# Alumina Supported Iron Catalysts for the Selective Acetylene Hydrogenation under Industrial Front-End Conditions<sup>†</sup>

4 Hannah Lamers,<sup>a</sup> Malte Schummer,<sup>a</sup> Martin Lucas,<sup>a</sup> Marcus Rose<sup>\*a</sup>

5 <sup>*a*</sup> Technical University of Darmstadt, Ernst-Berl-Institute of Technical and Macromolecular

6 Chemistry, Peter-Grünberg-Straße 8, 64287 Darmstadt, Germany

7

8 E-mail: <u>marcus.rose@tu-darmstadt.de</u> (MR)

9

† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. All data presented in this publication are
available from the open access repository Repo4Cat (<u>https://hdl.handle.net/21.11165/4cat/73bc-a64s</u>).

The removal of acetylene traces from ethylene streams coming from the steam cracker is carried 15 16 out in the industry on an annual scale of several million tonnes using Pd-Ag/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalysts. The 17 substitution of palladium containing catalysts with more abundant, cheap and non-toxic materials 18 is a first crucial step towards a more sustainable chemical industry. Since iron is one of the most 19 abundant metals and can be mined in almost all regions world wide, it is an ideal catalyst material. 20 In this work, we present the development of alpha alumina supported iron catalysts with 1 wt%, 21 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading and their application in the selective acetylene hydrogenation 22 under industrially applied front-end conditions. The catalysts were prepared via simple incipient 23 wetness impregnation and were analyzed via XRD, XRF, TPR, TEM and N<sub>2</sub>-Physisorption. The 24 catalysts were subsequently calcined, reduced and tested in the selective acetylene hydrogenation. 25 After an activation phase, the catalysts show excellent activity and selectivity in the acetylene 26 hydrogenation at 90 °C without significant ethylene hydrogenation. The excellent catalytic activity 27 underline the great potential of iron based catalysts as an alternative to conventional Pd-containing 28 materials.

- 29
- 30

31 KEYWORDS: Heterogenous Catalysis, Acetylene Hydrogenation, Front-End Conditions,
32 Semihydrogenation, Supported Iron nanoparticles.

# 34 **1** Introduction

Ethylene is one of the most important platform chemicals due to its application as monomer in 35 polymer production and as reactant for the production of intermediate products such as 36 dichloroethane, ethylene oxide, ethyl benzene and vinyl acetate.<sup>[1,2]</sup> The conventional route for the 37 production of ethylene is the cracking of naphta or recently, the production from bioethanol by 38 39 dehydration. The cracking conditions mainly favour the formation of olefins as well as the 40 formation of smaller amounts of multi unsaturated compounds.<sup>[1]</sup> High purity ethylene streams are 41 required especially in polymer production to ensure reproducible product qualities. Multi-42 unsaturated impurities such as acetylene lead to poisoning of Ziegler-Natta catalysts in 43 polymerization reactions.<sup>[3–5]</sup> Therefore, the generation of ethylene-rich streams with acetylene concentrations lower than 1 ppm are necessary.<sup>[3–7]</sup> 44

45 Industrially, two main operating methods are commonly used for acetylene removal, tail-end and front-end operation. In the first case, the acetylene removal unit is located after the de-ethanizer. 46 The feed contains only C<sub>2</sub>-fractions and stoichiometrically added hydrogen.<sup>[6–10]</sup> The low hydrogen 47 48 concentration guarantees a high selectivity for conversion of acetylene to ethylene avoiding the overhydrogenation to ethane. However, it favors increased oligomer and green oil formation 49 50 leading to shorter catalyst lifetimes in the acetylene hydrogenation. Due to the lower risk of reactor 51 runaway, hydrogenation under tail-end conditions is most widely used in industry and well researched.<sup>[7,10-12]</sup> The hydrogenation under front-end conditions takes place in front of the 52 demethanizer<sup>[8]</sup> and therefore, the feed contains high hydrogen concentration as well as carbon 53 monoxide and methane.<sup>[3,4,6,10,12,13]</sup> This carries the risk of overhydrogenation and hot spot 54 formation.<sup>[4]</sup> The key advantage of front-end conditions is the improved process integration 55

combined with longer catalyst life cycles and has been studied intensively in the recent years.<sup>[4,13-</sup>
 <sup>15]</sup>

State of the art catalysts for both operation modes are palladium based catalyst systems.<sup>[4,6,7,12]</sup> 58 59 Owing to the low availability of palladium, its mining process consumes large amounts of fresh water<sup>[16]</sup> and has a low atom economy,<sup>[16,17]</sup> while producing high amounts of carbon dioxide<sup>[18,19]</sup> 60 due to high electricity consumption.<sup>[16,17,19]</sup> It is therefore important to reduce or substitute the use 61 62 of this critical raw material. In order to reduce the amount of palladium required and increase the selectivity of the acetylene hydrogenation reaction, palladium single-atom catalysts<sup>[20,21]</sup> and 63 64 palladium single sites incorporated into bimetallic systems have been the focus of recent research in this field. Some examples of bimetallic materials are PdAg<sup>[22-26]</sup>, PdAu,<sup>[22,25,27,28]</sup> PdIn,<sup>[29]</sup> 65 PdGa<sup>[22,30,31]</sup> as well as PdCu<sup>[22,32]</sup> and PdZn<sup>[5,20,22,33]</sup> compounds and the incorporation of Pd into 66 metal-organic frameworks (MOF).<sup>[34]</sup> 67

The substitution of palladium by more abundant metals as active species is even more favorable. Therefore, intermetallic phases and alloys of bi- and trimetallic palladium-free catalyst systems such as supported AuAg<sup>[35]</sup>, AgNi<sup>[36]</sup> and NiIn<sup>[37]</sup> systems as well as Cu-Ni-Fe systems<sup>[38]</sup> have been tested and show high activity and selectivity in the acetylene hydrogenation. Studt et al. performed DTF calculations to identify non-precious metal alloys as catalysts for selective acetylene hydrogenation.<sup>[39]</sup> They predicted and confirmed the suitability of NiZn and NiZn<sub>3</sub> as well as FeZn alloys as catalysts with high selectivity and activity.<sup>[39]</sup>

A promising way to replace palladium as catalyst is the use of pure iron catalysts for the selective acetylene hydrogenation. Zero-valent iron as well as Fe<sup>II</sup> and Fe<sup>III</sup> are known for their hydrogenation activity.<sup>[40–45]</sup> Furthermore, iron is one of the most abundant metals resulting in a low carbon foodprint and low water consumption during its production.<sup>[17]</sup> 79 Tejeda-Serrano et al. published the application of a Fe<sup>III</sup>-O metal-organic framework as catalyst 80 for the acetylene hydrogenation under front-end conditions.<sup>[45]</sup> The iron-based MOF reduces the 81 acetylene content from 1.2 % to less than 10 ppm at 150 °C while ethane formation remains below 82 10 %. The increase of ethane formation over time indicates degradation of the catalyst under 83 reaction conditions.<sup>[45]</sup>

More recently, Hock et al. published zero-valent iron nanoparticles as a very promising catalyst under front-end conditions.<sup>[15]</sup> The catalyst shows good activity of 14 % acetylene conversion at 90 °C and excellent selectivity. In addition, the selectivity could be improved by adding carbon monoxide as selectivity directing agent.<sup>[15]</sup>

Based on these results, the systematic investigation and optimization of the catalytic properties of the above mentioned iron nanoparticles is of interest. Therefore, we developed supported iron nanoparticles with different iron loadings as catalysts for the selective acetylene hydrogenation under industrially relevant front-end conditions. This results in catalysts with smaller iron particle sizes, higher surface area and improved dispersion, leading to catalysts with excellent performance and selectivity.

# 94 2 Experimental

## 95 2.1 Materials

96 Hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>, N50), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>, N25), ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, N35), an acetylene/propane/methane-

97 mixture (1.2 mol% C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>, 1 mol% C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, N25, remaining CH<sub>4</sub>, N25) and argon (Ar, N50) were

- 98 purchased from Air Liquide. Iron(III) nitrate nonahydrate (Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> · 9 H<sub>2</sub>O, 99 %) was purchased
- 99 from Acros Organics, aluminum oxide (a-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 99.95%) from thermo scientific and
- 100 iron(III)oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, 96 %) from Sigma-Aldrich. All materials were used as purchased.

### 101 **2.2** Synthesis of supported Iron Nanoparticles

102 The synthesis of supported iron nanoparticles was carried out via incipient wetness impregnation. 103 Catalysts with iron loadings of 1 wt%, 5 wt%, and 10 wt% were synthesized. The respective 104 quantities of iron nitrate nonahydrate were dissolved in the volume of water corresponding to that 105 of the pores in the alpha-alumina support. The pore volume of aluminum oxide was determined 106 through N<sub>2</sub> physisorption. Subsequently, the iron nitrate solution was added dropwise to the 107 support, was mixed until a homogeneous paste was obtained and was treated in an ultrasonic bath 108 for 30 minutes. The paste was dried over night in a vacuum oven at 60 °C. Due to the low pore 109 volume and surface area of  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the impregnation resulted in inhomogeneous distribution of 110 iron nitrate as a crust on the surface. Therefore, the impregnated catalyst was mortared in acetone 111 till all liquid is evaporated to ensure that the Fe-species is homogeneously distributed. The dried 112 impregnated catalyst was then calcined in air at 600 °C for four hours (ramp: 5 °C min<sup>-1</sup>, 100 mL 113 min<sup>-1</sup> Air). Right before the catalytic testing, the catalyst was reduced in hydrogen at 900 °C for 114 three hours (ramp:  $10 \,^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ ,  $100 \,\text{mL min}^{-1} \,\text{H}_2$ ).

115 **2.3 Catalyst Chraracterization** 

The catalysts were analyzed with X-ray diffraction, X-ray fluorescence, temperature-programmed reduction, N<sub>2</sub>-physisorption and TEM. Detailed information regarding the measurement protocol of each method can be found in the supporting information.

## 119 **2.4** Selective semi-hydrogenation of Acetylene

120 A continuously operated fixed-bed reactor is used for the catalytic testing of the iron-based 121 catalysts. A filter frit with a pore size of 5  $\mu$ m is inserted into the tubular reactor to position the 122 powdered catalyst. Prior to the reaction, the reduced catalyst was removed from the reduction furnace, exposed to air and 200 mg of catalyst was weighed into the tubular reactor. In each experiment the temperature was varied between 30 °C and 90 °C at 22.5 bar. The feed composition corresponds to that of an acetylene removal unit (ARU) under front-end conditions (Table 1). A scheme of the experimental setup is included in the supporting information (Figure S4).



Flow	12.5 L h <sup>-1</sup>
x(C2H2)	0.4 mol%
x(C2H4)	39 mol%
x(H2)	25 mol%
x(C3H8)standard	0.34 mol%
x(CH4)	35.26 mol%

128

The feed composition was realized by adding the different gas mixtures listed in chapter 2.1 through mass flow controllers. The composition of the output was monitored via GC with a FID analyzer. Detailed Information regarding the GC Method and the column can be found in the supporting information (GC program, Table S1). In each experiment the temperature is varied from 30 to 90 °C in 10 °C steps. Every temperature step was held for 100 min.

# 134 **3** Results and discussion

The synthesized supported iron nanoparticles were analyzed by XRD, XRF, N<sub>2</sub>-physisorption, TEM and TPR measurements. The catalyst with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading were tested as catalysts in the acetylene hydrogenation under industrial relevant front-end conditions.

### 138 **3.1** Synthesis and Characterization

139 The catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading supported on  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were synthesized 140 by incipient wetness impregnation using water and acetone as solvents. The catalyst precursors 141 were calcined at 600 °C. The iron loadings of the resulting iron oxides on α-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> were determined 142 by X-ray fluorescence using a calibration (Figure S1). The actual values were close to the target 143 values, indicating a successful synthesis (Figure S2). Immediately prior to catalytic testing, the 144 solids were reduced in hydrogen atmosphere at 900 °C. The reduction temperature was determined 145 by TPR. The reduction profile of the supported iron oxides with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading showed the reduction pathway from Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to Fe<sup>0</sup> for different iron loadings. It is reported 146 147 in the literature, that the reduction of supported  $Fe_2O_3$  in hydrogen atmosphere follows a two-step 148 reduction:<sup>[46]</sup>

149  $3 \operatorname{Fe}_2 \operatorname{O}_3 + \operatorname{H}_2 \rightarrow 2 \operatorname{Fe}_3 \operatorname{O}_4 + \operatorname{H}_2 \operatorname{O}$ 

$$Fe_3O_4 + H_2 \rightarrow 3 Fe + 4 H_2O_2$$

151 The TPR patterns (Figure 1) show two distinct peaks. The catalysts with higher iron loading of 152 5 wt% and 10 wt% show peaks at about 400 °C and between 630 and 700 °C. The first peak indicates the reduction of  $Fe_2O_3$  to  $Fe_3O_4$ .  $Fe_3O_4$  is further reduced to  $Fe^0$  at the second peak. The 153 154 peak intensities correlate with the hydrogen consumption for each reduction step and the iron 155 loading. For supported catalysts, the interaction between the metal particles and the support at high temperatures is reported.<sup>[47]</sup> The peak shoulder at about 800 °C indicates the formation of iron 156 157 aluminates. The peaks are shifted for the catalyst with 1 wt% iron loading. The reduction of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> occurs at lower temperatures of around 300 °C while the reduction to Fe<sup>0</sup> is shifted to 158 159 significantly higher temperatures between 800 °C and 1000 °C. In addition, a peak broadening 160 occurs at high temperatures. The peak broadening and the high reduction temperature are related

161 to small particle sizes at lower loadings and stronger interactions between the Fe particles and the 162 support favoring the formation of iron aluminates. To ensure complete reduction of the iron 163 catalysts and to maintain the same reduction procedure in all three cases, the reduction temperature 164 was set to 900 °C.

165



166

167 Figure 1: TPR pattern of the catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading between 30 °C and 1000 °C.

Figure 2 shows the diffraction pattern of the catalysts a) after calcination and b) after reduction. The calcined catalyst (a) shows  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reflexes (gray)<sup>[48]</sup> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reflexes (red)<sup>[49]</sup> with lower intensity. The intensity of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reflexes increases with increasing Fe loading. No other iron oxide species were observed. After reduction at 900 °C all Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reflexes disappear and the diffraction pattern of Fe<sup>0</sup> becomes visible (orange),<sup>[50,51]</sup> indicating complete reduction. The reflexes of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>,  $\alpha$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as well as Fe<sup>0</sup> are in good agreement with literature data.<sup>[50,51,48,49]</sup>





Figure 2: a) XRD measurements of the calcined catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% Fe-Loading. b) XRD measurements of the reduced catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% Fe-Loading.

179

The crystallite size of iron oxide and Fe<sup>0</sup> nanoparticles on alpha alumina support was determined using the Scherrer equation. To calculate the crystallite size of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the Scherrer equation was applied for the (211) reflexes at 23° 2 $\theta$ , the (222) reflexes at 32.5° 2 $\theta$ , the (510) reflexes at 48.5° 2 $\theta$  and the (440) reflexes at 54.5° 2 $\theta$ . The crystallite size of Fe<sup>0</sup> for the reduced iron catalysts was determined analogously using the (110) reflexes at 44.5° 2 $\theta$ , the (200) reflexes at 65° 2 $\theta$  and the (211) reflexes at 82.5° 2 $\theta$ . The average crystallite size of all reflections of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sup>0</sup> for 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading are shown in Table 2. The crystallite size of the reduced iron particles increases increases in comparison to the Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles due to the high reduction temperature of 900 °C indicating sintering. The crystalite sizes for the alpha alumina support is added to the supporting information.

- 190
- **Crystalite size** Std. dev / **Cryststalite size** Std. dev / nm (red. cat.) / nm nm (calc. cat.) / nm 1 wt% Fe@Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 26.6 0 --5 wt% Fe@Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 20.0 1.4 31.2 2.4 25.2 1.2 48.7 4.2 10 wt% Fe@Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

191 Table 2: Crystallite sizes of the unreduced and reduced catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading.

192

193 Transmission electron microscopy was used to identify the iron dispersion and the size of the

194 reduced iron nanoparticles (Figure 3).





Figure 3: TEM images of the reduced catalysts with a) 1 wt% iron loading, b) 5 wt% iron loading and c) 10 wt% iron loading.
197

198 The TEM images show that the iron nanoparticles (darker spots) are deposited on the surface of 199 the  $\alpha$ -alumina support (brighter particles). As the loading increases, the size of the nanoparticles 200 increases. Lower iron loadings lead to higher interaction between the support and the iron as well 201 as to a higher dispersion.

N<sub>2</sub>-physisorption measurements of the unreduced catalysts show that the impregnation of iron has
 no significant effect on the specific surface area compared to pure aluminum oxide (Figure S3).

204

# 205 **3.2** Acetylene Hydrogenation

Catalytic tests of the above mentioned catalysts with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% Fe loading were carried out in a fixed bed reactor at temperatures between 30 °C and 90 °C and a pressure of 208 22.5 bar aiming to model industrial front-end conditions of an acetylene removal unit.<sup>[4]</sup> The feed 209 composition is given in Table 1. The observed product spectrum and the reaction pathways are 210 shown below (Scheme 1). In general, catalysts with low selectivity towards ethane and the 211 oligomerization products are suitable for the acetylene hydrogenation.

212



 $\begin{array}{l} 214\\ 215\\ 216\\ 1\end{array} Scheme 1: Reaction scheme for the acetylene hydrogenation under front-end conditions including the desired product ethylene, the undesired overhydrogenation product ethane and the oligomerization products Z-butene, E-butene, 1-butene, butadiene, and higher oligomerization products C<sub>4+</sub>.\\ \end{array}$ 

217

213

Prior to the catalytic testing in the acetylene hydrogenation, the catalysts were reduced at 900 °C and transferred to the reactor as quickly as possible. At 90 °C under constant reaction conditions, the activation of each catalyst was observed at the beginning of the catalytic test (Figure 4, left). The activity shows a steep increase and reaches a plateau after 40 h time on stream. Afterwards, the temperature was varied between 30 °C and 90 °C in 10 °C steps, with stable activity and selectivity for each temperature (Figure 4, right).



Figure 4: Left: Activation behavior, conversion of acetylene under reaction conditions at 90 °C exemplarily shown for the catalyst with 5 wt% iron loading in the first 40 h time on stream. Right: Acetylene (blue) and ethylene (red) conversion as well as C4selectivity (yellow) and ethane make (green) for the 5 wt%Fe@Al2O3 catalyst after the activation phase.

228

224

229 The increase in activity with time at constant temperature and feed composition might indicate the 230 reduction of remaining oxidic species on the surface and the formation of the active species under 231 reaction conditions. The oxidic species originates from contact with air as the reduced catalyst is 232 transfered from the reduction furnace to the reactor. The reducing reaction conditions seem to be 233 able to reduce the catalyst surface in situ at 90 °C. Therefore, the synthesized catalysts with 1 wt%, 234 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading were tested in the acetylene hydrogenation following the same 235 reaction protocol: 236 1) Catalyst treated at 90 °C for 40 h under reaction conditions (Table 1)

- 237 2) Cooling to 40 °C in methane atmosphere
- 238 3) Heating under reaction conditions in 10 °C steps from 40 to 90 °C with a heating ramp of
- 239 1 °C per minute and detection of the conversions and selectivities via GC

The acetylene conversion and the ethane selectivity of the different catalysts after the activation
phase between 30 °C and 90 °C are shown in Figure 5.





Figure 5: Left: Acetylene conversions between 30 °C and 90 °C for the catalysts with 1 wt% (orange), 5 wt% (green) and 10 wt%
(blue) iron loading. Right: Ethane make between 30 °C and 90 °C for the catalysts with 1 wt% (orange), 5 wt% (green) and 10 wt%
(blue) iron loading.

247

248 The acetylene conversion of the catalysts (Figure 5, left) with 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron 249 loading increases with increasing temperature, while the activity of the catalyst with 5 wt% and 250 10 wt% iron loading shows the highest activity. The catalyst with 5 wt% iron loading shows the 251 highes activity at lower temperatures. The activity of the catalyst with 10 wt% iron loading exceeds 252 its activity only at 90 °C. When looking at the selectivity to ethane (Figure 5, right), values above 253 100 % were obtained. This is due to the fact that the ethane selectivity was calculated based on the 254 acetylene conversion. Since ethane can also be formed by hydrogenation of ethylene, ethane 255 selectivities above 100 % are possible, but not desirable. The selectivity to ethane shows a similar 256 behavior for the catalyst with 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading, with a minimum of selectivity to 257 ethane at around 60 °C and higher selectivity to ethane at higher and lower temperatures. The 258 catalyst with 5 wt% iron loading shows the highest overall selectivity to ethane. It is noticeable, 259 that the selectivity of the catalyst with 1 wt% iron loading decreases with increasing temperature. 260 Therefore, the selectivity seems to be related to iron loading and particle size respectively, 261 indicating that low iron loadings lead to excellent selectivitys of the catalyst. To evaluate the 262 activity of the catalysts per gram of active component, the reaction rate for the hydrogenation of 263 acetylene is determined.

264



265

266 Figure 6: Reaction rate of the acetylene hydrogenation normalized by the mass of iron..

267

The calculation of the reaction rates show that the catalyst with 1 wt% iron loading has the highest overall values, followed by the catalysts with 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading. While the catalysts with 5 wt% and 10 wt% iron loading show an approximate linear increase of the reaction rate, the catalyst with 1 wt% iron loading shows an approximate exponential progression. Therefore, the
catalyst with an iron loading of 1 wt% exceeds the reaction rates of catalysts with 5 wt% and
10 wt% iron loading. The results underline the high catalytic activity of iron catalysts with lower
iron loading.

The results of the catalytic tests of iron-based catalysts with iron loadings of 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% show excellent activity and selectivity in the acetylene hydrogenation under industrial front-end conditions, especially for the catalyst with the lowest iron loading. Furthermore, the catalytic activity exceeds that of unsupported iron nanoparticles, clearly demonstrating the improved properties of the supported catalysts.

# 280 4 Conclusion

281 The goal of this work was to improve the catalysts' properties and the catalytic activity of 282 monometallic iron catalysts by supporting on alpha alumina and to underline the great suitability 283 of iron as catalyst in industrial relevant applications. In this work, catalysts with iron loadings of 284 1 wt%, 5 wt% and 10 wt% were synthesized by incipient wetness impregnation using water and 285 acetone as solvents. The catalysts were calcined, reduced and tested in the selective acetylene 286 hydrogenation under industrial front-end conditions. An activation behaviour of the catalysts due 287 to the contact of the catalysts with air after the reduction is observed. After reaching a plateau in 288 activity at 90 °C, the supported iron nanoparticles show excellent acetylene conversion of as well 289 as excellent selectivities towards ethylene. No significant ethylene conversion was observed. This 290 work demonstrates the great suitability of supported iron nanoparticles, especially for low iron 291 loadings. The results show the need for further research in the development of iron-based catalysts. 292 To increase the catalytic activity and enhance the reproducibility of the reduction process, the

293 development of a reactor concept with in situ reduction is important. This will shorten the 294 activation phase and might lead to increased catalytic activity. Furthermore, the resilience of iron 295 based catalysts against carbon monoxide in the reaction mixture must be tested and the effect on 296 the activity and selectivity needs to be monitored. This is important to evaluate the suitability as 297 industrial relevant catalyst. The development of iron-based bimetallic catalyst systems is of interest 298 for the optimization of the catalytic activity and selectivity. Lastly, testing of different shaped 299  $\alpha$ -alumina supports for improved flow behaviour should be part of further research and catalyst 300 development.

301 Acknowledgment

- 302 The authors acknowledge financial support within the collaborative research center 'Iron
- 303 upgraded!' (CRC 1487) funded by the German Research Foundation (Grant No. 443703006).
- 304
- **305 Conflict of Interests**
- 306 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
- 307
- 308 **References:**
- M. Takht Ravanchi, S. Sahebdelfar, S. Komeili, *Reviews in Chemical Engineering* 2018, 34, 215.
- 311 [2] A. Borodziński, G. C. Bond, *Catal. Rev. Sci. Eng.* 2008, 50, 379.
- 312 [3] A. Pachulski, R. Schödel, P. Claus, Applied Catalysis A: General 2012, 445-446, 107.
- 313 [4] S. Hock, L. Iser, M. Lucas, M. Rose, Chemie Ingenieur Technik 2022, 94, 1704.
- 314 [5] H. Zhou, X. Yang, L. Li, X. Liu, Y. Huang, X. Pan, A. Wang, J. Li, T. Zhang, ACS Catal.
  315 2016, 6, 1054.
- 316 [6] M. Kuhn, M. Lucas, P. Claus, Chem. Eng. Technol. 2015, 38, 61.
- 317 [7] M. Kuhn, M. Lucas, P. Claus, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 2015, 54, 6683.
- 318 [8] A. Borodziński, G. C. Bond, *Cataly Rev* 2006, 48, 91.
- [9] N. S. Schbib, M. A. García, C. E. Gígola, A. F. Errazu, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 1996, 35, 1496.
- [10] M. R. Ball, K. R. Rivera-Dones, E. B. Gilcher, S. F. Ausman, C. W. Hullfish, E. A.
   Lebrón, J. A. Dumesic, *ACS Catal.* 2020, *10*, 8567.
- 323 [11] I. Y. Ahn, J. H. Lee, S. S. Kum, S. H. Moon, Catal. Today 2007, 123, 151.
- 324 [12] M. Kuhn, M. Lucas, P. Claus, Catal. Commun. 2015, 72, 170.
- 325 [13] J. Gislason, W. Xia, H. Sellers, J. Phys. Chem. A 2002, 106, 767.
- 326 [14] A. J. McCue, J. A. Anderson, Front. Chem. Sci. Eng. 2015, 9, 142.
- 327 [15] S. Hock, C. V. Reichel, A.-M. Zieschang, B. Albert, M. Rose, *ACS Sustain. Chem. Eng.* 328 2021, 9, 16570.
- 329 [16] M. Tost, B. Bayer, M. Hitch, S. Lutter, P. Moser, S. Feiel, Sustainability 2018, 10, 2881.
- 330 [17] S. Meißner, *Resources* **2021**, *10*, 120.
- [18] K. Islam, R. Yokoi, M. Motoshita, S. Murakami, *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 2022, 183, 106384.
- 333 [19] T. Norgate, S. Jahanshahi, *Miner. Eng.* 2011, 24, 1563.
- 334 [20] H. Zhou, X. Yang, A. Wang, S. Miao, X. Liu, X. Pan, Y. Su, L. Li, Y. Tan, T. Zhang,
   335 *Chinese J Catal* 2016, *37*, 692.
- 336 [21] G. Vilé, D. Albani, M. Nachtegaal, Z. Chen, D. Dontsova, M. Antonietti, N. López, J.
  337 Pérez-Ramírez, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed Engl.* 2015, 54, 11265.
- 338 [22] N. López, C. Vargas-Fuentes, Chem. Commun. (Camb) 2012, 48, 1379.

- 339 [23] D. Mei, M. Neurock, C. M. Smith, J. Catal. 2009, 268, 181.
- 340 [24] G. X. Pei, X. Y. Liu, A. Wang, A. F. Lee, M. A. Isaacs, L. Li, X. Pan, X. Yang, X. Wang,
  341 Z. Tai et al., ACS Catal. 2015, 5, 3717.
- 342 [25] B. Yang, R. Burch, C. Hardacre, P. Hu, P. Hughes, *Catal. Sci. Technol.* 2017, 7, 1508.
- 343 [26] P. A. Sheth, M. Neurock, C. M. Smith, J. Phys. Chem. B 2005, 109, 12449.
- 344 [27] G. X. Pei, X. Y. Liu, A. Wang, L. Li, Y. Huang, T. Zhang, J. W. Lee, B. W. L. Jang, C.-Y.
   345 Mou, *New J. Chem.* 2014, *38*, 2043.
- J. Ballesteros-Soberanas, N. Martín, M. Bacic, E. Tiburcio, M. Mon, J. C. Hernández Garrido, C. Marini, M. Boronat, J. Ferrando-Soria, D. Armentano et al., *Nat. Catal.* 2024.
- Q. Feng, S. Zhao, Y. Wang, J. Dong, W. Chen, D. He, D. Wang, J. Yang, Y. Zhu, H. Zhu
  et al., *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 2017, *139*, 7294.
- [30] J. Osswald, K. Kovnir, M. Armbrüster, R. Giedigkeit, R. E. Jentoft, U. Wild, Y. Grin, R.
  Schlögl, J. Catal. 2008, 258, 219.
- J. Osswald, R. Giedigkeit, R. E. Jentoft, M. Armbrüster, F. Girgsdies, K. Kovnir, T.
   Ressler, Y. Grin, R. Schlögl, *J. Catal.* 2008, 258, 210.
- 354 [32] G. X. Pei, X. Y. Liu, X. Yang, L. Zhang, A. Wang, L. Li, H. Wang, X. Wang, T. Zhang,
   355 ACS Catal. 2017, 7, 1491.
- [33] X. Cao, R. Tong, S. Tang, B. W.-L. Jang, A. Mirjalili, J. Li, X. Guo, J. Zhang, J. Hu, X.
   Meng, *Molecules* 2022, 27.
- 358 [34] S. Hock, M. Lucas, E. Kolle-Görgen, M. Mellin, J. P. Hofmann, M. Rose, *ChemCatChem* 359 2023, 15.
- 360 [35] X. Liu, Y. Li, J. W. Lee, C.-Y. Hong, C.-Y. Mou, B. W. Jang, *Applied Catalysis A:* 361 *General* 2012, 439-440, 8.
- 362 [36] G. X. Pei, X. Y. Liu, A. Wang, Y. Su, L. Li, T. Zhang, *Applied Catalysis A: General* 2017,
   363 545, 90.
- 364 [37] Y. Chen, J. Chen, Appl. Surf. Sci. 2016, 387, 16.
- 365 [38] B. Bridier, J. Pérez-Ramírez, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* **2010**, *132*, 4321.
- [39] F. Studt, F. Abild-Pedersen, T. Bligaard, R. Z. Sørensen, C. H. Christensen, J. K. Nørskov,
   *Science* 2008, *320*, 1320.
- 368 [40] B. J. Gregori, F. Schwarzhuber, S. Pöllath, J. Zweck, L. Fritsch, R. Schoch, M. Bauer, A.
  369 Jacobi von Wangelin, *ChemSusChem* 2019, *12*, 3864.
- [41] D. Faust Akl, A. Ruiz-Ferrando, E. Fako, R. Hauert, O. Safonova, S. Mitchell, N. López, J.
  Pérez-Ramírez, *ChemCatChem* 2021, *13*, 3247.
- [42] C. Rangheard, C. de Julián Fernández, P.-H. Phua, J. Hoorn, L. Lefort, J. G. de Vries,
   *Dalton Trans.* 2010, *39*, 8464.
- [43] M. Tejeda-Serrano, J. R. Cabrero-Antonino, V. Mainar-Ruiz, M. López-Haro, J. C.
  Hernández-Garrido, J. J. Calvino, A. Leyva-Pérez, A. Corma, *ACS Catal.* 2017, 7, 3721.
- 376 [44] B. Bridier, N. López, J. Pérez-Ramírez, *Dalton transactions (Cambridge, England : 2003)* 377 2010, 39, 8412.
- [45] M. Tejeda-Serrano, M. Mon, B. Ross, F. Gonell, J. Ferrando-Soria, A. Corma, A. LeyvaPérez, D. Armentano, E. Pardo, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 2018, *140*,
  8827.
- [46] J.-Y. Park, Y.-J. Lee, P. K. Khanna, K.-W. Jun, J. W. Bae, Y. H. Kim, J. Mol. Catal. A
   *Chem.* 2010, 323, 84.
- [47] H.-J. Wan, B.-S. Wu, C.-H. Zhang, H.-W. Xiang, Y.-W. Li, B.-F. Xu, F. Yi, *Catal. Commun.* 2007, *8*, 1538.

- 385 [48] M. Ates, V. Demir, Z. Arslan, J. Daniels, I. O. Farah, C. Bogatu, *Environ Toxicol* 2015, *30*, 109.
- 387 [49] D. Mishra, R. Arora, S. Lahiri, S. S. Amritphale, N. Chandra, *Prot Met Phys Chem*+ 2014,
   388 50, 628.
- 389 [50] R. L. Frost, Y. Xi, H. He, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 2010, 341, 153.
- 390 [51] F. S. d. Santos, F. R. Lago, L. Yokoyama, F. V. Fonseca, J. Mater. Res. Technol. 2017, 6,
- 391

178.