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CO₂ reduction over Mo₂C-based catalysts

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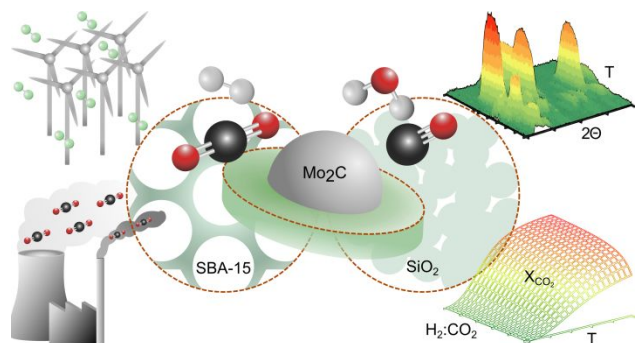
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7 Chemistry (ITCP), Engesserstr. 20, Karlsruhe, 76131, Germany.
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11
12 **ABSTRACT:** Four Mo-based catalysts were prepared via three different synthesis
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16 techniques supported on SiO₂ and/or SBA-15. By means of complementary *in situ*
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19 characterization techniques, the carburization process and the final characteristics of
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21
22 these catalysts were investigated. Additionally, the four catalysts were evaluated for the
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24
25 activation of CO₂ in the absence and presence of H₂ (reverse water-gas-shift, RWGS).
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28 The results suggest that CO₂ reacts via a dissociation on the carbide surface, forming
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31 adsorbed oxygen surface species. Severe oxidation of the carbide into its oxidic phases
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34 (MoO₂ or MoO₃) only occurs at temperatures above 850 K in the presence of CO₂. O₂
35
36
37 dissociates on the carbide surface when introduced at low concentrations (1 vol.%) at
38
39
40 room temperature, but when exposed to higher concentrations a strong exothermic bulk
41
42
43 re-oxidation reaction occurs, forming MoO₂. All four catalysts show high RWGS activity
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47
48 in terms of CO₂ conversions with a minimum CO selectivity of 98 % without any signs of
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55 bulk catalyst oxidation. Although minimal, the observed deactivation is suggested to be
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3 primarily due to phase changes between Mo₂C allotropes (β -phase, oxycarbide and η -
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6
7 phase) and/or sintering of the active phase.
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24 **KEYWORDS:** carbon dioxide, hydrogen, reverse water-gas-shift, molybdenum

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29 carbide, *in situ* XRD, *in situ* Raman spectroscopy, *in situ* XAS
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33 INTRODUCTION

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35 As one of the main causes for climate change and global warming, it is of utmost
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39 importance to reduce CO₂ emissions and its concentration in the atmosphere as fast as
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43 possible to realize the goal of the Paris Agreement limiting the global warming to below 2
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46 K. It is generally agreed that 95 % of the observed climate change is a direct result of
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50 human activities causing an increase in concentration of anthropogenic greenhouse
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3 gases in the atmosphere largely due to the burning of fossil fuels for power generation
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7 and large scale commercial chemical processes.^{1,2}
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10 Carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) or carbon capture and utilization (CCU) are
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12 the only methods to minimize concentrations in the atmosphere as well as emissions with
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14 the expected continued, albeit reduced, use of fossil fuels.³ Possible ways to capture CO₂
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17 is before it is emitted or directly from air.⁴ These processes come with high capital and
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21 operational costs and it is therefore of great interest to investigate pathways to reduce
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24 costs, or to add value by producing commercial products such as synthetic fuels, building
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27 materials, chemicals and polymers from the captured CO₂. Multiple processes are
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30
31 reported and discussed for the conversion of CO₂ into commercial products, including
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34 catalytic, electro-chemical, mineralization, biological, photocatalytic and photosynthetic
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37 pathways.³ To date, the largest commercial processes using CO₂ are the synthesis of
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41 urea (130 MT of CO₂ annually), the enhanced oil recovery (70-80 MT of CO₂ annually)
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44 and the methanol synthesis (2 MT of CO₂ annually) along with the food and beverage
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47 industry, cooling, fire suppression, metal fabrication and stimulating plant growth in
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51 greenhouses.^{5,6} However, this is not nearly enough. China's 2017 CO₂ emissions due to
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3 the combustion of coal, oil and natural gas alone were estimated at 9301 MT.⁷ It is
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7 therefore evident that any pathway to convert CO₂ into value added product must not only
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10 be net CO₂ negative but also operate on world scale and produce base chemicals in large
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14 quantities to be able to affect the global emissions.
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17 Other catalytic processes using and at least partially converting CO₂, which have gained
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20 interest in the past decades and are in various stages of development and
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22
23 commercialization, are the (in)direct CO₂ hydrogenation to fuels (such as the Air-to-fuels
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26 system from Carbon Engineering in Canada or INERATEC in Germany) and CO₂ dry-
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28
29 reforming of hydrocarbons (such as CO₂ dry reforming of methane by BASF SE & Linde
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31
32 in Germany).^{8,9} In general, the challenge is to activate CO₂, which is thermodynamically
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34
35 low in energy and needs to be reacted with high energy molecules such as green
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37
38 hydrogen to hydrocarbons or oxygenates either in a single step or in multiple reactions.
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42 Assuming the availability of green hydrogen and cheap renewable energy in future, the
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45 reverse water-gas-shift reaction (RWGS), i.e. the reduction of CO₂ with H₂ to CO and
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49 water, will play a significant role in these processes.
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3 The focus of this study is to utilize Mo₂C-based catalysts, synthesized using three
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7 different techniques, under reverse water-gas-shift conditions and to evaluate their
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10 performance varying reaction temperature, space velocity and feed gas composition (CO₂
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13 to H₂ ratio). Mo₂C has been shown to be highly active for the activation of CO₂ in various
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15
16 processes.¹⁰⁻¹³ While the RWGS reaction is endothermic, under similar process
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19 conditions the CO₂ methanation reaction, a possible side reaction, is an exothermic
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21
22 process. This means that high temperatures (above 900 K) are required for the RWGS
23
24
25 reaction to become thermodynamically favored over the methanation pathway. The
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28 catalysts were prepared via three different synthesis techniques, of which two were
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31 adapted from Amrute et al.¹⁴ and Han et al.¹⁵, in order to study the effect the different
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34 routes have on the physical properties of Mo_xC_y such as crystal structure¹⁶, crystallite size
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36
37 and surface area. In most literature reports, the beta-carbide is synthesized by a
38
39
40 temperature programmed reaction, i.e. carburization treatment, of MoO₃ with a CH₄ in H₂
41
42
43 mixture yielding (hexagonal) β-Mo₂C, a method originally described by the research group
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45
46 of Boudart.¹⁷ However, large differences in synthesis protocols, such as the molybdate
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49 salt precursor, the calcination temperature required to convert the precursor to MoO_x,
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3 carburization temperature and carburizing gas composition (such as CO, CH₄:H₂,
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7 C₃H₈:H₂) are reported. Varying these parameters has most likely an impact on the
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10 physical properties of the materials and thus on the catalytic performance. In our previous
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13 study we have touched on the effect of carburization temperature on the transformation
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17 of bulk MoO₃ to β-Mo₂C, specifically focusing on carbon deposition.¹⁸ In this study, using
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20 mainly supported Mo_xC_y catalysts obtained via different synthesis pathways, we perform
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23
24 a comprehensive investigation into the carburization process, CO₂ activation and RWGS
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26
27 activity focusing on the physical properties of the catalyst using *in situ* characterization
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31 techniques including X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy and X-ray absorption
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35 spectroscopy (XAS).
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39 THERMODYNAMICS

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41 In an earlier study from our research group, an extended thermodynamic analysis was
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44 performed on the CO₂ assisted oxidative dehydrogenation of ethane and its relevant side
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48 reactions as a function of product species and reaction conditions.¹⁹ Here we focused on
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51
52 the reverse water-gas-shift reaction and its prominent side reaction, the methanation of
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56 CO₂. When minimalizing the Gibbs free energy of the entire system as a function of
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3 temperature with a feed ratio ($H_2 : CO_2$) of 1 and a pressure of 1 bar (see Figure 1-A), the
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7 thermodynamic analysis suggests that at lower temperatures (< 675 K) the reduction of
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10 CO_2 to H_2O and solid carbon (assumed as graphite) is the most favorable reaction.
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12
13
14 Simultaneously, at 675 K the methanation reaction is predicted to be at its maximum. CO
15
16
17 starts to form as CH_4 , C and H_2O contents drop, surpassing CH_4 concentrations at 800 K.
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19
20
21 Above 1025 K a H_2O to CO product ratio of 1 is observed, the desired product ratio for
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23
24 the RWGS. When increasing the H_2 to CO_2 ratio to 4 (see Figure 1-B), the stoichiometric
25
26
27 composition of CO_2 methanation, at 300 K a stoichiometric H_2O to CH_4 product ratio of 2
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29
30
31 is calculated. An increase in temperature is followed by a slight decrease in this ratio. CO
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33
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35 is predicted to be formed from 700 K onwards, overtaking CH_4 at 900 K. A H_2O to CO
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37
38 ratio of 1 is observed from 1100 K. No formation of solid carbon is predicted over the
39
40
41
42 entire temperature range.
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44

45 It is also interesting to study the thermodynamic equilibrium conversion of all (side)
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48 reactions individually. The considered reactions are the reverse water-gas-shift (RWGS),
49
50
51 methanation of CO_2 (MCO_2), methanation of CO (MCO), (reverse) Boudouard reaction
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54
55 (BR) and methane decomposition (MD) (see Figure 1-C). Note that the calculations do
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3 not represent a mechanistic or pathway analysis. Since RWGS is an endothermic
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7 reaction, an increase in temperature increases its equilibrium conversion. Only above 900
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9
10 K the RWGS reaction is thermodynamically more favorable than the two methanation
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12
13 reactions (MCO₂ & MCO). While the decomposition of CH₄ increases with temperature,
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17 increasing the possibility of solid carbon formation, so does the reverse Boudouard
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20
21 reaction, forming CO from CO₂ and solid carbon. To maximize the CO yield in the RWGS
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25 reaction, an effective catalyst therefore must kinetically hinder the methanation pathways
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28 without suppressing the CO₂ reduction.
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31 In order to understand which process conditions are required to achieve the maximum
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34 possible CO₂ conversion in the RWGS and CO₂ methanation, the thermodynamic
35
36
37 equilibrium conversion is computed as a function of temperature, feed ratio and dilution
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39
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41 (the percentage of inert gas fed relative to the reactants), keeping in mind that the latter
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45 has no effect on the RWGS reaction. It is confirmed that higher temperatures and H₂ to
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49 CO₂ ratios yield higher CO₂ conversion in the RWGS (see Figure 1-D). However, a higher
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53 H₂ to CO₂ ratio also favors the CH₄ formation due to the increase in equilibrium conversion
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56 for the methanation reaction (see Figure S1).
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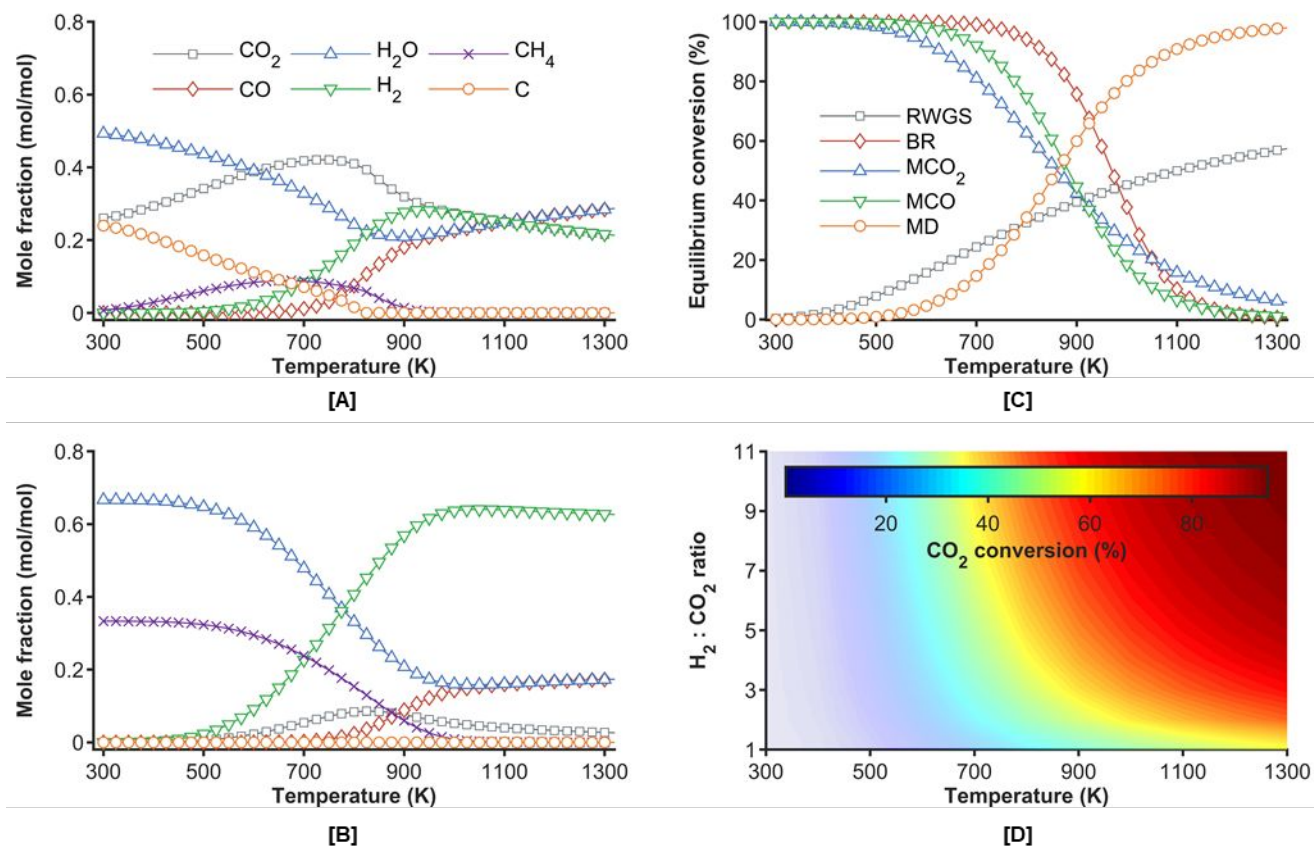


Figure 1. Thermodynamic prediction of the equilibrium composition as a function of temperature at **[A]** a $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$ feed ratio of 1, at 1 bar pressure and **[B]** a $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}_2$ feed ratio of 4, at 1 bar pressure. **[C]** Individual equilibrium conversions as a function of temperature, stoichiometric feed and at 1 bar pressure. **[D]** Effect of feed ratio (H_2 to CO_2) and temperature on the equilibrium conversion of reverse water-gas-shift at 1 bar pressure.

Compound specific thermodynamic parameters from Knacke et al.²⁰.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI and Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI. The wet impregnation (WI) method was utilized. In a typical synthesis, per gram of support material (non-porous SiO₂ or meso-porous SBA-15), 10 ml of a 0.29 M aqueous solution of ammonium heptamolybdate (AHM, SAARCHEM PTY LTD, 81.5 % MoO₃) was added dropwise, yielding a Mo loading of 20 wt.-%. The suspension was stirred for 30 minutes. For the preparation of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI, the batch size was increased to 100 ml of aqueous AHM and 10 g of SiO₂ (AEROSIL® 200). The sample was then dried by means of a rotary evaporator, using a round bottom 500 ml Büchi flask at 333 K, 72 mbar and 155 rpm. For Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI, the sample was dried in an oven at 393 K until a dry powder was obtained. The dried powder samples were loaded into a 1/4" quartz fixed bed reactor and carburized to Mo₂C in a temperature programmed reaction in a 20 vol.-% CH₄ in H₂ atmosphere.^{17,21} The carburization temperature was optimized and all samples used for catalytic testing were carburized at 873 K with a ramp rate of 1 K/min, holding for 5 hours at maximum temperature under atmospheric pressure with a reactant flow rate of 250 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹. After completion of the carburization process, the catalyst was either passivated at room temperature (for

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3 characterization purposes) in a flow of 1 vol.-% O₂ in N₂ for 1 hour (250 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹) or
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6
7 directly exposed to testing conditions.
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9

10 **Synthesis of Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG.** The Sol-Gel (SG) method was adapted from Amrute et
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12 al.¹⁴. In short, 3.07 g of ammonium heptamolybdate was dissolved in 100 ml hot distilled
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14 water, targeting a final loading of 20 wt.-% Mo on SiO₂. The AHM solution was added
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16
17 dropwise under stirring to a solution of 37.16 ml tetraethyl orthosilicate (TEOS, Sigma-
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20 Aldrich, 99.99 %) in 20 ml 2-propanol (anhydrous, Sigma-Aldrich, 99.5 %), followed by a
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26
27 3 hour ageing step while continuously stirring. The obtained greenish precipitate was
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30 further aged inside the flask for 2 days at room temperature (RT), resulting in a gel of the
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35 same color. The gel was dried in an oven at 393 K overnight followed by calcination in a
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38 Nabertherm calcination oven for 10 hours at 773 K in a stagnant air atmosphere. After
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41 calcination the obtained MoO₃ on SiO₂ is carburized at 873 K for 5 hours under
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45 atmospheric pressure in 250 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹ of 20 vol.-% CH₄ in H₂. After completion of the
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47
48 carburization process, the catalyst was either passivated (for characterization purposes)
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52 in 1 vol.-% O₂ in N₂ for 1 hour (250 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹) or directly exposed to the required
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56 reaction conditions.
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3 **Synthesis of Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC.** The hybrid nanocrystal (HNC) synthesis technique
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6
7 was adapted from Han et al.²². For a typical synthesis, yielding a 20 wt.-% Mo loading, a
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9
10 2.4 M hydrochloric acid (Kimix, 33 %) aqueous solution was added dropwise to 180 ml of
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12
13 0.067 M aqueous sodium molybdate (Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O, Sigma-Aldrich, ≥99.5 %) solution
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15
16 while monitoring the pH. At a pH of 4.5, 40 ml of 0.16 M cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide
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18 (CTAB) aqueous solution (CTAB to Mo molar ratio of 0.53 : 1) was added dropwise, under
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20
21 vigorous stirring (>1000 rpm). After complete addition of CTAB, the pH was again
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24 adjusted to 4.5 by means of the HCl solution. The mixture was stirred for another 2 hours.
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28 After completion, the white suspension was transferred to an autoclave and exposed to
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31 a hydrothermal deposition treatment of the crystals onto previously prepared SBA-15
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33
34 (synthesized with a method reported by Nair²³). The autoclave was heated to 373 K while
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37 stirring (650 rpm) and held at that temperature for 12 hours. The mixture was washed
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40 with DI water, filtered using a Büchner funnel and dried in an oven overnight at 333 K.
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44 Once dry, the sample was calcined in a tubular furnace at 673 K (heating rate 5 K/min)
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48 for 5 hours under air flow (50 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹). The carburization took place using the same
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3 method as above, at 873 K or 923 K for 5 hours under atmospheric pressure flowing 250
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7 ml/min·g_{cat}⁻¹ of 20 vol.-% CH₄ in H₂.
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10 **Catalyst characterization. *X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis.*** Offline XRD analysis was
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12 performed on the prepared and passivated samples to identify which of the different
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14 crystal allotropes of molybdenum is present. The diffraction patterns were compared to
15
16
17 reference data files reported in a database (PDF-2, released in 2008 and PDF-4+,
18
19 released in 2019). The diffraction patterns were acquired in the 2 Θ range of 20° to 120°
20
21 (1/d = 0.19 to 0.97 Å⁻¹) using a step size of 0.043° and with a time per step of 0.75
22
23 seconds. The total scan time amounts to 30 min, performed on a D8 Advance
24
25 diffractometer (Bruker, Germany) equipped with a position-sensitive detector (LYNXEYE)
26
27 in Bragg Brentano geometry. Power to the Co anode was set at 35 kV and 40 mA.
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29 Quantitative analysis was performed using the refinement method by Rietveld²⁴ utilizing
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31 the software package TOPAS 5 (Bruker AXS).
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49 *In situ X-ray diffraction analysis.* Online XRD analysis was conducted using a XRK900
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51 Anton Paar reaction cell attached to a laboratory XRD (Bruker D8 Advance) operated at
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53 50 kV and 35 mA. The diffractometer was equipped with a molybdenum source and a
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1
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3 position sensitive detector (Bruker AXS Vantec). The scans were collected every 5
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5
6 minutes in the 2θ range of 10° to 28° ($1/d = 0.25$ to 0.65) at a step size of 0.017° and
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8
9
10 time per step of 0.2 sec. 150 mg of the powder samples, loaded in the flow through holder,
11
12
13
14 were carburized using a diluted mixture of 20 vol.-% CH_4 in H_2 with an absolute H_2
15
16
17 content of 10 vol.-% in N_2 . A total flowrate of 100 ml/min was applied while ramping the
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19
20
21 temperature at 1 K/min to 873 K and held at 873 K for 5 h.
22

23
24 *Raman spectroscopy.* Raman spectra were collected using a Witec Confocal Raman
25
26
27
28 Microscope Alpha300 and collected in the range of 3500 to 100 cm^{-1} using a 532 nm
29
30
31 green laser under ambient conditions. The specific particles analyzed were targeted using
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33
34
35 a CCD camera connected to a Zeiss EC Epiplan-Neofluar 100x/0.9 objective. The spectra
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37
38 were taken using a laser power of 2.5 mW, an integration time of 1.2 seconds and 20
39
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41 accumulations. The software package WITecProject (WITec, Germany) was used for the
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43
44
45 data analysis.
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48
49 *In situ Raman spectroscopy.* 29 mg of powder sample were loaded on a P_{atm} Linkam
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51
52 cell using a 785 nm laser source for *in situ* studies (ITQ, Valencia). The cell was slightly
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54
55
56 modified to allow sample temperatures up to 873 K. For the *in situ* carburization treatment,
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3 a total flow of 30 ml/min of the gas mixture (10 vol.-% CH₄, 40 vol.-% H₂, balance He) was
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5
6
7 established through the cell. Then the temperature was increased from RT to 873 K in 50
8
9
10 K steps (heating rate of 3 K/min between temperature levels) and the Raman spectra
11
12
13 recorded *in situ* at each temperature.
14
15

16
17 *Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) analysis.* TEM micrographs of the samples
18
19
20 were taken using a Tecnai F20 transmission electron microscope equipped with a field
21
22
23 emission gun (operated at 200kV). The samples were prepared via suspension of a small
24
25
26 volume of the materials in 100% ethanol. A droplet of the suspension was transferred
27
28
29 onto a holey carbon-coated copper grid and air dried.
30
31
32

33
34 *Inductively Coupled Plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES).* The elemental
35
36
37 analysis was performed using a Varian 730 ES ICP-Optical Emission Spectrophotometer.
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39
40 The samples were digested with a Mars 6 Microwave digester using HNO₃ and HF for
41
42
43 digestion and H₃BO₃ for neutralization.
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47
48 *Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).* The TGA experiments were performed in a
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50
51 Discovery SDT 650 instrument (TA instruments, USA). The sample loading, depending
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53
54 on the density of the sample, ranged between 5-30 mg of solid sample, which was placed
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1
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3 into an alumina pan in parallel with an empty reference pan. The carburization of the
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6
7 samples was performed using a diluted mixture of 20 vol.-% CH₄ in H₂ with an absolute
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9
10 H₂ content of 4 vol.-% in inert gas (Ar/N₂). A total flow of 100 ml/min with a temperature
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12
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14 ramp from 323 K to 873 K at a rate of 1 K/min was applied.
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16

17 *X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS).* *Ex situ* XAS transmission experiments were
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19
20 performed at the Diamond Light Source facility at the B18 general purpose XAS beamline
21
22
23 as part of the Block Allocation Group of the UK Catalysis Hub in December 2018. The
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25
26 carburized samples were analyzed at the Mo K-edge including three reference materials
27
28
29 prepared in our laboratories, MoO₂, MoO₃ and β-Mo₂C (see Figure S15). Each scan was
30
31
32 repeated 3 times to increase statistical relevance. The samples were all pressed into
33
34
35 pellets with cellulose prior to the analysis. Data processing was performed using Athena
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37
38 from the Demeter software package.²⁵ The linear combination fitting tool was applied for
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40
41
42 all samples with the three reference materials, for phase quantification.
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49 *In situ X-ray absorption spectroscopy.* XAS analysis at Mo-K edge were performed at
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51
52 the CAT-ACT beamline²⁶ of the KIT synchrotron in Karlsruhe, Germany. The XAS data
53
54
55 were recorded in transmission mode using the ionization chambers. The energy of
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3 Si(311) double crystal monochromator was calibrated by setting the first maximum of the
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5
6
7 first derivative of the XAS spectrum measured on Mo foil to the tabulated value of 20.000
8
9
10 keV. Data analysis was performed using Athena from the Demeter software package.²⁵

11
12
13 All samples were pressed in pellets, crushed and sieved to 100-200 μm . *In situ*
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17 experiments were performed in quartz capillaries of 1.5 mm diameter (20 μm wall
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21 thickness) as reactor. The reactor was placed inside a newly build oven made with
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24 copper²⁷ and covered with the X-ray transpired Kapton windows. The heating was
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28 realized using the resistance wires around ceramic rods, which were in turn placed above
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30
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32 and below the capillary; the temperature was monitored by the thermocouple inside the
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35 oven calibrated to the temperature inside the capillary prior to the experiment (accuracy
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38 better than $\pm 10\text{K}$ at 1000 K). The samples were first exposed to a carburization treatment
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42 in 20 vol.-% CH_4 in H_2 . Temperature was increased to 650 K with a linear ramp rate of 10
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45 K/min, followed by a further ramp to 920 K with 2 K/min. The temperature was held at 920
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49 K for 2.5 h before cooling down to room temperature. Subsequently, the gas mixture was
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53 changed to 1 % CO_2 in He. The temperature was increased to 600 K with 10 K/min
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57 followed by a ramp to 1010 K at 5 K/min. The temperature was held at 1010 K for 1 h
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3 before the sample was cooled down to room temperature. The total gas flowrate of each
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7 experiment was 50 ml/min controlled by the mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst, Germany).
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10 The EXAFS data up to $k = 16 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ were recorded at room temperature before the
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12
13 carburization, after the carburization and after the temperature programmed reaction
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16 (TPR) with CO_2 . During the temperature-programmed reactions, rapid XANES spectra
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18
19 were measured (2 min per spectrum, from 19 900 to 20 400 eV) to follow the changes in
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21
22 the chemical state of Mo during the carburization and TPR in CO_2 . The reference
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25 materials (commercial MoO_2 and in-house prepared MoO_3 , $\beta\text{-Mo}_2\text{C}$ and $\alpha\text{-MoC}_{1-x}$, see
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28 Figure S15) were diluted with cellulose to about 20 vol.-% of Mo and pressed in pellets
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31 for the transmission measurements.
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38 **Catalyst testing.** The evaluation of the catalysts' performance under CO_2 activation and
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41 reverse water-gas-shift conditions was conducted in a 1/4" quartz tubular fixed-bed
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43
44 reactor under atmospheric pressure. In general, after the carburization process had been
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46
47 completed, the catalyst was exposed to an argon flow ($250 \text{ ml/min} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$) creating an inert
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50 atmosphere while cooling down to reaction temperature (in the range of 673 K to 873 K).
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56 Once the target temperature was reached, the catalyst was exposed to the reactant feed
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3 gas. For the CO₂ activation experiments a 1 vol.-% CO₂ in N₂ (SV = 60 L/h·g_{cat}⁻¹) was
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6
7 established and for RWGS a gas mixture containing a H₂ to CO₂ ratio in the range
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9
10 between 1 and 7 diluted in Ar (50 : 50 vol.%). The space velocity ranged between 60
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13 L/h·g_{cat}⁻¹ and 120 L/h·g_{cat}⁻¹. The product stream was analyzed online using an Agilent 490
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16
17 micro gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with three thermal conductivity detectors (TCD),
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21 two molecular sieve 5Å PLOT columns of 10 and 20 m lengths and one 10 m PoraPlot Q
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24 column.
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29 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

31 **Optimizing carburization protocols.** All samples were prepared targeting a 20 wt.-% Mo
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34 loading on the support material (see Table S1 for ICP-OES results) with similar Mo₂C
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38 crystallite sizes, to minimize the variables resulting from the three different synthesis
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41 techniques. Two samples were prepared on a non-porous SiO₂ support (impregnation on
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44 AEROSIL® 200 and *in situ* generated SiO₂ from TEOS for Sol-Gel synthesis), while the
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48 other two are supported on previously prepared mesoporous silica, SBA-15. As observed
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51 during our previous study¹⁸ and reported in literature²⁸, the carburization process can
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55 result in a significant amount of carbon deposited on the surface of the catalyst, which
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3 affects the active surface area, by blocking active sites and decreasing the catalytic
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7 performance. Hence, it is important to find the optimum carburization temperature
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10 balance between a high purity grade of Mo_xC_y and excessive carbon deposition. The
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13 optimization of the carburization conditions was conducted by primarily studying the
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17 catalysts $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SBA-15-HNC}$ and $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2\text{-WI}$.
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21 The carburization of $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SBA-15-HNC}$ at 873 K was followed by means of *in situ* XRD
22
23 and TGA analysis. According to the XRD patterns and the corresponding Rietveld
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25 analysis results (see Figure 2-A, B & C), the reduction of orthorhombic MoO_3 (PDF – 00-
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27 005-0508, SPGR Pbnm (62)) to MoO_2 (PDF – 04-003-1961, SPGR p21/c (14)) is first
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29 observed at 675 K, becoming the dominant phase at 764 K. Simultaneously, the average
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31 crystallite size reduces slightly. First signs of the carbide (as $\eta\text{-MoC}_{0.59}$, PDF – 04-013-
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33 5833, SPGR p63/mmc (194)) formation can be observed by a broad reflection at 853 K,
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35 followed by $\beta\text{-Mo}_2\text{C}$ (PDF – 00-035-0787, SPGR p63/mmc (194)) at 873 K. After 5
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37 minutes at 873 K the MoO_2 reflections disappear completely. TGA analysis (see Figure
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39 2-D) shows four significant weight losses, with the first signal as a small broad signal at
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41 523 K. This observation is in contrast with the first detection of oxide reduction at 675 K
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4 by XRD, but it can be rationalized by an incomplete calcination process from AHM to
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7 MoO_3 prior to TGA analysis, which is also shown by the continuous loss of mass from the
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10 beginning of the experiment (around 5 wt.-% in total). This is followed by a large and
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14 prolonged drop in mass which is associated to the reduction of MoO_3 to MoO_2 starting at
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17 680 K with maximum at 740 K. At around 840 K, the signal observed is linked to the
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20 formation of the carbide. The carburization process lasts for at least 2.5 hours, after which
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24 no further change in weight is observed. TGA results captured during the carburization of
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28 bulk MoO_3 (see Figure S2-A) unravel that there is no weight loss until 723 K. Upon the
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31 formation of the carbide in the bulk sample, the measured weight loss is briefly higher
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34 than expected for a full conversion to the carbide. This could be explained by a partial
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37 reduction of MoO_2 to a metallic form prior to the incorporation of carbon in the structure.
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41 In the supported sample this behavior could not be resolved possibly due to the lower Mo
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44 concentration in the sample. However, the carbide formation for the supported sample
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47 appears to be more facile at 873 K, whereas the bulk sample only fully carburized at 923
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52 K.
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4 During the carburization process of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI, *in situ* XRD (see Figure 2-E, F & G)
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6
7 evidences the decomposition of ammonium decamolybdate ((NH₄)₈Mo₁₀O₃₄, PDF – 00-
8
9
10 037-0381, SPGR P-1 (2)) to ammonium tetramolybdate ((NH₄)₂Mo₄O₁₃, PDF – 04-011-
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13 4665, SPGR P-1 (2)), which is first detected at 454 K. The average crystallite size
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16 increases slightly during the transition of these two phases from around 5 nm to 10 nm.
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21 The molybdate precursor is fully decomposed by 500 K, where a mixture of hexagonal
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24 (PDF – 00-065-0141, SPGR p63/m (176)) and orthorhombic MoO₃ is formed with a
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28 crystallite size of around 9 and 6 nm, respectively. The orthorhombic phase becomes the
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31 dominant phase at 620 K with a slight increase in crystallite size to around 9 nm. The
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35 reduction of MoO₃ to MoO₂ proceeds slowly, reflected by a long phase overlap, with the
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38 first MoO₂ diffractions appearing at 636 K to eventually become a pure MoO₂ phase at
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42 739 K with a crystallite size of around 12 nm. The molybdenum carbide, in form of β-Mo₂C
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45 and η-Mo₂C, is initially observed after holding at 873 K for 25 minutes and is the dominant
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49 phase after 95 minutes at 873 K. The final carbide phase consists of a mixture of β-Mo₂C
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52 (44 wt.-%) and η-Mo₂C (56 wt.-%) with crystallite sizes of around 4 and 3.8 nm,
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56 respectively. The TG and DTA curves (see Figure 2-H) are again very much in line with
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3 the XRD results, showing four significant weight changes and one small and broader
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7 signal, while increasing temperature. Together with the XRD analysis it can be confirmed
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10 that the two losses at approximately 442 and 520 K represent the decomposition of the
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13 molybdate to MoO₃. The small broad signal indicates the transition from hexagonal to
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16 orthorhombic MoO₃. At 723 K, a major weight loss is associated to the reduction towards
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19 MoO₂. Finally, at 873 K the carburization of MoO₂ to Mo₂C takes place, which is
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22 completed after an hour time on stream. Similar observations are made during the
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25 carburization of bulk AHM (see Figure S2-B) and in the study by Wienold et al.²⁹ reporting
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28 on the decomposition of AHM in a diluted H₂ atmosphere at elevated temperatures.
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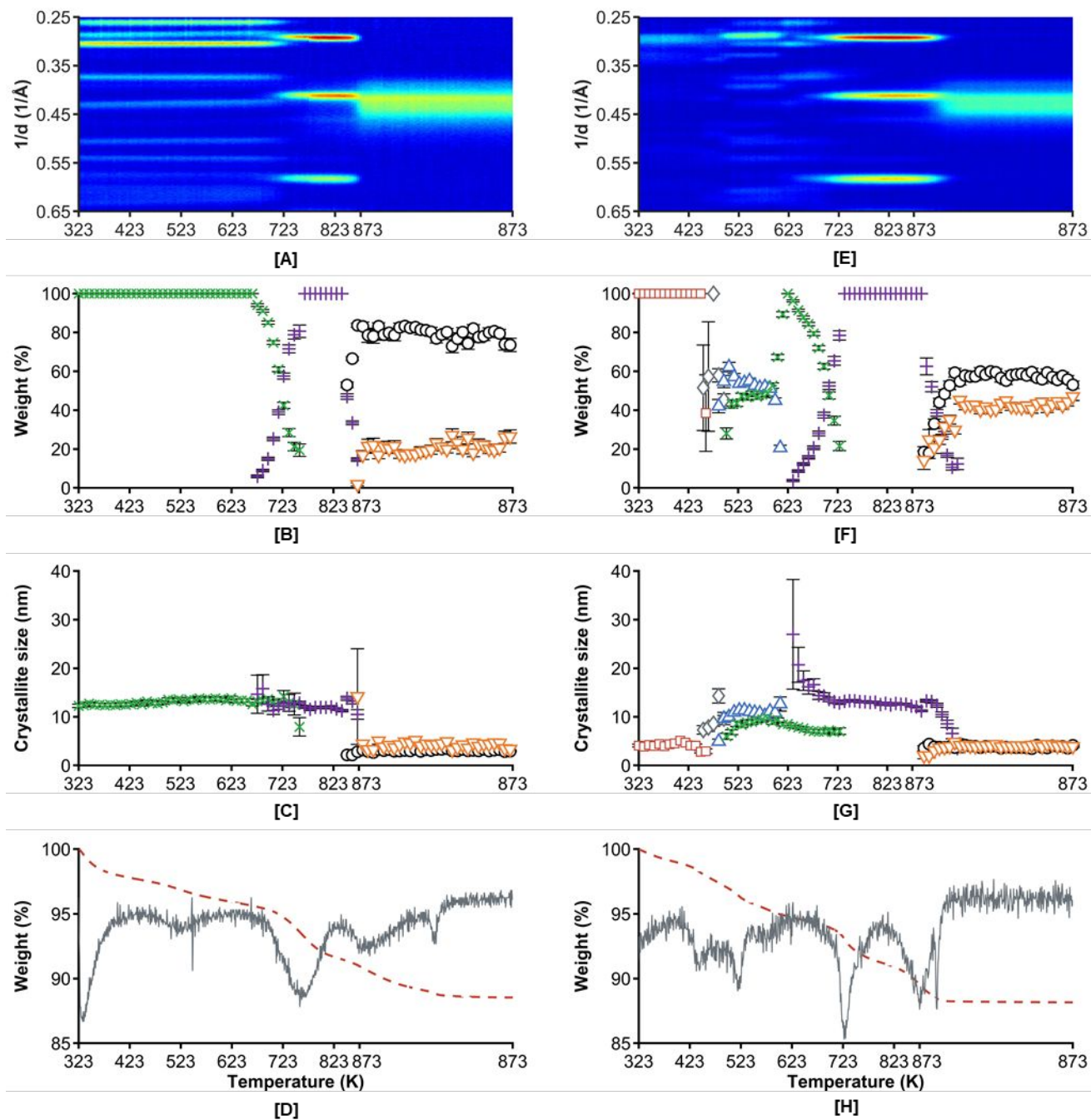


Figure 2. Carburization procedure of $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SBA-15-HNC}$ (A-D) and $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2\text{-WI}$ (E-H)

displayed by the top view of *in situ* XRD patterns [A & E], the corresponding Rietveld

analysis with phase composition and particles size of the different Mo phases [B, C, F &

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4 **G]** (□) $(\text{NH}_4)_8\text{Mo}_{10}\text{O}_{34}$; (◇) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{Mo}_4\text{O}_{13}$; (△) MoO_3 (hexagonal), (×) = MoO_3 (orthorhombic),
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7 + = MoO_2 , (○) = $\eta\text{-MoC}_{0.59}$, (▽) = $\beta\text{-Mo}_2\text{C}$) and TGA analysis [D & H] with TG curve (dashed
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9
10 line) and DTA signal (solid line). Conditions: T = 873 K; P = 1 atm; ramp rate of 1 K/min;
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14 holding time 5 hours; for detailed information on gas composition and space velocities,
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17 see experimental section.
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22 The carburization of $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2\text{-WI}$ was also studied by *in situ* Raman spectroscopy
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25 (see Figure S3). The molybdate precursor is fully decomposed below 473 K under both
26
27
28 air and carburization atmosphere. However, the decomposition pathway seems to be
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31 influenced from the early stages under different atmospheres, as is indicated by the
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34 Raman band at 963 cm^{-1} . Interestingly, at temperatures above 473 K, under carburization
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37 conditions, no clear Raman spectra for MoO_3 or MoO_2 are observed. A small broad band
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40 is observed at 523 and 573 K around 721 cm^{-1} which can be linked to the MoO_2 species,
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43 but it disappears at 623 K.²⁸ Since Raman is not a bulk technique relying on long range
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46 order, these observations may suggest that the surface of the Mo particles carburize at
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50 much lower temperatures than for the bulk of the crystallites, as is observed by XRD. On
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3 the contrary, calcination of the precursor in air atmosphere under otherwise identical
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7 experimental settings led to the detection of prominent MoO₃ Raman bands at 665 cm⁻¹
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10 (ν(OMo₃)), 817 cm⁻¹ (ν(OMo₂)) and 994 cm⁻¹ (ν(Mo=O)) in the entire temperature range
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13 of 423-873 K. In our previous study, bulk carburized samples show MoO₃ Raman spectra
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16 after passivation, even though invisible to laboratory XRD analysis.¹⁸ The observed MoO₃
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19 was proposed to be in form of an amorphous passivation layer formed before removal
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22 from the reactor. However, our latest *in situ* Raman spectroscopy results (see Figure 3)
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25 show that after the carburization of the catalyst, followed by passivation at room
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28 temperature, no MoO₃ is formed. This can be explained by a report of Ovari et al.³⁰, who
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31 observed that at room temperature O₂ dissociates on the carbide surface but does not
32
33
34 oxidize it. The passivated sample was then exposed to a reactivation treatment in an
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36
37 attempt to remove/re-carburize the oxygen/oxide surface layer (heated up to 873 K at 3
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40 K/min under 10 vol.% CH₄, 40 vol.% H₂, balance He, and held at 873 K for 1 hour) and
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42
43 again spectra were collected at RT and no Raman bands were observed. No signal
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46 associated to carbon deposits was detected either. Subsequently, the reactivated sample
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49 was passivated as described above, exposed to an air atmosphere overnight at RT and
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again spectra were collected, first in an inert atmosphere followed by an air atmosphere.

In an inert atmosphere, neither MoO_3 nor MoO_2 were observed. The measurement in air atmosphere clearly showed oxidation, confirming that a local energy input due to laser irradiation in the presence of oxygen is necessary for the oxygen to react with the surface carbon resulting in the oxidation of the carbide to MoO_3 (Raman bands at 817 and 991 cm^{-1}).

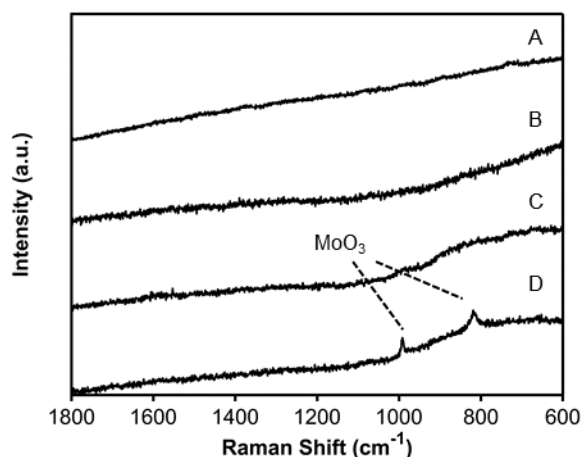
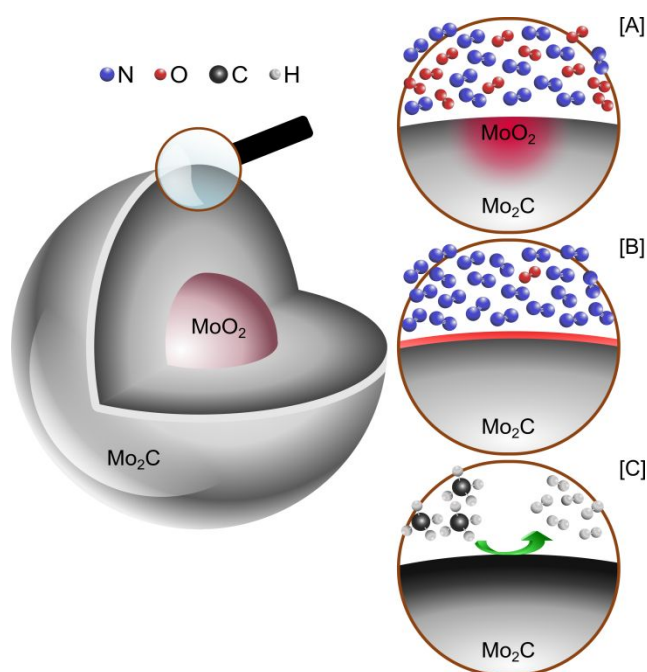


Figure 3. *In situ* Raman spectra for $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2\text{-WI}$ collected: **[A]** at RT after passivation treatment, **[B]** at RT after reactivation treatment of passivated catalyst, **[C and D]** at RT after exposure of the passivated-reactivated-passivated catalyst to air at RT overnight. Spectra A, B and C are collected under He atmosphere, spectra D under air atmosphere.

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4 Ex situ XAS analysis was performed on bulk β -Mo₂C samples, carburized at different
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7 temperatures. In addition, the samples were exposed to air with and without a prior
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10 passivation treatment to study phase stability under atmospheric conditions. The XANES
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13 spectra as well as the XRD patterns can be found in the supplementary information
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17 (Figure S4 and S6). To quantify the changes in the XANES region (indicated by the red
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20 arrows in Figure S4), each spectrum was fitted by means of a linear combination of MoO₃,
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24 MoO₂ and β -Mo₂C (see
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3 Table 1 and Figure S5). Note that by means of XRD analysis, the bulk carbides did not
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7 show any traces of η -MoC_{0.59} nor MoO_xC_y (see Figure S6 and Table 1), although this
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10 does not necessarily exclude them to be present on the surface. At a carburization
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13 temperature of 873 K, the efficiency of a passivation treatment is evidenced by the
14
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16 significant difference in MoO₂ content (26.7 ± 0.7 wt.-% with passivation and 32.1 ± 0.8
17
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19 wt.-% without passivation) suggesting a re-oxidation. XRD analysis of the non-passivated
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22 sample carburized at 873 K indicates the presence of 5 wt.-% MoO₂ in the form of large
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3 during carburization, the former can be associated to the previously reported increase in
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7 carbon deposits creating a protective layer around a carbide core (see Figure 4-C). The
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10 MoO₂ content is believed to be a residue from the synthesis rather than stem from the re-
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14 oxidation by air, possibly in form of a core with a thick carbide shell too small/thin for XRD
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17 to detect.



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43 **Figure 4.** Schematic representation of a bulk Mo₂C particle with residual oxide core and
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46 different possible surface states and their effect on reactivity: **[A]** A bare carbide surface
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49 is partially re-oxidized causing (and subsequently accelerated by) localized temperature
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52 spikes when exposed to high concentrations of oxygen such as in air. **[B]** O₂ is dissociated
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3 on a bare carbide surface at low partial pressures of the oxidant forming a passivating
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7 layer around the carbide particle. [C] A thick layer of carbon deposits around the carbide
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10 particle at higher carburization temperatures protecting the carbide surface from re-
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14 oxidation in air (compare case [A]).
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Table 1. Phase composition via XANES and XRD Rietveld analysis on bulk β -Mo₂C carburized at different temperatures and exposed to air with (P) or without (NP) a passivation treatment.

Sample	XANES		XRD			
	MoO ₂ (wt.-%)	β -Mo ₂ C (wt.-%)	MoO ₂ (wt.-%)	Crystallite size (nm)	β -Mo ₂ C (wt.-%)	Crystallite size (nm)
873 K-P	26.7 ± 0.7	73.3 ± 1.0	n/a	n/a	100.0	7.5 ± 0.1
873 K-NP	32.1 ± 0.8	67.9 ± 1.0	5.7 ± 0.2	105.3 ± 9.8	94.3 ± 0.2	7.3 ± 0.1
923 K-P	24.7 ± 0.8	75.3 ± 1.1	n/a	n/a	100.0	9.0 ± 0.1
923 K-NP	24.3 ± 0.8	75.7 ± 1.1	n/a	n/a	100.0	8.7 ± 0.1
973 K-P	16.9 ± 0.5	83.1 ± 0.8	n/a	n/a	100.0	13.8 ± 0.6
973 K-NP	18.7 ± 0.6	81.3 ± 0.9	n/a	n/a	100.0	14.3 ± 0.7
1023 K-P	5.8 ± 0.7	94.2 ± 1.0	n/a	n/a	100.0	13.1 ± 0.6
1023 K-NP	5.9 ± 0.6	94.1 ± 0.9	n/a	n/a	100.0	14.9 ± 0.8

Characterization of activated catalysts. Based on the results obtained studying the carburization process, all samples evaluated for RWGS activity, including Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG and Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI, were carburized at 873 K for 5 hours with a ramp rate of 1 K/min.

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4 XRD analysis confirmed the presence of a carbide phase. The compositions of the
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7 carbides are determined via Rietveld refinement (Figure S7) and are listed in Table 2.
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10 Interestingly, the refinements of Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG suggest the
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12
13 presence of a different phase than β-Mo₂C, as was observed by *in situ* XRD (see Figure
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16 2). The reflections at 1/d-spacings 0.41 and 0.48 can either be related to a cubic MoO_xC_y
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18 phase (PDF 00-017-0104) or α-MoC_{0.68} (PDF 01-082-3210, SPGR Fm-3m (225)).^{31,32} The
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21 latter phase is usually synthesized by a carburization procedure of Mo₂N¹¹ or when
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24 promoted with platinum³³, we therefore suggest that the observed phase is more likely to
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27 be MoO_xC_y, indicating the presence of an intermediate phase between the reduction and
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30 carburization step.³⁴ β-Mo₂C is observed when the same samples are carburized at
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33 slightly higher temperatures (see Figure S8), supporting this assumption. These
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36 discrepancies between *in situ* XRD and reactor carburization could be associated to
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39 variations in heating system and gas flow patterns resulting from the differences between
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42 the dedicated fixed bed reactor and the XRK 900 reactor chamber and reaffirm the
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45 sensitivity of the physical properties of Mo_xC_y on the carburization process, specifically at
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48 smaller particle sizes. In this work, the molybdenum oxycarbide was described as cubic
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3 structure (space group: Fm-3m) with a stoichiometry of MoOC, as the MoO_xC_y phase
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7 (PDF 00-017-0104) is insufficiently described in literature and no pure phase was
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10 available prohibiting the use of alternative Rietveld Refinement strategies such as
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14 PONKCS.³⁵
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18 **Table 2.** Overview of phase quantification and crystallite sizes determined via Rietveld
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22 analysis of freshly carburized catalysts at 873 K.
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Sample	Phase composition (wt.-%) / crystallite size (nm)					
	β -Mo ₂ C		η -MoC _{0.59}		MoO _x C _y	
	wt.-%	nm	wt.-%	nm	wt.-%	nm
Mo ₂ C/SBA-15-HNC	-	-	45.5 ± 4.6	3.4 ± 0.5	54.5 ± 4.6	4.0 ± 0.4
Mo ₂ C/SiO ₂ -WI	21.4 ± 2.7	4.9 ± 0.8	78.6 ± 2.7	3.3 ± 0.2	-	-
Mo ₂ C/SiO ₂ -SG	-	-	55.8 ± 4.3	4.4 ± 0.5	44.2 ± 4.3	5.7 ± 0.8
Mo ₂ C/SBA-15-WI	19.4 ± 2.9	9.2 ± 2.0	80.6 ± 2.9	4.6 ± 0.4	-	-

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48 By means of TEM analysis it was confirmed that the carbide particles are evenly
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51 distributed over the SiO₂ support and no large variations in terms of particle size are
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55 observed. Due to the low contrast between the small carbide particles and the support, a
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3 reliable particle size distribution could not be extracted (see Figure 5) but the sizes
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6 measured are in line with the data obtained from XRD. No signs of carbon formation are
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9 observed. Raman spectroscopy was employed to further probe the presence of
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12 carbonaceous deposits analyzing multiple particles of each sample (see Figure S9).
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17 $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2\text{-WI}$ is the only sample which showed some degree of carbon deposits
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20 identified by the D-band at 1350 cm^{-1} and the G-band at 1580 cm^{-1} . These deposits are
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24 however not found throughout the sample.
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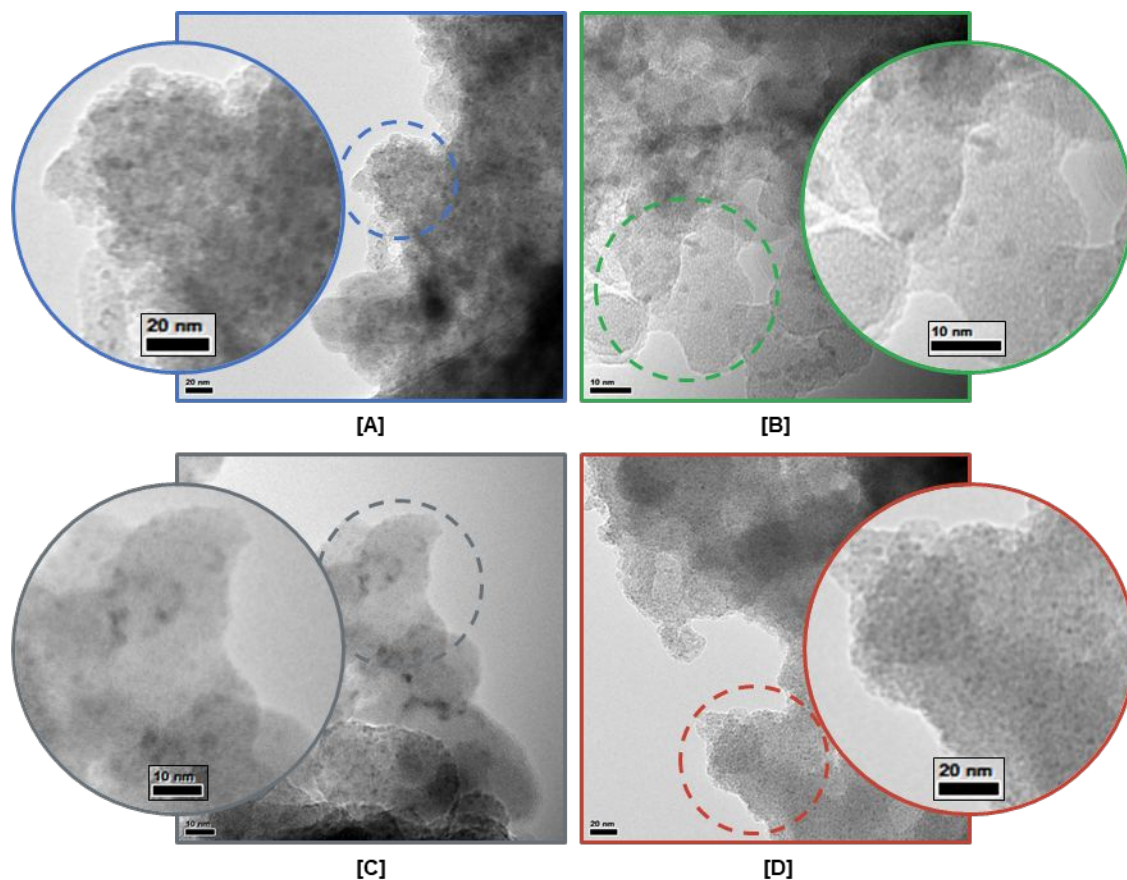


Figure 5. TEM images of [A] Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC, [B] Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI, [C] Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG and [D] Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI.

Probing CO₂ activation on Mo₂C by temperature programmed reaction of CO₂. The activation of thermodynamically stable CO₂ is the key step in the RWGS reaction. The formation of CO as function of temperature was used as probing reaction in the present study both using a fixed-bed reactor set-up and *in situ* XAS. In the reactor studies, CO formation is first observed in the temperature range between 500 K and 600 K

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3 independent of synthesis route (see Figure 6-A). At higher temperatures, between 800 K
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6 and 850 K, the CO formation rate increases significantly, reaching a maximum
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10 concentration of CO in the reactor outlet gas between 880 K and 920 K. When normalizing
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13 the CO formation rate to Mo content (see Figure 6-A & B), Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG and Mo₂C/SiO₂-
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16 WI show the highest yield of CO with Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG reaching the peak formation rate at
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19 significantly lower temperatures (892 K vs. 917 K) suggesting a higher intrinsic activity or
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22 rather a higher affinity for re-oxidation. No correlation can be observed between the
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25 average mass specific Mo surface area of all four freshly carburized samples (Table S5)
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28 and the observed CO formation rates and yield. After the reaction, all four supported
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31 samples are oxidized to MoO₂ with an increased average crystallite sizes between 21 and
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38 29 nm, leading to a significant decrease in the average mass specific Mo surface area.
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43 Two main pathways can lead to the formation of CO. Option 1: CO₂ dissociates on the
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46 catalyst surface to CO and surface oxygen species, leading to the possible formation of
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49 molybdenum oxycarbide (MoO_xC_y) on the surface and eventually bulk oxide. Option 2:
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53 via the reverse Boudouard reaction, removing carbon either from earlier deposited
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3 surface carbon or from the carbide. To understand which pathway is preferred, a similar
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7 CO₂ activation experiment is performed on bulk β-Mo₂C as higher quantities of CO are
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10 formed thus limiting uncertainties in data acquisition (see Figure 6-C). Surface activation
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13 of CO₂ will lead to an equal amount of CO formed compared to CO₂ reacted while the
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16 removal of carbon yields two moles of CO per mole of CO₂ reacted. Since there were no
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19 other products observed, it is possible to assign all CO₂ reacted to CO formed. At
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22 temperatures below 800 K, the molar rate of CO formed, and CO₂ reacted is equal, which
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25 suggests the CO₂ surface activation pathway to be dominant. At higher temperatures, the
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28 molar rate of CO formed is larger than CO₂ reacted, but the ratio is lower than 2. This
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31 could suggest that initially, due to CO₂ dissociation on the surface, oxygen species on the
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34 carbide surface are formed potentially leading to an oxycarbide like structure and
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37 subsequently, at temperatures above 800 K, the surface oxygen species react with the
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40 carbon species from the carbide structure, liberating CO and forming MoO₂ (Figure S10).
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43 The observed drop in CO formation at around 950 K and the remaining carbide in the
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46 bulk sample, suggest that CO₂ dissociation is happening on the top surface layer(s) only
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49 and once these layers are oxidized, the catalyst becomes inactive for CO₂ activation. The
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3 incomplete oxidation of the bulk sample is likely due to the larger crystallite size resulting
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7 in a dense oxide layer protecting an inner carbide core.
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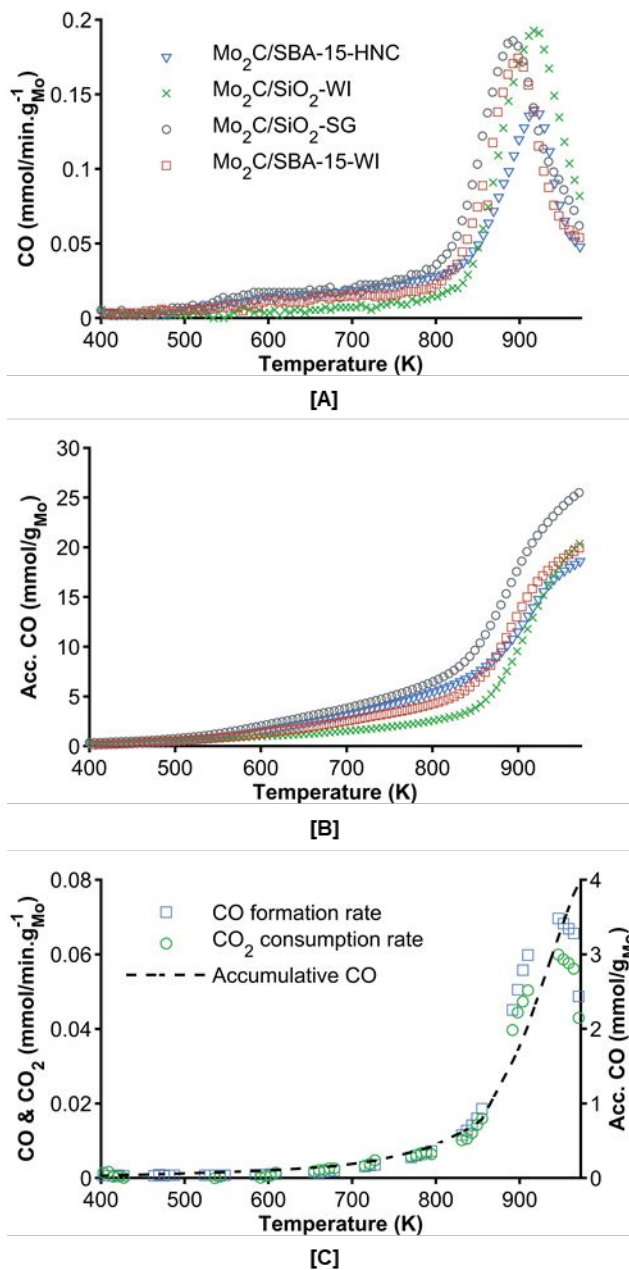
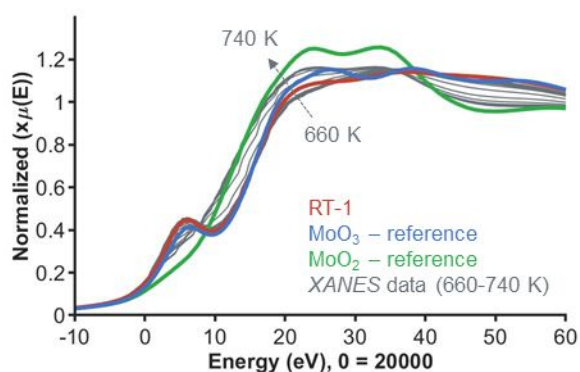


Figure 6. [A] CO formation rate and [B] accumulative formation of CO as a function of temperature normalized to Mo mass in the catalyst. [C] CO₂ activation over bulk β -Mo₂C

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3 as function of temperature. Conditions: ramp from 323 K to 973 K at 1 K/min in 1 vol.-%
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7 CO₂ in N₂ (SV = 60 L/h·g_{cat}⁻¹) at 1 atm.
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11 *In situ* XAS experiments were performed on three out of the four supported samples;
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13 Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI (Figure 8), Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC (Figure S11) and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG (Figure
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15 S12). Each sample was exposed to an *in situ* carburization treatment followed by a
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17 temperature programmed reaction in 1 % CO₂/He. It must be highlighted that the
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19 carburization and CO₂ temperature programmed activation conditions vary from the
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21 earlier described synthesis and reactor studies. Under carburization conditions, the
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23 temperature was ramped to 650 K (10 K/min), followed by a further ramp to 920 K (2
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25 K/min) holding at 920 K of 2.5 hours. During exposure to CO₂, the temperature was
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27 ramped to 600 K (10 K/min) followed by a ramp to 1010 K (5 K/min) holding at 1010 K for
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29 1 hour. XAS measurements were taken at room temperature before (referred to as RT-1)
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31 and after the two different treatments (RT-2 and RT-3, respectively) and XANES
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33 measurements were recorded throughout the temperature ramping. The *in situ* XANES
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35 spectra of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI are presented by a top view plot (see Figure 8-A & B)
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3 accompanied by the linear combination fitting results of the different Mo-phases (see
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7 Figure 8-C & D). Unlike the *in situ* XRD results (Figure 2), but similar to the *in situ* Raman
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10 observations (Figure S3), no clear MoO₃ spectra is observed during the decomposition of
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13 the molybdate precursor in the presence of the carburization gas mixture (see Figure 7).
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17 This can be explained by the differences in temperature ramp rate between XRD (1
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20 K/min), Raman (3 K/min) and XAS (10 K/min) and sample presentation. Note that small
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23 differences in signal intensity in the spectra, between RT-1 and MoO₂ can be observed
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28 (indicated by the arrow in Figure 8-A). Due to the unavailability of further reference
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31 materials, RT-1 was used as reference for the molybdate in the XANES LCF.



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48 **Figure 7.** Normalized *in situ* XANES spectra (around Mo K-edge) of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI during
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51 carburization from 660 K to 740 K, energy scale shifted to 20,000 eV.
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3 At 720 K a phase change from the molybdate to MoO₂ is observed (see Figure 8-A).
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7 Linear combination fitting results suggest that the carburization of the formed oxide phase
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10 starts almost simultaneously, indicating a much lower carburization onset temperature
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14 than observed by XRD, but supporting the earlier described *in situ* Raman observations.
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17 The maximum MoO₂ content in the sample was observed to be ±50 wt.-%. At 790 K the
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21 carbide phase becomes the dominant phase, reaching ±95 wt.-% carbide content at 825
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24 K. No significant changes in the Mo-phase composition are observed during the 2.5 hour
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28 isothermal conditions at 920 K.
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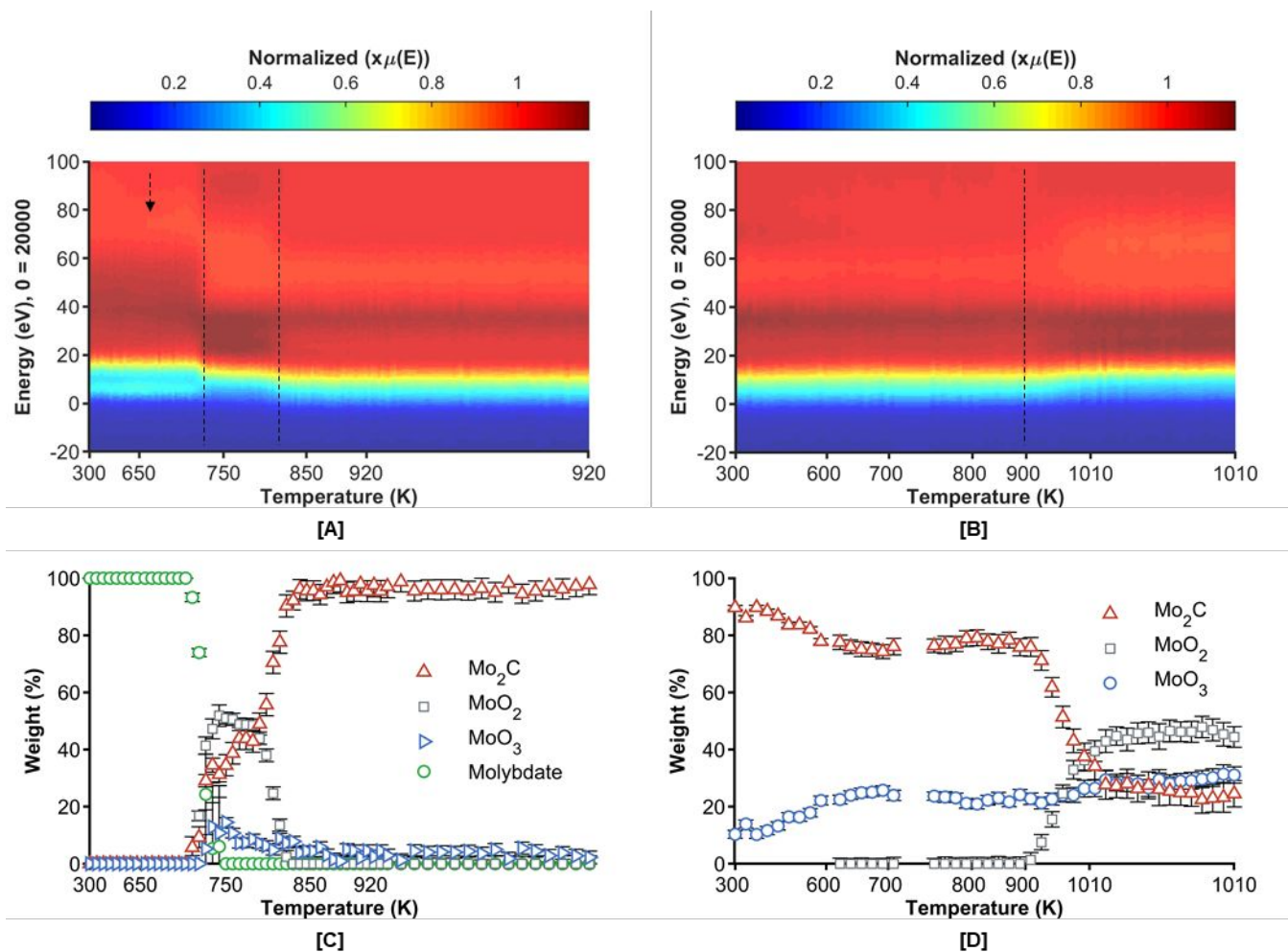


Figure 8. In situ XANES spectra on Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI, with [A] carburization treatment, and [B] CO₂ activation and their corresponding LCF results [C] and [D], respectively; analogous in situ XANES spectra are given in the ESI for Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC (Figure S11) and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG (Figure S12). For detailed conditions see experimental section.

The *in situ* XANES carburization of Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC displays two significant phase changes from MoO₃ to MoO₂ to Mo₂C (see Figure S11). The reduction of MoO₃ to MoO₂

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3 starts at 735 K. The formation of the carbide again appears to start simultaneously. The
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7 maximum MoO₂ content reached is ±42 wt.-% at 775 K, with the carbide becoming the
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10 dominant phase at 785 K. The final carbide content of ±88 wt.-% is observed after about
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14 30 minutes holding at 920 K, with the remainder being mainly MoO₃. Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG, also
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17 starting from the MoO₃ phase, shows similar behavior during carburization (see Figure
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21 S12) with the reduction of MoO₃ starting at 685 K and simultaneously forming the carbide
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24 phase. The maximum MoO₂ content was observed at 745 K (±51 wt.-%) with the carbide
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27 phase becoming dominant at 770 K. The final carbide composition is estimated at ±94
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30 wt.-%, mainly balanced by MoO₃. The observed differences in onset temperatures
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34 between the three samples (SG < WI < HNC) are clearly evidencing a dependency of
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38 synthesis route and/or type of support material, during the early stages of the
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41 carburization process.
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45 The compositions obtained from LCF of the XANES spectra collected at room
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48 temperature, after the carburization treatment, are in line with the above observations
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51 (see Table S2 and Figure S13). The slight discrepancy between the fitting results of the
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55 RT spectra and *in situ* spectra can be rationalized by the noise induced at high
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3 temperatures but are within the usual LCF error (± 10 wt.-%). These compositions cannot
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7 be directly compared to the samples prepared inside the reactor, due to different
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10 carburization protocols with the higher ramp rate to be most likely the main cause for the
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14 leftover oxidic species.
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17 EXAFS analysis was performed to further investigate the different Mo allotropes present
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20 in the samples as the normalized XANES spectra do not indicate clear differences
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23 between β -Mo₂C and α -MoC_{0.68} (no reference materials available for η -MoC_{0.59} and
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26 MoO_xC_y). In k-space, small but clearly visible features can be identified, distinguishing
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31 between the two carbide phases (indicated by arrows in Figure 9-A). These observations
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34 confirm that no alpha-carbide phase is present. In R-space, the first and second shell,
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37 Mo-C and Mo-Mo, are indistinguishable between the alpha and beta carbide phase and
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41 each sample can be fitted with a crystal structure corresponding to the beta-carbide
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45 phase. The only difference observed is between 4.5 and 6.0 Å (see Figure 9-B). All fits
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49 and corresponding fit parameters can be found in Figure S13 and Table S3.
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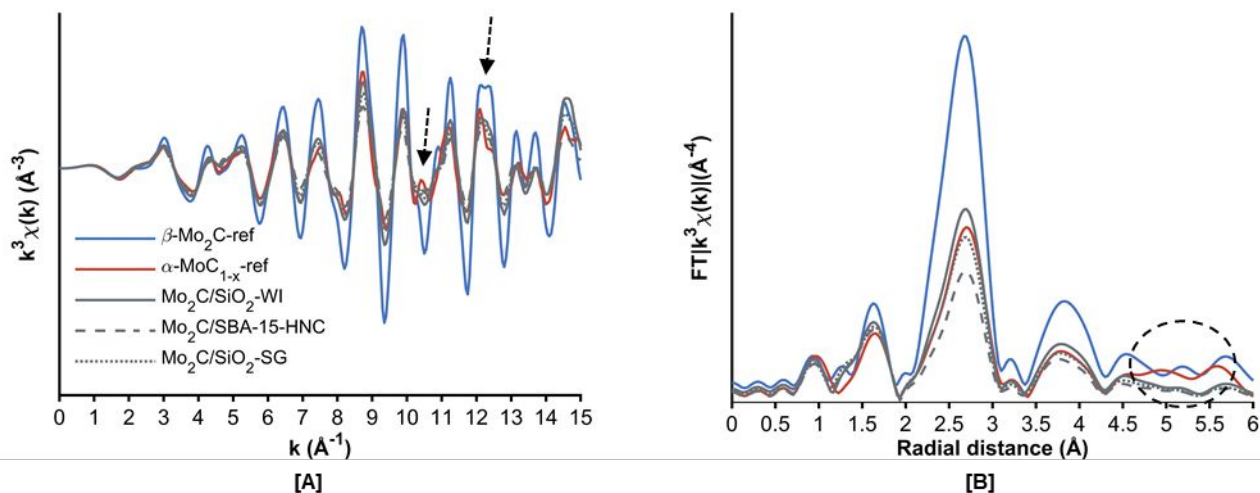


Figure 9. k^3 - weighted Mo K-edge EXAFS spectra of $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2$ -WI, $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SBA-15-HNC}$, $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2$ -SG, β - Mo_2C -reference and α - MoC_{1-x} -reference in [A] the k -space and [B] the R-space.

During the temperature programmed reaction with CO_2 over the freshly carburized samples, one significant step change in the XANES spectra is observed for all samples (see Figure 8-B, Figure S11-B and Figure S12-B). LCFs of the *in situ* XANES spectra show that the oxidation onset temperature of Mo_2C to MoO_2 (and MoO_3) is between 905 and 925 K. These results confirm the observations made during the reactor studies, despite the difference in temperature ramp rate. This strengthens the previously proposed CO_2 activation mechanism. Contrary to the XRD analysis after the reactor studies, the

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3 LCF results of the XAS spectra after CO₂ activation (see Table S2) indicate that the
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7 carbide does not only oxidize to MoO₂, but also to MoO₃. These results show that the
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10 MoO₃ its crystallinity is insufficient to be observed by XRD, e.g. that amorphous MoO₃ is
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14 formed or it is located at the surface of the particles. A study presented by Solymosi et
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17 al.³⁶ confirms the possible (surface) oxidation of Mo₂C to MoO₃ in the presence of CO₂ by
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20 means of XPS analysis. MoO₃ is reported as the dominant species at reaction
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24 temperatures of 1073 K.
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29 **Reverse water-gas-shift reaction.** Finally, all four samples were tested for RWGS
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32 activity in a range of reaction conditions with varying CO₂ : H₂ ratio and to probe the
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35 influence of supported carbide catalysts. At every temperature and H₂ to CO₂ feed ratio,
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38 the thermodynamic equilibrium conversion (X_{eq}) of the RWGS reaction was calculated for
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42 comparison to make sure that the observed conversion is not limited by thermodynamics.
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46 At a temperature of 673 K, a H₂ to CO₂ ratio of 1 ($X_{\text{eq}} = 22.1 \%$) and a space velocity of
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49 60 L/h.g⁻¹_{cat} (of which 50 vol.-% is argon), the catalysts Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI and Mo₂C/SBA-
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53 15-HNC show very similar conversions, close to X_{eq} , with $X_{\text{CO}_2} = 17 \%$ and $X_{\text{H}_2} = 19 \%$
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4 for Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI (see Figure 10-A and Figure 10-C). Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI is less active with
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7 a CO₂ and H₂ conversion of 11 % and 12 %, respectively. Freshly carburized, the
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10 molybdenum phases of both catalysts prepared via wetness impregnation consist of
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13 approximately 80 wt.-% η-MoC_{0.59} and 20 wt.-% β-Mo₂C (see Table 2). While the SBA-15
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16 supported sample displays a slightly larger crystallite size for both carbide phases, this is
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19 somewhat overcompensated by the higher Mo content (see Table S5). During the
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22 exposure to RWGS conditions at different temperatures (see Figure 9A), the carbide
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24
25 phase of Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI transitions fully into a pure η-MoC_{0.59} without crystallite
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27
28 growth, while the composition of Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI remains largely unchanged with some
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30
31 crystallite growth (see Tables S4 & S5). At what stage of the reaction the transition occurs
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33
34 is unfortunately currently unknown. The higher activity of the SiO₂ supported catalyst can
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36
37 be associated to the retention of the beta carbide phase which has previously been
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39
40 identified as more active in a study by Wan et al.³⁷ Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC, only tested at 673
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42
43 K for 24 hours, also transforms to a pure η-MoC_{0.59}, starting from a 30 wt.-% oxycarbide
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45
46 content (see Tables 2 & S4). The catalyst's activity is on par with Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI and
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49 outperforms Mo₂C/SBA-15-WI by 100 K (see Figure 9 A 12 to 24 hours TOS) while
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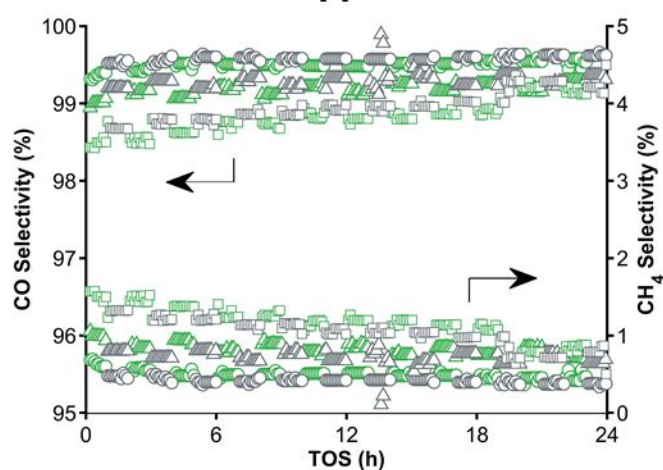
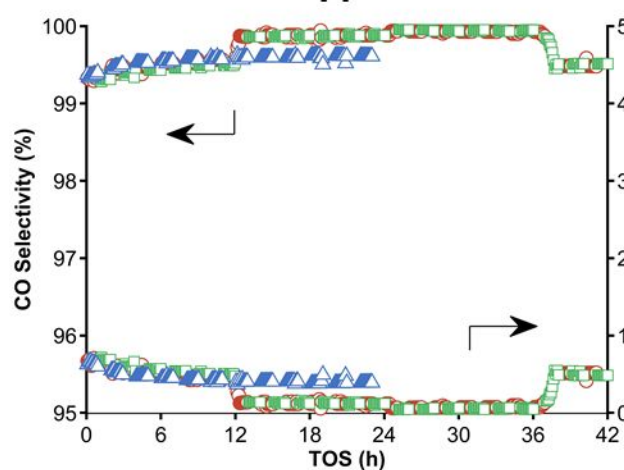
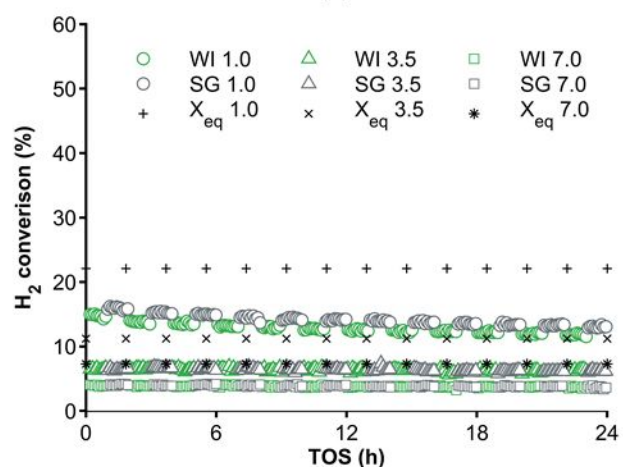
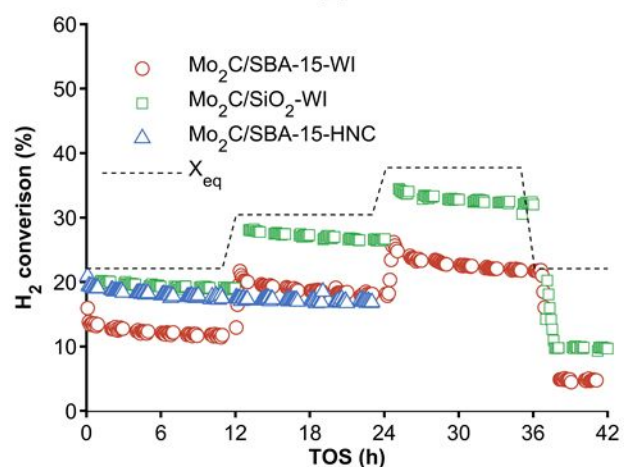
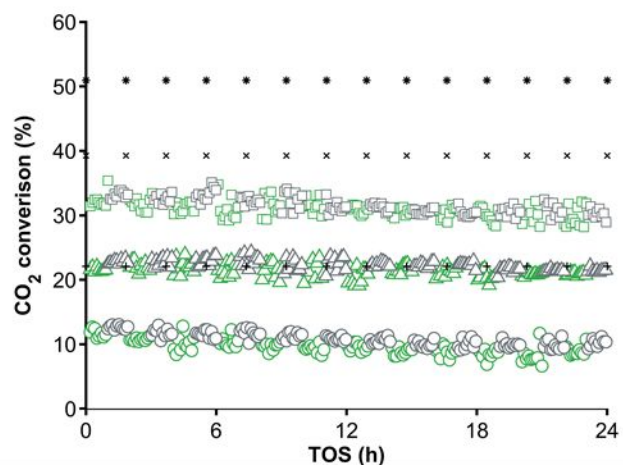
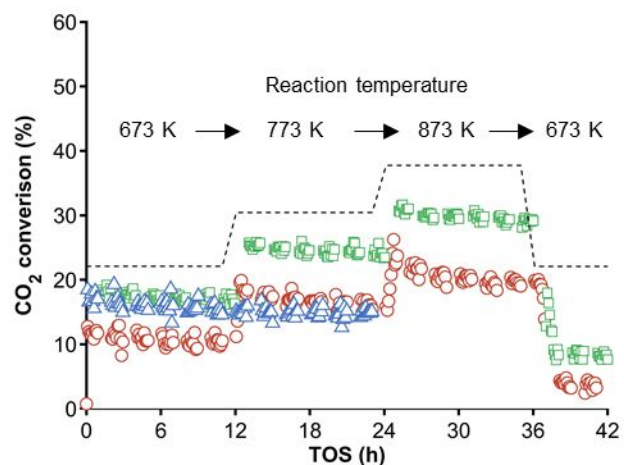
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3 displaying very comparable phase compositions and crystallite sizes (analysis of the
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6 spent catalysts, see Table S4). The overall carbide surface area appears not to be
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9 responsible for the observed difference in performance, which is mirrored in the formation
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11
12 rate of CO in the CO₂ activation experiments between 600 and 850 K (see Figure 6-B). A
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14
15 previous study by Kurlov et al. suggests that molybdenum oxycarbide is the active phase
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18 for the RWGS reaction.³⁸ The different synthesis routes chosen can affect other
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21 parameters such as the location of the carbide crystals on the support.
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28 In terms of product selectivity, all catalysts show >98 % CO selectivity and <1 % CH₄
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30
31 selectivity (see Figure 10-E and Figure 10-F). This clearly indicates that the CO₂ and CO
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34 methanation reactions, which are under these temperature conditions thermodynamically
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37 favored over the RWGS (see Figure 1C), are kinetically suppressed by the catalyst. The
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40 observed low concentrations of CH₄ formed can, in combination with experimental
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43 uncertainties, account for the observed temperature and sample independent 2-3 % over
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46 stoichiometric hydrogen conversion.
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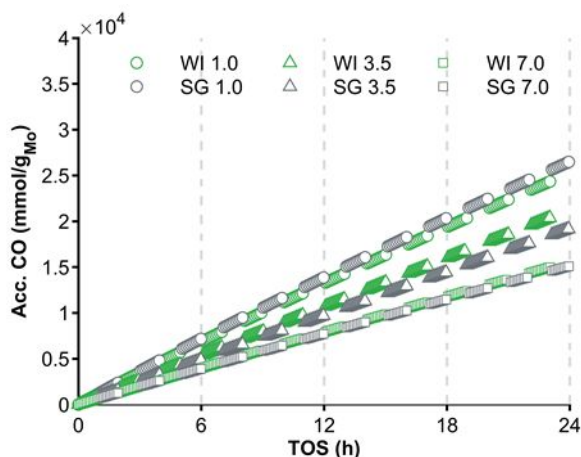
52 Increasing the H₂ to CO ratio at a reaction temperature of 673 K is, based on
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55 thermodynamic considerations, a more favorable condition for CO₂ methanation.
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4 However, when using the RWGS to activate CO₂ together with green hydrogen to produce
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7 synthesis gas and subsequent fuels and chemicals, it is of interest to operate the RWGS
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10 at a higher than stoichiometric H₂ to CO₂ ratios to achieve higher CO₂ conversions and
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13 yield the desired synthesis gas composition at the reactor outlet.³⁹ Both Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI,
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16 the best performing catalyst at varying reaction temperatures, and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG, the
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19 catalyst with the apparent most facile CO₂ activation, were studied at feed ratios of 1, 3.5
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22 and 7 and an increased space velocity of 120 L/h.g⁻¹_{cat} in a single experiment with
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25 intermittent flushing to set the new feed composition. At all conditions, both catalysts show
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28 similar activity and selectivity. With a feed ratio of 1, X_{CO₂} is between 11 and 12 %, with
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31 minimum deactivation over 24h time on stream and X_{H₂} of 15 to 16 %, which decreases
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34 to 12 to 13 % after 24h time on stream. Increasing the feed ratio to 3.5 (X_{eq} = 39.0 %) the
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37 CO₂ conversion increases to 21 % for both catalysts, with again minimum deactivation
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40 observed after 24h time on stream. A hydrogen conversion of 6 % corresponds to a 1:1
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43 conversion ratio in moles. A feed ratio of 7 (X_{eq} = 50.7 %) further increases conversion
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46 levels without changing the stability of the catalyst. At the highest feed ratio, a methane
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3 selectivity of approximately 2 % is recorded, which decreases steadily with time on stream
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7 to below 1 %. While in the freshly carburized samples, Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG
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10 show clear differences, namely 20-24 wt.-% of the carbide phase in form of β-Mo₂C or
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13 oxycarbide for Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG respectively, the composition of the
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16 spent catalysts is nearly identical. Compared to the RWGS experiment at different
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19 temperatures, the β-Mo₂C component is hardly retained resulting in a mostly η-MoC_{0.59}
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21
22 active phase with very similar crystallite sizes. For a closer comparison of the catalytic
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25 performance, the accumulated CO formed per feed ratio is calculated as function of time
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28 on stream (see Figure 10). It is apparent that at a feed ratio of H₂:CO₂ of 1, the catalyst
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31 prepared via the sol gel technique shows slight advantages compared to Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI,
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34 but at a feed ratio of 3.5 this trend is reversed. No difference in performance is observed
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37 at the highest hydrogen concentration (H₂:CO₂ of 7). As discussed earlier, Mo₂C/SiO₂-
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40 SG also shows the high propensity to activate pure CO₂ which could be an indication of
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43 an enhanced redox activity. Such an enhancement is expected to be most prominent in
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46 the RWGS at low H₂ partial pressures.
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4 **Figure 10.** Activity and selectivity of all catalysts under various process conditions: [A, C
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7 and E] \square & \circ : T = 673 K (0-12h TOS), 773 K (12-24h TOS), 873 K (24-36h TOS) and
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10 673 K (36-42h TOS). Δ : T = 673 K for 24h TOS. \square , \circ & Δ : H₂ to CO₂ ratio = 1, SV
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12
13 (CO₂+H₂) = 60 L/h·g⁻¹. [B, D and F] Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI (green) and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG (grey): T =
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17 673 K for 24h at H₂:CO₂ ratio of 1.0 (\circ), 3.5 (Δ) or 7.0 (\square). SV = 120 L/h·g⁻¹.
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21 Thermodynamic equilibrium conversion for CO₂ and H₂ displayed by plusses (1.0),
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24 crosses (3.5) and stars (7.0).
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43 **Figure 11.** Accumulative formation of CO as a function of time under RWGS conditions
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47 normalized per Mo content. Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI (green) and Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG (grey): T = 673 K
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51 for 24h at H₂:CO₂ ratio of 1.0 (\circ), 3.5 (Δ) or 7.0 (\square). SV = 120 L/h·g⁻¹.
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CONCLUSIONS

Four different Mo_xC_y -based catalysts were successfully synthesized using three different techniques, WI, HNC and SG, on two different support materials, SiO_2 and SBA-15. The difference in synthesis methods yielded a variation in Mo_xC_y crystal phase composition (β , η or oxycarbide phase) in a similar crystallite size range. The materials carburized from MoO_3 ($\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SiO}_2$ -SG and $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}/\text{SBA-15}$ -HNC) seem to carburize slightly later and still contain the oxycarbide phase after treatment at 873 K. The temperature was shown to be a major parameter in the carburization procedure, not only in terms of carbon deposition, but also in carbide purity, re-oxidation sensitivity and crystallite size. The comparison of *in situ* techniques focusing both on the long- and short-range order of materials provides evidence for a surface carburization at temperatures significantly lower than reported for bulk carburization. The same techniques also suggest, in line with literature³⁰, that at room temperature low concentrations of O_2 (such as 1 vol.%) adsorb dissociatively on the carbide surface without causing Mo oxidation. Increasing the O_2 concentration results in violent oxidation of pristine carbide surfaces.

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4 In a diluted CO₂ atmosphere, at temperatures up to 800 K, CO₂ is activated on the
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7 surface via dissociation. At higher temperatures the carbide is oxidized to MoO_x. Of all
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10 tested samples, Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG displays the peak CO formation rate, i.e. peak re-
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13 oxidation of the carbide phase through CO₂, at the lowest temperatures. No correlation
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16 of this observation to physical properties was found.
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21 Under RWGS conditions, all catalysts tested show high CO₂ conversion (up to 30 %)
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24 with an outstanding CO selectivity of above 99 %, even at high H₂ to CO₂ ratios. This
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27 clearly shows the kinetic suppression of the thermodynamically favored CO and CO₂
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30 methanation. H₂ readily removes formed oxygen surface species forming H₂O, preventing
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33 the oxidation of the catalyst. Comparing the wetness impregnation catalysts, with
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36 comparable carbide phase composition and estimated carbide surface area after the
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39 carburization, the SiO₂ supported sample outperforms the SBA-15 supported sample at
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42 all tested temperatures. During the reaction, the beta carbide contribution converts
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45 completely to η-MoC_{0.59} over the SBA-15 sample, with no such phase change observed
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48 on the SiO₂ supported catalyst. When the MoO₃ hybrid nanocrystals are deposited on
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51 SBA-15, they perform on par with Mo₂C/SiO₂-WI although the initial mixture of oxycarbide
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3 and eta carbide converts to 100 % η -MoC_{0.59} after only 24 hours TOS at the lowest
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7 reaction temperature. While the exact role of the carbide phase cannot be deconvoluted
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10 from the presented data, the HNC preparation seems advantageous compared to the WI-
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13 route. The SG and the WI catalyst on SiO₂ showed very similar behavior, although
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16 Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG is shown to oxidize at much lower temperatures in a diluted CO₂ stream
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19 suggesting different redox behavior. Only at the stoichiometric feed ratio Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG
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22 seems to be slightly more active. Maybe the effect of a material specific higher redox
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25 activity is suppressed at higher hydrogen partial pressures.
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31 In all samples, catalyst deactivation could not be prevented completely, and it is
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34 suggested to be due to a phase change from β -Mo₂C & MoO_xC_y to η -MoC_{0.59} and particle
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37 sintering.
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43 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

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45 **Supporting Information.** Thermodynamic predictions for the methanation of CO₂ (Figure
46
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48 S1); TGA analysis of bulk MoO₃ and bulk AHM (Figure S2); ICP-OES and BET analysis
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51 results (Table S1); *In situ* Raman spectroscopic results for the calcination and
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54 carburization of AHM supported on SiO₂ (Figure S3); Normalized region of bulk Mo₂C
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3 samples carburized at a range of temperatures (Figure S4); LCF fits of bulk Mo₂C
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7 samples carburized at a range of temperatures (Figure S5); XRD profiles of bulk Mo₂C
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10 samples carburized at a range of temperatures (Figure S6); Rietveld refined patterns of
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13 the four catalysts prior to testing under RWGS conditions (Figure S7); XRD pattern of
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16 Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC carburized at 923 K (Figure S8); Offline Raman spectra collected of
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18
19 the four catalysts prior to testing under RWGS conditions (Figure S9); XRD profiles post
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21
22 CO₂ activation in reactor (Figure S10); *In situ* XANES spectra on Mo₂C/SBA-15-HNC
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24
25 (Figure S11); *In situ* XANES spectra on Mo₂C/SiO₂-SG (Figure S12); Phase quantification
26
27
28 of XANES spectra via LCF (Table S2); LCF fits of Mo₂C supported samples after *in situ*
29
30
31 XAS carburization and CO₂ activation (Figure S13); Radial distribution fits of freshly
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33
34 carburized Mo₂C samples *in situ* XAS (Figure S14); XRD spectra of XAS reference
35
36
37 materials (Figure S15); Fit parameters of the radial distribution fits of Figure S14 (Table
38
39
40 S3); Overview of XRD phase quantification via Rietveld refinement of spent samples
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43 (Table S4); Surface area to volume ratio of fresh and spent samples (Table S5).
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Notes

There are no financial conflicts to declare.

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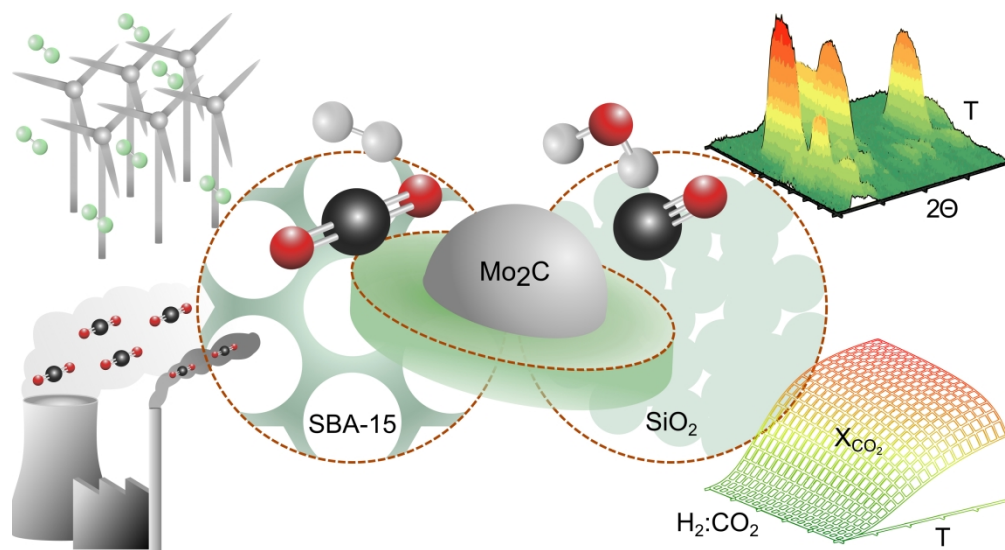
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Graphical Abstract