

Rational Design of Bioinspired Nanocomposites with Tunable Catalytic Activity

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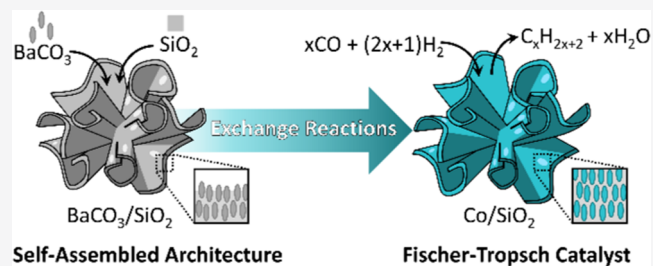


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ABSTRACT: Biological assembly processes offer inspiration for ordering building blocks across multiple length scales into advanced functional materials. Such bioinspired strategies are attractive for assembling supported catalysts, where shaping and structuring across length scales are essential for their performance but still remain tremendously difficult to achieve. Here, we present a simple bioinspired route toward supported catalysts with tunable activity and selectivity. We coprecipitate shape-controlled nanocomposites with large specific surface areas of barium carbonate nanocrystals that are uniformly embedded in a silica support. Subsequently, we exchange the barium carbonate to cobalt while preserving the nanoscopic layout and microscopic shape, and demonstrate their catalytic performances in the Fischer–Tropsch synthesis as a case study. Control over the crystal size between 10 and 17 nm offers tunable activity and selectivity for shorter (C_5 – C_{11}) and longer (C_{20+}) hydrocarbons, respectively. Hence, these results open simple, versatile, and scalable routes to tunable and highly reactive bioinspired catalysts.



1. INTRODUCTION

The exquisite complexity and hierarchical structuring of biominerals offer an inexhaustible source of inspiration for the assembly of new materials with advanced functionalities.^{1–5} In particular, bioinspired self-assembly can be exploited for hierarchical ordering of amorphous and crystalline substances in functional nanocomposites, while the inherent autonomous character of self-assembly is advantageous for straightforward upscaling.^{6–26} Consequently, bioinspired nanocomposites have already been applied in fields such as robotics, sensing, and optics,^{14,27–29} yet the full potential of self-assembly for advanced materials remains untapped.

Specifically, such bioinspired strategies could potentially be exploited in the field of catalysis, where shaping and structuring across length scales is essential for catalytic performance.^{30–35} Of particular interest are supported catalysts consisting of metallic nanosized crystals dispersed on the surface of a porous (typically ceramic) support. Ideally, supported catalysts have the following properties: (i) a large macroscale surface and nanoscale porosity for maximum accessibility of the reagents and products; (ii) high metal loadings for high reactivity; (iii) well-controlled nanocrystal size and size distributions for optimal catalytic activity and selectivity; and (iv) uniform dispersion of the nanocrystals on the surface of the support to prevent undesirable agglomeration of the nanocrystals, which may impede both the activity and selectivity of the catalyst over time. Despite tremendous progress in nanoparticle fabrication and catalyst preparation methods,^{32–40} ceding

control over all but the starting materials, leaves little opportunity to fine-tune crystal sizes, let alone uniformly distribute nanocrystals in shape-controlled supported catalysts.

An attractive system to overcome this limitation is the bioinspired coprecipitation of barium carbonate ($BaCO_3$) nanocrystals and amorphous silica (SiO_2).^{15–20} Here, the crystallization of $BaCO_3$ is steered by the precipitation of SiO_2 through an acid-regulated feedback mechanism, resulting in intricate and controllable microshapes (Figure 1).^{15–18} This system inherently produces the desired material properties for supported catalysts: (i) programmable microshapes—including coral-like geometries that maximize the surface area; (ii) a nanocomposite layout with a high metal-to-silica molar ratio of 4:1; (iii) nanocrystals of ca. 20 nm that are (iv) uniformly dispersed in a silica support. Moreover, inspired by naturally occurring fossilization processes and nanocrystal fabrication,^{21,22,41–43} the chemical composition of the nanocrystals can be completely overhauled using ion-exchange reactions while preserving the microscopic shape and submicron features of the original nanocomposite.^{23,24} These insights highlight an enormous potential for the assembly of bioinspired functional

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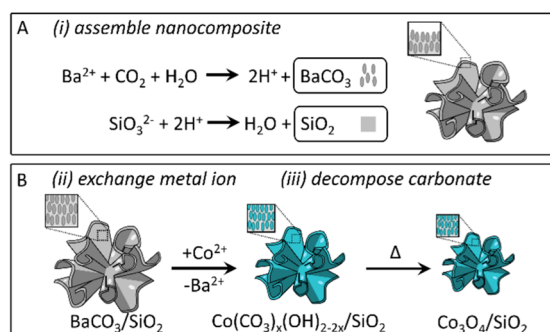


Figure 1. Preparation of catalytic nanocomposites. (A) Coprecipitation of nanocomposites containing BaCO_3 nanocrystals and amorphous SiO_2 . (B) Nanocrystals of the composites are converted by replacing the Ba^{2+} with Co^{2+} followed by decomposition to Co_3O_4 , which serves as the precursor of the Fischer–Tropsch catalyst.⁴²

materials and suggest the possibility to integrate desirable catalytic properties into these materials by fine-tuning the assembly/exchange processes.

Here, we demonstrate this potential by converting $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposites to cobalt oxide/silica ($\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$) nanocomposites that, upon reductive treatment to Co/SiO_2 , become catalysts with tunable activity. In this work, the Fischer–Tropsch synthesis (FTS)⁴²—a chemical conversion that receives wide attention for its unique ability to produce high-value hydrocarbons ($\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x+2}$) from cheap feedstocks of hydrogen (H_2) and carbon monoxide (CO)^{43–48}—is used as a model reaction to assess the catalytic activity of the bioinspired nanocomposites. Typical FTS catalysts are composed of nanoparticles of Fe or Co immobilized on porous supports like SiO_2 or Al_2O_3 ,⁴⁹ with the Co nanoparticle size being a key parameter that affects the activity and selectivity of the reaction.⁵⁰ Thus, this sensitivity of product distribution on nanocrystal sizes makes the FTS an ideal case study for probing the tunable selectivity of bioinspired nanocomposite catalysts.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Growth of $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ Nanocomposites. A solution of BaCl_2 (7.4 g, 30 mM) in 300 mL of water was added to a solution of Na_2SiO_3 (1.6 g, 13 mM) in 1200 mL of water. This solution was poured in a metal tray ($30 \times 50 \times 10 \text{ cm}^3$) while keeping at least 1 cm of depth to the solution. The solution was left for 1.5 h with the tray covered with a perforated cardboard lid. The resulting nanocomposites were separated from the solution via vacuum filtration.

2.2. Exchange to $\text{Co}(\text{CO}_3)_x(\text{OH})_{2-2x}$. Cobalt nitrate hexahydrate ($\text{Co}(\text{NO}_3)_2$) (11.6 g, 40 mM) was dissolved in 200 mL of demineralized water. $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposites were placed in this solution using a spatula while gently stirring the solution to spread the nanocomposites. Afterward, the resulting purple nanocomposites were separated from the solution using vacuum filtration and washed with demineralized water followed by acetone.

2.3. Exchange to Co_3O_4 . An alumina boat containing $\text{Co}(\text{CO}_3)_x(\text{OH})_{2-2x}/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposites was placed in an open single zone tube furnace and heated to 530, 560, 590, 620, or 650 °C for 4 h. Afterward, the resulting black nanocomposites were retrieved by passively cooling the furnace to room temperature and retrieving the alumina boat.

2.4. Catalytic Analysis. The catalysts were tested for the FTS at 20 bar, 220 °C, $\text{H}_2/\text{CO} = 2/1$ and gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) = $320 \text{ mL g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$. The nanocomposite catalysts (160 mg) were diluted with SiC (1:6) and located in a 10 mm diameter Hastelloy reactor. Above the catalysts and next to the reactor inlet, a bed of SiC was placed to ensure that the gases were preheated. The reactor was

placed in an oven (Carbolite Gero), and the temperature was measured with a thermocouple at the reactor exit and one thermocouple inserted in the SiC bed. The liquid products were collected in a hot-trap at the reactor exit, while the gases flowed through a heated line at 250 °C, toward the gas chromatograph (see Section S12 for details).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Our strategy comprises three steps (Figure 1): (1) the nanocomposite is assembled via coprecipitation of BaCO_3 and SiO_2 ; (ii) BaCO_3 is replaced with cobalt via cation exchange, and (iii) the cobalt is decomposed to yield the desired cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4) catalyst precursor material while preserving the nanoscale organization and microscopic shape of the original nanocomposite. To demonstrate the shape-preservation, we analyze the same architecture throughout the entire procedure and perform complementary analysis on bulk samples.

In the first step, we program the desired microscopic shape. Ideally, the microscopic shape of the eventual catalyst has a large surface that is well accessible for the reactants and products. To achieve this, we steer the coprecipitation of the original $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposite toward coral-like shapes with many extrusions to maximize the surface area of the architecture (for details, see Section S1).¹⁶ Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) confirms the coral-like shape of the resulting nanocomposites (Figure 2A). Consistent with previous reports,^{15,16,18} energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) shows that the nanocomposite has a barium/silicon molar ratio of 4:1 (Figure 2B), with barium crystallizing as

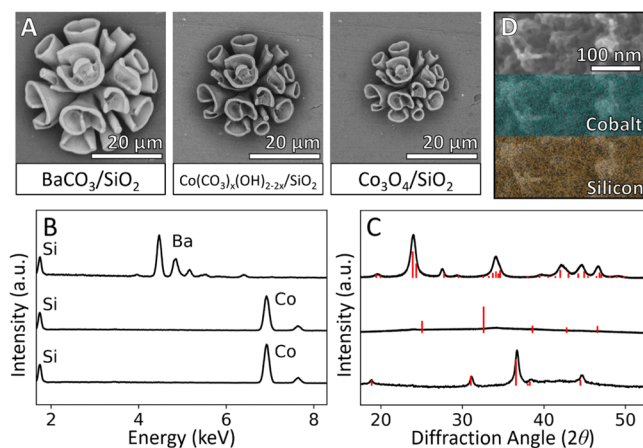


Figure 2. Shape-preserving conversion of $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ to $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposites. (A) SEM images of self-assembled nanocomposites before exchange (left, $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$), after cation exchange (middle, $\text{Co}(\text{CO}_3)_x(\text{OH})_{2-2x}/\text{SiO}_2$), and after decomposition (right, $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$). (B) EDS analysis showing the presence of barium and silica in the initial $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposite (top), the replacement of Ba^{2+} for Co^{2+} after the cation exchange (middle), and the preservation of the metal-to-silicon ratio after decomposition (bottom). (C) XRD data of the initial BaCO_3 (top, orthorhombic), intermediate $\text{Co}(\text{CO}_3)_x(\text{OH})_{2-2x}$ (middle, amorphous), and Co_3O_4 (bottom, cubic). Reference lines in red show peaks measured in literature (COD 1000033, COD 1548825, and ICSD 27498 respectively, see Sections S1–S5 for details). (D) High-resolution SEM image of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposite surface (top), with corresponding EDS overlay showing the distribution of cobalt (cyan, middle) and silicon (brown, bottom).

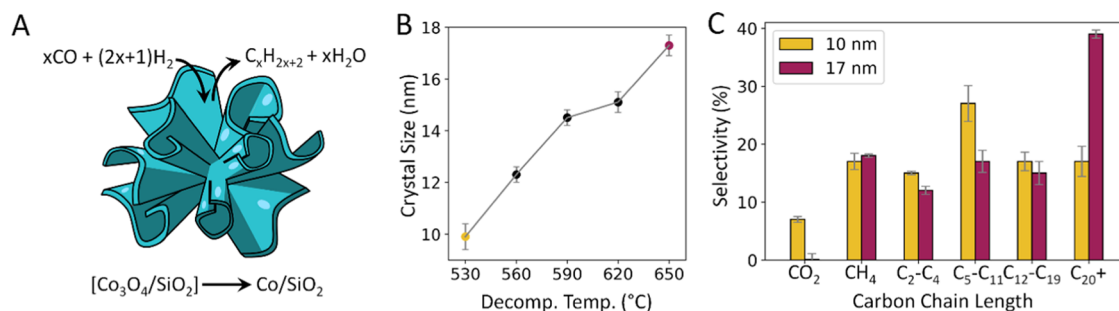


Figure 3. Self-assembled Co₃O₄/SiO₂ nanocomposites for tunable catalysis of the Fischer–Tropsch synthesis. (A) FTS reaction on Co₃O₄/SiO₂ that is reduced to Co/SiO₂ in the reactor. The hydrocarbon chain length C_x is determined by the Co₃O₄ crystal size. (B) Modifying the decomposition temperature in step (iii) (Figure 1B) enables customization of the Co₃O₄ nanocrystal size (C) FTS reaction products for Co₃O₄ crystal sizes of 10 and 17 nm, showing a preferred formation of C_{5–11} and C₂₀₊, respectively.

orthorhombic barium carbonate (witherite) according to X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Figure 2C).

In the second step, the desired cobalt ion is introduced by immersing the nanocomposites in a solution of 5.0 mM Co(NO₃)₂ for 50 min (for details, see Sections S3 and S4). EDS confirms the complete exchange of Ba²⁺ with Co²⁺ (Figure 2B). The absence of diffraction peaks in the XRD analysis suggests formation of basic amorphous cobalt carbonate (Co(CO₃)_x(OH)_{2–2x}), which is supported by the presence of the carbonate fingerprint peak in IR measurements (Figure 2C and Section S13).

Comparing SEM images of the same coral shapes before and after conversion shows that the overall shape shrinks by ca. 60%, which may partially be attributed to the decrease in ionic radius from the exchange of Ba²⁺ (149 pm) to Co²⁺ (80 pm).⁵¹ Despite this dramatic shrinking, the microscopic form and fine details are well-preserved after the conversion (Figure 2A). This demonstrates the potential of the nanocomposite layout for shape-preserving conversion reactions: the nanocrystals offer high chemical reactivity, while the silica matrix provides mechanical stability.²⁴

In the third step, the resulting cobalt carbonate phase is thermally decomposed into Co₃O₄ by heating the nanocomposites to 650 °C for 4 h (for details see Section S5). XRD and EDS confirm complete conversion toward the cubic crystalline phase of Co₃O₄ with preservation of the 4:1 metal:silicon molar ratio (Figure 2B,C). Furthermore, high-resolution SEM and EDS mapping (Figure 2D) reveals that the nanocomposite surface is highly porous, with a uniformly dispersed elemental distribution of cobalt and silicon (Figure 2D and Section S6). During the overall conversion of BaCO₃ to Co₃O₄, the volume of the crystal lattice shrinks by more than 70%. Indeed, comparing the microshape before and after the conversion shows a shrinking of ca. 80% (Figure 2A, see Section S9 for details). The nanocomposite layout thus translates the volume changes at the atomic scale to the microscopic shrinking. Consequently, despite dramatic shrinking at atomic length scales, the final Co₃O₄/SiO₂ microshape is geometrically indistinguishable from the original BaCO₃/SiO₂ form, and even sub-micrometer details and the nanocomposite layout remain preserved.

We quantify the available surface for catalysis by determining the BET surface area (S_{BET}) and pore distribution of the Co₃O₄/SiO₂ nanocomposite using a Micromeritics Tristar II. We find a S_{BET} of 36.3 m²/g and an average pore size of 6.6 nm (Section S12). This material presents a moderate internal surface area and large mesoporosity, and is thus adequate for

catalysis. We explore the functionality potential of this shape-preserving conversion route by testing the catalytic performance of Co₃O₄/SiO₂ nanocomposites for FTS, forming hydrocarbons with various carbon chain lengths (C_xH_{2x+2}) from hydrogen (H₂) and carbon monoxide (CO) (Figure 3A).^{45–47,50} The ideal hydrocarbon chain length (C_x) varies based on its intended application: shorter chains are favored for naphtha and gasoline ($x = 5–11$),⁴⁶ while longer chains are ideal for waxes and lubricant oils ($x > 20$).⁴⁷ Since the chain length depends on the size of the cobalt crystals,⁵⁰ it is highly desirable to control the crystal size of the Co₃O₄ crystals within the catalyst.

We tune the crystal size within the Co₃O₄/SiO₂ nanocomposites by inducing sintering of the crystals during the decomposition in step (iii) of our assembly scheme (Figure 1B). To this aim, we perform decomposition processes at different temperatures and determine the crystal size from X-ray powder diffractograms using the Scherrer equation (see Supporting Information). Consistent with previously observed sintering,^{52,53} we observe an almost linear increase in crystal sizes from ca. 10 nm (Co₃O₄ (10 nm)/SiO₂) to ca. 17 nm (Co₃O₄ (17 nm)/SiO₂) for temperatures ranging from 530 to 650 °C (Figure 3B). Remarkably, the microscopic geometry of the nanocomposites remains preserved, while the nanoscopic crystal size can be tailored precisely over a wide range of sizes.

We scale up the fabrication of the nanocomposites to test the catalytic performance (Section S2). To this end, we take advantage of the autonomous nature of our bottom-up assembly process to scale the nanocomposite assembly by >500-fold from a few micrograms of architectures on a substrate up to multiple grams of bulk materials. Specifically, we use commercial kitchen trays to increase the reaction volume and maximize the air–liquid interface for CO₂ uptake (see Sections S2 and S11 for details). XRD, EDS, and SEM analyses confirm complete conversion to Co₃O₄ with preservation of the nanocomposite layout and tunable nanoparticle size in these scaled-up reactions (Section S11).

We perform the Fischer–Tropsch synthesis with Co₃O₄ (17 nm)/SiO₂ nanocomposites. The nanocomposites are placed in a gas flow reactor and are reduced to the active metal cobalt catalyst with H₂ (10% in N₂ flow rate of 50 mL min^{−1}) at 400 °C. Then, the reactor is cooled down to the reaction temperature of 200 °C. FTS is initiated by flowing H₂, CO, and N₂ (with a ratio of 6:3:1) into the reactor at 20 bar and a gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 320 mL gcat^{−1} min^{−1}. The reaction progress is followed using real-time online gas chromatography. We observe an initial conversion of 13% and

a steady-state conversion rate of 5% with a turnover frequency (TOF) of $6.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (see Section S12 for details), a performance which is comparable with traditionally-prepared state-of-the-art catalysts.^{50,54,55} Remarkably, the reaction predominantly produces long carbon chains, with 40% of the products having a chain length of C_{20+} , which is a desired attribute in FTS catalysts, commonly associated with large and uniformly distributed nanocrystals.^{47,50} Hence, these findings demonstrate the functionality potential of these self-assembled nanocomposites for selectively catalyzing FTS.

According to the current understanding of FTS cobalt catalysts, smaller nanocrystals catalyze the formation of shorter hydrocarbon chains with respect to larger crystals, while the effects of crystal size on reaction rate (TOF) depend on the size range.^{45,46,50} Most studies agree that TOF increases with the crystal size up to ca. 6–10 nm and remains nearly invariant with larger crystals, while others report a negative effect of TOF for even larger crystals of ca. 10–15 nm.⁵⁰ Thus, to further assess the functionality potential of the self-assembled nanocomposites, we tune the catalytic selectivity and activity of the FTS reaction by tailoring the nanocrystal size within the nanocomposite. To this aim, we decrease the crystal size of the $\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ nanocomposites from 17 to 10 nm by performing the decomposition in step (iii) at 530 °C (Figure 3B), and perform the FTS under identical conditions. Consistent with previous reports,⁵⁰ the decrease in crystal size (above 10 nm) results in an increase of the initial conversion from 13 to 25%, a steady-state conversion rate from 5 to 15%, and a TOF increase from 6.2×10^{-3} to $9.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Furthermore, as expected, the decrease of the nanocrystal size shifts the selectivity of these catalysts to form predominately shorter carbon chains, with 27% of the products as C_{5-11} while only 17% of the products have a chain length of C_{20+} (Figure 3C). Thus, our self-assembly scheme enables customization of the nanoscopic crystal size within the composites for straightforward tuning of the catalytic activity of the FTS.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

Here, we introduce a scalable bioinspired strategy for assembling supported catalysts with well-distributed nanocrystals and independently tunable nanocrystal size. We program the microscopical shape of the catalyst during the coprecipitation of $\text{BaCO}_3/\text{SiO}_2$, which also automatically distributes the BaCO_3 nanocrystals uniformly in the silica matrix with a high metal loading. Subsequently, we fine-tune the nanoscale crystal size by modulating the reaction conditions during the conversion of BaCO_3 into the desired cobalt oxide (Co_3O_4) catalyst precursor, while preserving the nanocomposite layout and microscopical shape. We further prove the versatility and application potential of these self-assembled nanocomposites with tunable catalytic activity.

Our assembly/conversion strategy enables further customization of the catalysts. We focused on converting the complete interior of the composites. However, since only the outer parts participate in the catalysis, it may be favorable to perform partial conversion to reduce the metal loading while preserving the catalytic activity. Moreover, selective conversion may enable the spatial positioning of multiple catalytic materials for cascade reactions.³⁶ We foresee that our conversion reaction scheme can straightforwardly be extended to calcium carbonate as a starting material, thus gaining access to the vast catalogue of biological calcium carbonate architectures to leverage nature's exquisite morphogenesis strategies with state-

of-the-art artificial catalytic performance. Hence, bioinspired self-assembly strategies may offer previously unimaginable control and tunability for shaping and structuring catalysts for a myriad of catalytic reactions.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.cgd.1c00165>.

Synthesis methods and equipment used (PDF)

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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■ ABBREVIATIONS

XRD, X-ray diffraction; EDS, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy; SEM, scanning electron microscopy; IR, infrared spectroscopy

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