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# Low-Temperature Photo-Thermal Synthesis of Ammonia over K-Promoted Ru/CeO<sub>2</sub> Catalyst

Angel Sousa, Alejandra Rendón-Patiño, Xinhui Wang, Diego Mateo \* and Jorge Gascon \*

Advanced Catalytic Materials (ACM), KAUST Catalysis Center (KCC), King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), Thuwal 23955-6900, Saudi Arabia

\* Correspondence: [diego.mateo@kaust.edu.sa](mailto:diego.mateo@kaust.edu.sa) (D.M.); [jorge.gascon@kaust.edu.sa](mailto:jorge.gascon@kaust.edu.sa) (J.G.)

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**Abstract:** Haber-Bosch process has enabled large-scale ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) production for over a century. Yet, its high energy demand and carbon footprint reinforces the need to develop new approaches for sustainable NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis. In this study, a K-promoted Ru/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst is investigated for photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis under continuous flow conditions, leveraging light and heat to enhance catalytic efficiency. The optimized Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst achieved an NH<sub>3</sub> production rate of 20 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> at 350 °C and 20 bar, representing the highest reported performance for a photo-thermal system. Mechanistic studies revealed that light-driven charge transfer processes accelerate NH<sub>3</sub> formation via an associative pathway, as confirmed by in-situ DRIFTS analysis. Notably, the system remained stable for over 50 h without deactivation. Beyond NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis, the catalyst also demonstrated high efficiency for photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> decomposition, achieving 656 mmol H<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> at a temperature as low as 215 °C, a significant improvement over conventional thermocatalytic methods. These findings highlight the potential of Ru/CeO<sub>2</sub>-based catalysts for integrated photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis and decomposition, offering a promising route for sustainable NH<sub>3</sub>-based energy storage and utilization.

**Keywords:** photo-thermal catalysis; ammonia synthesis; ruthenium; ceria

## 1. Introduction

The Haber-Bosch (HB) process has enabled large-scale ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) production for fertilizers, chemicals, and numerous industrial applications. Currently, 240 million metric tons of NH<sub>3</sub> are produced per year, with over 96% being manufactured via HB method [1,2]. However, despite its significant contribution to agriculture and human development, NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis accounts for nearly 2% of the world's energy consumption [3]. In light of this, focus has shifted towards strategies that could allow for the direct utilization of renewable energy for the synthesis of NH<sub>3</sub>, with a particular emphasis on harnessing sunlight [4–6].

Since the seminal works of Fujishima and Honda in the 1970's, photocatalysis introduced not only a novel pathway for chemical production, but also a shift in perspective towards a future decoupled from fossil fuel consumption. The use of sunlight to drive chemical reactions presents a promising approach for sustainable development while reducing environmental impact [7,8]. However, low conversion levels and slow reaction kinetics prevent its scalability for industrial applications. Moreover, traditional photocatalytic systems are restricted to UV light, leaving 97% of the solar spectrum unused [9,10]. To overcome this challenge, photo-thermal catalysis has emerged as an innovative approach to produce chemicals by leveraging the synergistic effect of photo- and thermochemical processes of sunlight [11–14]. In this synergy, UV-visible photons generate electron-hole pairs, while visible and IR light promote localized heating on the surface of the catalyst. Consequently, thermodynamic barriers are lowered, enabling reactions pathways with diminished energy requirements [15–17].



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As a result, photo-thermally driven reactions have attracted considerable attention, and their application in highly energy-intensive processes like  $\text{NH}_3$  production holds significant promise.

In this context, iron (Fe)-based catalysts have been traditionally employed for  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis. However, limitations such as high operating temperatures and pressures have driven research towards catalytic systems able to operate under milder conditions [18,19]. In view of this, ruthenium (Ru)-based catalysts have gained significant attention for their enhanced catalytic activity, particularly at moderate reaction conditions [20–23]. Nevertheless, only a few studies have investigated supported Ru NPs for photo-thermal  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis. Recently, a  $\text{TiO}_2$ -supported Ru catalyst was reported, achieving nearly  $240 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  and 10 bar [24]. On another note, Peng and co-workers reported two Cs-promoted Ru catalysts supported on strontium titanate and  $\text{ZrO}_2$ , which achieved 3.6 and  $5.1 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , respectively, at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  and ambient pressure. In these works, authors emphasized the importance of the photo-thermal strategy, while also pointing out the critical role of promoters in enhancing  $\text{NH}_3$  production.

In fact, the incorporation of promoters such as alkali and alkaline earth metals is known to dramatically increase catalytic activity via structural or electronic promotion [25]. Potassium (K), for instance, donates electrons to increase the electron density at metal active sites, thereby facilitating  $\text{N}_2$  bond activation, stabilizing intermediates and modulating adsorption properties of products [26,27]. In addition, alkali promoters can alleviate excessive hydrogen coverage of the metal surface by facilitating  $\text{N}_2$  hydrogenation, therefore limiting the effect of hydrogen poisoning. However, promotion alone is not sufficient to prevent this effect, and catalysts may face deactivation beyond a certain point. To tackle this issue, metal oxide supports such as  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{CeO}_2$ , and  $\text{V}_2\text{O}_5$ , are frequently utilized due to their ability to enhance hydrogen spillover and, consequently, prevent H poisoning [28–31].

In particular, the presence of oxygen vacancies within  $\text{CeO}_2$  has been shown to promote  $\text{N}\equiv\text{N}$  activation in the  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis reaction by increasing electron density at the Ru sites [28]. Ru's affinity for  $\text{H}_2$  facilitates the reduction of  $\text{CeO}_2$ , further increasing the number of oxygen vacancies, which, in its turn, leads to enhanced catalytic performance. In addition, the strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) between Ru and  $\text{CeO}_2$  tends to stabilize Ru nanoparticles (NPs), resulting in a fine and homogeneous dispersion throughout the catalyst while preventing their sintering [32–35]. In fact, SMSI can be evidenced by the formation of a suboxide around metallic particles, effectively resulting in partial or total encapsulation of the metal by the support. Beyond structural effects, SMSI also facilitates electronic metal-support interaction (EMSI), inducing electronic perturbations and charge transfer between metal and support. Such interactions may alter the adsorption and dissociation properties of reactant molecules, consequently enhancing catalytic performance [36]. Nevertheless, and despite all these promising features, the use of  $\text{CeO}_2$  has been surprisingly overlooked in the photo-thermal catalytic production of  $\text{NH}_3$ .

Herein, we report a K-promoted Ru-based catalyst supported on  $\text{CeO}_2$  for the photo-thermal ammonia synthesis under continuous flow configuration. Under optimal conditions, the photo-thermal catalyst exhibited an  $\text{NH}_3$  production rate of approximately  $20 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$  and a solar-to-ammonia (STA) conversion efficiency of 0.17%. To the best of our knowledge, these values represent one of the highest production rates and STA conversion efficiencies reported to date for the photo-thermal ammonia synthesis. Mechanistic studies have evidenced the crucial role of light in accelerating the ammonia production through the interplay between photo- and thermal contributions of light. Furthermore, in situ DRIFTS analysis highlighted the critical role of light in accelerating the chemical reaction, offering mechanistic insights supporting an associative reaction pathway in both the absence and presence of light. Last but not least, the catalyst has shown a remarkable activity for the photo-thermal  $\text{NH}_3$  cracking reaction in the absence of external heating, thus closing the loop for a sustainable and energy-efficient ammonia synthesis/decomposition cycle.

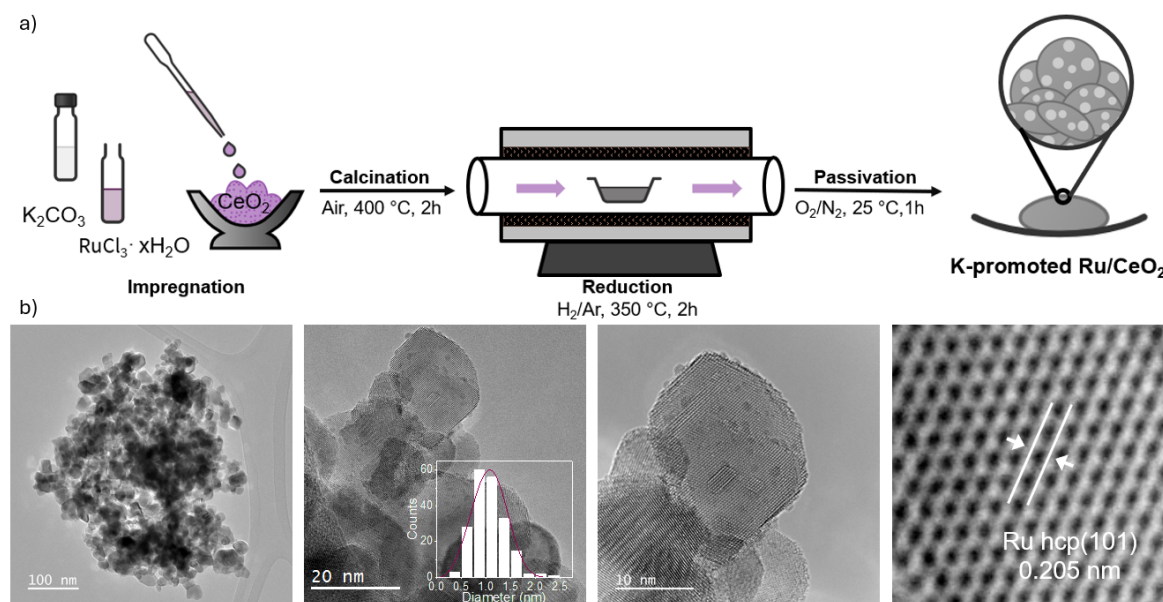
## 2. Results

K-promoted  $\text{Ru}(x)/\text{CeO}_2$  catalysts (where x stands for the Ru wt.% content, from 1 to 4 wt.%) were obtained via wet impregnation of commercially available  $\text{CeO}_2$  with different amounts of Ru and K precursors followed by calcination and reduction treatments, as described in Supporting Information and illustrated in Figure 1.

First,  $\text{H}_2$  Temperature Programmed Reduction ( $\text{H}_2$ -TPR) was measured for pristine  $\text{CeO}_2$  and K-promoted  $\text{Ru}(2)/\text{CeO}_2$  samples (Figure S1). Previous studies have demonstrated that the  $\text{H}_2$ -TPR profile of  $\text{CeO}_2$  exhibits two main features: (1) reduction of surface oxygen species leading to vacancy formation, and (2) reduction of bulk  $\text{CeO}_2$  due to outwards O diffusion, an undesirable phenomenon that triggers loss of particle shape, negatively impacting the catalytic performance [37]. The first reduction typically happens at temperatures below  $500^\circ\text{C}$  while the second requires temperatures above  $600^\circ\text{C}$  [38,39]. Figure S1 shows a peak located at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  for pristine  $\text{CeO}_2$  attributed to the reduction of surface oxygen species. On the other hand, the reduction profile of K-promoted

Ru(2)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst exhibits two regions of interest: a peak at 130 °C for the reduction of RuO<sub>2</sub>, and a broader peak at higher temperature (250 °C) attributed to the first reduction of the CeO<sub>2</sub> support. These results indicated that the presence of Ru increased the reducibility of CeO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, based on H<sub>2</sub>-TPR analysis, all catalysts were pre-reduced at 350 °C under a 6 vol% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar flow for 2 h and subsequently passivated under 5 vol% O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> at room temperature for 1 h.

Subsequently, pristine CeO<sub>2</sub>, K-promoted CeO<sub>2</sub> and K-promoted Ru(x)/CeO<sub>2</sub> samples with different Ru contents were characterized via Powder X-ray Diffraction (PXRD) analysis (Figures S2 and S3a). The peaks at 28.6°, 33.1°, 47.6° and 56.4° were assigned to the diffraction planes (111), (200), (220) and (311) of CeO<sub>2</sub> fluorite (Fm3m). The small peaks observed at 40.5° and 44.1° were attributed to the reflection planes (111) of potassium chloride (KCl) and (101) of metallic Ru, respectively. The successful incorporation of Ru in the CeO<sub>2</sub> support was corroborated by Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) (Table S1). High-Resolution Transmission Electron Microscopy (HR-TEM) images of the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> confirmed the homogeneous distribution of Ru NPs throughout the CeO<sub>2</sub> support with a particle size distribution of 1.1 ± 0.3 nm (Figure 1) [40]. Based on these images, it was possible to measure a lattice distance of 0.205 and 0.311 nm attributable to the (101) plane of metallic Ru and (111) plane of CeO<sub>2</sub>, respectively, in good agreement with the main peaks observed in XRD (Figures 1 and S4). Moreover, additional HAADF-STEM analysis coupled with elemental mapping not only demonstrated the presence of Ru and K decorating the surface of the CeO<sub>2</sub> support, but also the strong metal-support interaction between Ru and CeO<sub>2</sub>, as evidenced by the encapsulation of metallic nanoparticles by the metal oxide (Figures S5 and S6).



**Figure 1.** (a) Procedure for catalyst synthesis. (i) Preparation of a solution of ruthenium (III) chloride and potassium carbonate in Milli-Q<sup>®</sup> water. (ii) Impregnation of cerium oxide with the resulting solution from (i). (iii) Calcination at 400 °C for 2 h. (iv) Reduction at 350 °C for 2 h in a gas mixture consisting of 6 vol% H<sub>2</sub> in Argon (Ar). (v) Passivation with diluted O<sub>2</sub> (5 vol% in N<sub>2</sub>) at room temperature for 1 h. (b) HR-TEM images of the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> sample. Bottom right image shows the interplanar distance corresponding to the (101) plane of metallic Ru. Inset shows the particle size distribution.

The degree of defects in the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice upon Ru incorporation was evaluated using Raman spectroscopy under nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) atmosphere. As shown in Figure S7, one main peak is observed in the CeO<sub>2</sub> spectrum at 462 cm<sup>-1</sup> and a shoulder at 600 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which correspond to the F<sub>2g</sub> and defect-induced (D) vibrational modes of fluorite [41]. These vibrational modes represent the symmetrical stretching of oxygen atoms around cerium ions in the fluorite structure, consistent with the PXRD findings. Upon Ru incorporation, no additional peaks were observed, however, a red-shift and a broadening of the F<sub>2g</sub> peak were clearly discernible. These alterations in the spectra are in line with previous findings and indicate the introduction of defects within the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice as Ru is incorporated [35,41]. To compare the extent of this effect across samples with varying Ru content, we calculated the ratio between the D and F<sub>2g</sub> peak intensities I<sub>600</sub>/I<sub>462</sub>, which is correlated with the amount of intrinsic defects, such as oxygen vacancies, within the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice. According to the values in Table S2, while oxygen vacancies are present in pristine CeO<sub>2</sub>, they constitute merely 0.01 ratio of the lattice bonds. However, as the Ru content

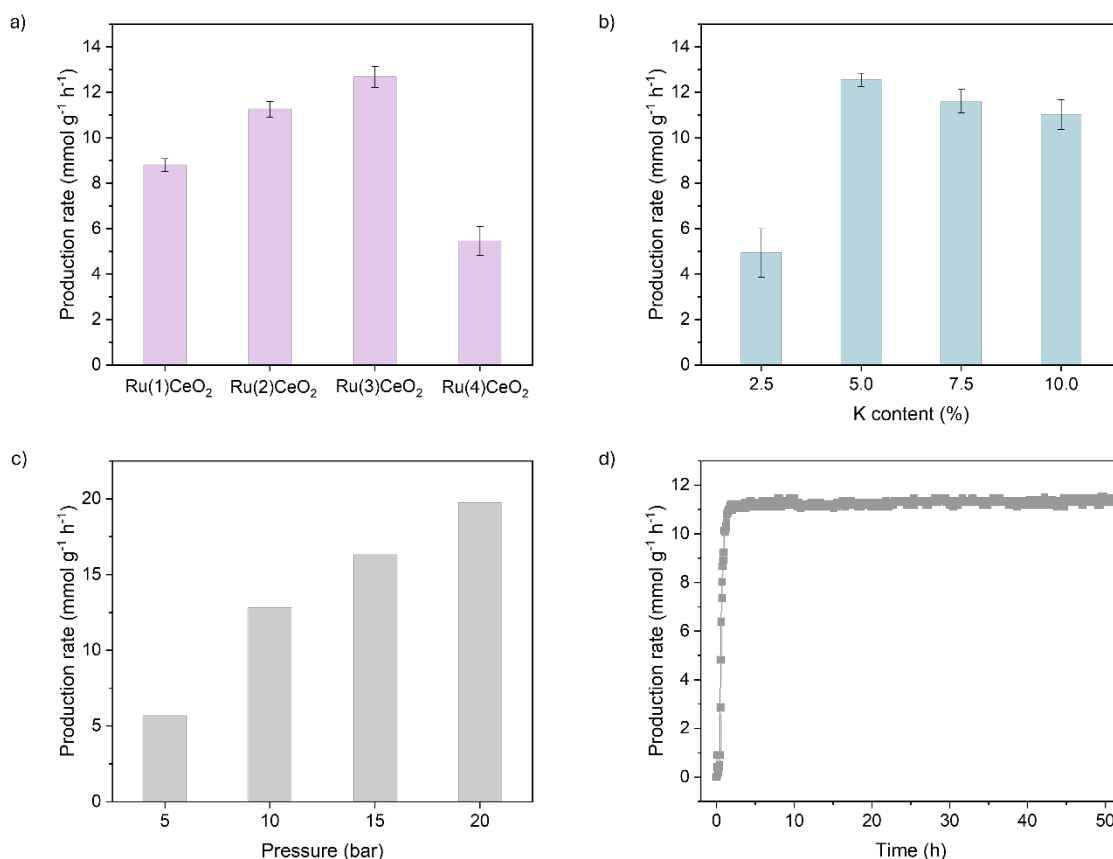
increases across the samples, the concentration of these defects gradually rises, reaching a maximum ratio of 0.32. The K-promoted CeO<sub>2</sub> sample did not exhibit significant differences compared to pristine CeO<sub>2</sub> (Figure S3b).

Complementarily, to identify the surface chemical species present in our catalyst and further analyze the introduction of defects on the CeO<sub>2</sub> structure upon Ru loading, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was conducted on pristine CeO<sub>2</sub> and K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> sample as representative of the Ru(x)/CeO<sub>2</sub> samples (Figure S8). The O 1s core level spectra were fitted into two peaks centered at 529.0 and 530.7 eV, corresponding to lattice oxygen (O<sub>L</sub>) and O<sup>2-</sup> in oxygen deficient regions (O<sub>V</sub>), respectively [42]. The ratio O<sub>V</sub>/O<sub>L</sub> calculated for the samples were 0.1 and 0.5 for the CeO<sub>2</sub> and K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> samples, denoting an increase in surface oxygen vacancies upon Ru incorporation, in accordance with the Raman analysis. For the Ce 3d spectra of pristine CeO<sub>2</sub>, ten peaks were fitted corresponding to the pairs of spin-orbit doublets, with five peaks at 882.0, 888.4, 897.9, 907.1 and 916.4 eV for Ce<sup>4+</sup>, and other five peaks located at 880.3, 884.1, 895.9 and 900.5 and 902.1 eV for Ce<sup>3+</sup> [43,44]. In this case, the calculated Ce<sup>3+</sup>/Ce<sup>4+</sup> ratio, which represents the concentration of oxygen vacancies in the material, was 0.40. Upon incorporation of Ru, the Ce<sup>3+</sup>/Ce<sup>4+</sup> ratio increased up to 0.53, indicating the generation of defects on the CeO<sub>2</sub> lattice. Indeed, XPS data aligns with the Raman results, indicating that Ru incorporation promotes the formation of oxygen vacancies. The Ru 3p spectrum could be fitted into two main contributions at 462.3 and 484.5 eV, corresponding to metallic Ru, together with two smaller contributions at 464.8 and 486.9 eV for RuO<sub>x</sub> attributable to the passivation layer generated during the synthesis of the catalyst (see Supplementary Information) [45]. Interestingly, these peaks displayed a significant shift towards higher binding energies (~0.9 eV), thus indicating the generation of positively charged Ru<sup>δ+</sup> species as a result of the strong interaction between CeO<sub>2</sub> and Ru [46].

Figure S9 shows the EPR spectra of CeO<sub>2</sub>, K-promoted CeO<sub>2</sub> and K-Ru/CeO<sub>2</sub> measured at room temperature after their calcination and reduction. Here, EPR was used as a diagnostic tool for the formation of Ce<sup>+4</sup>-O<sup>-</sup>-Ce<sup>3+</sup> species, and, therefore, for oxygen vacancy detection. CeO<sub>2</sub> displays several well-defined resonances in the g = 1.8–2.2 region, characteristic of localized Ce<sup>3+</sup> species and trapped electrons associated with oxygen vacancy sites [47,48]. Upon K addition, the features become slightly attenuated, consistent with the expected effect of K in modifying the electron density of CeO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the incorporation of Ru led to a marked transformation of the spectrum, with the broadening and increase in intensity of the resonance centered at g ≈ 1.96, which corresponds to the Ce<sup>+4</sup>-O<sup>-</sup>-Ce<sup>3+</sup> species. This signal evolution reflects a substantial increase in Ce<sup>3+</sup> concentration as Ru strongly promotes reducibility of the support, indicating the formation of oxygen vacancies upon Ru addition. Indeed, these findings are in good agreement with the trends observed by XPS, Raman and H<sub>2</sub>-TPR.

UV-vis-NIR absorption measurements were performed for all samples to assess their light absorption properties. All spectra exhibited a strong absorption peak around 320–330 nm, corresponding to the characteristic interband transitions of CeO<sub>2</sub> (Figure S10) [49]. Remarkably, light absorption in the visible and IR regions increased with higher Ru content, and RuO<sub>x</sub> plasmonic bands were distinctly apparent in the samples with the highest Ru loading (inset of Figure S10) [36]. These results indicate that the introduction of Ru dramatically improved the absorption properties of the Ru/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts.

The catalytic performance of K-promoted Ru(x)/CeO<sub>2</sub> samples for photo-thermal ammonia synthesis was investigated under continuous flow configuration at 350 °C and 10 bar, using a 300 W Xe lamp with a light intensity of 3.3 W cm<sup>-2</sup>. First, we studied the effect of the Ru loading on the catalytic performance. As shown in Figure 2a, the NH<sub>3</sub> production increased with Ru content up to 3 wt.%, achieving a maximum production rate of 13 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. A higher Ru content led to a decrease in the catalytic performance, probably due to a larger particle size of 1.5 ± 0.7 nm as evidenced by HRTEM analysis (Figure S11). When it comes to the K promoter, 5.0 wt.% concentration displayed the best catalytic results, likely due to a compromise between the positive effect of the alkali and an excessive coverage of the Ru active sites (Figure 2b). In view of these findings, subsequent studies were performed with the 5.0 wt.% K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> sample unless otherwise indicated. As per Figure 2c, we observed a positive relationship between the catalytic activity and the operating pressure up to 20 bar, reaching a remarkable NH<sub>3</sub> production rate of nearly 20 mmol g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>. To the best of our knowledge, this productivity represents the highest value reported for the photo-thermal ammonia synthesis under continuous flow configuration (Table S3).



**Figure 2.** Study of the influence of (a) Ru content, (b) K content and (c) operating pressure on the catalytic activity of K-promoted Ru(x)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalysts for the photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis. (d) Long-term stability test over K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub>. Reaction conditions: H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> = 3, GHSV = 20,000 mL g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>, 350 °C, 10 bar, light intensity 3.3 W cm<sup>-2</sup>.

After optimizing the Ru and K content, our focus shifted to evaluating the stability of the catalyst under reaction conditions. As can be seen from Figure 2d, the catalyst maintained its performance over 50 h without any sign of deactivation, highlighting the remarkable stability of the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Additional HRTEM images of the spent sample revealed the absence of particle sintering or agglomeration (Figure S12). Complementarily, no phase changes were observed in the PXRD patterns compared to the fresh sample, thus confirming the excellent stability of the catalyst under operation (Figure S13).

Next, we conducted an in-depth assessment of the mechanisms underlying the photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis on K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Initially, to distinguish between photo-induced and thermal effects, experiments were performed under direct and indirect illumination at varying light intensities. For the indirect illumination tests, a thin layer (<1 mm) of Ti<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was placed on top of the catalytic bed to capture light and convert into heat. This strategy ensured the suppression of photo-effects while replicating the temperature profile of the catalytic bed under direct light illumination, mimicking a purely thermocatalytic pathway [50]. Under indirect illumination, NH<sub>3</sub> production rate expressed a clear exponential behavior with respect to light intensity, characteristic of a thermocatalytic pathway dominated by pure thermal effects (Figure 3a). On the other hand, under direct illumination, the production rate increased significantly, exhibiting a linear dependance with light intensity for values below 2.5 W cm<sup>-2</sup>, characteristic of a photocatalytic pathway (Figure 3a). As observed in Figure S14, both sets of experiments reached similar temperatures under reaction conditions, thus indicating that this methodology provides comparable photo-thermal heating while suppressing any photochemical contribution. The difference in NH<sub>3</sub> production rate between both direct and indirect illumination increased upon augmenting the power density up to 2.2 W cm<sup>-2</sup>, suggesting that non-thermal effects are dominant at those irradiances. Nevertheless, when the light intensity increased beyond 2.5 W cm<sup>-2</sup>, an inflection point was observed, and the production rate decreased for the experiment directly illuminated. According to the literature, there are two possible scenarios that explain this finding: (1) the increment in light intensity, and therefore in temperature, increases the kinetic energy in the system, enhancing the recombination rate of charge carriers, which in its turn

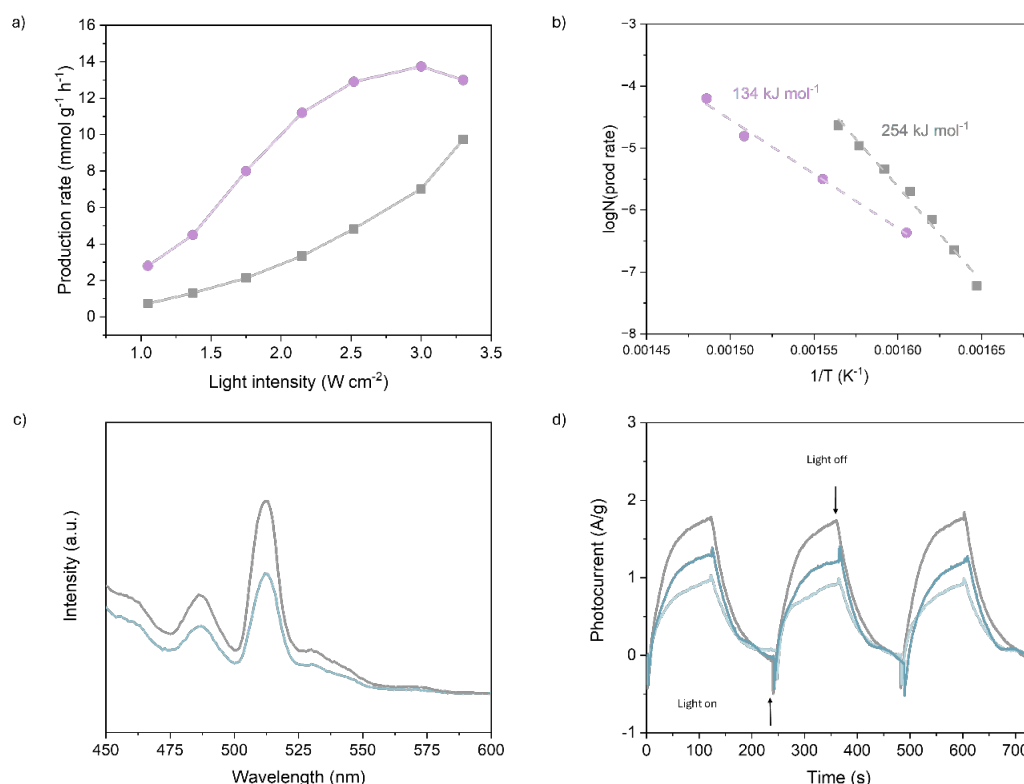
mitigates the photochemical contribution and results in lower performances; (2) the increment in temperature, instead of contributing for the  $\text{NH}_3$  formation, shifts the equilibrium towards the endothermic back reaction, thus decomposing any produced  $\text{NH}_3$  [51,52]. Therefore, although a contribution from the reverse reaction cannot be fully discarded, we attribute the performance drop observed at high light intensities to charge carrier recombination events at elevated temperatures, as the small amount of  $\text{NH}_3$  produced during our experiments suggests that its formation followed by decomposition is unlikely to happen, especially under high  $\text{H}_2$  partial pressure in the reaction mixture [53,54]. The crucial role of light becomes even more evident when calculating the values of apparent activation energy for both experiments under dark and light conditions, resulting in  $254 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  and  $134 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. These findings highlight the critical role of light in lowering energy barriers and enabling more efficient catalytic pathways.

In view of the light intensity-dependent experimental results, we also calculated the solar-to-ammonia (STA) conversion efficiency of our system under optimal conditions to assess its potential applicability:

$$\text{STA (\%)} = \frac{\Delta G_{\text{NH}_3} (\text{J mol}^{-1}) \times \text{NH}_3 \text{ formed (mol)}}{\text{total incident power (W)} \times \text{reaction time (s)}} \times 100$$

where  $\Delta G_{\text{NH}_3}$  is the Gibbs free energy required for  $\text{NH}_3$  formation at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\Delta G_{\text{NH}_3} = 15.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ); the total incident power is calculated from the overall irradiance ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ) and the irradiation area ( $\text{m}^2$ ) [55]. It is worth reminding that, to include the energy costs associated with the temperature and pressure requirements in our efficiency calculations, we subtracted the  $\text{NH}_3$  production under thermal conditions to the total  $\text{NH}_3$  production under photo-thermal regime.

Therefore, based on the above equation and assumptions, we obtained a STA of 0.17% at 10 bar and  $350^\circ\text{C}$  under  $2.2 \text{ W cm}^{-2}$  power density, a value that is comparable with the highest reported efficiencies for a photo-thermal ammonia synthesis system [56,57]. Considering previous estimates indicating that STA conversion efficiencies above 0.1% are necessary to compete with the conventional Haber-Bosch route for ammonia production as a nitrogen fertilizer, the photo-thermal system presented here emerges as a promising candidate for solar-driven fertilizer synthesis [58].



**Figure 3.** (a) Light intensity experiments under direct (pink) and indirect (gray) illumination at different light intensities. Reaction conditions:  $\text{H}_2/\text{N}_2 = 3$ , GHSV =  $20,000 \text{ mL g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ,  $350^\circ\text{C}$ , 10 bar. (b) Activation energies for the experiments under light (pink) and dark (gray) conditions. (c) Steady-state photoluminescence (PL) measurements of pristine  $\text{CeO}_2$  (gray) and K-promoted  $\text{Ru(3)/CeO}_2$  (blue) samples. (d) Transient photocurrent of K-promoted  $\text{Ru(3)/CeO}_2$  sample under 400 nm (gray), 300 nm (blue) and 200 nm (light gray) light intensity.

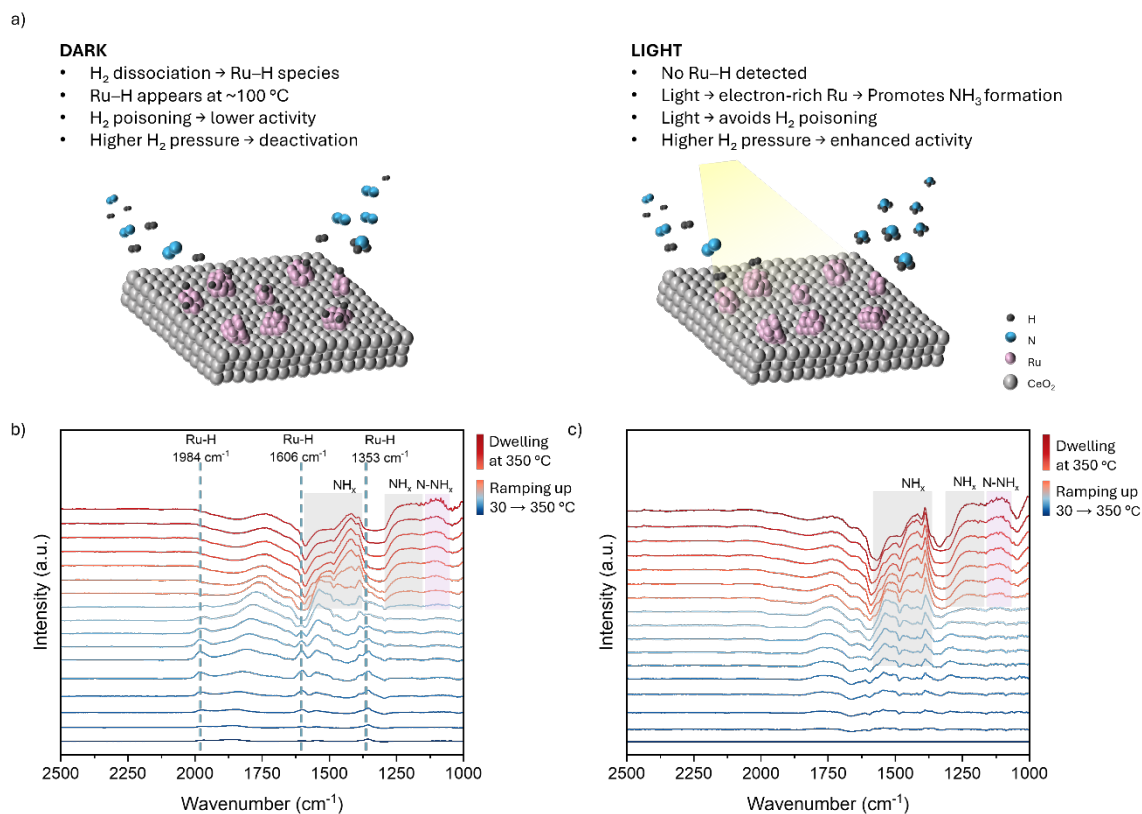


Complementarily, steady-state photoluminescence (PL) and transient photocurrent measurements confirmed the presence of photochemical effects in our system. As shown in Figure 3c, pristine CeO<sub>2</sub> displayed two prominent emission peaks at 487 and 512 nm, attributable to defect states, including oxygen vacancies with trapped electrons [59]. Curiously, the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> sample exhibited a lower photoluminescence compared to pristine CeO<sub>2</sub>. This decrease in the PL intensity indicates an effective charge transfer from the CeO<sub>2</sub> to the Ru sites, improving the overall charge separation efficiency. In fact, the XPS analysis of the spent sample revealed additional evidence for this electron transfer from ceria towards Ru. As can be seen in Figure S15, the Ru 3p peaks exhibited a shift of approximately 0.7 eV towards lower binding energies compared to the fresh sample. Altogether, these results suggest a transfer of photo-excited electrons from ceria, most likely from Ce<sup>3+</sup> and oxygen vacancies, and the generation of electron-rich Ru sites. These electron-rich Ru species can activate H<sub>2</sub> by dissociative adsorption, thus creating Ru-H hydrides and increasing its reactivity for NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis, as we will elaborate below through in situ DRIFTS experiments. In addition, transient photocurrent of K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> demonstrated the presence of photoactivity upon illumination, exhibiting a positive correlation with light intensity (Figure 3d).

To deepen our understanding of the reaction mechanism, in-situ DRIFTS was performed to monitor the formation of intermediates during the reaction in the presence and absence of light for the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. In absence of light, three bands located at 1980, 1600 and 1355 cm<sup>-1</sup> became prominent with the temperature rise (Figure 4b, blue dashed lines). These bands are typically associated with the formation of Ru-H species, indicating the onset of the H<sub>2</sub> dissociation process at nearly 100 °C [60–62]. Indeed, this finding correlates well with our H<sub>2</sub>-TPR results, which showed H<sub>2</sub> consumption at a similar temperature (Figure S1). In addition, absorption bands ascribed to NH<sub>x</sub> intermediates appear at temperatures above 200 °C mainly in the range of 1340–1550 cm<sup>-1</sup> and at 1240 cm<sup>-1</sup> (grey highlights). Interestingly, a broad feature corresponding to the N–N stretching vibration of N–NH<sub>x</sub> adsorbed molecules was observed in the range of 1080–1170 cm<sup>-1</sup> (pink highlight) [63–65]. Although faint, this feature is crucial for confirming the existence of an associative pathway for ammonia production in the absence of light. Additionally, a peak shift from 1865 to 1760 cm<sup>-1</sup> related to Ru–H and N–H interactions was observed, possibly indicating a change in surface coverage of the active sites as the reaction evolved [66]. On a second scenario, upon light exposure, subtle yet significant spectral changes emerged (Figure 4c). First, the main features related to NH<sub>x</sub> (grey highlights) and N–NH<sub>x</sub> (pink highlights) appear sharper and enhanced at temperatures as low as 120 °C, evidencing that the introduction of light accelerates the NH<sub>3</sub> reaction at lower temperatures. Second, Ru–H bands were no longer detected, evidencing a fast transition between Ru–H and NH<sub>x</sub> production upon irradiation. These observations indicate that negatively charged Ru sites induce a fast hydrogenation of adsorbed N<sub>2</sub> on the catalyst surface, thus boosting the generation of NH<sub>3</sub>. It is worth reminding that traditional Ru-based catalysts are prone to suffer from hydrogen poisoning. In our case, we hypothesize that the light-induced rapid hydrogenation of adsorbed nitrogen circumvents the deactivation of the catalyst due to hydrogen blockage, as confirmed by the pressure-dependent experiments exhibiting a positive relationship between H<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and catalytic activity (Figure 2c). In fact, increasing the operating pressure from 10 to 20 bar under dark conditions had an obvious negative effect on the catalytic performance, thus confirming that, in the absence of illumination, hydrogen can block Ru active sites and therefore inhibit the ammonia synthesis reaction (Figure S16). Altogether, these findings demonstrate that, despite following a similar associative mechanism, the NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis is dramatically accelerated under light exposure.

Besides its well-known application as a fertilizer, ammonia has recently gained considerable attraction as a potential hydrogen carrier by virtue of its high volumetric and gravimetric energy density. Nonetheless, in contrast to the synthetic route, the NH<sub>3</sub> decomposition process is far from being optimized and harsh temperatures in the order of 500–600 °C are commonly required to achieve significant conversion rates. Recently, some works evidenced the versatility and efficiency of photo-thermal catalysis for NH<sub>3</sub> cracking [67,68]. In this context, and given the promising features of our catalyst for the photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> synthesis, we investigated its application for the light-induced NH<sub>3</sub> cracking reaction in the absence of external heating. As observed in Figure S17, a remarkable NH<sub>3</sub> conversion of 27% was achieved, corresponding to 656 mmol g<sub>cat</sub><sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> of H<sub>2</sub> production at temperatures as low as 215 °C. In contrast, performing the experiment in absence of light at the same temperature led to no observable conversion. In fact, conventional thermocatalytic Ru-based catalysts require from considerably harsher reaction conditions to achieve comparable catalytic performances. Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, this is the highest reported value for photo-thermal NH<sub>3</sub> cracking to date, as observed in Table S4. To have a better insight into the exceptional catalytic activity of the K-promoted Ru(3)/CeO<sub>2</sub> catalyst in the NH<sub>3</sub> decomposition reaction, we performed NH<sub>3</sub>-TPD measurements under light and dark conditions. As per Figure S18, the main desorption peak of H<sub>2</sub> under radiation starts at 185 °C, reaching its maximum at 250 °C, together with a small desorption at low temperature attributable to weakly physisorbed NH<sub>3</sub>. In stark contrast, the desorption of H<sub>2</sub> under dark conditions starts only at temperatures above 246 °C, roughly 60 °C higher temperature compared

to the experiment under illumination. Therefore,  $\text{NH}_3$ -TPD experiments suggest that light could enhance the  $\text{NH}_3$  decomposition reaction by facilitating the  $\text{H}_2$  desorption from the catalyst surface. In this case, the generation of electron-rich Ru species under illumination facilitates the  $\text{H}_2$  recombinative desorption at lower temperatures. Overall, these results demonstrate the potential of our K-promoted  $\text{Ru}(3)/\text{CeO}_2$  catalyst to efficiently perform both the synthesis and decomposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  under photo-thermal conditions, closing the loop for a more sustainable production and utilization of ammonia in future low-carbon economies.



**Figure 4.** (a) Schematic illustration summarizing the effect of light illumination on the catalytic surface. In-situ DRIFTS analysis of K-promoted  $\text{Ru}(3)/\text{CeO}_2$  under  $\text{H}_2/\text{N}_2$  (3:1) at 10 bar with increased temperature upon (b) dark and (c) light conditions.

### 3. Conclusions

In summary, this study introduces a bifunctional K-promoted  $\text{Ru}(3)/\text{CeO}_2$  catalyst for the photo-thermal  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis and decomposition reactions under continuous flow configuration. After systematic optimization, a  $\text{NH}_3$  production rate of nearly  $20 \text{ mmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  was achieved at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  and 20 bar under light irradiation. Mechanistic investigations under direct and indirect illumination confirmed the predominance of a non-thermal pathway in combination with thermal contribution. Steady-state photoluminescence and transient photocurrent measurements provided evidence of significant photo-induced effects within our system. Furthermore, in situ DRIFTS analysis highlighted the critical role of light in accelerating the chemical reaction, offering mechanistic insights supporting an associative reaction pathway in both the absence and presence of light.

### Supplementary Materials

The additional data and information can be downloaded at: <https://media.sciltp.com/articles/others/2510151658331321/Photocatalysis-2508000100-SI-done.pdf>. Experimental details (materials and reagents and catalyst preparation), PXRD,  $\text{H}_2$ -TPR, EPR, ICP-OES, Raman spectroscopy, PL, Transient photocurrent measurements, in situ DRIFTS, HR-TEM, STEM-HAADF, XPS, UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy,  $\text{NH}_3$ -TPD and Photo-thermal  $\text{NH}_3$  synthesis. References [69–79] are cited in the supplementary materials.



## Author Contributions

A.S.: methodology, investigation, writing—original draft preparation; A.R.-P.: methodology, investigation; X.W.: methodology, investigation, D.M.: conceptualization, data curation, supervision, writing—original draft preparation; J.G.: conceptualization, supervision, writing—reviewing and editing. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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## Data Availability Statement

Data will be made available upon request.

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## Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## Use of AI and AI-Assisted Technologies

This manuscript was prepared with the assistance of ChatGPT to improve linguistic readability. After using this tool, the authors carefully reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the published article.

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