Ethylene Dehydroaromatization over Ga-ZSM-5 Catalysts: Nature and Role of Gallium Speciation

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Abstract: Bifunctional catalysis in zeolites possessing both Brønsted and Lewis acid sites offers unique opportunities to tailor shape selectivity and enhance catalyst performance. Here, we examine the impact of framework and extra-framework gallium species on enriched aromatics production in zeolite ZSM-5. We compare three distinct methods of preparing Ga-ZSM-5 and reveal direct (single step) synthesis leads to optimal catalysts compared to post-synthesis methods. Using a combination of state-of-the-art characterization, catalyst testing, and density functional theory calculations, we show that Ga Lewis acid sites strongly favor aromatization. Our findings also suggest Ga(framework)–Ga(extra-framework) pairings, which can only be achieved in materials prepared by direct synthesis, are the most energetically favorable sites for reaction pathways leading to aromatics. Calculated acid site exchange energies between extra-framework Ga at framework sites comprised of either Al or Ga reveal a site-specific preference for stabilizing Lewis acids, which is qualitatively consistent with experimental measurements. These findings indicate the possibility of tailoring Lewis acid sites by the placement of Ga heteroatoms at distinct tetrahedral sites in the zeolite framework, which can have a marked impact on catalyst performance relative to conventional H-ZSM-5.

Introduction

Benzene, toluene, and xylene (BTX) are important precursors in the petrochemical industry for the production of polymers, fuel additives, and other value-added products. Zeolite ZSM-5 (MFI type) has been demonstrated to be a superb catalyst for BTX production from different feedstocks, including syngas, methanol, light alkanes and alkenes, due to its unique medium pore (10-member ring) shape selectivity. Modified Brønsted acidic H-ZSM-5 catalysts with metals (e.g. Ag, Ga, Zn) forming Lewis acid sites have demonstrated exceptional enhanced aromatics yield for non-oxidative dehydroaromatization (DHA) of ethylene and propylene. Moreover, Ga-ZSM-5 has been used in dehydrogenation reactions, including the commercial UOP/BP Cyclar process to convert light alkanes to aromatics. Despite numerous studies of Ga-zeolites, a general understanding of active sites and the potential synergy between Lewis and Brønsted acids is lacking.

In addition to Ga-ZSM-5, prior studies have also characterized structure-performance relationships for Ga-exchanged chabazite (CHA) and beta (*BEA) catalysts. There are two conventional post-synthetic approaches to prepare Ga-modified zeolites: (1) solution ion exchange with a gallium salt (e.g. Ga(NO₃)₃); and (2) impregnation. Characterization of Ga-zeolites prepared by these methods often reveals large fractions of Ga₃O₇ deposits on external surfaces of zeolite particles owing to the slow diffusion of hydrated Ga ionic species into the nanopores. To obtain more dispersed Ga species within zeolite pores, it has been shown that Ga₃O₇ can be reduced under H₂ at high temperature (> 700 K) to facilitate Ga migration into pores and ion exchange with Brønsted acid sites. Price et al. investigated the effects of various treatment methods on the state of Ga in (ZSM-5 catalysts) and the aromatization activity in DHA reactions. They observed that the optimal catalyst was prepared by reduction of Ga₃O₇ to dispersed Ga species and reoxidation to obtain Ga³⁺ sites within the 3-dimensional pores of ZSM-5; however, it has been hypothesized that achieving a uniform dispersion of Ga³⁺ sites by this method is challenging. Bell and coworkers prepared isolated Ga³⁺ cations inside H-ZSM-5 using

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vapor-phase exchange with GaCl$_3$[13,114] and investigated the mechanism and kinetics of propane dehydrogenation over Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts. They report [GaH]$_2^+$ is the active site for both propane dehydrogenation and cracking reactions.[124] Lercher and co-workers used conventional wetness impregnation to prepare well-characterized Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts for propane dehydrogenation wherein they reported Lewis–Brønsted acid pairs are essential to catalyze the reaction.[113] They proposed the existence of Ga$^+$ sites that can be protonated by proximal Brønsted acids to form [GaH]$_2^+$.

Bell and Lercher both claim [GaH]$_2^+$ is the active species for propane dehydrogenation, though there are differences in their proposed reaction mechanisms. This active site, however, is more probable for zeolites with low Si/Al ratio as it requires two anionic framework Al sites in close proximity.

Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts prepared via direct synthesis have been shown to enhance aromatics selectivity in alkane dehydrogenation reactions.[111-114] Jones and co-workers[39] developed a method using synthesis mixtures with 3-mercaptopropyl-trimethoxysilane (MPS) to generate gallosilicates with a high percentage of Ga Lewis acid sites occluded as extra-framework species into zeolite pores without directly forming covalent bonds with framework oxygens. The resulting gallosilicate catalyst (i.e. Ga-MFI in the absence of Al) enhanced rates of propane dehydrogenation compared to gallosilicates prepared by conventional methods. Shu and co-workers evaluated several Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts obtained via different methods (i.e. direct synthesis, ion exchange, impregnation, and physical mixing) on n-heptane aromatization.[115] They reported the Ga-ZSM-5 catalyst prepared by direct synthesis exhibited the highest BTX selectivity, which they attribute to enhanced Lewis acidity and the presumed mesoporosity incurred by the incorporation of framework Ga. Moreover, they hypothesized that both liquid-phase ion exchange and direct synthesis lead to Ga substitution in framework sites. On the contrary, Hsieh et al.[116] argued that Ga is less prone to be incorporated into the zeolite framework (compared to Al) based on their analysis of [Ga, Al]-ZSM-5 catalysts obtained via seeded synthesis.

Ga species supported on microporous materials can be difficult to characterize due to the complexity of zeolite topology and interactions with strong Brønsted acid sites. To this end, Scott and co-workers systematically examined nonporous catalysts (e.g. Ga(i-Bu), grafted onto γ-alumina and silica) for propane dehydrogenation wherein they showed that mononuclear alumina-supported Ga sites exhibit higher activity than silica-supported Ga sites,[117] and using a combination of high-field solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy and X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS), they showed that each Ga species has a tetrahedral coordination and resolved their location on oxide supports. For Ga-zeolites, the number of potential Ga species reported in literature (Scheme 1) includes the following: Ga$_2$O$_3$, Ga$, [GaO]$, [GaH]$^+$, [Ga(OH)]$^+$, [GaH(OH)]$^+$, and [GaH$_2$]$^+$. With the exception of Ga$^+$ these species contain Ga in its +3 oxidation state. For direct synthesis, Ga incorporated in framework sites (Scheme 1 A) may also lead to the generation of Brønsted acid sites.[118]

Herein, we investigate the speciation and sition of Ga in ZSM-5 catalysts, and correlate the synergy of Brønsted and Lewis acid sites on the ethylene DHA reaction. We systematically examine five Ga-ZSM-5 zeolite catalysts prepared via different treatments, including both direct synthesis and post-synthesis exchange. Using a combination of experimental techniques, including XAS and solid-state $^{27}$Al and $^{71}$Ga magic angle spinning (MAS) NMR spectroscopy, we distinguish Ga species with different oxidation states and coordination numbers. The catalytic performance of various Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts helps differentiate the roles of (extra-) framework Ga species. Experimental characterization and catalytic studies were coupled with density functional theory (DFT) calculations to assess the relative activities of different Ga and Al sites. Collectively, these findings highlight the challenges of elucidating Ga speciation, and the impact of Ga-ZSM-5 preparation on enhanced activity for the promotion of aromatics (i.e. BTX products).

**Results and Discussion**

Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts were prepared by three distinct methods of gallium occlusion. The first method is a direct synthesis adapted from a previous study[78] that places Ga in either extra-framework (EFW) or framework (FW) sites. Inductively coupled plasma analysis in combination with optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) reveals the product of direct synthesis contains a molar composition of Si:Al::Ga = 57.2:4.1:1.0. This sample is referred to herein as Ga-Z1. The second and third methods involved post-synthesis modifications to a commercial ZSM-5 (Zeolyst CBV 5524G, referred to as Z-rej) with nearly identical molar Si/Al ratio as that of Ga-Z1 (Table 1). In one approach we used solution ion exchange with Ga(NO$_3$)$_3$ to produce a product, referred to as Ga-Z2. In the second approach we used vapor-phase ex-
Elemental analysis of H-zeolite catalyst samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th>Composition</th>
<th>Al content [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Si/Al</td>
<td>Si/Ga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga-Z1</td>
<td>Direct synthesis</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga-Z2</td>
<td>Solution ion exchange</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga-Z3</td>
<td>Vapor phase exchange</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga-Z1H</td>
<td>Z1 with H2 treatment</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga-Z2H</td>
<td>Z2 with H2 treatment</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Z-ref | Commercial zeolite | 29 | – | 94 | 6 |

[a] Determined by ICP-OES; [b] Measured by 27Al MAS NMR spectra of hydrated zeolite materials (Figure S1); [c] Value of commercial zeolite CBV 5524G (Zeolyst) reported by Phadke et al. [11a]; [d] SEM images of samples reveal a spheroidal morphology with average particle sizes in the range of 300–500 nm (Figure S2).

change with GaCl₃, according to a protocol reported by Bell and co-workers [11a] (referred to as sample Ga-Z3). The molar compositions of samples Ga-Z2 and Ga-Z3 are both equal to Si:Al:Ga = 54:1:8:1.0.

The solution ion exchange method reportedly leads to a large fraction of Ga₂O₃ species deposited on the external surfaces of ZSM-5 [10, 20]. Using a previous approach [18a] to obtain more dispersed Ga species, samples Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z2 were treated in H₂ at 848 K and are referred to herein as Ga-Z1H and Ga-Z2H, respectively (note that the protocol for Ga-Z3 also involves H₂ treatment at 823 K). The aluminum speciation for each sample was determined using solid-state NMR (Figure S1) where peaks at 55 ppm and 0 ppm in 27Al MAS NMR spectra correspond to tetrahedral Al₄FW (framework Al) and octahedral Al₄FW (extra-framework Al), respectively [21]. The percentages of Al species for each sample are listed in Table 1, showing that Al speciation is not altered by either solution ion exchange or H₂ treatment; however, there is a 9% reduction in Al₄FW (with concomitant increase in Al₁FW) during Ga impregnation by chemical vapor-phase exchange, as observed for Ga-Z3 (compared to the parent Z-ref). This is likely due to the release of HCl during the decomposition of GaCl₃, which could facilitate dealumination of the zeolite framework.

Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns confirmed the structural integrity (MFI framework) of all calcined H-Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts (Figure S3) and the absence of impurities in Ga-Z1. It has been reported [10] that solution ion exchange can lead to the formation of crystalline Ga₂O₃ that is not visible in the PXRD pattern of Ga-Z2; however, samples prepared by ion exchange with higher Ga concentrations (Table S1) clearly show the presence of crystalline Ga₂O₃ by PXRD (i.e. peaks at 2θ = 21.6° and 37.1° in Figure S4) [21]. It has also been reported [10] that PXRD patterns can provide evidence of Ga incorporation in framework sites based on shifts in two characteristic MFI peaks, (501) and (303), when a larger Ga atom replaces a smaller Al atom. For all H-Ga-ZSM-5 samples in this study, these two peaks (at 2θ = 23.0° and 23.8°, respectively) exhibit no observable shifts compared to commercial zeolite, Z-ref (Figure S3). This seems to suggest the majority of Ga may be present as extra-framework species.

X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectroscopy was used to characterize the changes in the local structure and electronic state of Ga between samples Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z2 (a similar analysis of Ga-Z3 has been reported by Phadke et al. [11a] and is repeated in the Supporting Information). X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) data at the Ga K-edge (Figure 1A) show that the absorption edge energy is very similar between Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z2, while the main peak region is broadened for Ga-Z2. The absorption edge energy is defined here as the first inflection point of the XANES spectrum and is related to the charge state of the probed atoms. The charge state of Ga atoms in both samples is, effectively, +3 since the position of the absorption edge energy is at ca. 10376 eV for both samples, similar to the value of the reported standard Ga³⁺ species [11a]. The variation between XANES features in these two H-Ga-ZSM-5 samples is evidence of differences in their local environments.

Fourier transform magnitude of the k²-weighted extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectrum (Figure 1B) of Ga-Z2 features a shoulder near the 2 Å distance that is absent for the Ga-Z1 sample. Moreover, the first peak between 1 and 2 Å in the spectrum of Ga-Z2 is slightly shifted to higher distance compared to that of Ga-Z1. These observations, together with the large signal in the region of

![Figure 1](image-url)
2–4 Å in the spectrum of Ga-Z2, indicate the local environments around Ga atoms in these two zeolites are different. In particular, we observe better defined structure of more distant atomic species around Ga in Ga-Z2 compared to Ga-Z1, consistent with the hypothesis that GaO species dominate in the former sample, while Ga is in the zeolite framework in the latter one. To extract detailed local structure information from both samples, quantitative analysis of their EXAFS spectra was carried out. The fitting results (Table 2 and Figure S5) highlight distinct differences in the local environments around Ga atoms in these samples, in agreement with visual observations of XANES and EXAFS data (vide supra). The coordination number of the Ga–O bond in Ga-Z1 is close to four, consistent with a tetrahedral-coordination of Ga atoms with an effective Ga-O distance of 1.81 ± 0.01 Å. This value falls within the range reported in literature[214] and is close to the valus measured for Ga-Z2 and Ga-Z3 (Table S2). The best fit for Ga-Z2 involves two distinct Ga-O shells with interatomic distances of 1.90 ± 0.02 Å and 2.11 ± 0.08 Å. Such a split in the Ga-O distances is likely due to the distribution of Ga atoms between tetrahedral and octahedral sites.[22] We estimate the fraction of tetrahedral Ga sites in Ga-Z2 to be 80% (refer to the Supporting Information for detailed calculations). The peak at about 2.97 Å is attributed to Ga-Ga pairs.

| Table 2: Best fits of the structural parameters obtained from Ga K-edge EXAFS. |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Sample          | Pair            | N               | R [Å]           | σ² [Å²]         |
| Ga-Z1           | Ga-O            | 4.2 ± 0.4       | 1.81 ± 0.01     | 0.005 ± 0.001  |
| Ga-Z2           | Ga-O₁           | 3.4 ± 0.9       | 1.90 ± 0.02     | 0.006 ± 0.004  |
|                 | Ga-O₂           | 1.3 ± 0.8       | 2.11 ± 0.08     | 0.006 ± 0.004  |
|                 | Ga-Ga           | 8.5 ± 3.8       | 2.97 ± 0.03     | 0.017 ± 0.005  |

The effect of Ga-ZSM-5 sample preparation on the coordination (or local environment) of Ga species was assessed by solid-state NMR. Previous studies of ⁷¹Ga MAS NMR spectra generally assign peaks in the ranges 150–160 ppm and –7–12 ppm to tetrahedral (framework) Gaₓ₁₋₄₋₅ and octahedral (extra-framework) Gaₓ₋₁₋₄₋₅ (i.e., Ga(OH)ₓ), respectively.[24] However, an alternative interpretation from Dai et al.[25] is that the signal at 150–160 ppm is a tetrahedral coordination attributed to either Gaₓ₁₋₄₋₅ cations or Gaₓ₋₁₋₄₋₅ species such as Ga³⁺. [Ga(OH)ₓ]⁴⁺, or [GaO(OH)]⁻. Moreover, Gao et al.[26] assigned the peak at 58 ppm to highly dispersed Gaₓ₁₋₄₋₅ particles, and the peak at 190 ppm to cationic [GaO]³⁻ or its hydrous state [Ga(OH)]⁻ in the framework. The ⁷¹Ga MAS NMR spectra of all Ga-ZSM-5 samples in this study are shown in Figure 2. Samples Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z1H exhibit a single peak around 159 ppm (Figure 2A), indicating the majority of Ga species have a tetrahedral coordination. For the remaining samples (Figure 2B), the signal-to-noise ratio of spectra is relatively low due to the strong broadening effect of the oxide extra-framework Ga species.[26a] The Ga-Z2 spectrum contains two bands located at 159 and 102 ppm, respectively. Since EXAFS suggests 80% of the Ga sites in Ga-Z2 are tetrahedrally coordinated, the peak at 102 ppm could be assigned to distorted tetrahedral sites within extra-framework Ga or amorphous Gaₓ₁₋₄₋₅. After H₂ treatment, the peak located at 102 ppm disappears due to the formation of dispersed tetrahedral [Ga(X)]³⁺ (X = OH or H) species that can exchange with Bronsted acid sites. Indeed, the NMR spectrum for Ga-Z2H (Figure 2B) is similar to that of Ga-Z3 (i.e., single peak around 147 ppm), which is consistent with tetrahedrally-coordinated Ga reported by Bell.[21a] Direct comparison of these two spectra with that of Ga-Z1 provides evidence for the presence of framework Ga in the latter (although the exact percentage cannot be quantified). The presence of framework Ga in sample Ga-Z1 (and Ga-Z1H) is inferred from the large difference in signal-to-noise ratio compared to Ga-Z2 and Ga-Z3, despite all samples having nearly identical Ga concentration (Table 1). The presence of tetrahedrally-coordinated Gaₓ₁₋₄₋₅ leads to higher local symmetry (i.e., higher peak intensity, Figure S6), consistent with previous ⁷¹Ga NMR spectra of gallosilicates,[26b−c] whereas the asymmetrical environment of tetrahedral [Ga(X)]³⁺ species leads to lower signal-to-noise ratios.

The ⁷¹Ga MAS NMR spectra of samples Ga-Z1, -Z1H, -Z2H, and -Z3 indicate a predominance of tetrahedral Ga
species, which could be either [GaX]⁺ (Scheme 1E) or [GaH]⁺ (Scheme 1F). The relatively high Si/Al ratio of H-ZSM-5 samples suggests there are few paired Al sites, which would limit the number of [GaH]⁺ species; thus, we propose the majority of extra-framework sites are [GaX]⁺. Direct synthesis of Ga-Z1 generates [Ga(OH)₃]⁺ in the as-synthesized product. High temperature hydrogen treatment of sample Ga-Z1H is expected to result in sequential hydrogen exchange steps leading to the overall reaction

\[ [\text{Ga(OH)}]_3^+ + 2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow [\text{GaH}]_2^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \]

(1)

Comparison of XAFS data for Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z1H (Figure S7) reveals no shift in spectra. A similar analysis of Ga-Z2 and Ga-Z2H (Figure S8) reveals only subtle differences in XAFS spectra which may reflect the loss of distorted tetrahedral sites (consistent with \(^7\text{Ga}\) MAS NMR). Treatment of Ga-Z2 with \(\text{H}_2\) also has the potential to mobilize \(\text{Ga}_x\text{O}_y\) to generate dispersed [GaH]⁺ sites via a similar reaction,

\[ \text{Ga}_x\text{O}_y + x[\text{H}]^+ + (x/2 + y)\text{H}_2 \rightarrow x[\text{GaH}]_2^+ + y\text{H}_2\text{O} \]

(2)

An additional hydrogen exchange generates a Brønsted acid site and GaHₓ, which we consider to be the short-lived, mobile species during hydrogen treatment. DFT calculated free energy changes and activation barriers for the sequential transformation of [Ga(OH)₃]⁺ to GaHₓ are provided in Table S3. The final step of treatment involves exposure to \(\text{O}_2\) at high temperature, which reoxidizes sites to [Ga(OH)]⁺.

During catalyst testing, non-oxidative DHA of ethylene produces \(\text{H}_2\) to regenerate [GaH]⁺ species in situ, which we presume herein to be the active site for Lewis acid catalysis.

The catalytic performance of all H-Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts were compared in the ethylene DHA reaction using a packed bed reactor with a fixed space velocity (3000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹) and ethylene partial pressure (12.7 kPa). Reactions were performed at sub-complete ethylene conversion (ca. 80%) to assess catalyst deactivation and selectivity towards light olefins and aromatics. As shown in Figure 3A, isoinversion comparisons reveal the following order of aromatic selectivity: Ga-Z1H > Ga-Z1 ≈ Ga-Z2H > Ga-Z3 > Ga-Z2 > Z-ref. Commercial ZSM-5 (Z-ref), which lacks GaₓFW Lewis acid sites (LASs), exhibits the least aromatic selectivity (16%) owing to the presence of Brønsted acid sites (BASs) that preferentially direct the formation of alkanes (e.g. 13% butane) and olefins (e.g. 23% propylene, 19% butylenes). Among H-Ga-ZSM-5 catalysts, Ga-Z2 has the lowest aromatics selectivity owing to the presence of distorted [GaH]⁺ sites or GaₓOₚ species on the zeolite surface, which are reportedly inert sites for aromatic formation. The Ga-Z3 catalyst obtained via chemical vapor phase exchange produced an appreciable amount of aromatics (45%), suggesting the existence of well-dispersed GaₓFW species (i.e. isolated [GaH]⁺ sites substituting Brønsted acids as illustrated in Scheme 1E with T = Al). The catalyst prepared via direct synthesis (Ga-Z1) exhibits higher aromatics selectivity (52%), which can be correlated to the presence of tetrahedrally-coordinated Ga⁺ species. Analyses by XAFS and \(^{71}\text{Ga}\) MAS NMR cannot distinguish the fraction of tetrahedrally-coordinated Ga occupying framework and extra-framework sites, which are illustrated in Scheme 1A and E, respectively. One differentiating factor between samples Ga-Z3 and Ga-Z1 is that GaₓFW in the latter can be associated with either AlₓFW or GaₓFW in the framework. Another factor that must be considered is the potential impact of framework Ga on the acidity of BASs. Investigation of both scenarios by DFT modeling is described later.

Figure 3A compares product selectivities for specific light paraffins and olefins where the most notable differences observed among the catalysts are with respect to propylene
Comparisons were made at a fixed space velocity, where we observe nearly identical ethylene conversion at initial time on stream (Figure 3B), indicating all six catalysts have similar activity. Comparison of the rates of catalyst deactivation reveals two groups of similar stability: those with lower rates of deactivation (Ga-Z2, Ga-Z2H, and Z-ref) and those with 3.4-fold higher rates of deactivation (Ga-Z1, Ga-Z1H, and Ga-Z3). With respect to the accelerated rates of deactivation for Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z3, this may be attributed in part to their higher percentages of extra-framework Al (Table 1). For Ga-Z3 these species are the result of dealumination during H2 treatment, which leads to framework defects that are evident in XAFS analysis (Figure S9).

Hydrogen treatment leads to significant increases in aromatics production for both Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z2. Prior studies have shown that the reduction of Ga-zeolites in H2 at high temperature is essential to reduce GaOx (Eq. 2) to more dispersed Ga species. It has also been reported that reoxidation to the Ga3+ phase after dispersion can further enhance aromatic selectivity, indicating reoxidized Ga differs from the initial GaOx species. This is consistent with the observation of Ga-Z2 (containing GaOx species) producing fewer aromatics than Ga-Z2H (after H2 treatment). Indeed, the BTX selectivity increases from 17 to 39% (Figure 4), indicating a large shift to well-dispersed Ga3+ species, consistent with its NMR spectrum (Figure 2B). It was anticipated that Ga-Z3, which also contains Ga3+ species (Figure S9 and Table S2) and was treated with H2, would perform similarly to Ga-Z2H; however, we observe the former produces 7% less BTX. This may be attributed, in part, to the loss of framework Al in Ga-Z3 during chemical vapor phase exchange. An even more unexpected observation was the fact that H2 treatment of Ga-Z1 raises its BTX selectivity from 36 to 53% (Figure 4, sample Ga-Z1H), the highest among all samples tested. The 71Ga MAS NMR spectra for samples before and after treatment are identical (Figure 2A). Moreover, 17Al MAS NMR reveals no loss of framework Al species with H2 treatment, and only a small (ca. 2%) reduction in the amount of extra-framework Al (Table 1). The exact reasoning for the large increase in aromatics yield is not fully understood, but herein we put forth a hypothesis invoking preferential siting of BAS and LAS near AlFw and GaFw, noting that Ga-Z1 is the only sample that features GaFw sites.

Ethylene can potentially be activated on a BAS or LAS, and we present the most likely pathways for each case at the framework tetrahedral T12 site in Figure 5A (additional pathways explored by DFT are compiled in Table S5). Despite challenges in measuring or calculating intrinsic acid strengths, it has been experimentally and theoretically shown that AlFw results in a BAS with stronger intrinsic acidity than GaFw; therefore, the presence of GaFw in sample Ga-Z1 is expected to weaken the intrinsic strength of BAS, which can impact the catalytic mechanisms underlying ethylene DHA. To examine differences among heteroatom
sites, we explored the activation and oligomerization of ethylene to butene (a characteristic product of the DHA reaction) by means of periodic DFT calculations with van der Waals (vdW) corrections. To this end, we selected the T12 site of ZSM-5 as a representative BAS (and one of the most frequently studied in literature), located at the intersection of straight and sinusoidal channels in the MFI structure. The free energy diagram depicting the energies of reaction and activation barriers for each intermediate step for Al


2

and Ga

2

forces. One of the unexplained intermediates, resembling the activation heteroatoms in the T12 and T4 in the free and 2.10 eV for Ga extra-framework sites. T and Ga and but since complete at an Al site (labelled p in the T1, T2, T6, T7, T8, and p in the T11 positions. In contrast, the almost exclusively red rect- angles for Ga

FW

2

and Ga

FW

2

•

are visualized in Figure 5A. For comparison we also we built on the work by Bell and co-workers

in inaccessible pathways we considered for the activation of the formation of 1-butene with Al

and restoration of the BAS occurs by β-hydrogen elimination with an activation barrier of 0.16 and 0.31 eV for AlFW

and GaFW

, respectively (Figure S11, middle). The free activation barrier for this step was calculated to be 1.07 eV (AlFW

) and 1.45 eV (GaFW

) and is followed by an exergonic internal hydrogen transfer step. The formation of 2-butene and the almost exclusively red rectangles for GaFW

2

are the only marginally more activated. Overall, each BAS provides an accessible pathway to the activation and oligomerization of ethylene to butene; however, the barriers of all elementary steps are somewhat lower when the framework heteroatom is Al instead of Ga, suggesting that the BAS bound to AlFW

is more amenable to oligomerization or hydrocarbon upgrade reactions. This result is consistent with the higher intrinsic acidity of H-(Al)-ZSM-5 compared to H-(Ga)-ZSM-5.[30,31]

Zeolite samples Ga-Z1, -Z2, and -Z3 all contain GaFW

sites with Lewis acidity that affects the overall catalytic activity and product selectivity. To examine the role of GaFW

we built on the work by Bell and co-workers[18] to study the oligomerization of ethylene to 1-butene over [GaH

]2+

sites bound to framework AlFW

and GaFW

anionic sites. The reaction free energies and activation barriers of the accessible pathway for ethylene oligomerization for [GaH

]2+

(dotted line) are visualized in Figure 5A. For comparison we also include an analysis of Ga’ species, as well as various other inaccessible pathways we considered for the activation of ethylene in the Supporting Information (Figure S12 and Table S5). The activation of ethylene on [GaH

]2+

results in a [C2H4-GaH] intermediate, resembling the activation mechanism on the BAS, but with a lower ethylene activation free energy on the [GaH

]2+ LAS. For instance, calculations with AlFW

reveal an activation barrier of only 0.62 eV at the LAS compared to 1.54 eV at the BAS. In the case of GaFW

the free barrier at the LAS is only 0.61 eV, but 1.68 eV at the BAS. For both framework heteroatoms, the coupling to a second ethylene molecule to form [C2H4-GaH]2+ is exergonic and fast. Following this low energy pathway to C–C coupling on [GaH

]2+ is a β-hydride elimination step restoring the LAS and forming 1-butene. The free energy barriers we found were 2.26 eV for AlFW

and 2.10 eV for GaFW

. Given the large barrier of this final step, one might argue that it is rate-limiting. In that case, our results suggest that GaFW

is beneficial, given that the barrier to restore the GaFW-BAS is 0.16 eV lower than restoring the AlFW-BAS. This is again consistent with AlFW-BAS having a higher intrinsic acidity, and therefore rendering GaFW

the stronger congenial base.

Extra-framework GaFW

may play a critical role in increasing the selectivity to aromatics, but since complete aromatization pathways are complex and highly branched, it is not possible to rigorously examine them with DFT. Instead, we have calculated the binding free energies of various olefins and aromatics to BAS and [GaH

]2+ extra-framework sites located at AlFW

and GaFW

heteroatoms in the T12 and T4 positions (numerical values in Tables S6 and S7) representing tetrahedral (T) sites of the MFI crystal structure located within straight (i.e. intersection) and sinusoidal channels, respectively. These unsaturated hydrocarbons shown in Figure 5B have been detected in catalytic experiments (Figure 3), and their binding free energies show no significant sensitivity to the identity of the framework heteroatom. We observed, however, that binding to the [GaH

]2+ site in the T4 position located within the sinusoidal channel is highly unfavorable. In contrast, the difference between T4 and T12 when only a BAS is present, is much less pronounced (Figure S13). Hence, these calculations suggest the presence of [GaH

]2+ in sinusoidal channels alters diffusion characteristics, which in turn can impact shape selectivity by directing transport largely through less tortuous straight channels.

During H2 treatment we noted that extra-framework GaFW

becomes mobile and can be atomically dispersed to the formation of 1-butene with AlFW

association. This is again consistent with AlFW-BAS and GaFW-BAS having a higher intrinsic acidity, and therefore rendering GaFW

the stronger congenial base.

During H2 treatment we noted that extra-framework GaFW

becomes mobile and can be atomically dispersed to increase aromatics selectivity.[11] One of the unexplained observations in Figure 4 is the dramatic enhancement of aromatics selectivity over Ga-Z1 after H2 treatment. Here we hypothesize that the enhanced BTX selectivity is due to a redistribution of extra-framework [GaH

]2+ among available framework AlFW

and GaFW

sites. While our DFT results are inconclusive regarding the role of framework heteroatoms on selectivity, we aim to rationalize the substantial selectivity improvement observed for Ga-Z1H by calculating the free energies associated with swapping a proton at a GaFW

framework site (labelled as T) with [GaH

]2+ at an Al site (labelled as T), which is expressed in the following reaction

Here, we considered [GaH

]2+ to be the more likely GaFW

species under hydrogen treatment conditions. The ion-exchange energies for all possible T-site combinations are summarized in Figure 6, where blue rectangles indicate a preference for a [GaH

]2+ LAS located near framework GaFW

and a strong BAS near AlFW

. This arrangement is generally preferred for GaFW

in the T1, T2, T6, T7, T8, and T11 positions. In contrast, the almost exclusively red rectangles for GaFW

at T10, and their prevalence in the rows for...
Ga$_{fw}$ at T5, T9, and T12 positions suggests that a BAS is more likely on Ga$_{fw}$ in these locations. The corresponding calculated values are provided in Table S8. It is plausible that mobilizing Ga$_{efw}$ species during H$_2$ treatment can indeed alter the BAS/LAS site distribution, but without knowledge of the exact distribution of framework Al$_{fw}$ and Ga$_{fw}$ sites in sample Ga-Z1, it is not possible to draw a firm conclusion regarding the BAS/LAS distribution; however, the calculated BAS/LAS site preferences along with the demonstrated improvement of ethylene conversion and selectivity to aromatics of Ga-Z1H support the hypothesis that H$_2$ treatment of Ga-Z1 leads to a beneficial redistribution of BAS/LAS sites. It should also be noted that this is fully consistent with $^{71}$Ga MAS NMR and XAFS data (Figures 2 A and S7, respectively) showing no apparent change in spectra before and after H$_2$ treatment, which suggests that LAS speciation remains the same.

An underlying characteristic of catalysts Ga-Z1, -Z2H, and -Z3 is the presence of [GaH$_3$]$^+$ extra-framework LAS species, which is a likely explanation for their nearly identical performance in DHA of ethylene. LAS/Ga$_{fw}$ combinations can only be achieved in Ga-Z1 (the direct synthesis method) given its distinguishing attribute of having Ga$_{fw}$ heteroatoms substituted at framework sites. These sites may ultimately be responsible for improved BTX selectivity, but conclusive evidence remains elusive. The notable improvement of Ga-Z1 performance after H$_2$ treatment (sample Ga-Z1H) can be rationalized by the calculated differences in stability for forming BAS and LAS sites near Al$_{fw}$ and Ga$_{fw}$ sites. It is plausible that the high temperature of H$_2$ treatment coupled with the mobility of [GaH$_3$]$^+$ species can lead to this exchange of sites; however, in order for this to be true, it implies that direct synthesis of Ga-Z1 places an appreciable fraction of extra-framework Ga$_{efw}$ at locations that are on average less energetically favorable. Although the exact location and quantity of framework and extra-framework Ga sites cannot easily be resolved, it is frequently reported that zeolite synthesis produces metastable, or kinetically trapped, structures; and with sufficiently high temperature it is possible to promote interzeolite transformations from the initial structure to one that is more thermodynamically stable.$^{[33]}$ A similar phenomenon may occur for Ga$_{efw}$ species during H$_2$ treatment to result in a more energetically favorable distribution of sites. This hypothesis, although unverifiable by the techniques used in this study, is consistent with experimental and modeling results, and thus is a viable explanation for the superior performance of Ga-Z1H.

**Conclusion**

We present a direct synthesis method to introduce well-dispersed extra-framework Ga$^{3+}$ Lewis acid sites without the need for additional post-synthetic treatments (i.e. solution ion exchange or chemical vapor deposition). A combination of advanced characterization techniques such as XAFS and solid-state NMR spectroscopy indicates that framework Ga$_{fw}$ and tetrahedrally-coordinated extra-framework Ga$_{efw}$ sites can be simultaneously generated via this direct synthesis method. We also investigate the roles of Ga speciation in ZSM-5 prepared by three distinct methods, direct synthesis (Ga-Z1), solution ion exchange (Ga-Z2), and chemical vapor-phase exchange (Ga-Z3), to identify the structure and catalytic function of different Ga sites. We have shown that any type of Ga$_{efw}$ Lewis site can promote the formation of BTX with a total selectivity as high as 53.6%, whereas the BTX selectivity is only 10.3% for commercial H-ZSM-5 at comparable ethylene conversion. Isocconversion comparisons further reveal the following order of aromatic selectivity: Ga-Z1 > Ga-Z3 > Ga-Z2, indicating the Ga Lewis sites and the existence of framework Ga$_{fw}$ species in Ga-Z1 catalyst lead to superior catalytic performance and promote the formation of aromatics. XAFS and NMR measurements both indicate Ga-Z2 prepared via solution ion exchange contains a large amount of either distorted [GaX$_2$]$^+$ or GaO$_4$ species on the external zeolite surface, suggesting that these species are not the most active Lewis sites for aromatics promotion.

We further explore the effect of H$_2$ treatment on Ga-Z1 and Ga-Z2 and directly compare their selectivity with Ga-Z3, which was obtained via chemical vapor-phase exchange involving H$_2$ treatment. For both treated Ga-Z1H and Ga-Z2H catalysts, we observed increased BTX selectivity, but the improvement was attributed to two different phenomena: For Ga-Z2 the H$_2$ treatment disperses inactive Ga to active [GaH$_3$]$^+$ species, while for Ga-Z1 the H$_2$ treatment is believed to redistribute Brønsted acid protons to Al$_{fw}$ and [GaH$_3$]$^+$ to select Ga$_{fw}$ sites. The Brønsted and Lewis acid site redistribution is supported by DFT simulations, which also suggest that stronger H$^+/Al_{fw}$ sites lower barriers for ethylene dimerization over BAS, while the stronger conjugated base sites with Ga$_{fw}$ may favor slow deprotonation steps. DFT calculations also indicate possible changes in diffusion characteristics with placement of Ga$_{efw}$ in sinusoidal channels, which may alter shape selectivity. Jointly, these results would explain the exceptional activity and selectivity to aromatics observed for the Ga-Z1H sample. To our knowledge, few studies have considered the possibility of directing
Lewis acid siting in zeolites (i.e. the majority focus on Al\textsubscript{2}W siting and distribution\cite{1}). Our findings indicate that if heteroatoms (such as Ga) can be selectively placed at specific T sites within zeolites, this would afford the opportunity to direct the spatial distribution of Lewis acid sites for bifunctional catalysis.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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