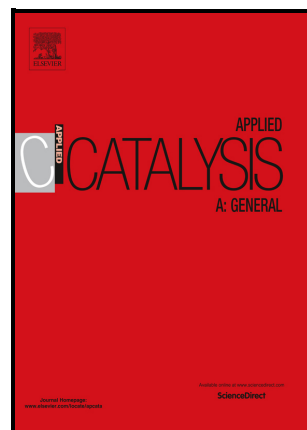


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PII: S0926-860X(24)00361-2

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2024.119916>

Reference: APCATA119916

To appear in: *Applied Catalysis A, General*

Received date: 24 June 2024

Revised date: 20 August 2024

Accepted date: 23 August 2024

Please cite this article as: Yufei Xie, Servaas Lips, Lennert D'ooghe, Maarten Sabbe, Christophe Detavernier, Hilde Poelman and Vladimir Galvita, Engineering the interfaces in MgO-modified Ni/Al₂O₃ for CO₂ methanation, *Applied Catalysis A, General*, (2024)
doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcata.2024.119916>

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Engineering the interfaces in MgO-modified Ni/Al₂O₃ for CO₂ methanation

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ABSTRACT: The interaction between metallic active phases and oxides is of great significance for catalytic properties, but still remains elusive. Here, two reverse interfaces are constructed (Ni/MgO and MgO/Ni on Al₂O₃) for a typical CO₂ methanation catalyst, Ni/Al₂O₃, by depositing Ni and MgO in opposite sequences on Al₂O₃. Enhanced performance was found on both interface structures, however, distinct turnover frequencies indicate different mechanisms. With MgO present in between Ni and Al₂O₃, the formation of an inactive NiAl₂O₄ spinel phase is mitigated, making more NiO available for reduction. When MgO is added on top of Ni, the new MgO/Ni interface exhibits high reactivity in CO₂ methanation. CO₂ temperature programmed desorption, in situ quick X-ray adsorption spectroscopy (QXAS) and modulation excitation XAS (MEXAS) demonstrate that a Ni-NiO redox mechanism occurs with enhanced CO₂ activation at the MgO/Ni interface. The subsequent hydrogenation of adsorbed carbon monoxide and carbonate species requires nearby Ni to provide H spillover and occurs preferably at the interface sites, where adsorbed species are more easily activated. Hence, interfaces between the same compounds, but with reverse structures, result in different phenomena, illustrating the role an interface structure can play in catalytic systems.

KEY WORDS: CO₂ methanation, interface, magnesium oxide, nickel, aluminum oxide

1. INTRODUCTION

Supported metal catalysts—including dispersed metal species on high-surface-area materials such as oxides, carbons, and zeolites—are widely used in catalytic applications. These high-surface-area materials, termed as supports or carriers, provide a platform for the fine dispersion of metals, resulting in stable metal nanoparticles. This configuration allows for the formation of catalytically active sites that are resistant to sintering during reaction. Subsequent investigations demonstrate the existence of metal–support interactions, which significantly and distinctly influence the geometric structures and electronic properties of the supported metals, consequently affecting their catalytic performance. The metal-oxide interface is particularly important as it often provides additional sites where chemical reactions can take place[1, 2]. This interface is where the active metal and oxide meet and interact, giving rise to new physical and chemical properties that differ from the surface characteristics of the individual materials [1, 3]. The structure of the interface varies: the oxide part can be a support, giving mechanical strength and/or ensuring fine dispersion of the active metal phase, but also a modifying phase, aimed at providing sites with tuned activity[4]. Ideally, the catalyst configuration can be classified as traditional supported catalyst (metal supported on oxide) and inverse catalyst (oxide supported on metal)[2]. However, in many cases, identifying the support phase or modifier can be a dilemma. Sometimes, it is obvious as in the case where metal particles are present on a planar solid slab or wafer (Figure 1(a)). At times, the term ‘support’ can also be somewhat ambiguous when the phase consists of equally sized or smaller particles than the active phase, surrounding or decorating the latter (Figure 1(b)). One could argue that typically the support is present in larger amounts than the active phase, though this is not always the case[5]. Hence, the boundary between support and modifying oxide can be a thin line.

The interaction between active metal nanoparticles and oxides, as support and/or oxide modifier, can induce a variety of effects at the interface, including charge transfer[6-8], reshaping of the

nanoparticles by the support[9, 10], creation of new (mixed) phases[11-13], and the formation of highly active (adsorption) sites at the interfacial perimeter[14]. In literature, Metal-Support Interactions (MSI) are recognized, with two concepts being particularly notable. The first is Strong Metal-Support Interaction (SMSI), wherein the support is actually covering part of the active metal, a concept initially introduced to explain the diminished chemisorption capacity of noble metals on TiO_2 following reduction treatments[15, 16]. The second is Electronic Metal-Support Interaction (EMSI), highlighting the role of chemical bonding and charge transfer at the metal-support interface in modifying the electronic and chemical properties on the surface of metal particles[7, 17]. As indicated above, these interactions are in fact not limited to *metal on support* configurations, but can be extended to any metal-oxide interface, regardless of the function and position of the oxide.

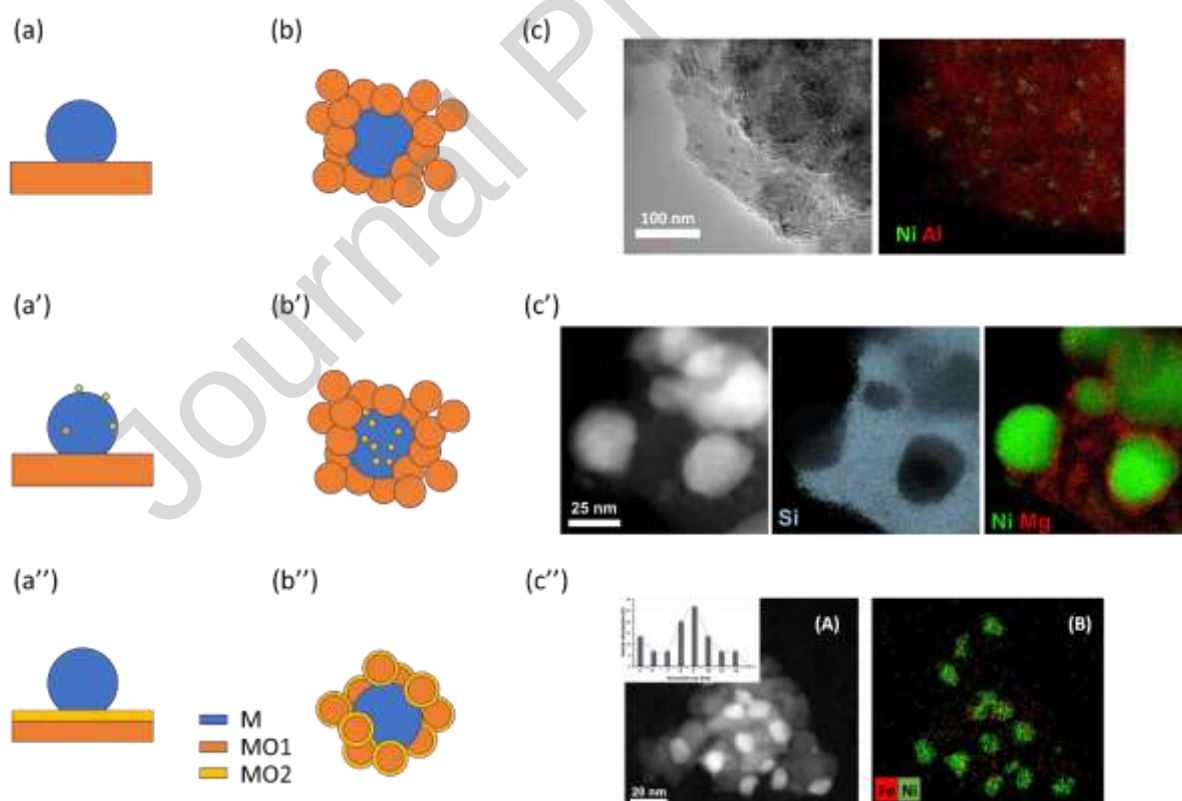


Figure 1. Metal-oxide interactions: (a): metal particle (M) supported on an oxide slab (MO1), B: metal particle surrounded by support particles (MO1); (a'), (b'): deposition of an extra modifying oxide (MO2) after the metal deposition; (a''), (b''): deposition of an extra modifying

oxide (MO2) before the metal deposition (MO1); (c): HRTEM of 9wt%Ni/MgAl₂O₄ with EDX overlay mapping of Ni and Al[18]; (c'): MgO/Ni/SiO₂ (1.5wt% Mg, 15wt% Ni) with extra MgO decorating the Ni particles[19]; (c''): reduced Ni/MgFeAlO₄ (8wt%Ni, 1wt%Fe) with extra Fe incorporated into the MgAl₂O₄ support to modify the Ni properties after reduction by Ni-Fe alloying[20]. M: metal, MO1: metal oxide 1, MO2: metal oxide 2.

The characteristics of the interface, such as its chemical composition, structural properties, and electronic state, can significantly influence the catalytic activity and selectivity. As a result, tailoring the metal-oxide interface is a crucial strategy in designing and developing novel catalysts with enhanced catalytic efficiency. For instance, Ni is always proposed as a good CO₂ methanation catalyst, but pure metallic Ni catalyzes the reverse water-gas shift reaction producing CO, rather than CH₄[21]. Along the same line, experimental works report that high CO selectivity is observed when Ni is supported on SiO₂, an oxide weakly interacting with Ni, so that mainly the performance of metallic Ni itself is playing[19, 22]. In contrast, when Ni interacts with oxides like MgO[19, 23], Al₂O₃[9, 24, 25] or CeO₂[26], strong interaction is observed, which modifies the properties of metallic Ni and leads to achieving high CH₄ selectivity. For enhancing CO₂ conversion using Ni-based catalysts, understanding the intricate catalyst structure, interactions at the interface and their relationship with the methanation activity is key.

Researchers have been exploring ways to control the surface/interface structures to finetune performance. To manage these metal-oxide interactions, various approaches have been adopted, such as adjusting the support's composition, morphology, or surface traits, and altering the metals' size and composition[27, 28], along with changing pretreatment methods like thermal procedures, redox cycles, and adsorbate-induced alterations[29-31]. In addition, one can purposely create new interfaces or modify existing ones, by adding an extra oxide to the catalytic system. The latter can either be applied on top of the metal surface (Figure 1(a'), (b'), (c')), or on the support to change the metal-support interaction (Figure 1(a''), (b''), (c'')). For

instance, Yan et al.[32] utilized different elements to create Ni-FeO_x and Ni-ZrO₂ interfaces, influencing CO and CH₄ formation differently due to the varying CO adsorption strengths on Ni-FeO_x and Ni-ZrO₂. Various combinations of Ni with other oxides, like Ni-MnO_x[11-13] and Ni-MgO[23], have been explored to develop new interfaces. In a recent study, MgO-modified Ni depositing on SiO₂, a support showing limited interaction with the active metal, was investigated as a model system. The enhanced CH₄ selectivity was attributed to the MgO/Ni interface (Figure 1(a') and (c'))[19].

While much research has investigated altering the interface nature, the effect of the spatial structure of these interfaces and the link between different spatial structures and performances remains a complex, yet vital, area of study. In this work, the effect of interface spatial arrangement is investigated with CO₂ methanation as a probe reaction. Ni/Al₂O₃, a widely applied and economically interesting, selective yet less active catalyst[33, 34], is decorated by MgO for constructing interfaces with synergies [19, 23]. The spatial structure of the MgO/Ni interface is engineered to fabricate two interfaces with reverse spatial structure and the consequent metal-oxide interactions are studied. By maintaining the same elemental composition, interfaces with contrasting structures, namely Ni/MgO and MgO/Ni on an Al₂O₃ support, are fabricated. The catalytic performance and turnover frequency (TOF) of these interfaces are then assessed and a suite of characterization methods is employed to analyze the interfaces of these inversely arranged MgO-Ni and Ni-MgO catalysts, uncovering their distinctive properties in the context of CO₂ activation. To probe the potential mechanisms at play, diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) is used, alongside modulation excitation X-ray absorption spectroscopy (MEXAS).

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Catalyst Synthesis

All samples were prepared by sequential incipient wetness impregnation. γ -Al₂O₃ (Samsol, Puralox Scca-150/200), Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (99.99%, Sigma-Aldrich) and Mg(NO₃)₂·9H₂O (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) were used as support and precursors, respectively. The latter were dissolved in deionized water, preparing the required precursor solutions for further use.

Two different impregnation sequences were applied in this work. For the forward sequence, Ni is impregnated first on γ -Al₂O₃, followed by MgO. In a typical synthesis process, 4.37 g of Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O was dissolved in a certain amount of water, leading to a solution with a volume of 5 mL. The solution was added dropwise to 5.00 g of γ -Al₂O₃. Hereafter, the sample was dried at 120 °C overnight, ground and calcined at 600 °C for 2h. These catalysts are labeled as 15Ni/Al, where 15 stands for the weight percentage of Ni, i.e. 15 wt% (metal base). Then, specific amounts of Mg(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (0.53 g and 2.77 g for Mg loadings of 1 and 5 %, respectively) were dissolved in a certain amount of water, leading to the solution with a volume of 5 mL. The solution was added dropwise to 5.00 g 15Ni/Al. Again, the samples were dried at 120 °C overnight, ground and calcined at 600 °C for 2h. These catalysts are labeled as xMg15Ni/Al, where x stands for the weight percentage of Mg (metal base, x=1 and 5wt%). For the reverse sequence, MgO is impregnated first on γ -Al₂O₃, yielding xMgAl, followed by NiO with the same intermediate treatments. The latter catalysts are labeled as 15Ni/xMgAl (metal base, x=1 and 5).

A control group using MgAl₂O₄ as support for Ni was prepared via co-precipitation from an aqueous solution of Mg(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (99%, Sigma-Aldrich) and Al(NO₃)₃·9H₂O (98.5%, Sigma-Aldrich). The molar ratio between Mg/Al equals 1/2. NH₄OH (ACS reagent, 28.0-30.0% NH₃ basis) was added dropwise to the precursor solution to adjust the pH to 10. During

precipitation, the temperature was kept at 60 °C. The precipitate was subsequently aged overnight at room temperature. Next, it was filtered, washed with deionized water and dried overnight at 120 °C. After drying, the precipitate powder was calcined in air at 800 °C for 5h. Ni was then impregnated on MgAl₂O₄, following the above-mentioned method.

2.2 Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analyses were performed on a Siemens Diffractometer Kristalloflex D5000 with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm). The information of crystallite size can be extracted from the XRD pattern via the Scherrer equation:

$$L = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

where L is the mean size of the crystallite in nm, β is the full width at half maximum (FWHM), λ is the wavelength of the X-rays and θ the Bragg angle. The FWHM used in the Scherrer equation is determined by fitting a Gaussian function to the second most intense diffraction peak Ni(200) as the most intense one Ni(111) overlaps with a diffraction peak of γ -Al₂O₃.

N₂ physisorption-desorption experiments were conducted in a Micromeritics Tristar 3000 analyzer. The surface area was calculated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method.

Scanning Electron Microscopy equipped with Energy Dispersive X-ray spectrometry (SEM-EDX) was used to analyze the element composition of the samples. These measurements were conducted in a JEOL JSM 5400 setup equipped with an INCA x-act extension (Oxford instruments). Beam energies of 5 keV and 20 keV were applied to vary the information depth.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted on a S-Probe XPS spectrometer (VG, Surface Science Instruments), equipped with a monochromatized Al K α source ($h\nu = 1486$ eV).

The binding energies were calibrated using the C 1s peak of adventitious carbon at 285 eV as a reference.

Temperature-programmed H₂ reduction (H₂-TPR), CO₂-temperature programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD) and H₂ chemisorption experiments were carried out in a Micromeritics AutoChem II chemisorption analyzer. Typically, 100 mg of sample was used for one test.

For H₂-TPR, the sample was pretreated at 600 °C for 30 min and cooled down to 50 °C in Ar. Then, the sample was heated to 600 °C (or 900 °C) in 5 vol.% H₂/Ar (60 mL/min) and held at this temperature for 30 min. The reduction degree was calculated as in equation (2).

$$\text{Reduction degree} = \frac{\text{measured } H_2 \text{ consumption}}{\text{theoretical } H_2 \text{ consumption}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

For H₂ chemisorption, the sample was pre-reduced in 5 vol.% H₂/Ar (60 mL/min) at 600 °C for 30 min. A pure Ar (60 mL/min) purge then followed with the aim of removing H₂ adsorbed during reduction. After cooling down to 50 °C, 5 vol.% H₂/Ar was pulsed over the catalyst until the peak area detected at the outlet became constant. Using a stoichiometric ratio equal to 1 between adsorbed H and Ni[35], the number of active Ni sites was determined.

For CO₂-TPD, the sample was pre-reduced in 5 vol.% H₂/Ar (60 mL/min) at 600 °C for 30 min. A pure He (60 mL/min) purge was then sent with the aim of removing H₂ adsorbed during reduction. CO₂ adsorption was carried out at 300 °C – the reaction temperature. Then, the sample was cooled down to 50 °C, still in the CO₂ atmosphere. After purging with He for 30 min, the sample was heated to 600 °C with a rate of 10 °C/min. The outlet of the reactor was connected to an online mass spectrometer (MS, Pfeiffer Vacuum OmniStar QMS 301). The desorbing gases were analyzed by tracking He, H₂O, CO and CO₂ signals at 4 AMU (atomic mass unit), 18 AMU, 28 AMU and 44 AMU, respectively.

Diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) was performed on a Bruker Tensor 27 spectrometer equipped with a mercury–cadmium–telluride (MCT) detector. Typically, the diluted sample (1:20 KBr) was pre-treated with a H₂-TPR process up to 500 °C in H₂/He (90 mL/min, H₂:He=1:5). After cool down to room temperature (RT), the background spectrum was collected. Next, the sample was exposed to a pure CO₂ flow, ramping the temperature to 500 °C and then purging with He for 1 h. After cool down to RT, DRIFT spectra were collected. Then, a temperature programmed surface reaction with H₂ (H₂-TPSR) was applied with a ramp of 10 °C /min up to 600 °C under H₂/He (90 mL/min, H₂:He=1:5), after which spectra were collected after cooling down to RT.

In situ Ni K edge quick X-ray absorption spectroscopy (QXAS) experiments were performed at the ROCK beamline of the French synchrotron SOLEIL (2.75 GeV, 450 Ma)[36]. All spectra were calibrated by simultaneously measuring a Ni foil. During the experiments, spectra were collected with an acquisition speed of 2 Hz. The sample was loaded in a 1.2 mm quartz capillary and implemented in a dedicated frame connected to gas feed lines through Swagelok fittings. XAS acquisition was performed under a 7 mL/min total flow rate. H₂-TPR was performed under 5 vol.% H₂/He up to 600 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min, where the temperature was held for 30 min. After cool down, CO₂-TPO experiments were run under pure CO₂ up to 600 °C and held for 30 min. A steady-state methanation process (CO₂:H₂:He=1:4:5) at 300 °C was implemented for 60 min on reduced samples after a H₂-TPR to 600 °C. After methanation, modulation excitation XAS (MEXAS) experiments were carried out at 300 °C, keeping the H₂ flow constant at 2.8 mL /min and varying the CO₂ flow between 2.8 and 0 mL /min, balanced with He, see Figure S1. A total of 15 periods were applied during the experiment. The data were analyzed by phase sensitive detection (PSD). The details of this analyzing method are described in the work of De Coster et al.[37].

2.3 Catalytic Performance Tests

Catalytic performance tests were run at 300 °C and 1 bar in a fixed-bed reactor (inner diameter = 7 mm, length = 47 cm). For each experiment, 100 mg catalyst (particle size 100-200 µm) mixed with 500 mg α -Al₂O₃ (as dilution) was loaded into the reactor. The temperature of the catalyst bed was monitored by a K-type thermocouple. The sample was first reduced under H₂/Ar mixture (H₂:Ar = 4:5, total flow = 180 mL/min) at 600 °C for 30 min (pre-reaction treatment). After reduction, the catalyst bed was cooled down to 300 °C. Subsequently, the gas was switched to CO₂:H₂:Ar (CO₂:H₂:Ar = 1:4:5, total flow = 200 mL/min) for the methanation reaction. An online gas chromatograph (GC, ThermoFisher Scientific, Trace 1310) was used to analyze the concentrations of different gases in the outlet stream. Products were separated by a Molsieve 5A and a Hayesep-N column and monitored with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). The conversion of CO₂, selectivity to CH₄ and CO, and reaction rate are calculated as follows:

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

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ Selectivity} = \frac{F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}}}{F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}} + F_{\text{CO},\text{out}}} \times 100\% \quad (4)$$

$$\text{CO Selectivity} = \frac{F_{\text{CO},\text{out}}}{F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}} + F_{\text{CO},\text{out}}} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Reaction rate} = \frac{F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} - F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}}}{m_{\text{catalyst}} \times 22.4 \times 1000 \times 60} \quad (6)$$

and the carbon balance is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Carbon balance} = \frac{F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{out}} + F_{\text{CH}_4,\text{out}} + F_{\text{CO},\text{out}}}{F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}}} \times 100\% \quad (7)$$

where $F_{i,in}$ (mL/min) and $F_{i,out}$ (mL/min) stand for the inlet and the outlet flow rate of gas i. $m_{catalyst}$ (g) stands the amount of catalyst loading in the reactor. The carbon balance for all the tests was higher than 99.5 %.

Turnover frequencies (TOF, 1/s) were determined on the basis of exposed Ni (mol/g), calculated from the result of the H₂-chemisorption experiments.

$$TOF = \frac{\text{Reaction rate}}{\text{amount of Ni exposed}} \quad (8)$$

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Catalytic Performance of the Two Interface Types

15Ni/Al, prepared by directly impregnating Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O onto Al₂O₃, was considered as a standard. Two approaches were applied to modify the interfaces present. First, the Ni/Al₂O₃ interface was modified by applying MgO onto Al₂O₃ before impregnating the Ni precursor, i.e. 15Ni/xMgAl; Second, new MgO/Ni interfaces were created by introducing the MgO precursor onto 15Ni/Al, i.e. xMg15Ni/Al. For both sample types, x amounts to 1 or 5wt%.

The physicochemical properties of these samples are listed in Table 1. All the samples with Al₂O₃ support show a surface area higher than 100 m²/g. Adding MgO reduces the surface area, which is more pronounced when the Mg loading increases to 5 %. The reference sample with MgAl₂O₄ support shows a lower surface area of 57 m²/g. The Ni particle size is generally considered as a significant factor for methanation performance[28, 38-40]. In this work, however, the Ni particle sizes of the samples studied are similar, as suggested by the crystallite sizes from XRD (Figure S2) and the metal dispersion (Table 1), indicating that MgO hardly affects the Ni particle size, whatever its location.

Table 1. Physicochemical properties of the catalysts after calcination (surface area) and after reduction (reduction degrees, exposed Ni sites and Ni crystallite size). Reduction conditions: 5 vol.% H₂/Ar, 60 mL/min at 600 °C for 30 min.

Sample	Surface area (m ² /g)	Reduction degree (%) ^a	Dispersion (%) ^b	Exposed Ni (x10 ⁻⁵ mol Ni/g) ^b	Crystallite size Ni (nm) ^c
15Ni/Al	140	28	7.0	1.0	6.6 ± 0.2
15Ni/1MgAl	140	48	6.0	2.0	-
15Ni/5MgAl	119	40	5.9	1.7	6.2 ± 0.1
1Mg15Ni/Al	157	23	6.5	0.9	-
5Mg15Ni/Al	117	15	6.0	0.7	6.3 ± 0.5
15Ni/MgAl ₂ O ₄	57	31	3.8	2.8	5.9 ± 0.1

^a determined by H₂-TPR under the same condition as the pre-reduction process before reaction.

^b estimated by H₂-chemisorption.

^c determined by XRD after reduction; samples with 1Mg were not tested.

The CO₂ methanation reactivity of the catalysts was measured at 300 °C and ambient pressure after reduction at 600 °C. All samples are very selective towards CH₄, showing a CH₄ selectivity above 90%. A considerable improvement in reaction rate was observed over the 15Ni/xMgAl samples (Figure 2(a)). The primary factor distinguishing the performance of 15Ni/Al and 15Ni/xMgAl (regardless of the MgO loading) is the difference in exposed metallic Ni, going up from 1 x10⁻⁵ mol Ni/g to ~2 x10⁻⁵ mol Ni/g upon addition of MgO (Table 1). The intrinsic

activity or TOF of 15Ni/xMgAl is comparable to that of 15Ni/Al, but because of the doubled amount of exposed Ni sites, the reaction rate increases.

The CO₂ reaction rate continued to increase along with the amount of MgO. Since the amount of exposed Ni in 15Ni/5MgAl is almost similar to the one for 15Ni/1MgAl, there must be a different mechanism at play. The latter is evidenced in the intrinsic activity of 15Ni/5MgAl being higher than for 15Ni/1MgAl, likely due to more Ni contacting with MgO and/or a higher intrinsic activity of these interface sites, making the 15Ni/5MgAl activity rise above the one of 15Ni/1MgAl. In view of practical application, stability test results of the samples are displayed in Figure S3, with no apparent deactivation observed during the 12-hour test. This indicates the created MgO/Ni interface maintains its activity over longer time.

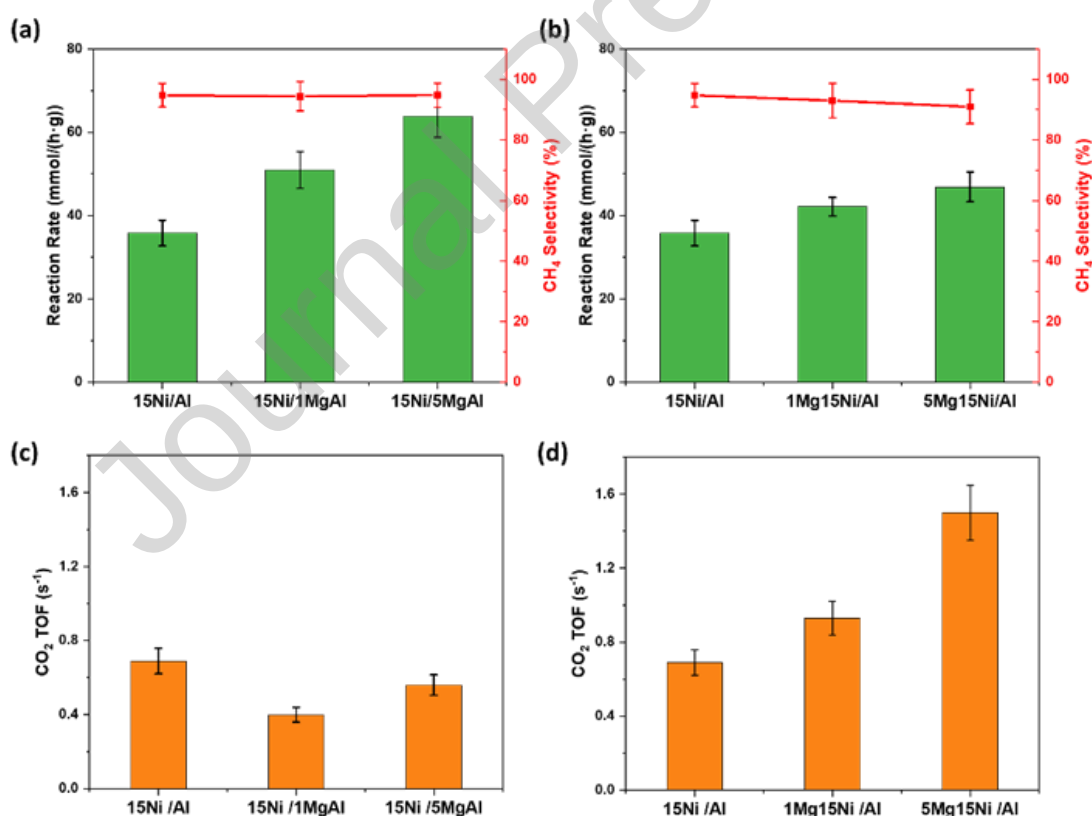


Figure 2. Catalytic performance test with (a-b) reaction rate per gram of catalyst and CH₄ selectivity and (c-d) TOF of pre-reduced 15Ni/Al, 15Ni/1MgAl, 15Ni/5MgAl (a,c) and 15Ni/Al,

1Mg15Ni/Al, 5Mg15Ni/Al (b,d). Reaction conditions: 0.1 g pre-reduced catalyst, 300 °C, CO₂:H₂:Ar = 1:4:5, flow rate CO₂ = 20 mL/min, ambient pressure.

3.2 Adding MgO onto the support – Ni/MgAl

The structure of the 15Ni/Al and 15Ni/xMgAl catalysts was characterized by XRD. NiO is detected on the as-prepared 15Ni/Al (15Ni/Al-ap) (Figure S4(a)) in addition to alumina diffractions. The Al₂O₃(440) diffraction peak for 15Ni/Al-ap displays a left shift compared with the pure γ -Al₂O₃ support (Figure S4(b)). This can point to the incorporation of larger Ni²⁺ (83 pm) cations into the lattice of γ -Al₂O₃ (Al³⁺: 67.5 pm), resulting in a unit cell expansion. 15Ni/Al was then reduced using the same conditions as for the pre-reaction treatment, i.e. at 600 °C (15Ni/Al-red). For 15Ni/Al-red, the peaks of NiO (43.3° and 62.8°) disappear, while metallic Ni appears (at 44.5° and 51.8°). However, the shift of the Al₂O₃(440) diffraction peak remains unchanged, suggesting that incorporated Ni²⁺ remains stable.

The full XRD patterns of xMgAl and 15Ni/xMgAl are displayed in Figure S5, with Figure 3 zooming in on the Al₂O₃(440) and NiO(200) diffractions. No diffraction peak corresponding to MgO is detected, indicating that either MgO is amorphous, or the amount of crystalline MgO is too small to be detected. However, compared with γ -Al₂O₃, the Al₂O₃(440) peak shows a small left shift for 1MgAl and 5MgAl (Figure 3(a)). Noting that the ionic radius of Mg²⁺ (86 pm) is larger than for Al³⁺ (67.5 pm), the left shift can be ascribed to lattice expansion induced by incorporation of Mg²⁺ into Al₂O₃, whereby non-stoichiometric or stoichiometric MgAl₂O₄ forms. On 15Ni/1MgAl-ap and 15Ni/5MgAl-ap, NiO diffraction peaks are detected (Figure 3(b)). In the presence of MgO, a slight shift of the main NiO(200) towards the MgO(200) diffraction at 42.9° can point to a NiMgO solid solution[41]. To further check the change in structure brought by the possible formation of a MgAl₂O₄ layer on top of Al₂O₃, Ni supported on spinel MgAl₂O₄ was synthesized as a reference. From its XRD pattern, the left shift of the

NiO(200) peak is observed here as well, suggesting that some Mg from MgAl_2O_4 migrates into NiO producing a NiMgO solid solution.

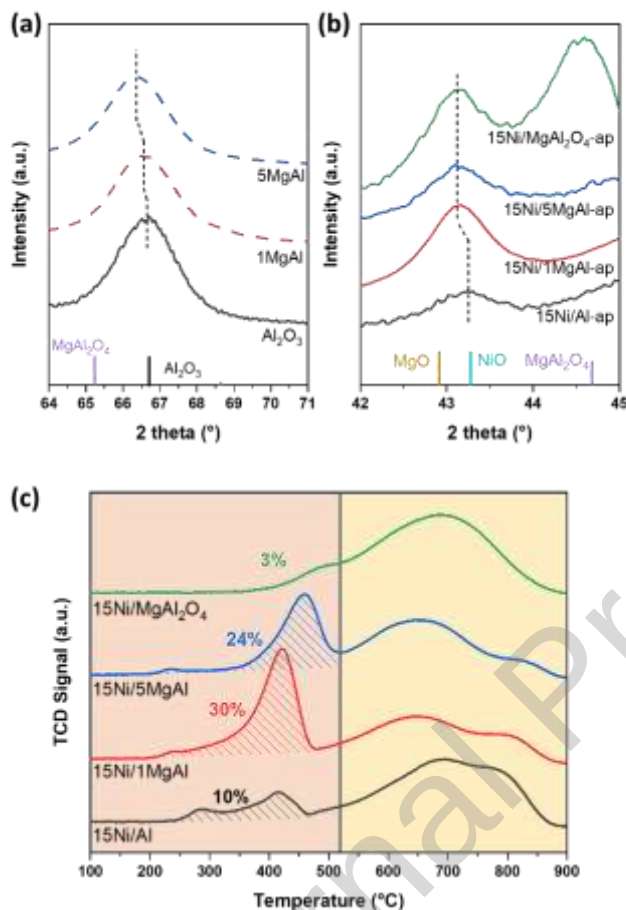


Figure 3. (a) XRD patterns of Al_2O_3 , 1MgAl, 5MgAl, zoomed to the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(440)$ diffraction, and (b) as-prepared 15Ni/Al, 15Ni/1MgAl, 15Ni/5MgAl, 15Ni/MgAl₂O₄, zoomed to the NiO(200) main diffraction. (c) H₂-TPR profiles of 15Ni/Al, 15Ni/1MgAl, 15Ni/5MgAl and 15Ni/MgAl₂O₄. Vertical dashed line in a and b: indicator of diffraction shift. The shaded areas and numbers in c represent the fraction of “free” NiO. Brown overlay: region of “free” NiO reduction, yellow overlay: region of “fixed” NiO reduction.

H₂-TPR is used to determine how MgO as an intermediate layer modifies the interaction between NiO and Al_2O_3 . The reduction profiles from 100 °C to 900 °C are displayed in Figure 3(c). According to literature, reduction of two kinds of Ni^{2+} is observed in the TPR profiles[42-44]. The peaks at lower temperature (< 525 °C) correspond to the reduction of NiO loosely

interacting with Al_2O_3 – called “free” NiO. Those at higher temperature ($> 525\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) are due to reduction of NiO strongly interacting with Al_2O_3 and/or Ni^{2+} inside Al_2O_3 , forming non-stoichiometric or stoichiometric nickel aluminate – termed “fixed” NiO. This is consistent with the XRD result for reduced 15Ni/Al (Figure S4(b)), where the shift of the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(440)$ diffraction persists, meaning that incorporated Ni^{2+} (“fixed” NiO) remains unreducible at $600\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and can hence be considered as “fixed” NiO in the TPR profile. Likewise, the XANES region of the Ni K edge spectra recorded from 15Ni/Al during H_2 -TPR and their linear combination fitting (LCF) results confirm that the reduction temperature of incorporated Ni^{2+} is $150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ higher than “free” NiO (Figure S6). NiO-MgO solid solutions also have a high reduction temperature, typically between 600 and $800\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ [23, 41]. However, given the presence of NiO next to the NiO-MgO solid solution, as suggested by XRD, it is likely that H_2 gets activated at lower temperature on reduced “free” NiO and spills over to the solid solution, leading only to a right shift of the reduction peak in the TPR profiles[19].

By integrating the respective peaks in the H_2 -TPR profiles, the fraction of “free” NiO has been determined (the shaded area in Figure 3(c) and the fraction is labeled). “Free” NiO comprises only 10 % of all Ni species in 15Ni/Al, indicating most Ni is engaged in strong interaction with Al_2O_3 , which leads to new phase formation and restrains the reduction of NiO. When 1 wt% of MgO is used at the NiO-support interface (15Ni/1MgAl), the fraction of “free” NiO increases significantly (Figure 3(c)), which is also reflected in the twofold increase of the amount of exposed Ni after reduction (Table 1). When further increasing the MgO loading to 5wt%, the “free” NiO again decreases somewhat. Given the similar Ni particle size of 15Ni/Al and 15Ni/5MgAl, a proper amount of MgO is thus capable of maintaining more “free” Ni, with concomitant higher availability of metallic Ni after reduction. The XANES region of the Ni K edge spectra for 15Ni/Al-ap, 1Mg15Ni/Al-ap, 15Ni/1MgAl-ap (Figure S6(c)) and the LCF results (Table S2) further confirm that the formation of NiAl_2O_4 is suppressed when MgO

serves as an intermediate layer between Ni and Al_2O_3 . In contrast, when NiO is deposited directly onto MgAl_2O_4 , having the highest concentration of Mg at the surface (Table S3), there is hardly any “free” NiO present. Considering NiMgO mixed oxide also forms in 15Ni/1MgAl and 15Ni/5MgAl (based on the left shift of the NiO diffraction peak in XRD, Figure 3(b)), while still these two samples show lots of “free” NiO at low reduction temperature, NiO seems to interact very strongly with the MgAl_2O_4 support.

Combined with the result of XRD, it is proposed that the effect of adding MgO on $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is twofold. On the one hand, Mg^{2+} cations enter $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ forming some non-stoichiometric or stoichiometric MgAl_2O_4 spinel (Figure 3(a)). As the spinel positions are now at least in part occupied by Mg^{2+} , Ni^{2+} migration into the support is lessened. Hence, there is more readily reducible “free” Ni and after reduction, more exposed metallic Ni contributes to enhance the reaction rate (Figure 2). On the other hand, NiO interacts with MgO deposited on the $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ support. The reducibility of Ni^{2+} , as displayed in Figure 3(c), is promoted by a small amount of Mg^{2+} , but gets inhibited by an excess[41]. Thus, a trade-off exists between the loadings of Ni-Mg-Al, where 1% Mg was found to yield the best reducibility of NiO.

3.3 Adding MgO onto NiO – MgNi/Al

The structure of xMg15Ni/Al catalysts, where an extra MgO/Ni interface is introduced, was first characterized by XRD. In Figure 4(a), the pattern for 15Ni/Al shows a similar left shift of the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(440)$ peak as discussed in section 3.2. Subsequent deposition of 1% MgO induces no change in peak position, but adding 5% MgO does entail an extra shift in the same direction. This phenomenon is different from MgO directly deposited onto Al_2O_3 , where the $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3(440)$ peak did show a small shift for 1% MgO (Figure 3(a)). For NiO(200), an apparent left shift is detected in xMg15Ni/Al when the loading of MgO is increased to 5% (Figure 4(b)). Hence, in

this sample, MgO reacts with NiO and Al_2O_3 , generating both NiMgO mixed oxide and (non-)stoichiometric MgAl_2O_4 .

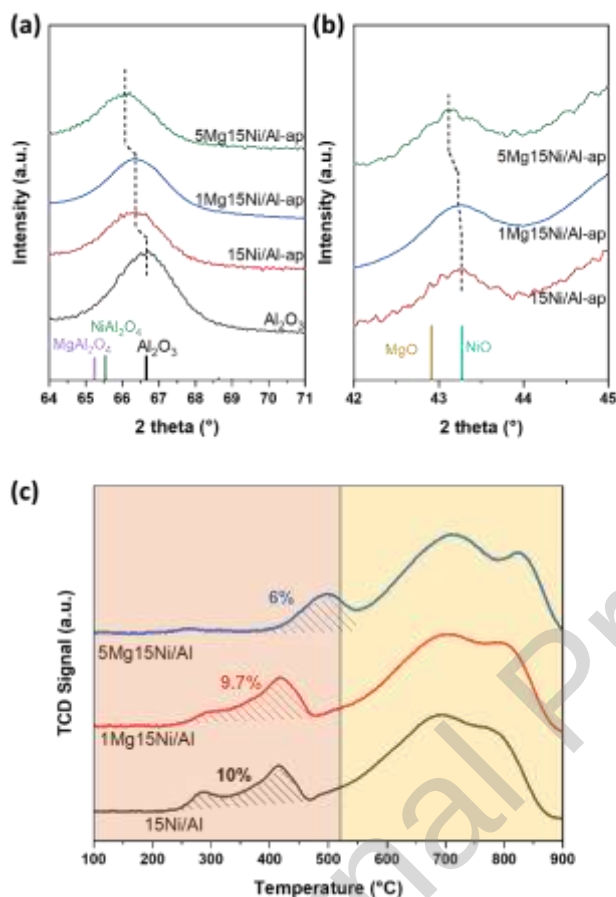


Figure 4. XRD patterns of as-prepared Al_2O_3 , 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 5Mg15Ni/Al: (a) zoomed to the Al_2O_3 (440) peak and (b) zoom onto the NiO(200) diffraction. (c) H₂-TPR profile of 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 5Mg15Ni/Al. Vertical dashed line in a and b: indicator of diffraction shift. The shaded areas and numbers present the fraction of “free” NiO. Brown overlay: region of “free” NiO reduction, yellow overlay: region of “fixed” NiO reduction.

H₂-TPR was applied to test the reduction behavior of the xMg15Ni/Al catalyst (Figure 4(c)). With the addition of MgO, the “free” NiO fraction reduces, accompanied by a shift of its reduction peak to higher temperature. Based on the XRD result, the formation of a NiMgO solid solution can be held responsible for these changes in reduction behavior, because the strong interaction between Ni-Mg-O makes reduction of NiO more difficult[41].

3.4 Properties of the MgO-related interfaces

The position of MgO in both configurations is further assessed by SEM-EDX and XPS (Table S1, S2 and Figure S7). The bulk composition from EDX is similar to the theoretical loading. Whereas EDX probes concentrations within a μm layer below the surface, XPS is sensitive to the top few nm. The surface concentration of each element is shown in Table S3. The Mg:Ni ratios of 15Ni/5MgAl and 5Mg15Ni/Al are 1.6 and 2.3, respectively. This result confirms reverse structures on these two samples. In 15Ni/5MgAl, NiO is dispersed on top of MgO, reducing the Mg contribution in XPS, while in 5Mg15Ni/Al, MgO resides both on the surface of Al_2O_3 and on NiO.

DRIFTS was applied to probe the reaction intermediates for conversion of CO_2 towards CH_4 and the possible conversion sites on 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 15Ni/1MgAl. First, these samples were treated with CO_2 , followed by purging with He (solid lines in Figure S8(a)). Carbonates, including both bidentate (bi-CO_3^{2-}) and monodentate (mono-CO_3^{2-}) with several broad peaks between $1700\text{--}1300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ [45, 46], are present as main adsorbates, showing the samples display similar CO_2 adsorption behavior. After CO_2 treatment and He purging, H_2 -TPSR was applied. DRIFT spectra recorded after H_2 -TPSR (dashed lines in Figure S8(a)) show the persistence of most adsorbates, with only a minor reduction in carbonates observed on all samples. No features were detected in the CO^* region ($2000\text{--}2150\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and the C-H stretch region ($2800\text{--}3050\text{ cm}^{-1}$) (not shown). The gas products during the H_2 -TPSR treatment were monitored by MS, which detected minor CO_2 desorption, followed by a more pronounced CH_4 production (Figure S8(b-d)), indicating that some carbonates desorb forming CO_2 while some actively participating in CH_4 formation. Note that the signal of H_2O , representing the OH removal and the H_2O formation during CO_2 methanation, appears after CH_4 and CO_2 , indicating a higher activation barrier of -OH removal. This result is in consistence with previous works [47, 48]. In addition, MgO-containing samples display a small signal at 1740 cm^{-1} , which can be

attributed to adsorbed formyl groups (*HCO)[49], indicating some carbonate got converted into *HCO under H₂ treatment.

However, the observed change in surface species detected after H₂-TPSR is small relative to the full carbonates' signal intensity, indicating that only a fraction actively participates in the formation of CH₄. The small extent of changes also suggests that this limited fraction most likely originates solely from carbonate adsorbed near Ni, i.e. at the interfaces Ni/Al₂O₃ and/or MgO/Ni. Since H₂ is only activated on metallic Ni, it can spill over towards the nearby Ni/Al₂O₃ and/or Ni/MgO interface sites, where it can react with adsorbed CO₃²⁻ and form CH₄. In contrast, carbonates adsorbed on oxide surface sites away from Ni, be it MgO or Al₂O₃, are merely spectator. Since the newly formed adsorbed HCO species appear in the DRIFT spectrum of MgO-containing samples after H₂-TPSR, these carbonate species are only partially hydrogenated and hence do not contribute to the CH₄ formation. Possibly, these species migrate away from the Ni/Al₂O₃ and/or Ni/MgO interface, keeping them from being further hydrogenated.

CO₂-TPD tests were carried out on pre-reduced samples to evaluate the CO₂ adsorption ability of the samples (Figure 5(a)). Roughly, two desorption peaks are detected, at low temperature (LT, <200 °C) and high temperature (HT, 200 < T < 350 °C), corresponding to different sites onto which CO₂ is weakly and more strongly adsorbed. Control experiments were applied on Al₂O₃ and 5MgAl (Figure S9), showing a more intense HT desorption peak for 5MgAl than for γ -Al₂O₃, which indicates MgO itself mainly contributes to the strong CO₂ adsorption sites.

Table 2. Quantification result of CO₂-TPD. Black numbers: integrated peak area; Red numbers: results normalized to the amount of metallic Ni exposed.

	LT peak area (a.u.)	HT peak area (a.u.)	Total area (a.u.)

15Ni/Al	1.1	1.1	2.1	2.1	3.2	3.2
1Mg15Ni/Al	0.9	1.0	3.1	3.4	4	4.4
5Mg15Ni/Al	1.2	1.7	4.7	6.7	5.9	8.4
15Ni/1MgAl	2.5	1.3	2.5	1.3	5	2.6
15Ni/5MgAl	2.5	1.5	3.5	2.1	6	3.6

To allow for comparison with TOF, the amount of CO₂ adsorption sites is normalized by the amount of exposed Ni. When MgO is deposited on top of Ni (xMg15Ni/Al), the area of the HT peak increases (Table 2). With increasing MgO loading, the increased HT peak can be attributed to more CO₂ adsorbed on MgO and/or at the MgO/Ni interface. For the 15Ni/xMgAl samples, however, the LT peak begins to increase firstly, while the HT peak only follows upon further addition of MgO (Figure 5(a)). Compared with 15Ni/Al, 15Ni/xMgAl has 2 times more metallic Ni sites (Table 1) and additional MgO sites. Considering MgO contributes to the HT peak (Figure S9), it can be inferred that the LT peak rise rather corresponds to Ni-related adsorption of CO₂. Further, since the LT increase for 15Ni/xMgAl is different from the 15Ni/Al profile (Figure S9), it must be connected to Ni/MgO or Ni/Mg_xAl₂O_{3+x} interface sites, rather than to pure Ni or Ni/Al adsorption. Thus, the CO₂-TPD results reflect the affinity of different surfaces/interfaces to CO₂.

Interestingly, a positive correlation is observed between the TOF for CO₂ methanation (Figure 2(c-d)) and the normalized amount of strong CO₂ adsorption sites (5Mg15Ni/Al > 1Mg15Ni/Al > 15Ni/Al $\approx$ 15Ni/5MgAl > 15Ni/1MgAl, Table 2), implying the significance of these adsorption sites for the CO₂ activation and conversion.

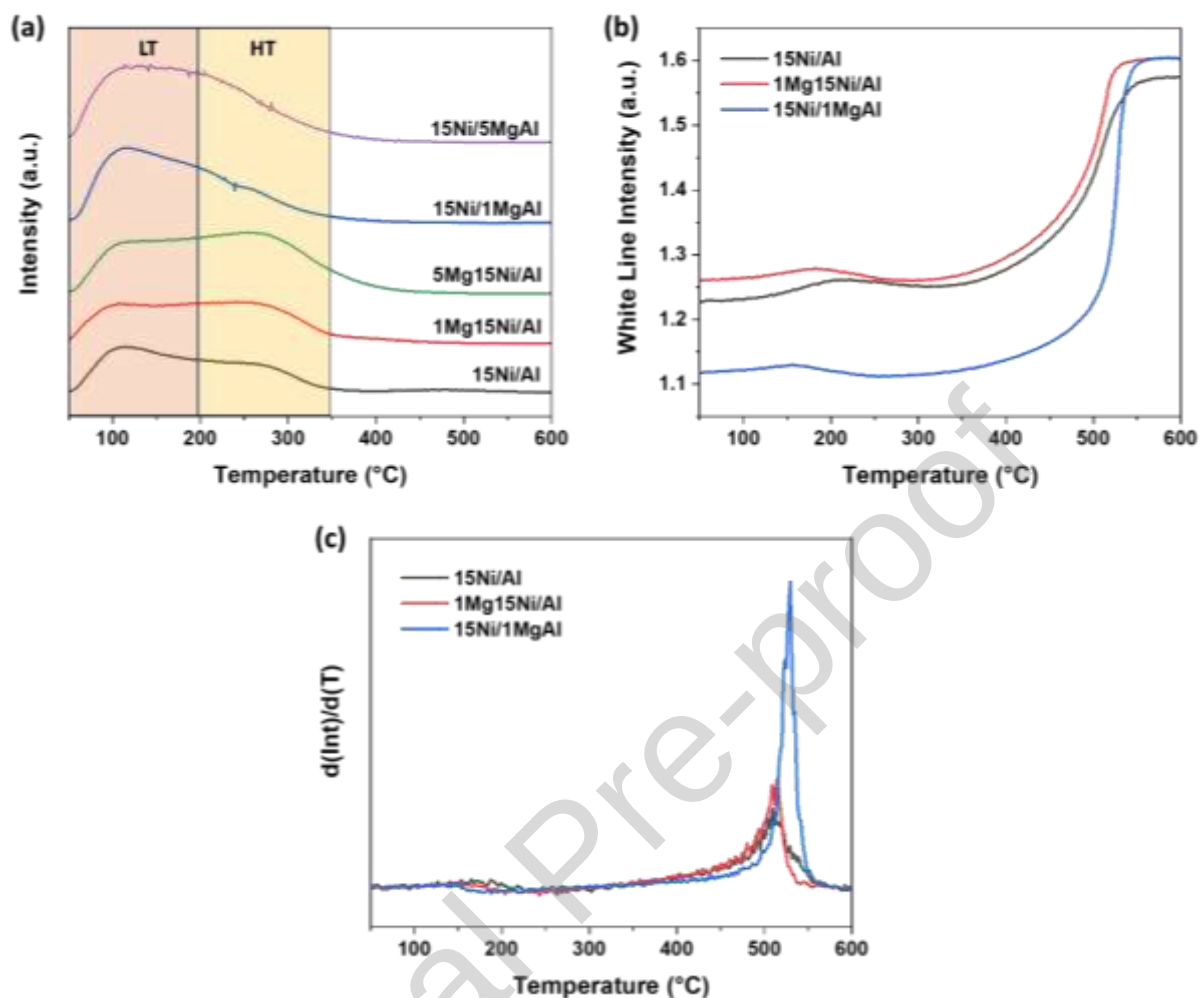


Figure 5. (a) CO₂-TPD profiles of 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al, 5Mg15Ni/Al, 15Ni/1MgAl and 15Ni/5MgAl. All the samples are pre-reduced under 5% H₂/Ar for 30 min at 600 °C. Brown overlay: region of weak adsorption, yellow overlay: region of stronger adsorption. (b) The XANES white line intensity as a function of temperature during CO₂-TPO for reduced 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 15Ni/1MgAl. All the samples were reduced with a H₂-TPR session. (c) The first derivative of the Ni K edge XAS white line intensity as a function of temperature during CO₂-TPO for reduced 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 15Ni/1MgAl.

The reactivity of the reduced samples with CO₂ was examined further by in situ QXAS during a CO₂-TPO process. The Ni K edge XANES spectra are displayed in Figure S10 (a-c). From these spectra, the white line intensities are extracted and plotted against temperature (Figure 5(b)). The white line intensities at the start of TPO (RT) order as 1Mg15Ni/Al > 15Ni/Al >

15Ni/1MgAl, which is consistent with 15Ni/1MgAl being more reduced than 1Mg15Ni/Al after 600 °C reduction (Table 1). For all samples, a first weak increase appears at the beginning of the temperature ramp, extending up to 150 °C and 200 °C. Considering that the white line drops again thereafter, which cannot happen if Ni gets oxidized, this disturbance is considered to be a consequence of CO₂ adsorption. Starting from 300 °C onwards, the curves rise again, with a steep ascent due to oxidation by CO₂ towards 500 °C. In the final stage of CO₂ oxidation, Mg-containing samples are more extensively oxidized by CO₂ than Ni/Al.

Oxidation of Ni by CO₂ has been observed in several works on Ni(110) and Ni(111) model catalysts by Ambient-Pressure X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy. CO₂ is proposed to dissociatively adsorb on the surface of Ni above ambient temperature, where NiO and CO₃²⁻ were detected as evidence. However, the oxidation is limited to the surface due to either a low CO₂ concentration or a low O diffusion rate from the Ni surface into the bulk[50-53]. In previous research on Ni/SiO₂ and pure Ni, Ni oxidation did not take place at temperatures of 600 °C and at 800 °C, respectively[19, 54]. However, when there was formation of active interfaces like Ni/MgO or Ni/MgAl₂O₄, bulk phase Ni oxidation did occur. This phenomenon was attributed to metal-support interactions, activating CO₂ at the interface and enabling oxygen transfer into the reduced lattice[19, 54]. In the present work, Ni oxidation is facilitated by the active Ni/Al₂O₃ interface, and the introduction of an additional MgO/Ni or Ni/MgO interface leads to stronger oxidation. Interface sites have been demonstrated to significantly reduce the energy barrier for CO₂ dissociation, while also promoting strong adsorption of CO, thereby facilitating the reaction CO₂ → CO + O_s[32, 54, 55]. This process results in an increased concentration of surface-bound oxygen species (O), which are known to be mobile on a Ni surface. At elevated temperatures, these O species have the capability to migrate into the metallic bulk, contributing to the formation of subsurface oxygen[53, 56, 57]. The presence of

higher concentrations of both surface O and subsurface oxygen leads to a right shift in the equilibrium between $\text{Ni} + \text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{NiO}$, culminating in the transformation of Ni into NiO phases.

The first derivative of the XANES white line intensities was calculated to assess the oxidation rate of these samples. Bulk Ni oxidation for 15Ni/1MgAl occurs fastest at 530 °C, while for the other two samples the highest oxidation rate appears at 500 °C. Comparing the onset of oxidation rate increase, 15Ni/Al and 1Mg15Ni/Al start oxidizing before 15Ni/1MgAl. Their higher rate at low temperature indicates they have a lower energy barrier for oxidation, making them more CO₂-reactive than 15Ni/1MgAl (Figure 5(c)).

To assess whether structural changes such as phase transitions occur during reaction, the local environment of Ni was compared through *in situ* XAS for different states: at the start and end of a 60 min steady-state methanation reaction, and at the start and end of 120 min H₂-CO₂ modulated redox exposure. Representative *in situ* Ni K-edge EXAFS data are presented in the SI (Figure S11). No significant differences in the k-space data are observed between the start and the end of the *in situ* treatment, suggesting that the local structure of the catalyst remains stable during this experiment. The MS monitored the CH₄ formation during the *in situ* XAS experiment and no obvious deactivation was observed for any of the tested catalysts (Figure S12).

To further investigate the dynamic changes of the active sites during reaction, modulation excitation coupled with *in situ* XAS was employed to enhance the surface sensitivity of the bulk technique[37, 58]. MEXAS results at the Ni K edge for reduced 15Ni/Al, 1Mg15Ni/Al and 15Ni/1MgAl during H₂-CO₂ modulation at 300 °C are presented in Figure 6. For all samples, the time-resolved XANES spectra reveal no notable changes with the imposed H₂-CO₂ modulation (blue lines), while the phase-resolved demodulated spectra do display features above noise level. Notable peaks are present in the region of the pre-edge shoulder and of the

white line, with strongest intensity for 1Mg15Ni/Al (Figure 6(c)). For comparison, phase-resolved spectra, recorded during a steady-state methanation reaction at 300 °C, show nothing but noise after demodulation (Figure S13. it is assumed that there are periods, while no switching gases during steady-state process).

In the demodulated results (Figure 6(a-c)), anticorrelated peaks are distinguished: the feature at 8335–8340 eV has corresponding peaks at 8347–8360 eV (shown as the blue zones). Anticorrelated means the in-phase angles, where the peak amplitude becomes maximum, of the two features exhibit a difference of 180°. The anticorrelated peaks located at the pre-edge and white line point to redox behavior of Ni[37]. The other signals after demodulation reflect the behavior of reaction intermediates during the periodic excitation[59]. For instance, the MgO-modified samples 15Ni/1MgAl and 1Mg15Ni/Al display an additional sharp feature protruding at the edge position 8333eV (shown as an orange zone), which is far less intense or even absent in Ni/Al. The latter could be an indicator of adsorbed species, being more abundant at a Ni/MgO interface.

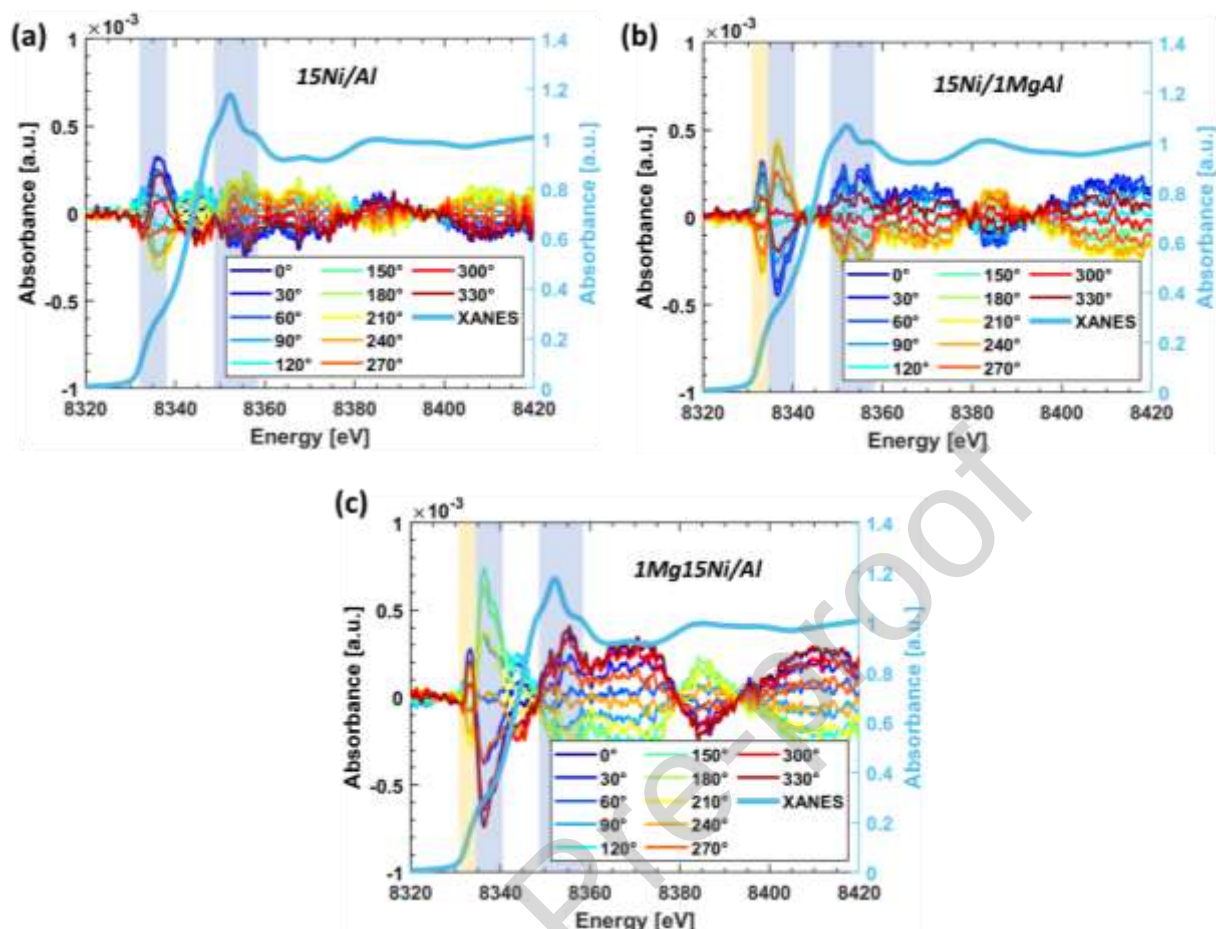


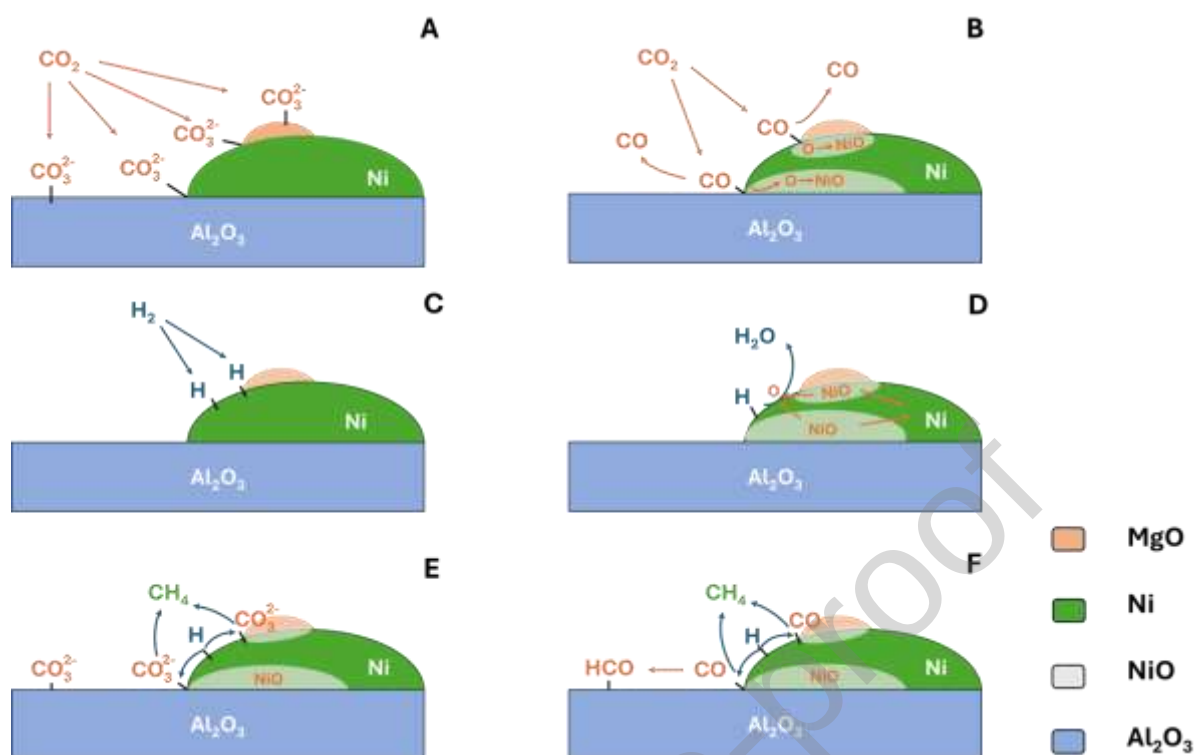
Figure 6. MEXAS results at the Ni K edge for (a) 15Ni/Al, (b) 15Ni/1MgAl and (c) 1Mg15Ni/Al recorded at the Ni K edge during H₂-CO₂ modulation at 300 °C. Last 8 periods are used for the PSD calculation. Blue zones: regions with anticorrelated features; Light blue lines: XANES spectra during modulation; Colored lines: phase-resolved spectra after PSD analysis. Orange zone: protruding feature at the edge position for MgO-containing samples.

Based on prior work, the maximum amplitude of the demodulated spectra yields an estimate of how many active Ni atoms follow the modulation[37, 60]. The amount of responsive Ni atoms on 1Mg15Ni/Al is found to be 2 times higher than on 15Ni/Al, 0.7×10^3 vs. 0.3×10^3 , while the number of atoms reacting to the modulation over 15Ni/1MgAl and 15Ni/Al is similar. Consistent with the activity result (Figure 2(d)), the most active sample among these three, 1Mg15Ni/Al, exhibits the highest signal intensity, suggesting it is the most reactive, although it has the lowest number of exposed Ni sites (Table 1). The latter indicates that not so much the surface Ni sites are important for the activity, but rather the interface sites. In

particular, the new interface created by MgO modification on top of Ni is intrinsically beneficial for the methanation performance.

Compiling all the characterization data for MgNi/Al leads to a CO₂ methanation scheme, in which the MgO/Ni interface takes up a particular role (Scheme 1). The observed anticorrelation in MEXAS at the Ni K edge indicates that a Mars–van Krevelen mechanism is involved in H₂-CO₂ modulation, representative of the Reverse Water-Gas Shift reaction (RWGS). Herein, CO₂ adsorbs either as carbonate (panel A) or dissociates into CO and O, preferably at the MgO/Ni interface sites because of its lower energy barrier, allowing O species to be incorporated into the Ni lattice (panel B). H₂ on the other hand gets activated on metallic Ni (panel C). From there, it spills over to NiO to react with lattice oxygen (panel D) and to the interface sites, where it hydrogenates adsorbed CO₃²⁻ species to methane (panel E). Carbonates that are located away from interface sites do not get hydrogenated and hence remain visible in DRIFTS. The first hydrogenation of CO at the interface sites leads to formation of formyl groups. The latter can also yield methane, though part of them seems to migrate away from these sites, making them inaccessible for further hydrogenation and preserving them in DRIFTS (panel F).

Whereas the H₂ reduction-CO₂ oxidation of NiO-Ni represents a Mars-Van Krevelen mechanism, involving the exchange of lattice oxygen, the subsequent hydrogenation of adsorbed CO and/or CO₃²⁻ through interaction with adsorbed H rather follows a Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism. The latter requires the proximity of Ni for the H supply through spillover and will preferably proceed with species adsorbed near the interface sites, where the energy barrier for activation is lowered. This interpretation highlights a complex interaction between CO₂ activation and the dynamic state of Ni in presence of hydrogen.



Scheme 1. Schematic diagram of the role of the MgO/Ni interface in CO₂ methanation. Panel A: CO₂ adsorption leading to carbonate formation; panel B: dissociative CO₂ adsorption leading to Ni oxidation; panel C: dissociative H₂ adsorption on metallic Ni; panel D: H₂ oxidation and concomitant NiO reduction; panel E: hydrogenation of adsorbed CO₃²⁻ and H spilling over (combining A and C); panel F: hydrogenation of adsorbed CO and H spilling over (combining B and C). Black connector line: adsorbed surface species.

4. CONCLUSION

This work illustrates the importance of interfaces in a catalytic process. By switching the deposition sequence, catalysts with reverse interface structure, Ni/MgO and MgO/Ni were constructed on Al₂O₃. The CO₂ methanation performance was promoted over both samples compared with unmodified Ni/Al₂O₃, however, with distinct mechanisms.

Over Ni/MgO-Al₂O₃ catalysts, a layer of non-stoichiometric Mg_xAl₂O_{3+x} forms between Ni and Al₂O₃ as confirmed by H₂-TPR, XRD, XPS, EDX and XAS. With a proper amount of MgO,

the newly formed layer mitigates interaction between NiO and Al₂O₃, preventing Ni²⁺ from dissolving into the bulk of Al₂O₃. This strategy ensures more metallic Ni active sites becoming reducible at relatively moderate temperature. However, MgO can interact with Ni forming more stable NiMgO as mixed oxide. Thus, a further increase of the deposited MgO amount or the use of stoichiometric MgAl₂O₄ exhibits a negative effect on the methanation performance. Over MgO-Ni/Al₂O₃ catalysts, a new MgO/Ni interface was fabricated on top of Ni, which provides strong CO₂ adsorption sites. Ni oxidation started slightly earlier on MgO-Ni/Al₂O₃ as observed via *in situ* QXAS, suggesting that the MgO/Ni interface exhibits unique CO₂ reactivity. MEXAS with H₂/CO₂ modulation further confirms that a Ni-NiO redox mechanism is involved in the CO₂ activation process over a MgO-modified, supported Ni catalyst. The interfaces provide preferential sites for adsorption and activation of CO₂, yielding CO and CO₃²⁻, which lead to methane after interaction with spilled-over hydrogen. This work demonstrates the concept that careful engineering of interfaces, oxide-metal and/or metal-support, allows to steer the catalyst activity for methanation, which holds promise for practical applications. However, further investigations are needed to assess the reactivity and structural stability of these catalysts in order to meet industrial requirements.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is part of a project funded by the Fund for Scientific Research Flanders (project number G032920N). The authors acknowledge the assistance from the ROCK staff for a smooth beamtime (SOLEIL, proposal 20230405). This work was supported by a public grant overseen by the French National Research Agency (ANR) as part of the “Investissements d’Avenir” program (reference: ANR-10-EQPX-45). The authors acknowledge Ir. Thomas Van De Moere for his contribution in experimental works.

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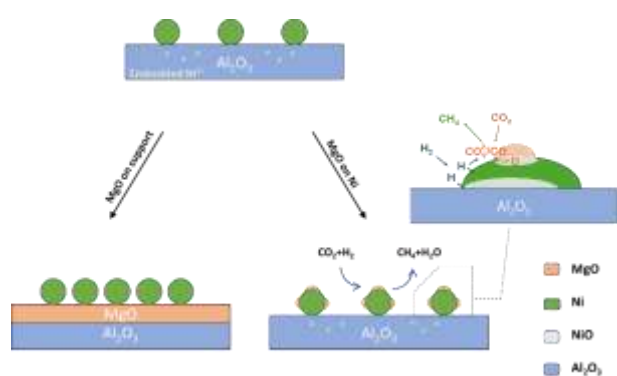
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Graphical abstract



Declaration of Competing Interest

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

Journal Pre-proof

Highlights:

- Catalysts with spatially reversed interface structure, Ni/MgO-Al₂O₃ and MgO-Ni/Al₂O₃, exhibit distinct catalytic properties.
- MgO in between Ni and Al₂O₃ mitigates their interaction, i.e. Ni/MgO-Al₂O₃.
- Depositing MgO on Ni generates a new MgO/Ni interface, i.e. MgO-Ni/Al₂O₃.
- CO₂ gets activated at the interface sites, yielding CO and O that oxidizes Ni.
- CO₂ methanation follows from hydrogenation of carbonate and adsorbed CO.