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1 **Pd-Ag/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts prepared by galvanic displacement for**
2 **selective hydrogenation of acetylene in excess ethylene**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 A series of bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts were prepared by galvanic displacement with
10 increasing loadings of Pd on Ag. The catalysts were characterized by atomic absorption
11 spectroscopy, Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy of CO adsorption and X-ray photoelectron
12 spectroscopy. An actual Pd deposition beyond the theoretical limit for galvanic displacement
13 suggested that the large difference in surface free energy for Pd and Ag resulted in Pd diffusion
14 into the bulk of Ag particles, or Ag diffusion to the surface to provide fresh Ag atoms for further
15 galvanic displacement. Characterization results indicated that on this series of catalysts the Pd
16 atoms are distributed in very small ensembles or possibly even atomically on the Ag surface, and
17 there was a transfer of electrons from Pd to Ag at all Pd loadings. For comparison, the catalysts
18 were also evaluated for the selective hydrogenation of acetylene in excess ethylene at the
19 conditions used in our previous study of the reverse Ag-Pd/SiO₂ catalysts. The selectivities for
20 C₂H₄ formation remained high and constant due to the geometric effects that Pd atom existed as
21 small ensembles. However, the electronic effects resulted in lower selectivities for C₂H₄
22 formation than those from the catalysts with high coverage of Ag on Pd.

23 **Keywords:** galvanic displacement; hydrogenation; acetylene; bimetallic catalysts; Pd-Ag.

24

1 1. Introduction

2 It has long been recognized that Pd provides superior performance on both activity and
3 selectivity for the hydrogenation of acetylene to ethylene.^{1,2} However, at high acetylene
4 conversion the formation of ethane, C₄ and C₆ hydrocarbons is accelerated, which leads to the
5 formation of carbonaceous residues that decrease the catalyst lifetime. To increase the selectivity
6 to ethylene, Pd-based catalysts are usually modified with promoters, such as Ag, Ni, Cu, and K
7 etc.³⁻⁶ However, the bimetallic effects of the above additives are still not well understood,
8 probably due to the conventional catalyst preparation methods that result in both monometallic
9 and bimetallic particles with varying compositions. In our previous work⁷, we used electroless
10 deposition (ED)⁸⁻¹² to prepare a series of Ag- and Au-Pd/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts with selective
11 and controlled coverages of Ag and Au on Pd. The similar performance trends of enhanced
12 selectivity of acetylene to ethylene at high coverages for Ag- and Au-Pd/SiO₂ suggested that the
13 bimetallic effect for these catalysts was geometric and not electronic in nature. That is, at high
14 coverages with smaller ensembles of Pd sites, acetylene is weakly adsorbed as a π -bonded
15 species, which favors the hydrogenation to ethylene. On the other hand, acetylene is bonded in a
16 multi- σ mode on larger ensembles of Pd and desorbs only as fully hydrogenated C₂H₆. Therefore,
17 inspired by these previous results, the primary goal of this work was to prepare a series of
18 reverse bimetallic catalysts (*i.e.* where Pd is deposited onto the Ag surface) in order to further
19 explore the nature of bimetallic effects for the selective hydrogenation of acetylene.

20 For the synthesis of Pd-Ag bimetallic catalysts, galvanic displacement (GD) of Ag⁰ by
21 Pd²⁺ salts has been chosen. GD occurs when a base material is displaced by a metallic ion in
22 solution that has a higher reduction potential than the displaced metal ion.¹³⁻¹⁵ The base material
23 is dissolved into the solution while the metallic ions in the solution are reduced on the surface of

1 the base material. This method is different from ED, in that GD does not require chemical
2 reducing agents since the base metal itself already serves as the reducing agent. However, this
3 redox reaction is usually limited by the accessibility of the base metal, resulting in passivation of
4 the reaction when the entire surface of the base metal is covered.¹⁴

5 Over the past decade, GD has been widely used for the development of metal
6 nanostructures with highly active surfaces for a variety of applications such as
7 electrocatalysts^{13,16-22}, biomedicine¹⁵, functional coatings^{23,24}, and deposition of metals on
8 semiconductors^{14,25}. Xia *et al.*^{15,26-28} have thoroughly studied the mechanism of GD for tuning
9 the properties of metal nanostructures through adjustment of composition, size, shape and
10 morphology. Complex hollow nanostructures of Pd-Ir, Au-Ag, Pd-Ag, and Pt-Ag have been
11 generated with potential for many applications. Yan *et al.*^{13,20-22} also developed electrocatalysts
12 with Pd-Au, Pt-Cu, Pt-Pd nanotubes or nanowires prepared by GD for the oxygen reduction and
13 methanol oxidation reactions. Lee *et al.*¹⁷⁻¹⁹ have investigated the performance of different forms
14 of hollow and porous Pd-Ag or Pt-Ag nanomaterials prepared by GD as electrocatalysts for the
15 oxygen reduction reaction. Maboudian and Carraro^{14,23-25} have used GD to coat Au, Pt, Ag and
16 Cu onto Si in thin film or nanoparticle forms for surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy, and for
17 improved interfacial behavior of semiconductors.

18 Although GD has been widely used in synthesizing electrocatalysts, it has had little
19 application for the development of catalysts used in hydrogenation reactions. Sykes *et al.*²⁹
20 investigated the partial hydrogenation of phenylacetylene using PdCu alloy nanoparticles
21 prepared by GD, which showed improvement in activity and selectivity compared to the
22 corresponding monometallic catalysts. Li *et al.*³⁰ demonstrated that Pd/Co-B catalysts prepared
23 by GD were extremely active and more selective than monometallic Pd and a Co-B amorphous

1 alloy for liquid-phase hydrogenation of 2-ethyl-2-hexenaldehyde to 2-ethyl-1-hexanol. Zhou *et*
2 *al.*³¹ used modified GD to prepare hollow Pt-Ni alloy nanospheres for liquid phase
3 hydrogenation of p-chloronitrobenzene to p-chloroaniline. Such materials showed much higher
4 activity, enhanced selectivity, and better durability than solid Pt nanoparticles.

5 In the present case, to be comparable with our previous work⁷, SiO₂-supported Ag has
6 been chosen as the base material for the preparation of various levels of Pd deposited by GD.
7 From examination of standard reduction potentials, it is thermodynamically favorable for Pd²⁺
8 reduction to occur and to deposit on the Ag surface while Ag⁰ is oxidized to Ag⁺ ($\text{Pd}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- =$
9 Pd^0 , $E^\circ = 0.915\text{V}$; $\text{Ag}^+ + \text{e}^- = \text{Ag}^0$, $E^\circ = 0.799\text{V}$). These bimetallic compositions have been
10 characterized by Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy of CO adsorption and X-ray
11 photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS); catalysts have also been evaluated for the selective
12 hydrogenation of acetylene in excess ethylene at the conditions used in our previous publication⁷.
13 The results indicate that GD of Pd readily occurs but that catalyst surfaces are enriched in Ag
14 due to diffusion of the Pd and/or the Ag components. Selectivity of acetylene hydrogenation is
15 increased when small ensembles of Pd are located on the Ag surface.

16

17 2. Experimental

18 2.1. Catalyst preparation

19 The base material was 2.0 wt% Ag/SiO₂ prepared by incipient wetness using silver nitrate
20 (AgNO₃, 99.9+%, Alfa Aesar) dissolved in de-ionized water and added to AEROSIL® OX 50
21 hydrophilic, fumed silica (Evonik Degussa Corporation) with a specific surface area of 50 ± 15
22 m²/g. The fresh catalyst was then dried in a rotary evaporator at 60 °C under vacuum, and

1 calcined at 300 °C by flowing air for 2 h and reduced at 300 °C by flowing 10% H₂/He for 2 h in
2 a horizontal furnace.

3 Controlled loadings of Pd were added to the silica-supported Ag surface by galvanic
4 displacement. Briefly, palladium nitrate (Pd(NO₃)₂, 99.9%, Alfa Aesar) dissolved in 5% nitric
5 acid (HNO₃, 68.0 – 70.0%, BDH) was used as the metal source of Pd²⁺. Initial concentrations of
6 the metal salts were selected based on the desired, theoretical coverage of Pd on Ag, assuming
7 monolayer deposition and 1:1 surface stoichiometry of Pd on Ag. The volume of the galvanic
8 displacement bath was 100 mL for each gram of the monometallic catalyst. The deposition of Pd
9 was conducted at room temperature in disposable polyethylene beakers to prevent cross-
10 contamination. The experiments were carried out with stirring on a magnetic stirring plate to
11 ensure there were no external mass transfer limitations. A concentrated solution of nitric acid
12 was added dropwise to the bath to maintain its pH at ~2.0 ± 0.1 during the entire experiment; a
13 pH probe was immersed in the galvanic displacement bath to monitor the pH throughout the 1 h
14 reaction time. Baths were prepared by adding all the required components except the
15 monometallic Ag/SiO₂ catalyst. Addition of 1.0 g monometallic Ag/SiO₂ catalyst initiated the
16 deposition. Liquid aliquots (≤ 1 mL) were periodically taken at different time intervals and
17 filtered using 0.2 μm PTFE membrane syringe filters to remove catalyst particles. These liquid
18 samples for monitoring the concentrations of Pd²⁺ remaining and Ag⁺ displaced in the bath were
19 diluted separately by adding 10 vol% hydrochloric acid (HCl, 36.5 – 38.0%, BDH) and 0.5%
20 lanthanum chloride (LaCl₃, 99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich) for Pd²⁺, and 5 vol% HNO₃ for Ag⁺, and
21 then analyzed by atomic absorption spectroscopy(AAS, PerkinElmer AAnalyst 400). After 1 h of
22 reaction time, the solution was filtered and the filtrate was washed thoroughly with 2 L of 18.2
23 MΩ-cm de-ionized water (Thermo Scientific Barnstead Nanopure Ultrapure Water System) to

1 remove all soluble salts. The catalyst was then dried *in vacuo* at room temperature and stored at
2 ambient conditions. Thus, a complete series of Pd-Ag/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts was prepared
3 with varying weight loadings of Pd exchanged on the Ag surface.

4

5 **2.2. Catalyst characterization**

6 The concentration of Ag surface sites for the base 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ catalyst was
7 determined via chemisorption using hydrogen pulse titration of oxygen pre-covered Ag sites at
8 170 °C, as developed by Vannice³². Chemisorption was performed using a Micromeritics
9 Autochem II 2920 automated chemisorption analyzer. The sample was reduced at 250 °C in 10%
10 H₂/balance Ar for 2 h and then purged with pure Ar for 30 min, before cooling to 170 °C in
11 flowing Ar. Next, 10% O₂/balance He was passed over the catalyst for 30 min at 170 °C to form
12 Ag-O surface species before being purged with pure Ar for 30 min to remove residual, gas phase
13 oxygen and oxygen weakly adsorbed on the support. Finally, 10% H₂/balance Ar was dosed at
14 170 °C until all surface Ag-O species reacted with hydrogen to form water and Ag⁰ sites. For
15 each Ag atom, a single H₂ molecule is consumed; hydrogen consumption was quantitatively
16 measured using a high sensitivity thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

17 Fourier transfer infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy of CO adsorption was performed by using a
18 Thermo Electron Nicolet Nexus 4700 spectrometer with a liquid nitrogen-cooled MCT-B
19 (mercury-cadmium-telluride B) detector. Approximately 0.030 g catalyst was pressed into a self-
20 supporting pellet with 12 mm diameter and then fixed in a sample holder that was placed in the
21 middle of a temperature controlled, cylindrical flow cell. All samples were pretreated *in situ* at
22 200 °C in flowing 10% H₂/balance He for 2 h followed by flowing He for 30 min before cooling
23 to room temperature in He. For each sample, a background spectrum in flowing He was first

1 taken and subtracted from all subsequent spectra. The sample was exposed to 1% CO/balance He
2 for 30 min followed by a flow of pure He to remove any gas phase and reversibly-adsorbed CO.
3 Spectra were collected continuously for 1 h in single beam absorbance mode with a resolution of
4 4 cm^{-1} . Spectra were baseline corrected and smoothed as needed to remove the noise due to
5 water.

6 X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed using a Kratos
7 Axis Ultra DLD system with a hemispherical energy analyzer and a monochromatic Al $K\alpha$
8 source operated at 15 keV and 150 W. The X-rays were incident at an angle of 45° with respect
9 to the surface normal and the pass energy was fixed at 40 eV for the detailed scans. The powder
10 samples were pressed into a cup of Mo stub and mounted in a catalysis cell that was attached to
11 the XPS main chamber for *in situ* sample pretreatment. After the sample was reduced at $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
12 for 2 h, it was transferred into the UHV chamber for XPS analysis without exposure to air. A
13 charge neutralizer was applied to compensate the residual positive charge present on the non-
14 conductive silica support during photoemission. The Si 2p binding energy was used as a
15 reference and was compared to the literature value of 103.3 eV. The same difference (charging
16 correction) in eV was applied to all other XPS peaks to give corrected binding energy of Ag 3d
17 and Pd 3d for both monometallic and bimetallic catalysts. For comparison, a reduced and
18 commercially-available 2 wt% Pd/SiO₂ (BASF) was used as reference for the binding energy of
19 Pd⁰.

21 **2.3. Catalyst evaluation**

22 The monometallic Ag/SiO₂ and the series of bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts were
23 evaluated for selective hydrogenation of acetylene in the presence of excess ethylene. Catalysts

1 were evaluated in a single pass, 0.19 in ID, packed bed, tubular reactor (316 stainless steel). The
2 reactor was encased in a 1.0 in OD, jacketed shell with liquid inlet and exit ports at the bottom
3 and top of the shell, respectively, which was connected to an ethylene glycol/H₂O recirculation
4 bath to maintain isothermal behavior at 65 °C for this highly exothermic reaction. The reactor
5 was wrapped with heating tape outside the jacket to heat the reactor to 200 °C when the catalyst
6 was pretreated *in situ*. In all evaluations, the reactor was loaded with 0.050 g of catalyst to form
7 a catalyst bed that was supported on glass wool in the middle of the reactor. A thermocouple was
8 inserted into the catalyst bed to accurately monitor the reaction temperature and to ensure
9 isothermal behavior. All catalysts were pretreated *in situ* at 200 °C in flowing 10% H₂/balance
10 He for 2 h before being cooled to 65°C for evaluation.

11 All gas flows were maintained by mass flow controllers. To roughly approximate the tail-
12 end feed of an ethylene cracker, the reaction feed stream for catalyst screening consisted of 1%
13 C₂H₂, 20% C₂H₄, 5% H₂, balance He at a total flow rate of 50 SCCM corresponding to a GHSV
14 value of $6.0 \times 10^5 \text{ h}^{-1}$. Acetylene at 1% concentration was added from a pre-mixed cylinder of 10%
15 C₂H₂/He by making the proper dilution. Both reaction feed and product streams were evaluated
16 using an automated, on-line Hewlett-Packard 5890 Series II gas chromatograph using flame
17 ionization detection. The feed and product analyses were typically made every 1.5 h. In addition
18 to C₂H₂, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆, a number of C₄ hydrocarbons (n-butane, 1-butene, cis-2-butene, trans-
19 2-butene, and 1,3-butadiene) were identified and quantitatively analyzed. These products can be
20 considered as precursors to the “green oil” or C₂ oligomers commonly observed during industrial
21 operation. All C₄ products were combined to give a total product and rates of formation that were
22 normalized to C₂ feeds, *i.e.*, the molar quantities of C₄ products were multiplied by 2. All
23 catalysts exhibited high, initial activities that underwent varying degrees of deactivation for the

1 approximately first 20 h on line. All the summary reaction data reported here were based on
 2 stable catalyst performance after 20 h on line to eliminate transient behavior. Similar
 3 deactivation trends have been observed by others and have been attributed to carbon-based
 4 fouling due to C₂H₂ oligomers on fresh catalyst surfaces.¹

5 Conversion of C₂H₂ and selectivity of C₂H₂ to C₂H₄, C₂H₆ and C₄s were also defined in
 6 the same manner as our previous work⁷ for consistency and comparison:

$$\text{Conversion of C}_2\text{H}_2 = \frac{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted}}{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ (in)}}$$

$$\text{Selectivity of C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ to C}_2\text{H}_4 = \frac{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted}}{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ formed} + \text{C}_4\text{s formed} \times 2}$$

$$\text{Selectivity of C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ to C}_2\text{H}_6 = \frac{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ formed}}{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ formed} + \text{C}_4\text{s formed} \times 2}$$

$$\text{Selectivity of C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ to C}_4\text{s} = \frac{\text{C}_4\text{s formed} \times 2}{\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted} + \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ formed} + \text{C}_4\text{s formed} \times 2}$$

$$\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ reacted} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ (in)} - \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ (out)}$$

$$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ formed} = \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ (out)} - \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 \text{ (in)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C}_4\text{s formed} = & \text{n-C}_4\text{H}_{10} \text{ (out)} + \text{t-2-C}_4\text{H}_8 \text{ (out)} + \text{1-C}_4\text{H}_8 \text{ (out)} + \text{c-2-C}_4\text{H}_8 \text{ (out)} \\ & + \text{1,3-C}_4\text{H}_6 \text{ (out)} \end{aligned}$$

7 where (in) and (out) represent the feed stream and the product stream, respectively. This method
 8 of calculation cannot accurately be used for C₂H₄ hydrogenation, since C₂H₄ is a reaction
 9 product from selective C₂H₂ hydrogenation, and is also present in great excess as a feed
 10 component, making gas chromatographic analysis inaccurate.

1 3. Results and discussion

2 Silver dispersion and surface sites were measured for the base 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ material
3 prepared by incipient wetness. From chemisorption using H₂ titration of O-precovered Ag sites at
4 170 °C (H₂ titration uptake curves shown in Fig. S1 in Supplementary Information), the average
5 Ag dispersion was 4.9%, which corresponds to an average Ag particle size of 23.8 nm and $5.52 \times$
6 10^{18} Ag surface sites per gram of catalyst, assuming spherical particle shape. This concentration
7 of Ag surface sites was then used to calculate the theoretical coverage of Pd on Ag during GD.
8 For further characterization, powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) on 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ was performed
9 and the profile was shown in Fig. S2 in Supplementary Information. The Ag particle size
10 obtained from refinement of the XRD pattern was 19.6 nm, which is in good agreement with the
11 chemisorption result.

12 The formation of true bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts prepared by GD requires that the
13 Pd²⁺ cations should only react with Ag sites and not be adsorbed on the silica support. To prevent
14 the unwanted strong electrostatic adsorption of Pd²⁺ cations onto silica, the pH of the galvanic
15 displacement bath should be maintained below the point of zero charge (PZC) of the support
16 where the SiO₂ surface is positively charged and cannot adsorb cations.^{33,34} The PZC of the silica
17 support used in this study was ~ pH 3.5, so the pH of the bath was maintained at 2.0 ± 0.1 . The
18 blank experiment with a bath of Pd²⁺ and silica support at pH 2 was conducted, and it can be
19 seen (Fig. S3 in Supplementary Information) that there was no observed physisorption of Pd²⁺ on
20 the silica support under this condition. On the other hand, at this condition it is
21 thermodynamically favorable for Pd²⁺ reduction to occur by oxidation of Ag⁰ to Ag⁺. However,
22 when the reaction was conducted in the pH 2 solution containing HNO₃, it was found that Ag⁰
23 metal might be not only displaced by Pd²⁺ but also be oxidized by HNO₃. Thus, the dissolution

1 of Ag metal from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ in pH 2 HNO₃ solution was investigated prior to the GD
2 experiments. From Fig. 1, it can be seen that the amount of Ag dissolution increased
3 asymptotically with time to approximately 20 μmoles/g cat, or approximately 10% of the total
4 Ag content dissolved within 1 h. The limiting value of 20 μmoles/g cat also suggests that only
5 some of the Ag is susceptible to dissolution, such as those Ag atoms existing at corners and
6 edges of 23.8 nm Ag particles. Therefore, to determine the concentration of displaced Ag⁺ from
7 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ due to GD, the amount of Ag⁺ from HNO₃-facilitated Ag dissolution was
8 subtracted from the total solution concentration of Ag⁺. The remaining amount of Ag⁺ was
9 labeled as “corrected Ag⁺” in figures and tables.

10 A series of bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts were prepared with increasing loadings of Pd
11 on Ag. The time-dependent metal displacement profiles are illustrated in Fig. 2. Both the
12 concentrations of deposited Pd²⁺ and corrected displaced Ag⁺ were monitored during the
13 experiments. For rigorous GD, the ratio of deposited Pd²⁺/displaced Ag⁺ is 1:2 for the reaction
14 $\text{Pd}^{2+} + 2\text{Ag}^0 \rightarrow \text{Pd}^0 + 2\text{Ag}^+$. The Pd coverage should then be limited to 0.5 monolayers on Ag,
15 since two Ag surface atoms are required for each Pd²⁺ deposited. However, the 0.03, 0.09, 0.28,
16 and 0.32 wt% Pd-Ag samples shown in Fig. 2A correspond to 0.3, 0.9, 2.9, and 3.3 theoretical
17 monolayers coverage on Ag, when Ag dissolution is not taken into account. The analyzed
18 compositions of the catalysts are summarized in Table 1 and indicate that for the higher Pd
19 loadings substantial loss of Ag has occurred, primarily by galvanic displacement (dissolution of
20 Ag⁺ in the acidic solution is less important for the higher Pd loadings). For the samples
21 designated as 0.39 and 0.44 wt% Pd, the molar ratios of [Ag]/[Pd] are only about 2.5,
22 corresponding to a bulk empirical formula of Ag_{0.7}Pd_{0.3}. Thus, extensive mixing of Ag and Pd in
23 the bimetallic particles has occurred.

1 The increased Pd deposition beyond the theoretical limit for GD indicates one of two
2 possibilities. First, there were perhaps defects on the Ag surface that permitted access of Pd²⁺ to
3 more Ag metal sites in the sub-surface region. Alternatively, there was diffusion of Pd into the
4 bulk of Ag particles, or more likely, migration of Ag to the surface. Indeed, the surface free
5 energy of Ag metal is lower than that of Pd metal based on calculated and experimental results
6 from others.³⁵⁻³⁸ Mezey³⁷ reported surface free energies (SFE) of 2043 and 1302 ergs/cm² for Pd
7 and Ag metallic surfaces at 298 K, respectively, indicating that it is thermodynamically preferred
8 for Ag to diffuse to the surface of a Ag-Pd bimetallic particle. Tang³⁸ has also calculated the SFE
9 values of specific Ag facets and estimated the free energies of the two most common facets of
10 Ag particles, the (111) and (100) surfaces, are 881 and 948 ergs/cm², further showing the
11 thermodynamic favorability for Ag diffusion to the surface of Pd-Ag bimetallic particles. In
12 support of the first possibility, Xia *et al.*³⁹ reported that when Na₂PdCl₄ was added to a
13 suspension of Ag nanocubes, etch pits developed on the surfaces of the nanocubes, primarily at
14 the corners. Oxidation within the etch pits removed Ag (as Ag⁺) from the interior rather than the
15 surface of the nanocubes to simultaneously reduce Pd on the exterior of the Ag nanocubes.
16 Although the supported Ag particles in this study likely exist as spherical particles, there are still
17 corners and edges that might provide etch pits for access to the interior of the Ag particles.
18 However, the more likely explanation is that the large difference in SFE values for Ag and Pd
19 result in Ag diffusion to the surface to provide fresh Ag atoms for galvanic displacement with
20 Pd²⁺.

21 It can be seen in Fig. 2A that the displacement reaction is initially first order in Pd²⁺, but
22 as the Ag surface becomes depleted the rate of displacement decreases. Explicit plots of first
23 order reaction for Pd²⁺ disappearance vs. time for 0.09 – 0.32 wt% Pd-Ag samples are shown in

1 Fig. S4 in Supplementary Information. Fig. 2B shows, as mentioned earlier, the concentration of
2 corrected Ag^+ , which is the actual amount of the galvanically-displaced Ag^+ . The decrease in
3 Pd^{2+} and increase in corrected Ag^+ in the solution confirm that GD does occur. For the 0.32 wt%
4 Pd-Ag sample the reaction was conducted with a much higher initial concentration of Pd^{2+} in an
5 attempt to achieve more deposition. However, Pd^{2+} deposition ceased after around 30 min,
6 leaving more than 20 $\mu\text{moles Pd}^{2+}/\text{g cat}$ in solution to give a similar amount of deposition as the
7 0.28 wt% Pd-Ag sample, indicating that galvanic displacement has reached an upper limit and is
8 not kinetically dependent on the concentration of Pd^{2+} remaining in solution. To determine
9 whether higher temperatures increased displacement, bath temperatures of 50 and 75 °C were
10 examined and the corresponding kinetic curves of deposited Pd^{2+} and displaced Ag^+ are shown in
11 Fig. 3A and Fig. 3B, respectively. The results shows that galvanic displacement increased at
12 higher temperatures, suggesting that activated diffusion of Ag to the surface occurred during GD,
13 again due to differences in the surface free energies of Ag and Pd.

14 To determine the concentrations of surface Pd on Ag, the standard $\text{H}_2\text{-O}_2$ titration at
15 40 °C used for Pd metal^{7,8} (see procedures in Supplementary Information) was conducted for all
16 samples. Titration pulse curves of H_2 for all samples are shown in Fig. S5. For the highest Pd
17 weight loading sample (0.44 wt% Pd-Ag), 2.49×10^{19} Pd atoms/g cat were deposited on the Ag
18 surface. However, there was no significant H_2 uptake for this sample as well as for all other
19 samples, suggesting that the surface was highly enriched with Ag. This is inconsistent with the
20 observation that during the preparation of samples with high Pd weight loadings, the GD reaction
21 stopped suggesting there were no exposed Ag atoms. Such contradictory results might be caused
22 by the pretreatment step during the chemisorption. The 2 h reduction at 200 °C for Pd-Ag
23 samples may cause Ag atoms with lower surface energy to move from the bulk to the surface or

1 possibly drive Pd atoms with higher surface energy into the subsurface of Ag. The effects are the
2 same; Ag becomes enriched at the surface of the bimetallic particle. The Pd-Ag system is a well-
3 known binary alloy⁴⁰ and such migration of Pd into the bulk and/or Ag moving to the surface
4 may result in the formation of a Pd-Ag alloy near the catalyst surface.

5 To explore further the distribution of Pd atoms on the Ag surface, FTIR spectroscopy of
6 CO adsorption at room temperature was conducted on the *in situ* reduced, monometallic Ag/SiO₂
7 and bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts. Representative spectra for the different Pd loadings are
8 shown in Fig. 4. There were no CO vibrations observed for Ag/SiO₂ sample, which is in
9 agreement with the observations of Rodriguez *et al.*⁴¹ that Ag⁰ is inactive for CO adsorption. The
10 FTIR spectra of the CO adsorption on the commercial 1.85 wt% Pd/SiO₂ catalyst was previously
11 published by our group.¹² For Pd-Ag/SiO₂ samples, a single CO stretching band was observed in
12 the 2000-2100 cm⁻¹ region with the peak centered at approximately 2046 cm⁻¹, which was
13 attributed to linearly adsorbed CO on fully reduced Pd sites^{12,42,43}. However, bridge-bond CO
14 between 1800-2000 cm⁻¹ was not observed. This result indicates that some surface Pd is present
15 and that the Pd atoms are distributed in very small ensembles, possibly even atomically, on the
16 Ag surface. The scarcity of Pd sites may also indicate that the 200 °C reduction treatment
17 contributes to a Ag-rich surface, either by diffusion of Pd to into the bulk or migration of the Ag
18 to the surface, to leave only a scattered distribution of Pd atoms on the surface. However, the
19 much lower value of SFE for Ag suggests that subsurface Ag atoms migrate to the surface,
20 covering the Pd atoms to give a Ag-enriched bimetallic surface. The peak intensity increases
21 gradually with increasing Pd weight loadings, indicating that the bulk particles become more
22 saturated with Pd atoms at higher weight loadings and that more Pd atoms remain exposed on the
23 surface. It is also possible that exposure to CO for the FTIR experiments may cause Pd atoms to

1 migrate to the surface of the catalyst due to the high heat of adsorption for CO on Pd⁴⁴; however,
2 the Pd-catalyzed activity of these compositions for C₂H₂ hydrogenation (later point in this
3 manuscript) suggest the surface Pd sites were initially present, but too low for accurate
4 chemisorption.

5 In addition to changes in peak intensity, shifts in vibrational band positions were
6 observed with addition of Pd to Ag. Typically, CO coverages increase with more Pd on the
7 surface, which results in greater CO dipole-dipole interactions and an accompanying shift to
8 higher frequencies.⁴² Conversely, in the present case (Fig. 4) peaks for CO adsorption shift to
9 lower frequencies as the Pd weight loadings increased. This is consistent with what was observed
10 in a previous study from our group¹² for Ag-Pd/SiO₂ prepared by ED of Ag on Pd. In that case,
11 the CO adsorption peaks shifted to higher frequencies as the deposited Ag diluted the Pd surface
12 into smaller ensembles. It was proposed that the frequency shift was related to an electronic
13 effect between Pd and Ag. XPS analyses showed the Ag 3d_{5/2} binding energy (BE) was shifted to
14 lower values when deposited on Pd; as the surface coverage of Ag on Pd increased, the BE shift
15 decreased from 0.7 to 0.1. The BE shifts decreased with coverage because the higher surface
16 coverages of Ag resulted in autocatalytic deposition to form three dimensional aggregates of Ag
17 that were more similar to bulk Ag metal particles. The BE shift was maximized at the lowest
18 level of deposition since the Ag was essentially distributed in a monodisperse manner on the Pd
19 surface to give the maximum e⁻ transfer from Pd to Ag. The direction of the CO stretching
20 frequency shift suggested that the decrease of the electron density of surface Pd atoms lowered
21 the back donation from non-bonding electrons of Pd to the π* orbitals of CO. This electronic
22 interaction appeared to outweigh any shift to lower frequencies due to lower dipole-dipole
23 interactions.

1 In the present study, e^- transfer from Pd to Ag should be maximized for the lowest levels
2 of galvanically-exchanged Pd since the number of Pd-Ag interactions (e^- transfer from Pd to Ag)
3 is highest at these conditions. For the 0.09 wt% Pd sample, the empirical formula of the
4 bimetallic particles corresponds to $Ag_{0.94}Pd_{0.06}$ to give a very dilute Pd composition, which
5 should exhibit the greatest extent of Pd-Ag interaction. This results in less electron donation
6 from non-bonding electrons of Pd to the π^* orbitals of CO to give a higher C-O bond order and
7 an upshifted C-O stretching frequency.

8 To examine the surface/near-surface of the Pd-Ag samples, XPS measurements were
9 performed with detailed scans of the Pd 3d and Ag 3d orbitals, and the binding energies were
10 compared with the values obtained from the monometallic (reference) catalysts. The Si 2p peak
11 of the support was used as an internal standard to confirm the peak positions, and all peak
12 intensities for Pd 3d and Ag 3d were normalized to Si 2p peak intensity for comparison. Results
13 shown in Fig. 5A confirm there was Pd at least in the near surface (escape depth of
14 photoelectrons is several lattice layers) of the catalysts prepared by galvanic displacement. The
15 Pd and Ag peak intensities in Fig. 5A and Fig. 5B also indicate, as expected, that near surface Pd
16 concentrations increase and Ag concentrations decrease when more Pd metal is galvanically-
17 exchanged.

18 The assignment of Ag oxidation state by XPS is a matter of controversy. A large
19 discrepancy and superposition of binding energy values of Ag 3d exists in the literatures⁴⁵⁻⁵¹: Ag
20 $3d_{5/2}$ is reported to be from 366.4 to 369.2 eV for Ag^0 ; from 367.5 to 368.8 eV for Ag_2O ; and
21 from 367.4 to 368.4 eV for AgO. Therefore, some studies⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ report a negative shift for oxidized
22 $Ag^{\delta+}$ versus Ag^0 , while others⁴⁸⁻⁵¹ observe a positive shift instead. Because of the uncertainty of
23 Ag 3d binding energies of supported Ag catalysts, presumably due to the charging effects of the

1 insulating silica support and possible Ag particle size effects, comparisons of Ag binding
2 energies are valid only within a given study for similar Ag morphologies and particle size. To
3 confirm the Ag 3d_{5/2} binding energies for Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ (or Ag^{δ+}) species in this study, the XPS
4 spectra for 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ (Fig. S6 in Supplementary Information) were taken after reduction in
5 100% H₂ at 200 °C for 2 h and after calcination in 100% O₂ at 200 °C for 2 h. The Ag 3d_{5/2}
6 values are 367.9 eV after reduction and 368.7 eV after calcination, corresponding to Ag⁰ and Ag⁺
7 respectively. Thus, the shift to higher Ag 3d_{5/2} binding energy value in this study indicates
8 electron transfer away from Ag. The similar trend on 12 wt% Ag/Al₂O₃ sample was observed in
9 a previous study from our group.⁵¹ However, because of the complexity and controversy of
10 binding energy shift for Ag systems, other reasonable explanations⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ for a positive shift due to
11 factors other than an oxidation state change in Ag cannot be ruled out. For all bimetallic
12 compositions in this study, shifts to higher binding energies were observed for the Pd 3d_{3/2} and
13 Pd 3d_{5/2} peaks in comparison to 2 wt% Pd/SiO₂ catalyst. Conversely, the Ag 3d_{3/2} and Ag 3d_{5/2}
14 peaks were shifted to lower binding energies compared to a 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ catalyst. These shifts
15 of Pd 3d and Ag 3d peaks indicate a net electron transfer from Pd to Ag, which is also consistent
16 with previous work from our group¹² for Ag-Pd/SiO₂ catalysts prepared by ED of Ag on Pd.

17 As more Pd is deposited onto Ag, the binding energy shift to lower values for Ag in Fig.
18 5B increases from 0.4 eV for 0.09 wt% Pd to 0.6 eV for 0.39 wt% Pd since there are more Pd
19 atoms to interact with neighboring Ag atoms. Because Ag is the majority component in these
20 bimetallic particles, the magnitude of the BE shift is somewhat dampened by those Ag atoms that
21 do not interact with Pd atoms. Higher Pd loadings increase the number of Pd-Ag interactions.
22 The upshift in Pd 3d_{5/2} BE values is approximately 0.4 eV for all Pd loadings since all Pd atoms
23 are interactive with neighboring Ag atoms. The observed binding energy shifts for the Pd-Ag

1 bimetallic catalysts as a function of Pd weight loading are consistent with the red shift of the CO-
2 Pd vibrational band observed by FTIR spectroscopy and lend further credence to the supposition
3 that there was a transfer of electrons from Pd to Ag.

4 Selective hydrogenation of acetylene in the presence of excess ethylene was carried out
5 for the different compositions of Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts at the same reaction conditions used for
6 the Ag-Pd/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts reported in our previous work⁷. The exception was that
7 increased weights of catalysts were required to account for the lower number of accessible Pd
8 sites with these catalysts.

9 Fig. 6A shows conversion of acetylene and selectivity of acetylene hydrogenation
10 towards ethylene as a function of Pd weight loading on Ag/SiO₂. No data are shown for 0.09 wt%
11 Pd-Ag/SiO₂ because activity was too low for accurate measurement. The base Ag/SiO₂ catalyst
12 exhibited no reactivity for acetylene hydrogenation during a control experiment. The C₂H₂
13 conversion increased from 2.0% to 17.5% with increasing Pd weight loadings, consistent with
14 the FTIR results that showed more Pd on the Ag surface for higher levels of Pd deposited by GD.
15 Selectivities for C₂H₄ formation remained essentially constant at approximately 80% for the
16 different Pd loadings; likewise, the selectivities for C₂H₆ and C₄ hydrocarbons were also
17 relatively constant for the different Pd loadings (Fig. 6B). This indicates that the ensemble sizes
18 and electronic charges of Pd sites were similar over this composition range, since changes in Pd
19 ensemble sizes and/or changes in electronic charges of the Pd surface sites would be expected to
20 change the selectivity for C₂H₄ formation⁵². Atomic, or near atomic dispersion of surface Pd sites
21 should favor π -bonded C₂H₂ which favors C₂H₄ formation.⁷ Since FTIR and XPS analyses
22 indicated that the Pd ensemble sizes and electronic Pd 3d states were constant over this range of
23 Pd weight loadings, catalyst selectivities should also remain the same.

1 In our previous work for the electroless deposition of Ag and Au on Pd catalysts, C₂H₂
2 conversions decreased with increasing Group IB coverage (fewer surface Pd atoms were
3 exposed).⁷ However, selectivity of C₂H₂ to C₂H₄ was enhanced at higher Ag and Au coverages,
4 particularly for fractional coverages high than 0.80. The similar performance trends for both Ag-
5 Pd and Au-Pd catalysts suggested the bimetallic effect was primarily geometric and not
6 electronic in nature. That is, at high Group IB coverages with smaller ensembles of contiguous
7 Pd sites, acetylene was weakly adsorbed as a π -bonded species, which favored the hydrogenation
8 to ethylene which readily desorbed. On the other hand, acetylene was bonded in a multi- σ mode
9 on larger ensembles of Pd and desorbed only when fully hydrogenated to C₂H₆. However, the
10 selectivity values for C₂H₄ formation at high coverages of Ag and Au for the Ag-Pd and Au-Pd
11 catalysts were as high as 86 – 90%, which is noticeably greater than 80% for this family of
12 catalysts. Recent computational studies by Neurock⁵² and Nørskov⁵³ for acetylene hydrogenation
13 on Ag(111), Pd(111), Pd_{0.75}Ag_{0.25}/Pd(111), and Pd_{0.50}Ag_{0.50}/Pd(111) have shown that while the
14 geometric effects of Pd surface dilution into small Pd ensembles by Ag are more important than
15 electronic effects of Ag on Pd atoms, there are still observable electronic effects. Any electronic
16 effect that lowers the adsorption energy of C₂H₂ will increase selectivity of hydrogenation to
17 form C₂H₄. Our XPS and FTIR data show e⁻ transfer from Pd to Ag, leaving the Pd surface sites
18 somewhat e⁻ deficient. This results in stronger interaction between Pd and the e⁻ rich π -bond
19 system of C₂H₂ to give higher adsorption energies of π -bonded C₂H₂. This higher adsorption
20 energy increases the extent of hydrogenation of C₂H₂ to C₂H₆ before desorption can occur. This
21 is more pronounced in our current study because Pd is the minority component and more
22 susceptible for e⁻ transfer to Ag; Table 1 confirms the minority compositions of the different
23 bimetallic catalysts. In our earlier study⁷ where Ag was confined to only the surface, Pd was by

1 far the majority component with more limited Pd-Ag electronic interactions; hence the somewhat
2 higher selectivities for C₂H₂ hydrogenation to C₂H₄.

3

4 **4. Conclusions**

5 A series of bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts were prepared by galvanic displacement with
6 increasing loadings of Pd on Ag. The actually increased Pd deposition beyond the theoretical
7 limit for galvanic displacement indicated that the large difference in surface free energy for Pd
8 and Ag resulted in Pd diffusion into the bulk of Ag particles, or Ag diffusion to the surface to
9 provide fresh Ag atoms for further galvanic displacement. Such migration led to the formation of
10 a Pd-Ag alloy near the catalyst surface. FTIR results revealed that the Pd atoms on all prepared
11 catalysts are distributed in very small ensembles or possibly even atomically on the Ag surface.
12 Such geometric effects were further confirmed by evaluation studies revealing that the
13 selectivities for C₂H₄ formation remained high and constant for different Pd loadings. However,
14 unlike for the case of Ag on Pd surfaces⁷, the Pd sites here are significantly influenced by the
15 electron transfer from Pd to Ag. This results in a competing electronic effect in these catalysts
16 that limits the ability to obtain very high selectivity towards C₂H₄.

17

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21

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1 Table Captions

2 **Table 1** Composition of Pd-Ag catalysts after galvanic displacement experiments. Actual
3 catalyst compositions based on analyzed Ag and Pd loadings, not predictive stoichiometries

5 Figure Captions

6 **Fig. 1** Ag dissolution from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ in pH 2 HNO₃ solution at room temperature.

7 **Fig. 2** Time-dependent galvanic displacement profiles of (A) deposited Pd²⁺ from bath solution
8 and (B) galvanically displaced Ag⁺ from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ at room temperature with different
9 initial Pd²⁺ concentrations.

10 **Fig. 3** Time-dependent galvanic displacement profiles of (A) deposited Pd²⁺ from bath solution
11 and (B) galvanically displaced Ag⁺ from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ at 25, 50 and 75 °C with same initial
12 Pd²⁺ concentration.

13 **Fig. 4** FTIR spectra for CO adsorption on various Pd-Ag/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts.

14 **Fig. 5** XPS spectra of (A) Pd 3d on 2 wt% Pd/SiO₂ and Pd-Ag/SiO₂ and (B) Ag 3d on 2 wt%
15 Ag/SiO₂ and Pd-Ag/SiO₂. All samples were reduced *in situ* at 200 °C in 100% H₂ for 2 h.

16 **Fig. 6** (A) Conversion of acetylene and selectivity of acetylene to ethylene and (B) selectivity of
17 acetylene to ethane and C₄s as a function of Pd weight loadings on Ag/SiO₂. Reaction conditions:
18 65°C and feed composition of 1% C₂H₂, 5% H₂, 20% C₂H₄, and balance He at GHSV = 6.0 × 10⁵
19 h⁻¹. Error bars represent maximum and minimum values for each data point; data point is average
20 value.

Table 1 Composition of Pd-Ag catalysts after galvanic displacement experiments. Actual catalyst compositions based on analyzed Ag and Pd loadings, not predictive stoichiometries

Catalyst Designation	Initial Ag loading, (%)	Final Ag loading after dissolution and GD, (%)	Ag loss based on AA analysis, (%)	Actual metal composition of catalyst	Molar ratio of Ag to Pd
2 wt% Ag/SiO ₂	2.0	—	—	2 wt% Ag	—
0.03 wt% Pd	2.0	1.71	14.5	0.03 wt% Pd - 1.71 wt% Ag	56.2
0.09 wt% Pd	2.0	1.50	25.0	0.09 wt% Pd - 1.50 wt% Ag	16.4
0.28 wt% Pd	2.0	1.42	29.0	0.28 wt% Pd - 1.43 wt% Ag	5.0
0.32 wt% Pd	2.0	1.21	39.5	0.32 wt% Pd - 1.21 wt% Ag	3.7
0.39 wt% Pd	2.0	1.01	49.5	0.39 wt% Pd - 1.01 wt% Ag	2.6
0.44 wt% Pd	2.0	1.02	49.0	0.44 wt% Pd - 1.02 wt% Ag	2.3

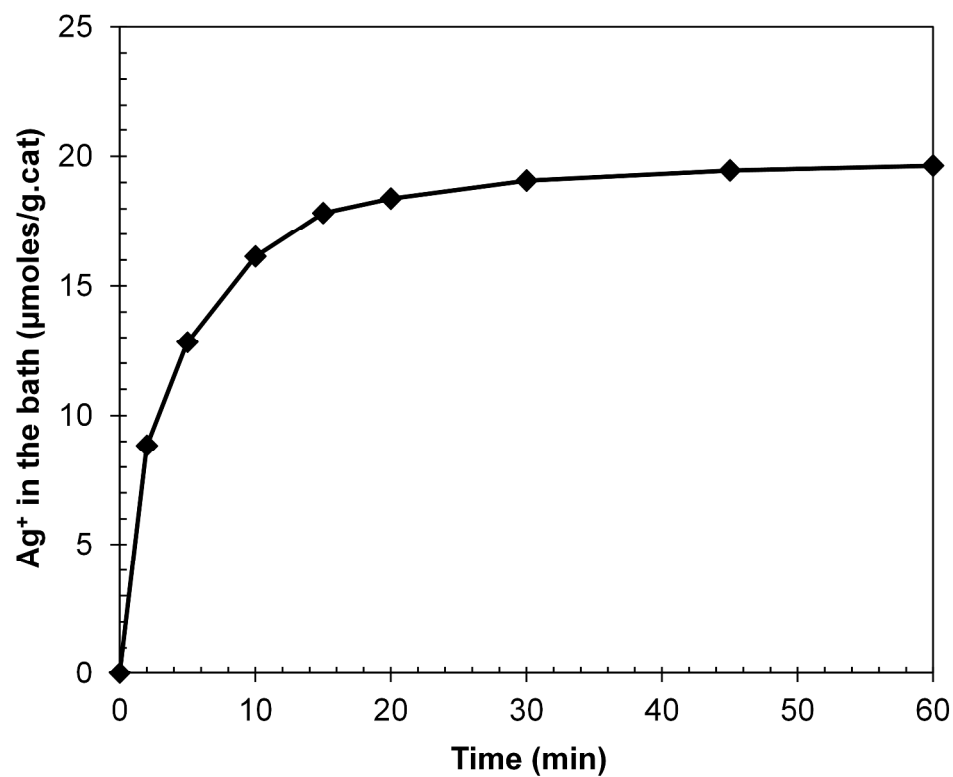


Fig. 1 Ag dissolution from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ in pH 2 HNO₃ solution at room temperature.

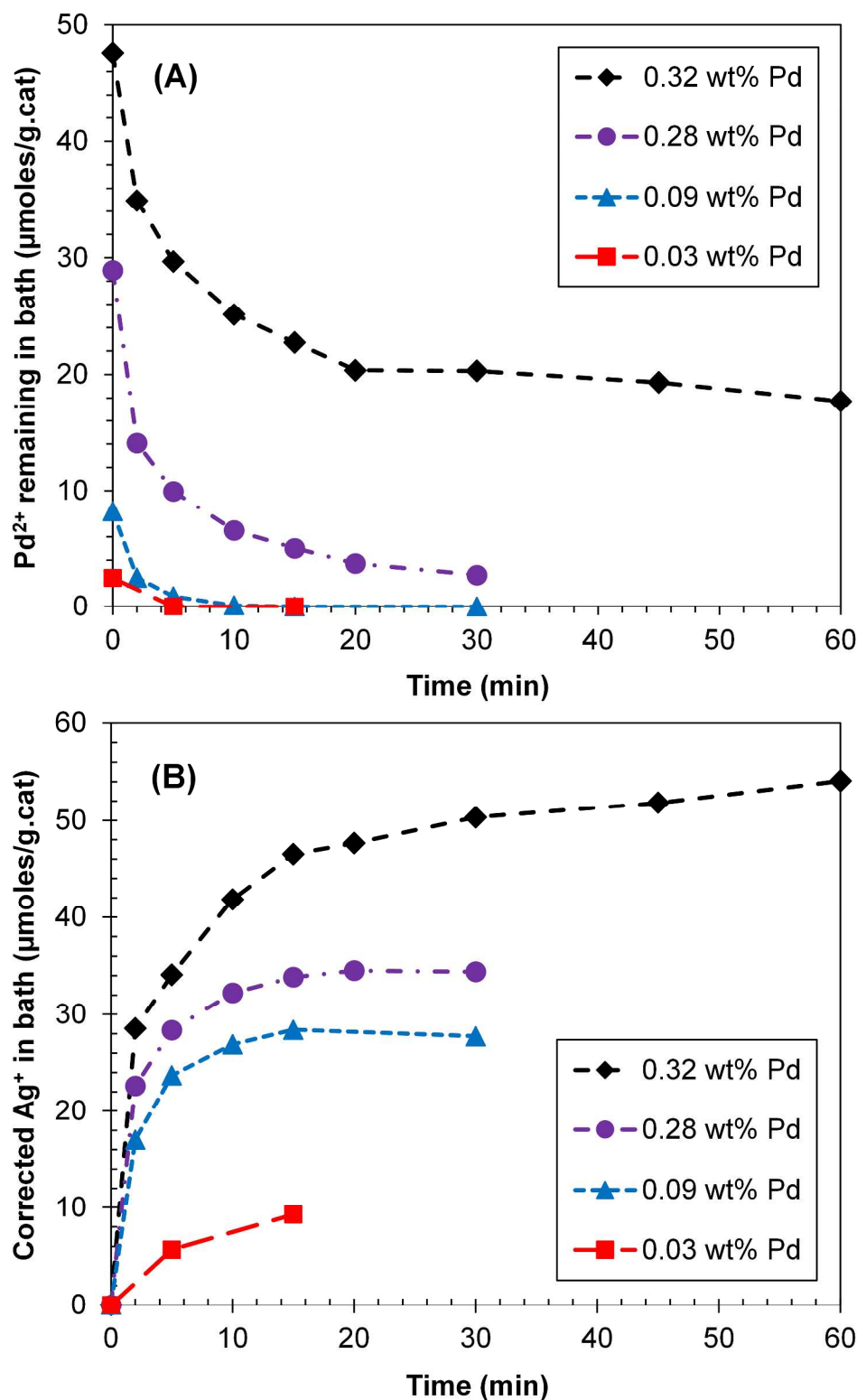


Fig. 2 Time-dependent galvanic displacement profiles of (A) deposited Pd²⁺ from bath solution and (B) galvanically displaced Ag⁺ from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ at room temperature with different initial Pd²⁺ concentrations.

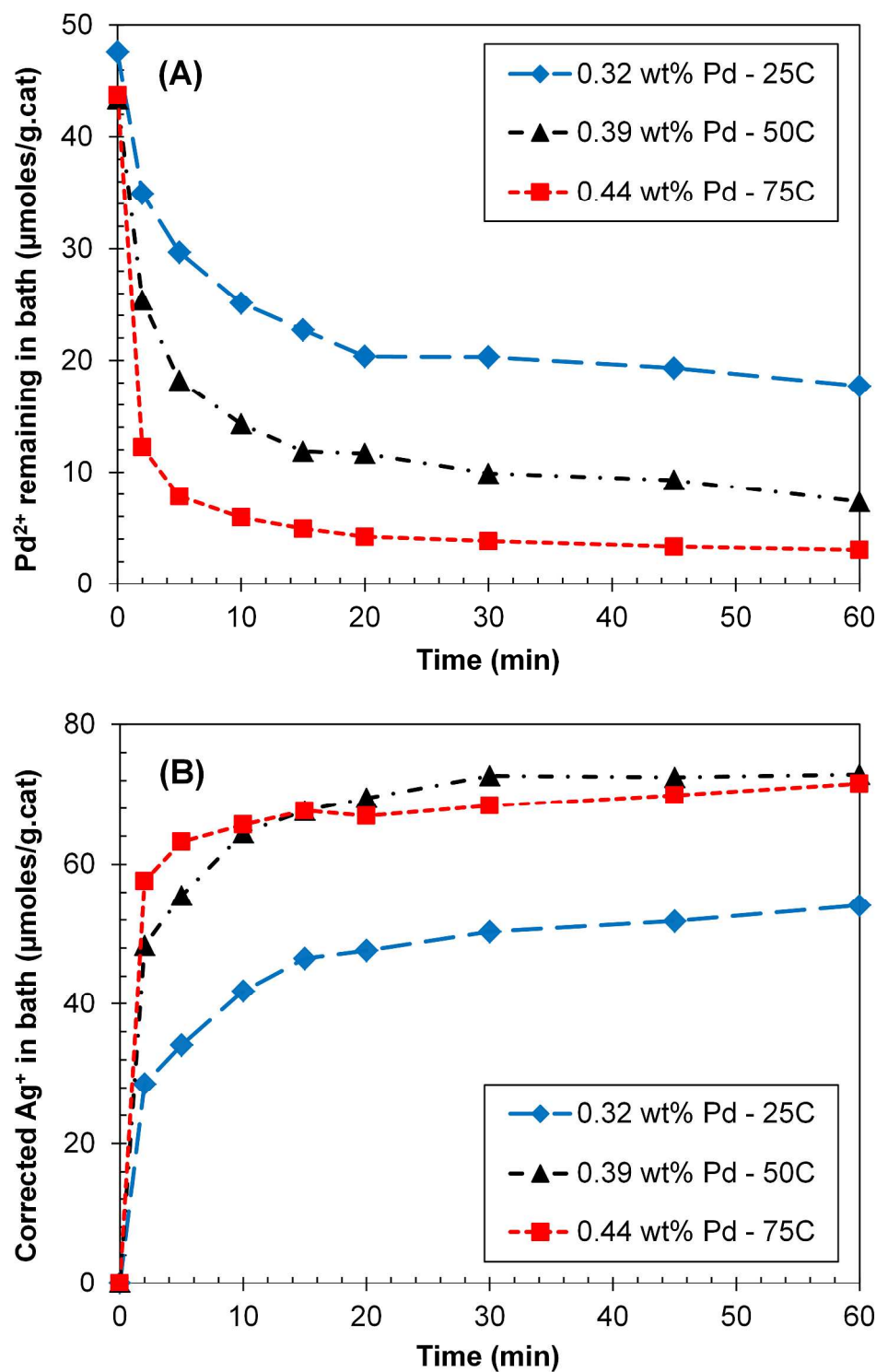


Fig. 3 Time-dependent galvanic displacement profiles of (A) deposited Pd²⁺ from bath solution and (B) galvanically displaced Ag⁺ from 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ at 25, 50 and 75 °C with same initial Pd²⁺ concentration.

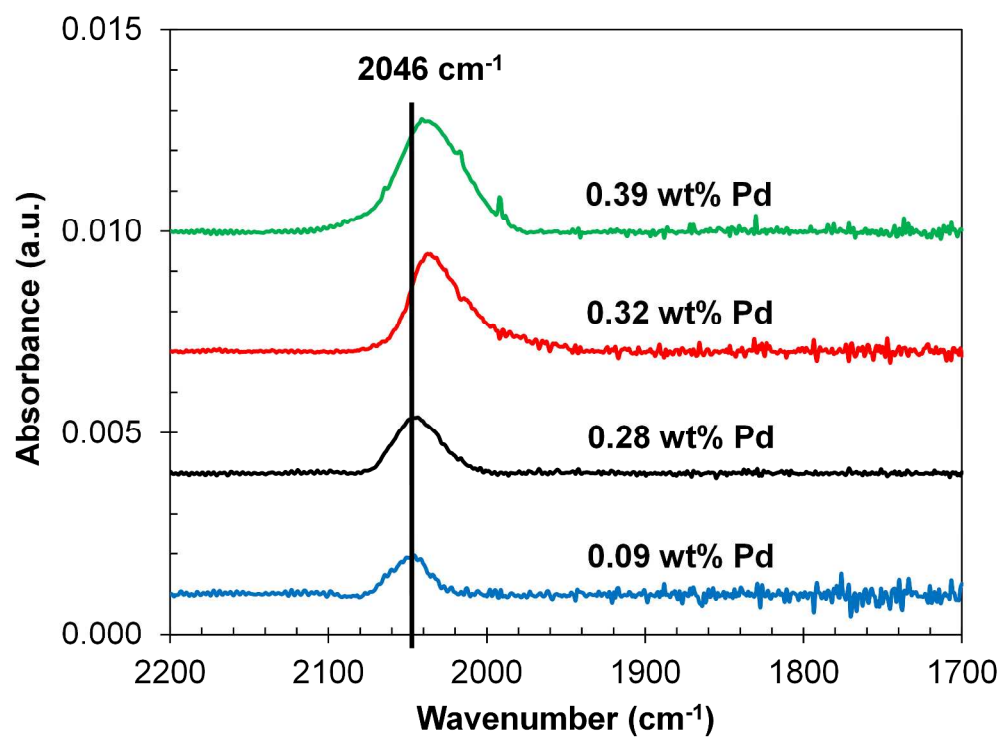


Fig. 4 FTIR spectra for CO adsorption on various Pd-Ag/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts.

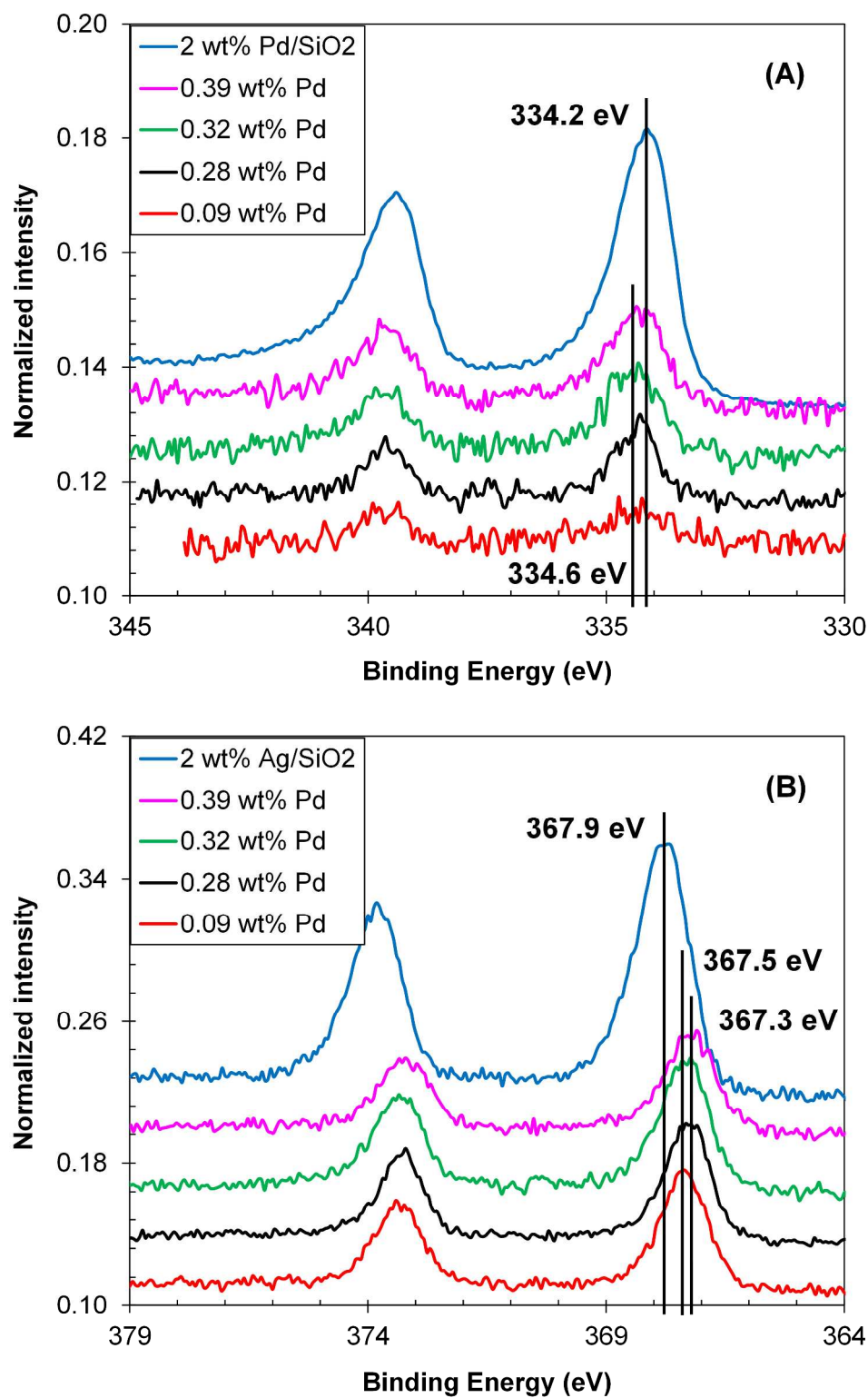


Fig. 5 XPS spectra of (A) Pd 3d on 2 wt% Pd/SiO₂ and Pd-Ag/SiO₂ and (B) Ag 3d on 2 wt% Ag/SiO₂ and Pd-Ag/SiO₂. All samples were reduced *in situ* at 200 °C in 100% H₂ for 2 h.

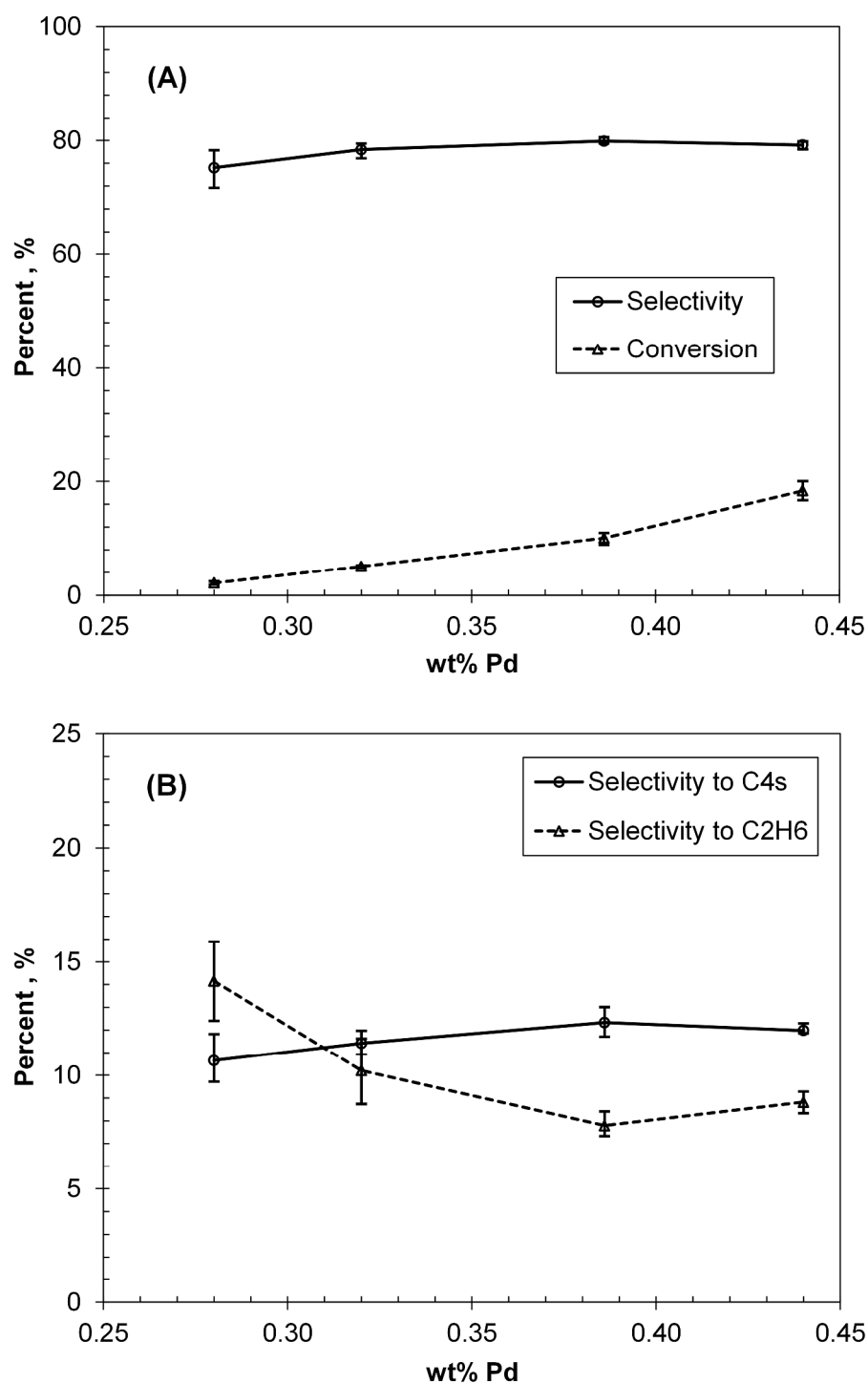


Fig. 6 (A) Conversion of acetylene and selectivity of acetylene to ethylene and (B) selectivity of acetylene to ethane and C₄s as a function of Pd weight loadings on Ag/SiO₂. Reaction conditions: 65°C and feed composition of 1% C₂H₂, 5% H₂, 20% C₂H₄, and balance He at GHSV = 6.0 × 10⁵ h⁻¹. Error bars represent maximum and minimum values for each data point; data point is average value.

Graphical Abstract

Pd-Ag/SiO₂ bimetallic catalysts prepared by galvanic displacement for selective hydrogenation of acetylene in excess ethylene

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A series of bimetallic Pd-Ag/SiO₂ catalysts with Ag enriched on the surface were prepared by galvanic displacement. The bimetallic effect for these catalysts on acetylene hydrogenation was discussed.

