Thermal CO Oxidation and Photocatalytic CO₂ Reduction over Bare and M-Al₂O₃ (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au) Cotton-Like Nanosheets

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Abstract: Aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) has abundantly been used as a catalyst, and its catalytic activity has been tailored by loading transition metals. Herein, γ-Al₂O₃ nanosheets were prepared by the solvothermal method, and transition metals (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au) were loaded onto the nanosheets. Big data sets of thermal CO oxidation and photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activities were fully examined for the transition metal-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets. Their physicochemical properties were examined by scanning electron microscopy, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy, X-ray diffraction crystallography, and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. It was found that Rh, Pd, Ir, and Pt-loading showed a great enhancement in CO oxidation activity while other metals negated the activity of bare Al₂O₃ nanosheets. Rh-Al₂O₃ showed the lowest CO oxidation onset temperature of 172 °C, 201 °C lower than that of bare γ-Al₂O₃. CO₂ reduction experiments were also performed to show that CO, CH₃OH, and CH₄ were common products. Ag-Al₂O₃ nanosheets showed the highest performances with yields of 237.3 ppm for CO, 36.3 ppm for CH₃OH, and 30.9 ppm for CH₄, 2.2×, 1.2×, and 1.6× enhancements, respectively, compared with those for bare Al₂O₃. Hydrogen production was found to be maximized to 20.7 ppm during CO₂ reduction for Rh-loaded Al₂O₃. The present unique pre-screening test results provided very useful information for the selection of transition metals on Al₂O₃-based energy and environmental catalysts.

Keywords: γ-Al₂O₃ nanosheets; transition metal-loading; CO oxidation; photocatalytic CO₂ reduction; physicochemical properties; hydrogen production

1. Introduction

Aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) has extensively been used as a heterogeneous catalyst in diverse catalytic reactions of CO oxidation [1–19], CO₂ reduction [20–23], CO₂ methanation/hydrogenation [20,24–27], and preferential oxidation of CO [28,29]. The efforts to increase the catalytic activity of the metal oxide have been devoted to the modification of the metal surface by loading of transition metals in groups of 9 (Co, Rh, and Ir), 10 (Ni, Pd, and Cu), and 11 (Cu, Ag, and Au). The morphology of a metal oxide support has also been a key factor for the enhancement of the catalytic activity [30]. It was reported that the role of an overlayer metal becomes different when the support metal oxide is different [2]. The relative catalytic activities of overlayer metals also become different when the catalytic application areas are different for the application to CO oxidation using transition metal-loaded Al₂O₃ catalysts.

Chen et al. prepared Pt nanoparticles (NPs) on Al₂O₃ and observed 100% CO conversion at −20 °C [1]. For the extremely high activity compared with a commercial Pt/Al₂O₃,
based on the experimental and the density functional theory (DFT) calculations, they proposed that CO was initially adsorbed on Pt(OH) kink sites and reacted with OH to release gaseous CO₂. Afterward, OH was regenerated by activation of O₂ on terrace sites. Lou and Liu studied CO oxidation of single Pt atoms dispersed on Fe₂O₃ (highly reducible), ZnO (reducible), and γ-Al₂O₃ (irreducible) supports, and observed that the catalytic activity was in the order of Pt/γ-Al₂O₃ < Pt/ZnO < Pt/Fe₂O₃ [2], where the highly reducible support showed the highest catalytic activity. Chen et al. tested Pt/Al₂O₃ for preferential oxidation (PROX) of CO in H₂ [29]. They concluded that CO conversion and CO₂ selectivity reached up to 100% in a wide range of −30 °C to 120 °C. The high performance was attributed to a combination of Pt(OH) and metallic Pt on the Al₂O₃ support. Therefore, the adsorption of CO and the activation of O₂ were optimally tuned to maximize the performance. For monodispersed single Pt atoms on θ-Al₂O₃, Moses-DeBusk et al. found that the CO oxidation did not follow a conventional Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism [11]. The Pt atom was first oxygenated, and then CO was bound to form a carbonate (CO₃²⁻), which dissociated to generate gaseous CO₂ [11]. Yang et al. employed the DFT calculation to investigate the relative CO oxidation for single-atom catalysts of Ni/γ-Al₂O₃ and Pd/γ-Al₂O₃ [7]. They reported that Ni showed an unexpectedly higher CO oxidation activity than the Pd. Ananth et al. synthesized Ag₂O/γ-Al₂O₃ and (Ag₂O + RuO₂)/γ-Al₂O₃ catalysts and tested the CO oxidation performances to show that the catalytic activity was increased by the addition of RuO₂ [6]. Han et al. reported a high CO oxidation activity at 30 °C for NiO (≤1 nm) on mesoporous Al₂O₃ prepared using atomic layer deposition [16]. The deactivation was found to be lowered with increasing the pre-annealing temperature.

For the application of Al₂O₃ to CO₂ reduction, Zhao et al. synthesized Au/Al₂O₃/TiO₂ nanocomposites, where the atomic-layer Al₂O₃ was sandwiched between the two layers [21]. They tested the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity and observed CO (major) and CH₄ (minor) as products. It was concluded that the charge transfer and surface charge recombination were highly influenced by Al₂O₃ interlayer thickness. Therefore, the maximum photocatalytic activity (37 µmol/g of CO and 2 µmol/g of CH₄) was obtained by achieving optimum Al₂O₃ thickness (5 Å). Kwak et al. performed a temperature-programmed CO₂ reduction with H₂ on Ru/Al₂O₃ catalysts and observed CO and CH₄ formation yields with activation energies of 82 kJ/mol and 62 kJ/mol, respectively [20]. It was found that CO formation selectivity was increased with increasing Ru metal dispersion but decreased with increasing Ru clustering and concluded that CO was not an intermediate species for CH₄ formation. Chein and Wang tested CO₂ methanation activities using Ni/Al₂O₃, Ru/Al₂O₃, and Ru-Ni/Al₂O₃ catalysts [27] and found that the hybrid bimetallic Ru-Ni showed higher performance than the monometallic catalysts.

Although numerous detailed in-depth studies have been performed using transition metal-loaded Al₂O₃ catalysts, no systematic comparison studies have been reported among diverse (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au) transition metal-loaded Al₂O₃ catalysts prepared by the same synthesis method. Motivated by this, we synthesized transition metal-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets and evaluated thermal CO oxidation activity as well as photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity. Consequently, the roles of overlayer transition metals were comparatively investigated in two totally different application reactions. Thereby, the present pre-screening test results provided useful information on the quick-selection of catalysts for thermal CO oxidation and photocatalytic CO₂ reduction.

2. Materials and Methods
2.1. Catalysts Synthesis Procedures

For the synthesis of Al precursor nanosheets, 1 mmol of aluminum nitrate nonahydrate (Al(NO₃)₃·9H₂O, 98%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), 0.008 g of polyethylene glycol (PEG, Mₙ = 4000, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), and 20 µL of oleic acid (≥99%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) were fully dissolved by magnetic stirring in a mixed solvent of 10 mL of deionized water and 15 mL of ethanol (99.9%, Samchun Chem., Gyounggi, Korea) for 20 min. After that, the solution was transferred into a Teflon-lined
A stainless-steel autoclave reactor, which was then tightly capped for sealing. The tightly capped reactor was placed in an oven setting at 200 °C for 12 h. After the thermal reaction, the reactor was naturally cooled to room temperature, and the finally obtained white precipitates were collected by washing with deionized water and ethanol repeatedly by centrifugation at 3600 rpm. The collected wet powder was fully dried in an oven setting at 80 °C for 24 h. To obtain Al₂O₃ nanosheets, the dried powder sample was thermally annealed at 600 °C for 2 h.

For transition metal (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au) loadings, 50 mg of Al₂O₃ nanosheets were fully dispersed in 20 mL ethanol, followed by adding 2 mol% of metal ions. The chemicals for metal ions were cobalt(II) nitrate hexahydrate (≥98%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), nickel(II) nitrate hexahydrate (≥98.5%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), copper(II) nitrate trihydrate (99%, Daejung, Gyounggi, Korea), rhodium(III) chloride hydrate (≥99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), palladium(II) chloride (99.8%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), silver nitrate solution (0.1 N, Samchun Pure Chem., Gyounggi, Korea), platinum (III) chloride (≥99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), iridium (III) chloride hydrate (≥99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), and gold(III) chloride trihydrate (≥99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). After complete mixing, the solvent was slowly evaporated by gentle heating (50 °C) while stirring. The dried M-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets were, again, thermally annealed at 600 °C for 2 h.

2.2. Sample Characterization

The surface morphologies of the Al-precursor, Al₂O₃ nanosheets, and M-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets were examined using a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi S-4800, Hitachi Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) at conditions of 10 kV and 10 mA. X-ray crystallographic diffraction patterns were recorded using a PANalytical X’Pert Pro MPD diffractometer (PANalytical, Almelo, Netherlands) with Cu Kα radiation (40 kV and 30 mA). Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) were obtained for bare Al₂O₃ nanosheets and the selected Ni- and Rh-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets using an FEI Tecnai G2 F20 TEM (Hillsboro, OR, USA) operated at 300.0 kV. X-ray photoelectron spectra were taken using a Thermo-VG Scientific K-alpha+ spectrometer (Thermo VG Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with a hemispherical energy analyzer. Attenuated total reflection Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) was employed using a Nicolet i5 10 FT-IR spectrometer (Thermo Scientific Korea, Seoul, Korea). The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface areas were measured using a ChemBET TPR/TPD analyzer (Quantachrome Instruments Corp., Boynton Beach, FL, USA) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector.

2.3. Thermal CO Oxidation and Photocatalytic CO₂ Reduction Experiments

For thermal CO oxidation reactions, 20 mg of a catalyst was initially loaded into a U-shape quartz tube. After that, the tube was positioned in a temperature-programmed furnace. The temperature heating rate was 20 °C/min, and the flowing gas was CO(1.0%)/O₂(2.5%)/N₂ at a flow rate of 40 mL/min. The gas products from the outlet of the tube were monitored using a quadrupole mass spectrometer (RGA200, Stanford Research Systems, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). After the first run to a maximum temperature of 500 °C, the sample cell was naturally cooled to a room temperature of 25 °C. After that, the second run was performed at room temperature.

For photocatalytic CO₂ reduction experiments, 3 mg of a catalyst was fully dispersed on a quartz disc (an area of 15.9 cm²) and placed in a stainless-steel reactor (volume ~40 mL) with additional deionized water (20 µL) beside the disc. After that, the reactor was tightly closed with a quartz window (0.3 cm thick and 4.5 cm diameter) on top. Afterward, pure (99.999%) CO₂ gas was fully flushed and filled with the gas. For the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction test, the reactor with the quartz window was placed under UVC (200–280 nm) lamps (a power density of 5.94 mW/cm²) for 12 h. After the UVC irradiation time, 0.5 mL of gas was taken and injected into a YL 6500 gas chromatograph (GC, Young In Chromass...
Co., Ltd., Seoul, Korea). For the analysis of the CO, CH$_3$OH, CH$_4$, and H$_2$ products, the GC system was equipped with HP-Plot Q-FT column (Agilent Technologies, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA), 40/60 Carboxen-1000 column (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), a Ni catalyst methanizer assembly, a thermal conductivity detector, and a flame ionization detector.

3. Results and Discussion

Figure 1(a,a1) show the SEM image of the as-prepared Al-precursor with a morphology of cotton-like nanostructures. Figure 1b shows the sample after thermal annealing at 600 °C, abbreviated as bare Al$_2$O$_3$. It appears that the morphology showed no significant change, but the nanosheets became somewhat compacted. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of bare Al$_2$O$_3$ was measured to be 154.4 m$^2$/g. The corresponding transmission electron microscope (TEM) image clearly showed the morphology of nanosheets. For the high-resolution TEM image of bare Al$_2$O$_3$, clear lattice fringes were seen, and the lattice spacing was estimated to be 0.197 nm. This was well-matched to the (002) crystal plane of cubic phase gamma-Al$_2$O$_3$. This was further discussed in detail below. The structure projection of the (002) and (022) planes for Al$_2$O$_3$ are shown in Figure 1(b1) for visual understanding.

![Figure 1](image_url)

**Figure 1.** Scanning electron microscope (SEM) (a,a1,b), transmission electron microscope (TEM) (b2), high resolution TEM (b3) images of the as-synthesized Al-precursor (a,a1) and Al$_2$O$_3$ (b,b2,b3), and the structure projection (b1) of the (002) and (022) planes for cubic phase γ-Al$_2$O$_3$. 
Figure 2 shows the SEM and TEM images of selected Ni- and Rh-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets. The SEM images of other M-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets are provided in the Supporting Information, Figure S1. The SEM image (Figure 2a) of Rh-Al₂O₃ showed small nanoparticles embedded on the nanosheets. The nanoparticles appeared as a result of Rh particle formation. The color of burlywood was clearly different from the white color for bare Al₂O₃. On the other hand, the SEM image (Figure 2b) of Ni-Al₂O₃ nanosheets showed only cotton-like nanosheets. It was difficult to discriminate Ni species from the bare Al₂O₃ support. However, the color clearly changed from white to pale blue upon Ni-loading. The photos and optical microscope images of the M-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets are provided in the Supporting Information, Figures S2 and S3, respectively. Although the SEM images showed no clear metal embedment, the color change was a clear indication of metal-loading on the Al₂O₃ support. The metal-loading was also confirmed by the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) data, discussed below.

![Figure 2](image-url)  
*Figure 2. SEM (a,b), TEM (a1,b1), HRTEM (a2,b2) images of selected Rh-Al₂O₃ (a,a1,a2) and Ni-Al₂O₃ (b,b1,b2) nanosheets. Insets of Figure 2(a2) show the fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of the HRTEM image, and the structure projection of the (114) and (200) planes for Rh₂O₃.*
The TEM images (Figure 2(a1)) of Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ clearly showed NPs (with a size of ~20 nm) embedded onto the nanosheets. For the HRTEM image (Figure 2(b2)) of an Rh-NP, clear lattice fringes were observed, and the distances were estimated to be 0.263 nm and 0.254 nm. These distances matched well with the (114) and (200) crystal planes of orthorhombic (Pbcn) Rh$_2$O$_3$ (ICSD ref. 98-000-9206), respectively. This indicated that Rh was embedded not in the metallic form but rather in the oxide form. This was further confirmed by the XPS data below. The fast Fourier transform (FFT) pattern of the HRTEM image reflected the crystallinity of the Rh oxide. The TEM images (Figure 2(b1)) of Ni-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets showed only nanosheet morphology, consistent with the corresponding SEM image (Figure 2b).

For the HRTEM image in Figure 2(b2), the lattice fringes with distances of 0.227 nm and 0.196 nm matched well with the (111) and (002) crystal planes of the cubic phase γ-Al$_2$O$_3$. The lattices showed poor crystallinity compared with those of bare Al$_2$O$_3$, seen in Figure 1(b3). Interestingly, some areas (dotted circles) showed very poor crystallinity, and these appeared like amorphous particles. This is likely an indication of Ni embedment on the Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets. Very similarly for Co-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, although particles were not clearly seen in the TEM image (Supporting Information, Figure S4), the corresponding HRTEM image showed the areas with very poor crystallinity. The areas appeared like Co-embedment in the Al$_2$O$_3$ support.

The BET surface areas of Ni-Al$_2$O$_3$ and Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets were measured to be 151.2 m$^2$/g and 153.8 m$^2$/g, respectively. The surface areas were very similar to that of bare Al$_2$O$_3$. This indicated that the surface area was not significantly impacted by the metal-loading.

Figure 3 displays the X-ray diffraction patterns of bare Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets. For the XRD patterns of bare Al$_2$O$_3$, two distinctive peaks were observed at $\theta = 45.9^\circ$ and $67.0^\circ$. These two peaks could be assigned to the (002) and (022) planes of cubic phase (Fm-3m) γ-Al$_2$O$_3$, (ICSD ref. 98-003-0267), respectively. The XRD result was in good consistency with the HRTEM result of the bare Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheet. For the XRD profiles of M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, two peaks were commonly observed, as expected. Interestingly, Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, and Ag-loaded samples showed no significant extra peaks in the corresponding XRD profiles. These results indicated that the metals were loaded with an amorphous oxide state (discussed below in XPS) or embedded very uniformly without forming good crystal phases. In addition, because the metal amount was only 2 mol%, the XRD patterns could not be clearly observed when the phase was an amorphous oxide form. As seen in the HRTEM images of Ni-Al$_2$O$_3$ and Co-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets discussed above (Figure 2(b2) and Figure S4, respectively), the particle-like areas showed very poor crystallinity. On the other hand, Pd, Ir, Pt, and Au-loaded samples showed new peaks in the corresponding XRD profiles.

For the XRD patterns of Pd-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, several peaks at $\theta = 33.8^\circ$, 42.0$^\circ$, 54.7$^\circ$, 60.1$^\circ$, and 71.5$^\circ$ showed good matches with the (011), (110), (112), (013), and (121) crystal planes of tetragonal (p 42/mmc) PdO (ICSD ref. 98-002-9281), respectively [15]. For Ir-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, several strong XRD peaks were observed at $\theta = 27.9^\circ$, 34.6$^\circ$, 39.9$^\circ$, 53.9$^\circ$, 57.9$^\circ$, 58.3$^\circ$, 66.0$^\circ$, 69.0$^\circ$, and 73.0$^\circ$, with good matches with the (110), (011), (020), (121), (220), (002), (130), (112), and (031) crystal planes of tetragonal (p 42/mmm) IrO$_2$ (ICSD ref. 98-008-4577), respectively. For Pt-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, three major peaks were observed at $\theta = 39.8^\circ$, 46.2$^\circ$, and 67.5$^\circ$, assigned to the (111), (002), and (022) crystal planes of the cubic (Fm-3m) crystal phase of metallic Pt (ICSD ref. 98-007-6153), respectively. For Au-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, three strong peaks were observed at $\theta = 38.1^\circ$, 44.3$^\circ$, and 64.5$^\circ$, assigned to the (111), (002), and (022) crystal planes of the cubic (Fm-3m) crystal phase of Au (ICSD ref. 98-061-1624), respectively.
Figure 3. XRD profiles bare Al₂O₃ and M-loaded Al₂O₃ nanosheets.

XPS was employed to confirm the loading of the transition metals and examine the oxidation states. Figure 4 shows Co 2p, Ni 2p, Cu 2p, Rh 3d, Pd 3d, Ag 3d, Ir 4d, Pt 4d, and Au 4d of Co-Al₂O₃, Ni-Al₂O₃, Cu-Al₂O₃, Rh-Al₂O₃, Pd-Al₂O₃, Ag-Al₂O₃, Ir-Al₂O₃, Pt-Al₂O₃, and Au-Al₂O₃ nanosheets, respectively. XPS valence band spectra (Figure 4, right panel) are also displayed for the corresponding samples. The survey, Al 2p, O 1s, and C 1s profiles are provided in the Supporting Information, Figure S5. All the binding energies (BEs) were referenced to the C 1s XPS peak at 284.8 eV. The survey spectra commonly showed the elements of Al, O, and C (surface impurities), as expected. The XPS peaks of the loaded transition metals were very weakly observed.
Figure 4. Co 2p, Ni 2p, Cu 2p, Rh 3d, Pd 3d, Ag 3d, Ir 4d, Pt 4d, Au 4d, and VB profiles of Co-Al2O3, Ni-Al2O3, Cu-Al2O3, Rh-Al2O3, Pd-Al2O3, Ag-Al2O3, Ir-Al2O3, Pt-Al2O3, and Au-Al2O3 nanosheets.

For Co-Al2O3 nanosheets, Co 2p1/2 and Co 2p3/2 XPS peaks were observed at binding energies (BEs) of 797.4 eV and 781.6 eV, respectively, with a spin-orbit splitting of 15.8 eV. This could be attributed to Co2+ of CoO and Co(OH)2 [31,32]. The corresponding satellite peaks for Co2+ were clearly observed around 803 eV and 786 eV. For Ni-Al2O3 nanosheets, Ni 2p1/2 and Ni 2p3/2 XPS peaks were observed at binding energies (BEs) of 873.4 eV and 856.1 eV, respectively, with a spin-orbit splitting of 17.3 eV. This could be attributed to Ni2+ of NiO and Ni(OH)2 [15,31,32]. The corresponding satellite peaks for Ni2+ were clearly observed around 880 eV and 862 eV. For Cu-Al2O3 nanosheets, Cu 2p1/2 and Cu 2p3/2 XPS peaks were observed at binding energies (BEs) of 952.4 eV and 932.7 eV, respectively, with a spin-orbit splitting of 19.7 eV. This could be attributed to Cu2+ of CuO and Cu(OH)2 [32,33]. The corresponding satellite peak for Cu2+ was clearly observed around 942 eV. For Ag-Al2O3 nanosheets, Ag 3d3/2 and Ag 3d5/2 XPS peaks were observed at BEs of 374.5 eV and 368.6 eV, respectively. This was attributed to metallic Ag [6,32,36]. The shoulder peak of the Pd 3d5/2 peak was seen around 335.5 eV, plausibly due to metallic Pd [32]. For Pd-Al2O3 nanosheets, Pd 3d3/2 and Pd 3d5/2 XPS peaks were observed at BEs of 314.3 eV and 309.7 eV, respectively, with a spin-orbit splitting of 4.6 eV. The XPS BEs were attributed to an oxidation state of Pd2+ [32,34,35]. There was a good coincidence between the oxidation state of the XPS and the XRD profiles of tetragonal PdO. A weak shoulder peak of the Pd 3d5/2 peak was seen around 335.5 eV, plausibly due to metallic Pd [32]. For Ag-Al2O3 nanosheets, Ag 3d3/2 and Ag 3d5/2 XPS peaks were observed at BEs of 374.5 eV and 368.6 eV, respectively. This was attributed to metallic Ag [6,32,36]. The shoulder peak of the Pd 3d5/2 peak was seen around 335.5 eV, plausibly due to metallic Pd [32]. For Ag-Al2O3 nanosheets, Ag 3d3/2 and Ag 3d5/2 XPS peaks were observed at BEs of 374.5 eV and 368.6 eV, respectively. This was attributed to metallic Ag [6,32,36]. The shoulder peak of the Pd 3d5/2 peak was seen around 335.5 eV, plausibly due to metallic Pd [32].
Nanomaterials, 1278 were obtained to examine thermal CO oxidation catalytic activities for bare Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) with the photocatalytic CO oxidation was observed to be closer to the Fermi level. Especially, Rh, Pd, Ir, and Pt showed more weak shoulder of Ir 4d\(_{5/2}\) peak at 75.0 eV was observed and attributed to the Al of surface Al-OH species [32,38]. For VB spectra of M-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets, two broad features were seen around 9 eV and 6 eV, attributed bonding 2p\(_\sigma\) (mixed with Al 3s, Al 3p, and Al 3d) and antibonding 2p\(_\pi\) of the oxygen [40]. For VB spectra of M-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets, the density of states (DOS) was observed to be closer to the Fermi level. Especially, Rh, Pd, Ir, and Pt showed more clearly new features near 2 eV below the Fermi level, attributed to the Rh 4d, Pd 4d, Ir 5d, and Pt 5d, respectively. This could be related to the higher CO oxidation activities for these metals, discussed below. However, the DOS profiles showed no explicit relationship with the photocatalytic CO\(_2\) reduction activity. The detailed roles of the overlayer elements could be understood with the aid of density functional theory.

Temperature-programmed CO oxidation profiles (Supporting Information, Figure S6) were obtained to examine thermal CO oxidation catalytic activities for bare Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) and M-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets. To evaluate the catalytic activities of the catalysts, Figure 5a,b display the CO oxidation onset temperatures for the first and the second runs, respectively. Table 1 summarizes the onset temperatures (T\(_{M-Al_2O_3,\text{onset}}\)) and the temperature difference (T\(_{M-Al_2O_3,2nd} - T_{M-Al_2O_3,1st}\)) between the first and the second runs. The onset temperatures of Ir-, Pt-, Pd-, and Rh-loaded Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets were observed to be much lower than those of Au-, Ag-, Cu-, Co-, and Ni-loped Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets. The group 11 (Au, Ag, and Cu) and the period 4 (Co, Ni, and Cu) elements showed much poor catalytic activity on the Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) support. Additionally, the onset temperatures of Au and Ag-loaded Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets were unexpectedly even higher than expected [6,10,15]. In other words, the Au- and Ag-loaded Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets showed poorer CO oxidation activity. In the first run, the Rh-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets showed the lowest onset of 135 \(^\circ\)C, while the Ni-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets showed the highest onset of 490 \(^\circ\)C. The temperature difference between the two samples was estimated to be 335 \(^\circ\)C. In the second run, the Rh-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets also showed the lowest onset of 172 \(^\circ\)C while the Ni-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets showed the highest onset of 480 \(^\circ\)C. The temperature difference was estimated to be 308 \(^\circ\)C. Pd, Ir, and Pt showed the CO oxidation onsets at 207 \(^\circ\)C, 217 \(^\circ\)C, and 216 \(^\circ\)C, respectively, in the second run. For highly dispersed (or single atom state) 0.2 wt % Pt on mesoporous Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) support, Zhang et al. reported CO oxidation onset at \(\sim\)200 \(^\circ\)C, which was in good coincidence with the present result [5]. These results clearly indicated that the CO oxidation activity was highly influenced by the nature of overlayer metal species.
CO oxidation onset of Rh-Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} occurred much earlier than that of bare Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}. The onsets of Rh-Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} in the first and the second runs were observed to be 251 °C and 201 °C lower than those of bare Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}, respectively. However, the onset temperatures became much higher upon loading Ni.

Figure 5. CO oxidation onsets for the first (a) and second (b) runs of M-loaded Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} nanosheets. Selected first and second run CO oxidation profiles with temperature (c) for bare, Rh- and Ni-Al\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3} nanosheets. Differences in CO oxidation onsets for the first and the second runs (d) and relative CO oxidation onset temperatures relative to that of bare nanosheets (e,f).
Table 1. CO oxidation onset temperatures ($T_{M-Al2O3,onset}$) in the first and second runs. Differences in CO oxidation onset temperatures ($T_{M-Al2O3,2nd} - T_{M-Al2O3,1st}$) between the first and second runs.

| Group #9 | First Run | Second Run | Diff. | Group #10 | First Run | Second Run | Diff. | Group #11 | First Run | Second Run | Diff. |
|----------|-----------|------------|-------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------|
| Co       | 390       | 385        | -5    | Ni        | 490       | 480        | -10   | Cu        | 360       | 389        | 29    |
| Rh       | 135       | 172        | 37    | Pd        | 201       | 207        | 6     | Ag        | 340       | 397        | 57    |
| Ir       | 195       | 217        | 22    | Pt        | 197       | 206        | 9     | Au        | 375       | 415        | 40    |

Figure 5c shows the CO oxidation profiles for the first and the second runs of the selected samples (bare Al$_2$O$_3$, Ni-Al$_2$O$_3$, and Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ catalysts). As seen in the Figure 5, the CO oxidation onset of Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ occurred much earlier than that of bare Al$_2$O$_3$. The onsets of Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ in the first and the second runs were observed to be 251 °C and 201 °C lower than those of bare Al$_2$O$_3$, respectively. However, the onset temperatures became much higher upon loading Ni.

To examine the difference in catalytic activity between the first and the second runs, Figure 5d plots the temperature differences ($T_{M-Al2O3,2nd} - T_{M-Al2O3,1st}$) in the CO oxidation onsets between the first and the second runs. In the first run, the CO oxidation reactions were performed with the as-prepared samples. In the second run, the CO oxidation reactions were performed with samples, which were already participated in the first run. Therefore, the surface states (or the catalytic-active sites) were expected to be different for the samples in the first and the second runs. The values ($T_{M-Al2O3,2nd} - T_{M-Al2O3,1st}$) are summarized in Table 1. The positive value (Figure 5d) indicated that the CO oxidation started at a higher temperature in the second run. In other words, the CO oxidation catalytic activity became lower in the second run.

For Co- and Ni-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, the onset temperatures in the second run were observed to be slightly lower than those in the first run. However, the other samples commonly showed higher onset temperatures in the second run, compared with the first run. This indicated that, for the latter, the catalytic activity became somewhat lower after the first run. The lower catalytic activity appeared to be mainly due to a change in crystallinity and lower catalytic-active sites.

To evaluate the roles of the transition metals in catalytic activities, compared with bare Al$_2$O$_3$, Figure 5e,f show the relative CO oxidation onsets ($T_{Al2O3} - T_{M-Al2O3}$), compared with those of the first and the second runs of the bare Al$_2$O$_3$, respectively. The values are summarized in Table 2. In the first runs, the $T_{Al2O3,1st} - T_{M-Al2O3,1st}$ values of Co and Ni showed positive, and others showed negative values. In the second runs, Co, Ni, Cu, Ag, and Au showed positive, and others showed negative values. On the basis of Figure 5e,f, the catalytic activity became poorer upon loading Co and Ni, compared with bare Al$_2$O$_3$. Unexpectedly, the Au, Ag, and Cu (group 11) showed somewhat higher activities in the first run but showed poorer catalytic activity in the second run, compared with the bare Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheet. The Rh, Pd, Ir, and Pt showed much higher (with lowering of onset temperatures between 156 °C and 261 °C) CO oxidation activity in the first and second runs. Conclusively, the CO oxidation activity showed the order of Ni < Co < Au < Cu < Ag < Pd < Pt < Ir < Rh in the first run, and Ni < Au < Ag < Cu < Co < Ir < Pt ≈ Pd < Rh in the second run.

Table 2. Differences in CO oxidation onset temperatures ($T_{Al2O3,onset} - T_{M-Al2O3,onset}$) in the first and second runs, compared with that of bare Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets. The CO oxidation onset temperatures of bare Al$_2$O$_3$ were 386 °C and 373 °C for the first and the second runs, respectively.

| Group #9 | First Run | Second Run | Group #10 | First Run | Second Run | Group #11 | First Run | Second Run |
|----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Co       | 4         | 12         | Ni        | 104       | 107        | Cu        | -26       | 16         |
| Rh       | -251      | -201       | Pd        | -185      | -166       | Ag        | -46       | 24         |
| Ir       | -191      | -156       | Pt        | -189      | -167       | Au        | -11       | 42         |
For CO oxidation, a simplified mechanism is described below;

\[
\text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CO} \rightarrow \text{CO(ad)-M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \quad \text{adsorption of CO (1)}
\]

\[
\text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 + 1/2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{O(ad)-M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \quad \text{dissociative adsorption of O}_2 (2)
\]

\[
\text{CO} + \text{O(ad)-M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CO}_2 \quad \text{(3)}
\]

\[
\text{CO} + \text{HO-M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 - \text{H} + \text{CO}_2 \quad \text{(4)}
\]

\[
\text{CO} + \text{O}_2(ad)-\text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{CO}_3(ad)-\text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \quad \text{carbonate formation (5)}
\]

\[
\text{CO}_3(ad)-\text{M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 \rightarrow \text{O(ad)-M-Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{CO}_2 \quad \text{(6)}
\]

The CO oxidation mechanism was explained by the Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism [12,13] and the non-Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism [4,11], depending on the overlayer transition metals. In reaction (1), CO was adsorbed on metal site, and in reaction (2), oxygen was dissociatively adsorbed on the surface. In reaction (3), gaseous CO and surface O reacted to release CO$_2$ [12,13]. When moisture was present in the reaction, the surface OH group was plausibly formed and CO might also react with the surface metal hydroxide to form the CO$_2$ in reaction (4) [15]. On the basis of the FT-IR spectra (Supporting Information, Figure S7), surface OH groups were observed in the as-prepared samples. Therefore, reaction (4) was likely involved in the first run of CO$_2$ formation. If H was not desorbed as H$_2$O, the surface H was recycled as shown in reaction (4). Otherwise, the H was removed from the surface as gaseous H$_2$O, and, thus, the reaction (4) was diminished in the second run. Reaction (5) was also reported for surfaces such as Pt/Al$_2$O$_3$ [4,11]. In reaction (5), CO was adsorbed on oxygenated metal atoms to initially form carbonate. Then, the carbonate dissociated to generate CO$_2$ in reaction (6).

Photocatalytic CO$_2$ reduction products were examined for bare Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets and are displayed in Figure 6 [39,41,42]. Major CO$_2$ reduction products were observed to be carbon monoxide (CO), methanol (CH$_3$OH), and methane (CH$_4$) with an order: CH$_4$ < CH$_3$OH < CO. CO was the most dominantly produced species. CH$_3$OH showed a higher production amount compared with CH$_4$. Hydrogen (H$_2$) was additionally observed as a photocatalytic water splitting product during CO$_2$ reduction. Figure 6a plots all of the product amounts (µmol/mol = ppm) for bare Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets. As a quick glance, Ag-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets showed the highest amounts of CO$_2$ reduction products: 237.3 ppm for CO, 36.3 ppm for CH$_3$OH, and 30.9 ppm for CH$_4$, and Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets showed the highest H$_2$ production (20.7 ppm). For the bare Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets in Figure 6b, CO, CH$_3$OH, and CH$_4$ were observed to be 107.5 ppm, 29.6 ppm, and 19.5 ppm, respectively. No H$_2$ was detected. CO reduction yields (µmol/mol) in different groups of 9, 10, and 11, and with different units (µmol/g), are provided in the Supporting Information, Figures S8 and S9, respectively.

For bare Al$_2$O$_3$, the selectivities for CO, CH$_3$OH, and CH$_4$ were estimated to be 68.6%, 18.9%, and 12.5%, respectively. Upon Co- and Cu-loading, CH$_4$ and H$_2$ showed meaningful (>25%) enhancements. However, the amounts of CO and CH$_3$OH showed no critical change. CO, CH$_3$OH, and CH$_4$ productions were enhanced by 28%, 17%, and 24% upon Ni-loading. CO was increased by 2.2× upon loading Ag in Figure 6c. CH$_3$OH and CH$_4$ were also increased by 1.23× and 1.58×, respectively, upon loading Ag. Rh and Pd-loadings had a smaller effect on the CO production relative to the bare support. CH$_3$OH and CH$_4$ productions were not meaningfully enhanced by Rh- and Pd-loadings. Instead, interestingly the H$_2$ production was commonly observed in these metal-loadings. For Ir, Pt, and Au elements in period 6, CO productions were all decreased by metal-loadings. CH$_3$OH productions were somewhat increased by 19% and 16% upon loading of Pt and Au, respectively. The CH$_4$ production was only increased upon loading Pt relative to the bare substrate.
Figure 6. CO$_2$ reduction CO, CH$_4$, and CH$_3$OH yields (µmol/mol) over bare and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets (a), (Co, Ni, and Cu)-Al$_2$O$_3$ (b), (Rh, Pd, and Ag)-Al$_2$O$_3$ (c), (Ir, Pt, and Au)-Al$_2$O$_3$ (d), and CO$_2$ reduction mechanism.
For H\(_2\) production, Ag, Pd, and Rh (in period 5) metals commonly showed H\(_2\) productions with amounts of 2.1 ppm, 3.0 ppm, and 20.7 ppm, respectively. For the metals of Co, Ni, and Cu (in period 4), the H\(_2\) production amounts were observed to be 1.9 ppm, 0 ppm, and 3.0 ppm, respectively. That is, Ni showed no H\(_2\) production. The metals of Au, Pt, and Ir in period 6 commonly showed no H\(_2\) production at all. The Rh-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets predominantly showed the highest H\(_2\) production with an amount of 20.7 ppm.

The photocatalytic CO\(_2\) reduction mechanism is generally written as \(\text{xCO}_2 + \text{yH}^+ + \text{ze}^- \rightarrow \text{C}_x\text{H}_y\text{O}_z\) products + \(d\text{H}_2\text{O}\) [41,42]. Electrons (e\(^-\)) and holes (h\(^+\)) were generated under UVC irradiation in reaction (7). H\(^+\) ion was generated via the reactions in (8)–(11). The generation of electrons was an important factor for the multielectron processes. The mechanisms for the productions of CO (in reaction (12)), CH\(_3\)OH (in reaction (13)), and CH\(_4\) (in reaction (14)) are written as below and shown in Figure 6 [38,39].

\[
\text{Al oxides} + \text{UVC} \rightarrow \text{Al oxides} (e^- + h^+) \quad (7)
\]

\[
\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{OH} \quad (8)
\]

\[
\text{OH}^- + \text{h}^+ \rightarrow \bullet\text{OH} \quad (9)
\]

\[
\bullet\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{3h}^+ \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + \text{3H}^+ \quad (10)
\]

\[
\text{H}^+ + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{1/2H}_2 \quad (11)
\]

\[
\text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}, -0.530 \text{ V vs. standard hydrogen electrode (SHE)} \quad (12)
\]

\[
\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}^+ + 6\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}, -0.380 \text{ V vs. SHE} \quad (13)
\]

\[
\text{CO}_2 + 8\text{H}^+ + 8\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}, -0.240 \text{ V vs. SHE} \quad (14)
\]

These reaction channels were closely spaced in free energy change, and, thus, the hydrogen production channel (H\(^+\) + e\(^-\) → 1/2H\(_2\), −0.42 V vs. SHE) occurred competitively. In the mechanism, CO\(_2\) was initially adsorbed to form COOH. The COOH was then attacked by H\(^+\) and e\(^-\) to generate gaseous CO. The CO production channel was only enhanced by loading Ag or Ni on Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) support. CH\(_3\)OH production was likely formed when surface CO\(_{ad}\) underwent step-wise hydrogenation. This production was enhanced by loading Ni, Rh, Ag, Pt, or Au on Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) support. CH\(_4\) production was formed via C–O bond scission of hydrogenated =C–OH and new C–H bond formation. This production was somewhat enhanced by loading Co, Ni, Cu, Ag, or Pt. The present pre-screening tests need further investigations to understand the detailed roles of the overlayer elements, with the aid of density functional theory.

4. Conclusions

In summary, γ-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets were prepared by the solvothermal method followed by thermal calcination at 600 °C for 2 h. Transition metals (M = Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au) were loaded on Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheet supports, and their thermal CO oxidation and photocatalytic CO\(_2\) reduction activities were fully tested.

The thermal CO oxidation activity showed the order of Ni < Co < Au < Cu < Ag << Pd < Pt < Ir < Rh in the first run, and Ni < Au < Ag < Cu < Co << Ir < Pt ≈ Pd < Rh in the second run. The Au, Ag, Co, Ni, and Cu elements reduced the catalytic activity on the Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) support. CO oxidation activity was greatly enhanced by the loading of Ir, Pt, Pd, and Rh elements. Rh-Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) nanosheets showed the highest CO oxidation activity with onset temperatures of 135 °C and 172 °C for the first and the second runs, respectively.

Photocatalytic CO\(_2\) reduction experiments were also performed to show that CO, CH\(_3\)OH, and CH\(_4\) were common products with an order of CH\(_4\) (14.6–30.9 ppm range) < CH\(_3\)OH (23.0–36.3 ppm range) << CO (76.5–237.3 ppm range). The highest performance was achieved after Ag-loadings with yields of 237.3 ppm for CO, 36.3 ppm for CH\(_3\)OH, and 30.9 ppm for CH\(_4\), corresponding to 2.2×, 1.2×, and 1.6× enhancements, respectively, compared with those for the bare Al\(_2\)O\(_3\). CO production was substantially decreased by
the loading of Pd and Pt. Hydrogen production was enhanced by Rh-loadings with a yield of 20.7 ppm. Conclusively, Rh-Al$_2$O$_3$ and Ag-Al$_2$O$_3$ showed the best thermal CO oxidation and photocatalytic CO$_2$ reduction performances, respectively, among Co, Ni, Cu, Rh, Pd, Ag, Ir, Pt, and Au element loadings.

The present pre-screening test results could be a useful quick guide for the selection of overlay transition metals in the groups of 9, 10, and 11 when Al$_2$O$_3$ is used as a support catalyst material. It also enriched the understanding of the role of an overlay transition metal.

**Supplementary Materials:** The following are available online at [https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/nano11051278/s1](https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/nano11051278/s1), Figure S1: Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images for M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S2: Photos for M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S3: Optical microscope images for Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S4: Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) and high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) images of Co-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S5: First and second CO oxidation profiles for Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S6: Survey, C 1s, Al 2p, and O 1s profile for bare and M-Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, Figure S7: FT-IR spectra for Al$_2$O$_3$ and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets before and after CO oxidation, Figure S8: CO$_2$ reduction CO, CH$_4$, and CH$_3$OH yields (μmol/mol) over bare and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, group 9: (Co, Rh and Ir)-Al$_2$O$_3$, group 10: (Ni, Pd and Pt)-Al$_2$O$_3$, and group 11: (Ir, Pt and Au)-Al$_2$O$_3$, Figure S9: CO, CH$_4$, and CH$_3$OH yields (μmol/g) for over bare and M-loaded Al$_2$O$_3$ nanosheets, (Co, Ni and Cu)-Al$_2$O$_3$, (Rh, Pd and Ag)-Al$_2$O$_3$, (Ir, Pt and Au)-Al$_2$O$_3$.

**Author Contributions:** H.Y. performed the material synthesis, SEM, TEM, XRD, CO oxidation, and data analysis; J.Y. performed the CO$_2$ reduction and data analysis; S.P. performed the XPS experiments and data analysis; Y.S. designed the experiments and wrote the paper. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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