversion of CO₂ as a function of TOS. Reaction occurred over a Co-Pt/Al₂O₃ catalysts with a H₂:CO ratio of 4:1 in the feed gas [6]. The flow rate of was adjusted to study stability and deactivation. The catalysts did not deactivate after 24 hours when the conversion was approximately 42%; however, when the flow rate decreased, the conversion initially increased to around 55%, but began to deactivate
slowly until it leveled off at a conversion of approximately 40% [6].

Figure 3. \( \text{CO}_2 \) conversion via hydrogenation over a Co-Pt/Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) catalyst.

As seen above, \( \text{CO}_2 \) hydrogenation utilizes a different reaction pathway than FT synthesis. However, both syntheses can be utilized to produce methane and higher hydrocarbons [5]. The major drawbacks of these syntheses is that they typically produce a broad spectrum of products; that is, 100% selectivity to a single product is challenging to achieve.

Melaet et al. have recently evaluated the catalytic activity and selectivity of Co/TiO\(_2\) and Co/SiO\(_2\) catalysts with both metallic and oxidized Co. This research was based on the fact that surface science dictates that cobalt (Co) is necessary to disassociate CO and that the metallic state is most likely the active state. Both supports
were investigated as it is known that the nature of the support influences the particle size distribution and dispersion. Melaet et al. have determined that a cobalt oxide catalyst is more active and selective than its metallic equivalent on a TiO$_2$ support [7].

![Graph showing selectivity to methane over TiO$_2$ and SiO$_2$ supports in both reduced and oxidized states.]

Figure 4. Cobalt catalyst percent selectivity to methane over TiO$_2$ and SiO$_2$ supports in both reduced and oxidized states.

Figure 4 shows that the Co/TiO$_2$ catalysts performed approximately 5-fold better when in the oxidized rather than reduced state and selectivity for methane was largely improved. Additionally, the Co/TiO$_2$ catalysts enhanced the selectivity to methane compared to the Co/SiO$_2$ catalysts in the metallic state. It is believed that oxidized Co forms a catalytically active and unique interface with TiO$_2$. This interaction enhances the activity of both CO and CO$_2$ hydrogenation with regards to metallic Co/TiO$_2$. This catalytic data enhances our understanding of the surface chemistry associated with the FT synthesis and CO$_2$ hydrogenation reactions and allows the product distribution to be fine-tuned by utilizing metal/metal-support interaction [7].
Both CO and CO$_2$ hydrogenation relate directly to methane, hydrocarbons, and oxygenates, allowing sustainable production of chemicals and fuels that are highly demanded in today’s energy marketplace. Although CO$_2$ hydrogenation can be used for sustainable production of currently demanded fuels and chemicals, it is also a promising technology for future developments and potentially demanded resources. Primarily, CO$_2$ hydrogenation could be integral to the formation of a hydrogen economy where H$_2$ is used as a primary energy storage and transportation medium, enabling sustainable development. Formic acid is considered a necessary chemical in the hydrogen economy.

2.3 Formic Acid

Formic acid is the simplest carboxylic acid and can be used as a building block for commodity chemicals, though its utilization is more limited compared to other products produced via CO$_2$ hydrogenation. Currently, it is used in the textile industry, cleaning, as a preservative and is produced through the combination of CO and methanol with a strong base.

Formic acid is considered a promising technology for chemical storage of hydrogen. Chemical storage of hydrogen involves media that contain hydrogen in chemically bonded forms; the release of hydrogen begins when the storage media is exposed to thermal or catalytic decomposition. Challenges of chemical hydrogen storage include ease of storage and delivery processes, storage capacity, and stability of the storage material [8]. Formic acid is a promising chemical for hydrogen storage as it has a volumetric hydrogen density of 53 g of H$_2$ per liter, a low-toxicity, and is liquid under ambient conditions, and decomposes to hydrogen under mild conditions [8, 9].
Figure 5. The formic acid and CO$_2$ cycle for hydrogen storage.

Demand of formic acid could increase significantly within the context of the hydrogen economy with the development of an efficient formic acid dehydrogenation catalyst [3, 9]. Hydrogen production from formic acid has typically been achieved with a variety of homogeneous and heterogeneous catalysts, such as gold-ceria catalysts and other noble metals [8]. The concept of a hydrogen economy would be even more attractive should a viable hydrogenation catalyst become available that is capable of reducing CO$_2$ with hydrogen in the absence of a base [9].

The conversion of CO$_2$ into formic acid is highly difficult and controlled by the pH of the solution with basic media being favorable. In a recent study, Moret et al. have recently discovered a homogeneous ruthenium-based catalyst with water soluble phosphine ligands, [RuCl$_2$(PTA)$_4$], that hydrogenates CO$_2$ into formic acid in acidic media, without the need of buffers, amines, or bases. These water soluble ligands include 1,3,5-triaza-7-phosphaadamantane (PTA). Possible catalytic intermediates were discovered using NMR spectroscopy; these intermediates include the monohydride and dihydride species, [RuH$_2$(PTA)$_4$] and [HRu(PTA)$_4$Cl], of the ruthenium complex; a tentative catalytic cycle was proposed based on the observed data and prior literature in which the ruthenium-based catalysts hydrogenates to the monohydride species, reacts with CO$_2$, and loses a formic acid molecule to return to the monohydride species [9].
Figure 6 shows the proposed catalytic cycle for CO$_2$ hydrogenation using [RuCl$_2$(PTA)$_4$] catalyst in DMSO.

This complex catalyzes the direct hydrogenation of CO$_2$ to formic acid in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), which is highly stable and can be recycled without loss of activity, at significantly higher concentrations than other catalysts have shown, approximately 15 volume percent. Additionally, the separation of formic acid from the reaction mixture is much simpler without the need of a base [9].

Recent developments for the dehydrogenation of formic acid include complexes based on iron, a cheap and abundant element, such as the recently researched pincer-supported iron catalyst [10, 11]. Although the results with the first-row transition metals
are promising, they are still inferior to the results achieved with precious metal catalysts. It is also unclear what role the additives in the catalytic reaction is; an increased understanding of additives could lead to the enhancement of the catalysis of formic acid dehydrogenation by inexpensive iron-based catalysts [10].

Efficient catalysts capable of converting CO$_2$ directly into formic acid and selectively decomposing formic acid into H$_2$ and CO$_2$ may help to propel a hydrogen-based economy. The homogeneous ruthenium catalyst developed by Moret et al. that is considerably more sustainable than existing routes and the recent developments in inexpensive iron-based formic acid dehydrogenation catalysts will be imperative in the developing the use of formic acid as a renewable energy hydrogen carrier.

2.4 Methanol

Methanol has many potential uses due to its flexibility. It is a great fuel that can be blended with gasoline or used directly in fuel cells and is a key starting material for many industrial chemicals, such as acetic acid or formaldehyde. This versatility led to the idea of the, “methanol economy,” proposed by George A. Olah [3]. In the methanol economy, an alternative to the previously discussed hydrogen economy, methanol replaces fossil fuels as a mean for energy storage, transportation, and raw materials for chemical production; in combination with CO$_2$ hydrogenation, the methanol economy is a possibility for sustainable production and development.

Methanol is synthesized industrially from gas mixtures of H$_2$, CO$_2$, and CO at elevated pressures and temperatures with Cu/ZnO/Al$_2$O$_3$ industrial catalysts [12]. This catalytic system has also been proposed for the production of methanol via CO$_2$ hydrogenation as Cu/ZnO based catalysts have been studied extensively for the
catalysis of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol. Generally, methanol synthesis by CO₂ hydrogenation contains three competing reactions. The first reaction is the direct synthesis of methanol from CO₂, as follows.

\[ CO₂ + 3H₂ → CH₃OH + H₂O \]

The second reaction is the hydrogenation of CO to methanol, as follows.

\[ CO + 2H₂ → CH₃OH \]

The third reaction is the endothermic reverse water gas shift reaction, which has been discussed above and is shown again.

\[ CO₂ + H₂ → CO + H₂O \]

In order to fully understand catalytic performance, the kinetics and thermodynamics of the three competing reactions must be considered. Reaction kinetics are largely influenced by the catalyst utilized and the residence time of the reactor, while the thermodynamics are influenced by the reactor conditions, such as temperature and pressure. Typical single pass CO₂ conversion through a fixed bed reactor are in the range of 20%-40%, with nearly complete CO₂ conversion and high methanol selectivity being achieved by recycling the unreacted components. However, it is advantageous to omit the recycling process; this can be accomplished through the development of an efficient catalyst that would achieve high single pass CO₂ conversion and methanol selectivity [3].

Palladium (Pd) supported over gallium oxide (Ga₂O₃) is a prominent catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol because gallia polymorphs can be converted to a thermodynamically stable crystalline phase at high temperatures. This phase is called the β form in which the Pd-Ga intermetallic compound increases the catalytic
performance for CO$_2$ hydrogenation to methanol; the gallium oxide polymorphism and stability was studied by Roy et al. in 1952 and can be applied to Pd/Ga$_2$O$_3$ catalysts for methanol synthesis [13, 14].

A recent study was conducted by Oyola-Rivera et al. that utilized a Pd-Pd$_2$Ga catalyst supported over Ga$_2$O$_3$ polymorphs ($\alpha$-Ga$_2$O$_3$, $\alpha$-$\beta$-Ga$_2$O$_3$, $\beta$-Ga$_2$O$_3$). This research was conducted in order to better understand the role of Pd catalysts supported on Ga$_2$O$_3$ polymorphs in the conversion of CO$_2$ to methanol with a focus on CO$_2$ adsorption and characterization aspects [13]. Pd/Ga$_2$O$_3$ based catalysts are considered an alternative to Cu/ZnO catalysts for CO$_2$ hydrogenation to methanol.

The primary reaction product for CO$_2$ hydrogenation on a Pd/Ga$_2$O$_3$ catalysts at 543 K and 1.72 MPa is methanol, with trace amounts of dimethyl ether produced by methanol dehydration at the acid sites of Ga$_2$O$_3$. It was determined that the catalytic activity improves with an increase in the amount of Pd$_2$Ga intermetallic compound, and thus, less metallic Pd. This is advantageous as a reduction in metallic Pd allows for the catalysts to be produced with less cost. Although high selectivity can be achieved, figure 7 shows that the CO$_2$ conversion was relatively low for all Ga$_2$O$_3$ polymorphs. The maximum conversion achieved at 543 K and 1.71 MPa was approximately 16% on an $\alpha$-Ga$_2$O$_3$ support.
Figure 7. CO2 conversion as a function of TOS for Pd catalysts supported on Ga2O3 polymorphs at 543 K and 1.72 MPa.

Other major catalysts for CO2 hydrogenation to methanol include Cu/ZnO based catalysts. A recent study has identified the active site for the activation of CO2 during the synthesis of methanol on Cu/ZnO/Al2O3 industrial catalysts [12]. The active site consists of copper surface defects with zinc atoms present; because copper does not actively interact with CO2, substitution of zinc into the copper surface defects strengthens the binding of intermediates and increases the activity of the catalysts [12, 15].

Because copper interacts very poorly with CO2, and zinc is necessary to enhance binding of intermediates and accelerate conversion, Graciani et al. have provided theoretical evidence for an entirely different type of site for CO2 activation [15]. They
have suggested the use of a Cu-ceria interface, which is highly active for the synthesis of methanol from CO$_2$, because the combination of metal and oxide centers in the Cu-ceria interface provides favorable reaction pathways that are not seen over a Cu-Zn alloy, such as Cu/ZnO/Al$_2$O$_3$ industrial catalysts. Specifically, the ceria component enhances the stability of CO$_2$ on the catalyst surface, allowing for efficient routes of methanol synthesis not seen on pure Cu or Cu/Zn alloys [15].

Understanding activation is an important approach to the conversion of CO$_2$ because it aids in overcoming the chemical inertness of CO$_2$. The research conducted by Graciani et al. is an important step in understanding CO$_2$ activation and can be used to overcome its kinetic limitations. This understanding can also be expanded to the production of dimethyl ether via CO$_2$ hydrogenation.

2.5 Dimethyl Ether

Dimethyl Ether (DME) is another attractive chemical as it is a potential substitute for diesel fuel with better combustion performance, usable as a chemical feedstock for production of oxygenates, olefins, and hydrocarbons, and an efficient H$_2$ carrier for fuel cells or other applications [3, 16]. DME can be synthesized from methanol via a dehydration reaction or via a one-step hydrogenation reaction of CO$_2$; typical production of DME utilizes a two-step process. In this two-step process, methanol is synthesized from syngas and then DME is produced from the dehydration of methanol. A two-step process allows methanol to be synthesized on a metallic catalysts and then dehydrated on an acid catalyst in separate reactors. However, a superior method integrates this two-step process into a single step in which methanol is synthesized and dehydrated in the same step utilizing a bifunctional catalyst, though only a few articles discuss the
direct synthesis of DME via CO$_2$ hydrogenation [17]. A single step process has an economic advantage over a two-step process, but the utilization of bifunctional catalysts requires that the catalysts efficiently catalyze both methanol synthesis and dehydration reactions. Regardless of which method of synthesis is chosen, a two-step or a single step process, three independent reactions are involved in DME synthesis. The first reaction is the direct synthesis of methanol from CO$_2$, as follows.

$$CO_2 + 3H_2 \rightarrow CH_3OH + H_2O$$

The second reaction is the dehydration of methanol to DME, as follows.

$$2CH_3OH \rightarrow CH_3OCH_3 + H_2O$$

The third reaction is the endothermic reverse water gas shift reaction, which has been discussed above and is shown again.

$$CO_2 + H_2 \rightarrow CO + H_2O$$

These three reactions are very similar to the methanol synthesis reactions discussed above. As a result, catalysts for the direct CO$_2$ to DME process must be able to efficiently catalyze both methanol synthesis and dehydration reactions, while minimizing the yield of CO produced via the RWGS reaction [13, 16, 17].

Oyola-Rivera and coworkers use of Pd-Pd$_2$Ga catalyst supported over Ga$_2$O$_3$ polymorphs, which was previously discussed, also examined the single step synthesis of DME via CO$_2$ hydrogenation. As mentioned above, DME was observed as a result of methanol dehydration at the acid sites of Ga$_2$O$_3$. It was determined that the selectivity to DME was not dependent on Pd$_2$Ga content, but instead was dependent on the catalyst acidity. By adding the highly acidic niobium oxide (Nb2O5) to the catalyst surface, Oyola-Rivera and coworkers were able to increase the selectivity for DME from mere
traces to approximately 53%; the disadvantages of adding niobium oxide to the surface include the reduction in catalytic surface area of about 30% [13]. This demonstrated that the selectivity to DME can be enhanced by the addition of an acidic species on the catalyst surface.

Other bifunctional catalysts for the single step conversion of CO$_2$ to DME include Cu-ZnO based compounds, such as a Cu-ZnO-ZrO$_2$ catalysts studied by Bonura et al. [17]. In a recent study, Bonura et al. studied the influence of catalyst preparation on CO$_2$ activation at hydrogenation and dehydration reaction sites.

3. Conclusion

CO$_2$ is kinetically and thermodynamically stable. Because of this, CO$_2$ conversion reactions require efficient catalysts. These catalysts must have high CO$_2$ conversion, high selectivity to the desired product, and high stability.

Many promising fuels and chemicals can be produced via CO$_2$ hydrogenation, as shown, that are currently or potentially will be in high demand. Several of these chemicals can be utilized in order to generate sustainable development and processes. Though many developments in catalysis have been made since 2014 that enhance hydrogenation processes, further developments must be made in catalysis in order to achieve high enough CO$_2$ conversion, selectivity, and stability to develop sustainable industrial processes.
4. Acknowledgements

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5. Works Cited


