

Boosting hydrogen production at room temperature by synergizing theory and experimentation

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Abstract

Methane is a major constituent of natural gas and is widely used in hydrogen production. However, its high symmetry poses a challenge, as breaking the strong C-H bond requires substantial energy input. Hence, there is a pressing need to develop efficient catalysts for methane conversion. By synergizing theory and experimentation, the search for a better catalyst can be accelerated, potentially boosting methane conversion processes. In the present work, theoretical findings prompted the experiments, which revealed the spontaneous dissociation of CH₄ on selected facets of β -Ga₂O₃. Additionally, the activation barrier for ethane formation was merely 0.1 eV. NTP-assisted conversion of methane in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃ confirmed these findings. The formation rate of hydrogen and ethane rises to 366 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ and 86.62 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$,

respectively, in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃, in contrast to 281.4 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ and 66 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ without catalysts. For the CH₄-H₂O reaction in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃, there is an increase of 74.42% in the CO formation rate compared to the reaction without the catalyst. An electronic structure analysis revealed that electrophilic oxygen species on the β -Ga₂O₃ (-202) surface play a vital role in the decomposition of methane, facilitating C-H bond cleavage.

Introduction

Methane is a principal component of natural gas, and its conversion to value-added chemicals is a crucial area of investigation owing to its potential for reducing dependence on fossil fuels and mitigating greenhouse gas emissions. However, methane’s high stability and low reactivity significantly challenge its transformation.¹ One promising approach for activating methane is through heterogeneous catalysis, which promotes breaking the C-H bond.²⁻⁶ Methane conversion produces hydrogen in addition to carbon monoxide, hydrocarbons, or

Table 1: We report different methods for H₂ production from methane, reactions, catalysts, reaction temperature.

Process	Reaction	Catalysts	Reaction temperature (°C)
Steam reforming of methane ^{7,8}	1) CH ₄ + 2H ₂ O → CO ₂ + 4H ₂ 2) CH ₄ + H ₂ O → CO + 3H ₂	Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ , Ni/MgO, Ni-CeO ₂ -Al ₂ O ₃ , Ni-CeO ₂ -ZrO ₂ -SiO ₂ , Ni/MgAl ₂ O ₄ , Ru-CaO/Ca ₃ Al ₂ O ₆	500 - 800
Dry reforming of methane ^{9,10}	CH ₄ + CO ₂ → 2CO + 2H ₂	Rh/MgO, Rh/ γ -Al ₂ O ₃ , Ni-MgO-CeO ₂ , Ni-MgO-Al ₂ O ₃ , Ni/MgAl ₂ O ₄ , Ni-Fe/MgAlO, Ni/SiO ₂	400 - 800
Partial oxidation of methane ¹¹	CH ₄ + 1/2 O ₂ → CO + 2H ₂	RuO ₂ , Ni/MgO, Au-Pd/TiO ₂ , NiAl ₂ O ₄ , Pt-CeO ₂ , Ni _{0.5} WO _x /Al ₂ O ₃ , BaFe ₃ Al ₉ O ₁₉ , La _{0.8} Sr _{0.2} FeO ₃ , LaFeO ₃	600 - 900
Non-oxidative coupling of methane ¹²	2CH ₄ → C ₂ H ₆ + H ₂	Pt/CeO ₂ , Pd/ α -Al ₂ O ₃ , Fe/SiO ₂ , Ta/SiO ₂ , Fe@SiO ₂ , Fe/HZSM-5, Pt/Mo ₂ TiC ₂	250 - 1000
Catalytic decomposition of methane ¹³	CH ₄ → C + 2H ₂	Co/Ce-TiO ₂ , Co/MgO, Fe/Al ₂ O ₃ , Fe/CeO ₂ , Ni-CeO ₂ /SiO ₂ , Ni/TiO ₂ , Co/SiO ₂	500 - 800

alcohols, which are essential building blocks of the chemical industry. There are different

routes to convert methane to hydrogen, including steam reforming of methane (SRM),^{7,8} dry reforming of methane (DRM),^{9,10} partial oxidation of methane (POM),¹¹ non-oxidative coupling of methane (NOCM),¹² and catalytic decomposition of methane (CDM).¹³ Table 1 summarizes the catalysts and reaction temperatures used in these methods. Further details could be found in the respective references. At present, steam reforming of methane is the most preferred commercial method for producing hydrogen with minimum carbon dioxide emissions, compared to dry reforming and partial oxidation of methane. SRM is highly endothermic and results in an H₂:CO ratio of 3:1.⁷ Ni-based catalysts with promoters are widely used in industry for methane steam reforming.¹⁴ However, the coke formation and sintering are major drawbacks for Ni-based catalysts. Even though CDM is cheaper and produces less CO₂ emissions compared to SRM, it faces challenges such as regenerating catalysts and deactivation caused by carbon encapsulation, which limits its use in industry.¹⁵ Moreover, the thermo-catalytic conversion of methane requires high operating temperatures to cleave the C-H bond (as reported in Table 1). On the other hand, photocatalytic conversion can be achieved under mild operating conditions and has gained increasing attention.¹⁶ Various experiments have been conducted on numerous photocatalysts to reform methane into valuable products.^{17,18} However, they suffer from several limitations, such as low usage of visible light, rapid recombination of charge carriers, and limited migration ability of electrons and holes. These limitations hinder their industrial application. Consequently, there is a need for new methods for methane conversion.

Non-thermal plasma (NTP) has gained attention for its ability to activate reactions at low temperatures by generating energetic radicals and electrons, making it an attractive option for methane conversion.^{19,20} Several studies have investigated the use of NTP for methane conversion.²¹⁻²⁴ The results of these studies have demonstrated that NTP can effectively convert methane to hydrogen and carbon monoxide in the presence of water, albeit with varying levels of selectivity and conversion efficiency. Combining catalysis with NTP has recently become popular due to enhanced selectivity towards desirable products.²⁵⁻²⁷

Our recent work demonstrates that NTP catalysis is a promising approach for CO₂-H₂O conversion and ammonia synthesis.^{28,29} Chung *et al.* showed that the combined effect of plasma and LaFeO₃ photocatalyst enhances syngas formation rate by 42%.³⁰ It is attributed to the surface modifications promoted by plasma, which increases the lifetime of charge carriers. Meng *et al.* investigated Ga-UZSM-5 photocatalysts for conversion of natural gas to gasoline near ambient conditions.²⁰ They observed that the reaction could not proceed without plasma, and no products were formed. However, when plasma was combined with these photocatalysts, the C₆-C₉ hydrocarbons are formed. Moreover, incorporating TiO₂ further enhances the conversion rate from 37.9 % to 58.4 %. This enhancement in reactivity is attributed to the utilization of UV light generated in plasma. However, despite these advances, significant efforts are still required to make NTP catalysis viable for large-scale applications.

Density functional theory (DFT) has emerged as a valuable tool for optimizing and designing high-performance catalysts aimed at enhancing methane conversion.³¹⁻³³ For instance, DFT study was first to report that IrO₂(110) is highly reactive toward methane,³⁴ later confirmed by experiments showing methane dissociation at low temperatures on IrO₂(110) surfaces.³⁵ Kwon *et al.* demonstrated that methane can directly oxidize to ethane on a highly oxidized Pd/CeO₂ catalyst.³⁶ DFT study highlight the advantages of Pd-O-Pd for C-C coupling and Pd-O-Ce for CH₄ dehydrogenation. Liu *et al.* synthesized sulfided Fe₃O₄ catalysts displaying high selectivity towards ethylene.³⁷ DFT analysis revealed that sulphur sites play a crucial role in C-H bond cleavage, leading to the formation of C₂H₄. These investigations emphasize the potential of synergizing DFT with experimental approaches to rationally design efficient catalysts.

Ga₂O₃ has shown promising results for photocatalytic conversion of methane to hydrogen and ethane near room temperature. However, its activity is limited by adsorption under the UV region and fast recombination of charge carriers.³⁸⁻⁴² In the present study, we investigate the reactivity of β -Ga₂O₃ by employing DFT and discovered that the reactivity is facet-

dependent. Specifically, the β -Ga₂O₃ (-202) facet exhibits high activity and promotes the spontaneous dissociation of methane. Additionally, we observed a minimum barrier for ethane formation compared to other catalysts investigated in theory^{43–45} (discussed further in the Results and Discussion section). Further, the NTP-assisted conversion of methane in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃ supports these results by revealing that β -Ga₂O₃ enhances selectivity towards hydrogen and ethane. We delve into the electronic properties of β -Ga₂O₃ to explain the observed reactivity.

Computational Details

All the calculations are carried out within the Kohn-Sham formalism of DFT. Projector Augmented Wave potential⁴⁶ is used, with Perdew Burke Ernzerhof (PBE) approximation for the exchange-correlation and generalized gradient approximation,⁴⁷ as implemented in plane wave, pseudo-potential based code, Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (*VASP*).⁴⁸ To account for the dispersion effect, Van der Waals interactions are applied as implemented in the Grimme approach (DFT-D2).⁴⁹ Bulk of monoclinic β -Ga₂O₃ is taken from the materials project.⁵⁰ The calculated lattice parameters are a= 12.56 Å, b= 3.02 Å, and c= 5.85 Å, which agrees well with the experimentally reported ones, a= 12.23 Å, b= 3.04 Å, and c= 5.80 Å.⁵¹ A slab of 3x1 and 2x1 with 3 layers is cleaved in (-202) and (111) direction, respectively, using VNL,⁵² with the bottom layer fixed to imitate the bulk configuration. Monkhorst-Pack grid of 3x2x1 and 2x2x1 is used to sample the (-202) and (111) surfaces, resulting in 2 k-points in the IBZ. A vacuum of 20.0 Å is sufficient to avoid interaction between adjacent images along the z-direction. Spin-polarized geometry optimization is performed with a force cutoff of 0.05 eV/Å on the unfixed ions. The total energies are converged below 10⁻⁴ eV for each SCF cycle. Adsorption energy (E_{ads}) is calculated using the formula: $E_{ads} = E_{system} - [E_{surface} + E_{adsorbate}]$. Here, E_{system} corresponds to energy of the entire system (surface + adsorbate), $E_{surface}$ is the energy of bare β -Ga₂O₃ surface, and $E_{adsorbate}$ is the

energy of the adsorbate molecule. Further, Activation barrier (E_a) is determined by using Climbing Image-Nudged Elastic Band (CI-NEB) method,⁵³ with 3 images and a force cutoff of 0.1 eV/Å. To understand the surface reactivity, we calculate the site-specific projected density of states ($pDOS$) and Mulliken charges with a denser k-mesh using LOBSTER.⁵⁴

Experimental procedure

A co-axial cylindrical di-electric barrier discharge plasma (DBD) reactor is used to convert CH_4 and $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ in presence of gallium oxide into value added products. The DBD reactor is designed using two quartz tubes that are concentric. The outer tube's inner diameter (ID) and outer diameter (OD) were 25 mm and 28 mm, respectively, while the inner tube had 18 mm ID and 20 mm OD. This configuration resulted in a discharge gap of 2.5 mm. A stainless steel mesh with a length of 140 mm is wrapped around the outer tube as a grounded electrode, and a stainless steel rod is put inside the inner tube as a high voltage electrode. The discharge length of the DBD reactor is defined as the length of the grounded electrode i.e. 140 mm. Plasma generator supplied by Arshad Electronics Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India is used to generate the DBD discharge using AC current that is controlled to produce high voltages of 10-15 kV at 50 Hz. To regulate the flow of methane gas, a rotameter (Aalborg, USA) is utilized, and methane is introduced into the DBD reactor at a flow rate of 30 ml/min. The conversion of CH_4 and $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ is carried out by simply placing 0.8 g of $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (Sigma Aldrich) between glass wool and quartz beads. At specific energy input of 17.2 J/L, non-thermal plasma is incorporated for 8 minutes for every run of experiments. The system filled with 1.5 ml of water for $\text{CH}_4\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ conversion both with and without a catalyst. The initial and final gas concentrations are measured with a carbo-sieve column using a GC-5800 gas chromatograph (Centurion Scientific, India). A flame ignition detector (FID) is used to monitor the amount of hydrocarbons produced during the reactions, and a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) is used to measure the amounts of CH_4 , CO, and H_2 .

The conversion, yield, and selectivity of the products are measured using the formulae:

$$\text{CH}_4 \text{ Conversion}(\%) = \left[\frac{(\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4 - \text{Outlet concentration of CH}_4)}{\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4} \right] \times 100$$

$$\text{Products yield}(\%) = \left[\frac{\text{Concentration of formed products}}{\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4} \right] \times 100$$

$$\text{H}_2 \text{ selectivity}(\%) = \left[\frac{\text{Concentration of formed H}_2}{2 \times (\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4 - \text{Outlet concentration of CH}_4)} \right] \times 100$$

$$\text{CO selectivity}(\%) = \left[\frac{\text{Concentration of formed CO}}{(\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4 - \text{Outlet concentration of CH}_4)} \right] \times 100$$

$$\text{C}_2\text{H}_6, \text{C}_2\text{H}_4, \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \text{ selectivity}(\%) = \left[\frac{2 \times (\text{Concentration of formed C}_2\text{H}_6, \text{C}_2\text{H}_4, \text{C}_2\text{H}_2)}{(\text{Inlet concentration of CH}_4 - \text{Outlet concentration of CH}_4)} \right] \times 100$$

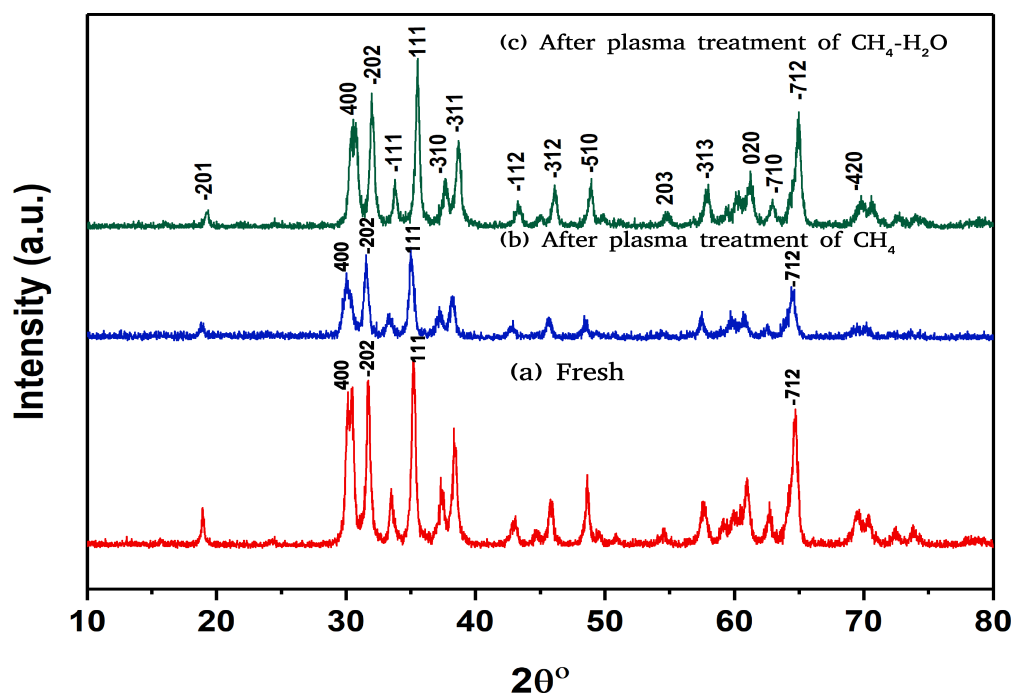


Figure 1: X-ray diffraction for β -Ga₂O₃ (a) Fresh, (b) after plasma treatment of CH₄, and (c) after plasma treatment of CH₄-H₂O. JCPDS #00-041-1103.

Characterization of catalysts

Using a Rigaku X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α radiation flux ($\lambda = 1.518 \text{ \AA}$), the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern for freshly prepared and spent catalysts is recorded in Figure 1. The working voltage of the diffractometer is 10 kV, and the corresponding scan rate is 2°min^{-1} for 2θ value range from 20° to 90° . The nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms and Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area are estimated at -196°C using a Micro-metrics, 3 FLEX equipment. For the analysis, β -Ga₂O₃ is first degassed at 200°C for 4

hours in an N₂ atmosphere to remove moisture content and any surface-adsorbed impurities. Using the same instrument as for BET measurement, the β -Ga₂O₃ sample is also tested for carbon dioxide temperature programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD). CO₂-TPD was performed to investigate the surface properties of β -Ga₂O₃. The fresh catalyst is first degassed for CO₂-TPD for one hour at 400 °C in a helium atmosphere. The temperature is then lowered to 50 °C to allow CO₂ to adsorb on the catalyst surface. Subsequently, desorption of CO₂ is examined at a ramp rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ between 50-800 °C.

Results and discussion

Ga₂O₃ is known to exist in various phases viz. α , β , γ , δ , and ϵ of which β -Ga₂O₃ is most stable under normal temperature and pressure conditions.⁵⁵ Unit cell of β -Ga₂O₃ consists of two kinds of Ga³⁺ and three distinct O²⁻ ions, as illustrated in Figure SI-1. Ga(I) and Ga(II) have octahedral and tetrahedral coordination, respectively. O(I) has tetrahedral coordination and is connected to three Ga atoms of the octahedral unit and one of the tetrahedral unit. O(II) is coordinated to three Ga atoms, of which two belong to the octahedral and one belongs to the tetrahedral chain and O(III) is coordinated with two tetrahedral Ga atoms and one octahedral Ga atom. The XRD pattern shown in Figure 1 illustrates the presence of a monoclinic structured β -Ga₂O₃ phase, JCPDS #00-041-1103.⁵⁶ Although the spent catalyst showed a decrease in the intensity of peaks, the phase of gallium oxide did not change during the reaction. Furthermore, BET surface area is calculated to be 37.22 m²/g for β -Ga₂O₃ sample. As illustrated in Figure SI-2, the isotherm corresponds to type IV with H3 hysteresis loops, concluding the presence of slit-like pores and mesoporous nature of catalyst.⁵⁷

First, we investigated the interaction of methane with the prominent peaks observed from XRD corresponding to the (111) and (-202) planes. In Figure SI-3(a) and SI-4(a), we report β -Ga₂O₃ (111) and (-202) surfaces with unique adsorption sites marked. CH₄ is found

to weakly interact or physisorb on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111) surface. The final adsorption positions on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111) are noted in Figure SI-3(b). It is observed that for two out of 14 cases, methane is weakly adsorbed over $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111). The C-H bond is slightly elongated to 1.11 Å compared to molecular CH_4 (1.09 Å) and $E_{ads} = -0.49$ eV. A representative geometry is shown in Figure SI-3(c). For physisorption of methane on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111) the E_{ads} are in the range of -0.32 eV to -0.07 eV and the distance between surface oxygen and hydrogen of CH_4 is >2.5 Å. Interestingly, on the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202) facet, when CH_4 is placed at sites 1, 2, and 3 (refer to Figure SI-4(a)), it undergoes spontaneous dissociation. Regardless of the initial placement (i.e. site 1, 2, or 3), the fragmented H/ CH_3 adsorb onto the bi-coordinated oxygen site, as depicted in Figure SI-4(b). However, at sites 4 - 10, as indicated in Figure SI-4(a), physisorption is observed and final adsorption sites are noted in Figure SI-4(b). It should be noted that the species formed upon interaction of methane with the catalysts are henceforth denoted with an asterisk (*). As shown in Figure 2(a and b), the fragmented CH_3^* either adsorbs on top of surface oxygen (O_s) to form methoxy (CH_3O_s^*) or remains as a free methyl species (CH_3^*) and the H^* binds to the oxygen with an $\text{O}_s\text{-H}$ bond length of 0.98 Å. As evident from Table 2, the formation of CH_3O_s^* is thermodynamically more favorable over CH_3^* . Additionally, physisorption is observed to occur at $\text{O}_s\text{-H}$ distance

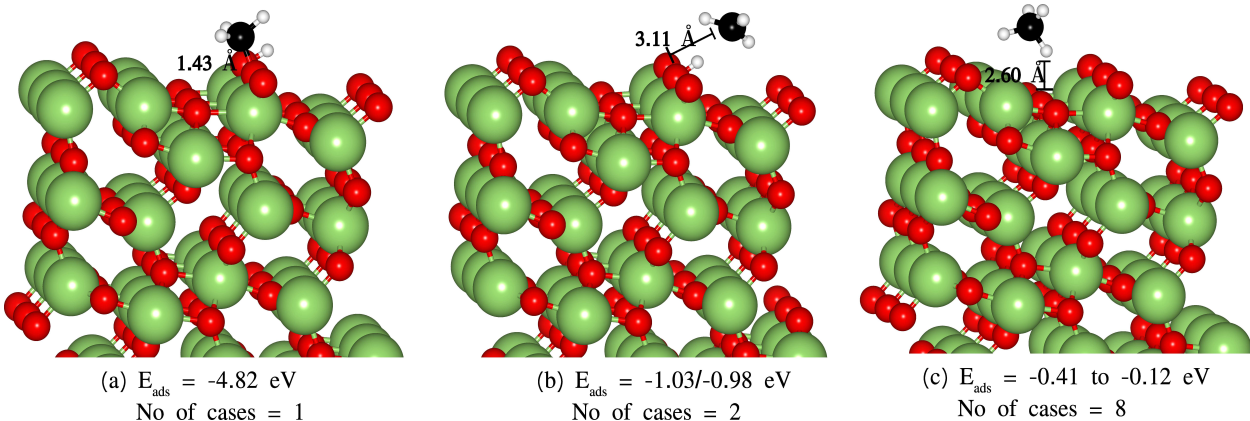


Figure 2: Optimized geometries for CH_4 interaction with $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202). (a) Dissociation of CH_4 to CH_3O_s^* and H^* adsorbed on adjacent surface oxygens, (b) dissociation of CH_4 to form free CH_3^* species and H^* binds to surface O and, (c) Physisorption of CH_4 . Asterisk (*) denotes an activated species formed by interaction of CH_4 with the surface.

of ≥ 2.6 Å, with E_{ads} typically lying in the range of -0.41 eV to -0.12 eV (refer Table

Table 2: We report shortest bond distance between surface oxygen (O_s) and C/H of methane molecule and adsorption energy (E_{ads}). C-H bond is ~ 1.10 Å for all cases reported below. Asterisk (*) donates an activated species.

Class	O_s -C (Å)	O_s -H (Å)	E_{ads} (eV)	No. of cases
methoxy ($CH_3O_s^*$)	1.43	0.98	-4.82	1
methyl (CH_3^*)	3.11/3.01	0.98/0.99	-1.03/-0.98	2
physisorbed	>3.0	2.5 to 2.7	-0.41 to -0.12	8

2). A representative geometry for physisorption is shown in Figure 2-(c). Chaudhari *et al.* investigated (001) facet of β -Ga₂O₃, and their findings show that a barrier of 0.65 eV is required to break the first C-H bond of methane.⁵⁸ Interestingly, we observed spontaneous dehydrogenation of CH₄ on β -Ga₂O₃ (-202); the underlying reactivity of (-202) could be understood by analyzing the electronic structure which we will discuss in detail later.

Next, we investigate the co-adsorption of two CH₄ molecules on β -Ga₂O₃ (-202). For the co-adsorption of two molecules, we considered a 4x1 super cell with three layers (240 atom system), and the bottom layer is fixed to bulk configuration. In the initial configuration one of the CH₄ is placed at site 1 shown in Figure SI-4(a) and the second molecule is placed at five sites in its vicinity. Distinct adsorption configurations are observed, such as (i) the dissociation of both molecules to form CH₃O_s* and CH₃* species, (ii) the conversion of both methane to methyl species, (iii) the dissociation of one CH₄ molecule to form CH₃* while the other undergoes physisorption, and (iv) physisorption of both CH₄ molecules. Schematic representation of the observed geometries along with corresponding E_{ads} can be found Figure SI-5(a-d). With E_{ads} of -5.58 eV, the formation of CH₃O_s* and CH₃* species is thermodynamically most stable.

The spontaneous dissociation of CH₄ into surface adsorbed or free CH₃* during co-adsorption can help accelerate the reaction. We investigated the barrier required for non-oxidative coupling of methane using CI-NEB. Considering the thermodynamically most favored geometry obtained by co-adsorbing two molecules of methane as the initial state, we determined the activation barrier for formation of ethane over β -Ga₂O₃ (-202). In Figure

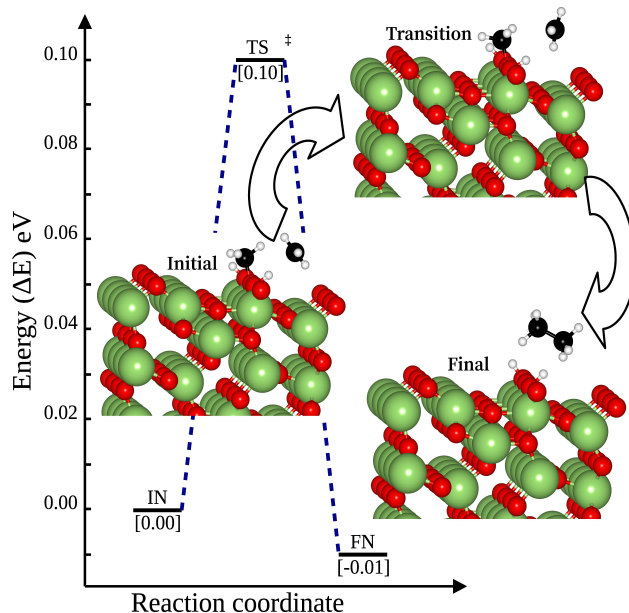


Figure 3: Energy profile for formation of C_2H_6 . Activation barrier is calculated to be 0.1 eV. Formed ethane molecule is found to desorb from the surface. IN= initial state, TS= transition state, and FN= final state.

3 we report the reaction pathway along with a schematic representation of the initial (IN), transition (TS), and Final (FN) state. Within our framework, the barrier of CH_3-CH_3

Table 3: We compare the activation barrier for CH_3-CH_3 coupling with the existing literature. The activation barrier are computed through DFT calculations. Here, e = experimental and d = dft study.

Catalysts	$CH_3 + CH_3 \rightarrow C_2H_6$ E_a (eV)	Reference
$\beta-Ga_2O_3$ (-202)	0.1	current work
Pd/CeO ₂ (111) ^{e+d}	0.28	36
Pt ₁ /Ce _{1-x} Pt _x O _{2-δ} (111) ^d	1.54	43
Pt ₃ /Ce _{1-x} Pt _x O _{2-δ} (111)	1.08	
Pt ₁₀ /Ce _{1-x} Pt _x O _{2-δ} (111)	1.17	
Pd ₁ TiO ₂ (001) ^{e+d}	1.74	44
Mo ₄ C ₂ /ZSM-5 ^d	1.28	45

coupling turns out to be 0.1 eV. The reaction is exothermic as the product here, C_2H_6 is slightly more favorable than the reactant. Additionally, the formed ethane desorbs from the surface, the distance of carbon atom being 3.31 Å from the surface. Moreover, the C-C bond length is 1.53 Å, which is the same as that of molecular ethane. Table 3 compares the activation barriers investigated through DFT for the coupling of CH_3-CH_3 in the current

work to those reported previously. As shown in Table 3, $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3(-202)$ not only results in the spontaneous dissociation of methane but also significantly decreases the barrier for converting CH_4 to C_2H_6 .

Table 4: We report the bond lengths and E_{ads} for co-adsorbed CH_4 and H_2O . $\text{O}_s\text{-C(Mt)}$ is the distance between surface oxygen and carbon of methane and $\text{O}_s\text{-H(Mt)}$ is the distance between surface oxygen and hydrogen of methane. Ga-O(Wt) is the distance between surface Ga and oxygen of H_2O . O-H1(Wt) and O-H2(Wt) are the O-H bond lengths of water, and $\angle\text{HOH}$ is the bond angle of H_2O . All the geometries are tabulated in the decreasing order of adsorption energy E_{ads} . Here, O_s = surface oxygen, Mt = methane, and Wt = water

co-adsorption of CH_4 and H_2O							
Geometry	$\text{O}_s\text{-C(Mt)}$ (\AA)	$\text{O}_s\text{-H(Mt)}$ (\AA)	Ga-O(Wt) (\AA)	O-H1(Wt) (\AA)	O-H2(Wt) (\AA)	$\angle\text{HOH(Wt)}$ ($^\circ$)	E_{ads} (eV)
1	1.43	0.97	2.14	0.98	0.99	109.8	-5.76
2	1.43	0.98	2.15	0.98	0.99	110.8	-5.75
3	1.44	0.98	4.00	0.97	1.01	104.3	-5.34
4	1.45	0.97	3.63	0.98	0.98	103.4	-5.19
5	3.13	0.98	2.31	0.97	1.00	113.2	-2.04

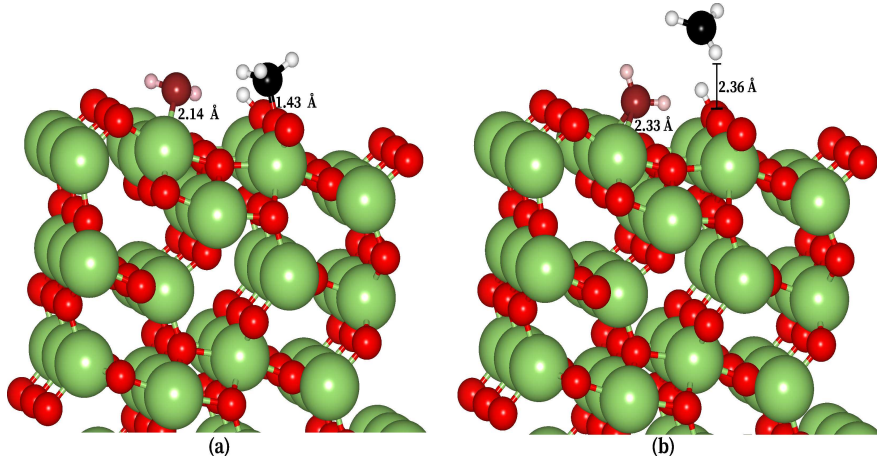


Figure 4: Optimized geometries for co-adsorption of CH_4 and H_2O on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202). (a) Dissociation of CH_4 to CH_3O_s^* and H^* adsorbed on adjacent surface oxygens and (b) dissociation of CH_4 to form free CH_3^* and H^* binds to surface O. H_2O is chemisorbed in both cases.

Furthermore, we have also investigated the interaction of CH_4 with $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202) in the presence of water. The observations are tabulated in Table 4 and the schematic representation of geometries is shown in Figure 4. The spontaneous dissociation of methane remains unaffected by the presence of water. In presence of H_2O , CH_4 mostly forms a CH_3O_s^* species, a representative geometry is shown in Figure 4-(a). However, in a particular case it forms a CH_3^* as shown in Figure 4-(b). The $\text{CH}_3\text{-O}_s$ bond distance is 1.44 \AA and $\text{O}_s\text{-H}$ bond

distance is 0.98 Å. Further, the H₂O molecule is activated by 3%. Thus, DFT predicts the spontaneous cleavage of C-H bond of methane on β -Ga₂O₃ (-202) catalyst in presence and absence of water.

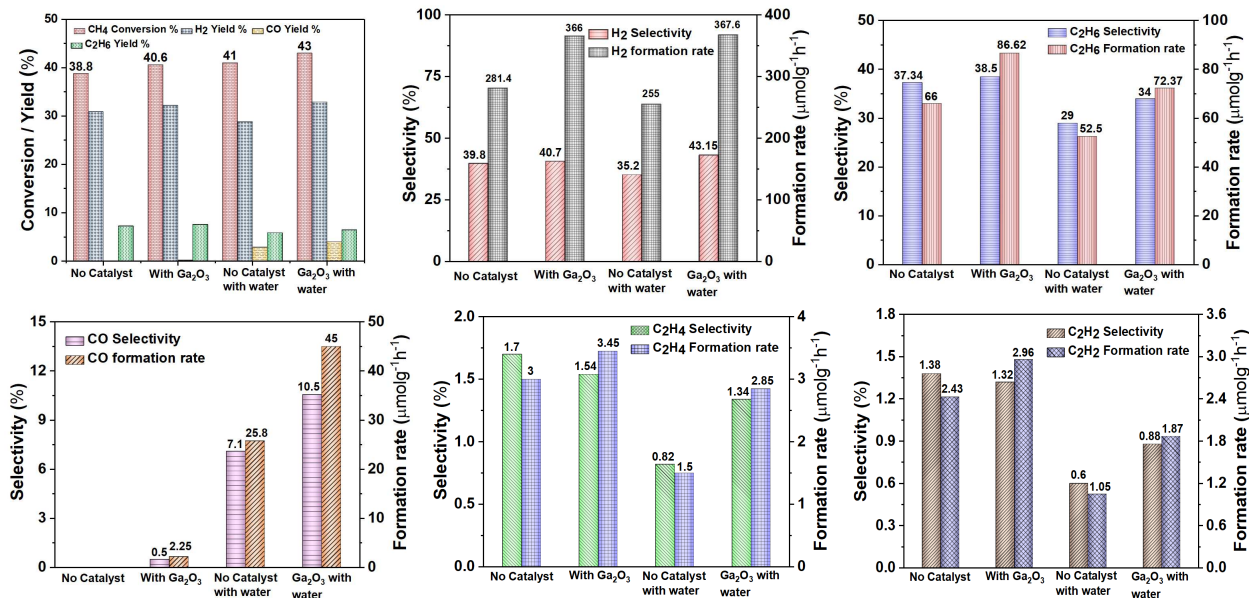


Figure 5: Details about NTP-aided reaction: (i) No catalyst (for CH₄ cracking), and (ii) with β -Ga₂O₃ catalyst (for CH₄ cracking), (iii) CH₄-H₂O reaction no catalyst, (iv) with catalyst for CH₄-H₂O reaction. Reaction conditions: catalyst weight=0.8g, CH₄ flow rate = 30 ml/min, water added = 1.5 ml, plasma temperature = near room temperature, SEI = 17.2 J/L; plasma discharge volume = 99 ml in a DBD reactor. The result discloses that β -Ga₂O₃ enhances the methane conversion, product formation rate and yield. H₂, C₂H₆, and CO are main products. These experiments explain the synergistic role of plasma-catalyst to favor product formation.

It is noted from our previous study that presence of strong basic sites would facilitate adsorption of weak acid gas like CH₄ on the surface.⁶ As observed from CO₂-TPD, shown in Figure SI-6, weak and strong basic sites are located at 72.2 °C and 490 °C, respectively. Hence, β -Ga₂O₃ is a suitable candidate for CH₄ activation, also observed in DFT study. We conducted NTP experiments using β -Ga₂O₃ catalysts for methane reforming. The NTP catalysis approach is used in the DBD reactor to convert methane and methane-water mixture, and the results averaged over three runs are shown in Figure 5. It is widely recognized that a low gas flow rate helps to achieve a higher conversion because it provides the reactants with a longer residence time in the NTP environment.²² Hence, for each experiment run, 30 ml/min of CH₄ is flown into the reactor. Plasma discharge is generated at an energy input of 17.2 J/L inside the DBD reactor. Notably, the utilization of β -Ga₂O₃ resulted in a significant

enhancement in the overall methane conversion. Without a catalyst, only 38.8% of CH₄ was converted, while with the presence of β -Ga₂O₃, the conversion increased to 40.6%, further rising to 43% with the introduction of water (refer Figure 5). Plasma-catalysis reactions undoubtedly lead to a substantial increase in formation of hydrogen. For instance, comparing the reaction without a catalyst to the reaction with a catalyst, the hydrogen formation rate increased from 281.4 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ to 366.0 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$, representing an increase of almost 30%. Furthermore, with the plasma- β -Ga₂O₃ combination, the ethane formation rate exhibited a 31.24% increase compared to the reforming of CH₄ solely using plasma, as observed in Figure 5. However, adding water to the DBD reactor made the system unstable and decreased the yield and formation rate of C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₂H₂. When only H₂O is added with CH₄ in the reactor, the formation rate of H₂ reduces to 255 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$, which is lower than CH₄ alone (281.4 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$). Nevertheless, for CH₄-H₂O reaction in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃, the formation rate increases to 367.6 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$. Additionally, trace amount of CO is generated during the CH₄ reforming using β -Ga₂O₃; we postulate that the excess oxygen present on the catalyst's surface could participate in the process. Interestingly, the introduction of water to methane reforming using NTP led to higher formation rates of CO. In the presence of a β -Ga₂O₃ catalyst, the formation rate of CO with CH₄-H₂O increased by 74.42%, with 45 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ being observed as compared to 25.8 $\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ in the absence of a catalyst. The increase in formation rate of products using catalyst revealed that the strong basic sites of β -Ga₂O₃ facilitate the adsorption of CH₄ and H₂O. In our previous work, we observed spontaneous dissociation of water over β -Ga₂O₃ (111).⁵⁹ Whereas on β -Ga₂O₃ (-202), we observe spontaneous dissociation of methane. A cumulative effect of H₂O and CH₄ dissociation on (111) and (-202) facet of β -Ga₂O₃, respectively, explains the increase in formation of CO upon inclusion of water in the reaction medium. Furthermore, the other products such as C₂H₂ and C₂H₄ are observed in low quantity. Importantly, to validate that the reaction is conducted near room temperature, we used Forward Looking Infrared (FLIR) camera to monitor the inside temperature of the reactor. We found that the temperature

reached to maximum of 60°C under the reaction conditions, the corresponding temperature profile of the reaction zone confirmed the non-thermal characteristics of the DBD reactor. The temperature profile has been discussed in our previous work for the NTP-assisted steam methane reforming reaction.⁶

Table 5: We compare the present work with the existing literature for NTP-assisted conversion of methane. It is confirmed that low flow rate of methane coupled with β -Ga₂O₃ as a catalyst results in enhanced production of hydrogen. NR refers to not reported.

Reaction conditions	Temperature	Methane	H ₂	CO	C ₂ H ₆	CO ₂
	°C	conversion (%)	selectivity (%)			
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%) (This work)	60	41	35.2	7.1	29	Not observed
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%): β -Ga ₂ O ₃		43.0	43.15	10.5	34	
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%) ⁶	62	10.9	58	3.72	6.3	Not observed
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%): Mn/CeO ₂		17.57	62.48	4.6	1.88	
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%): Cu/CeO ₂		22	72.7	6.58	2.8	
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (100%): Cu-Mn/CeO ₂		14.76	50.6	5.48	2.44	
CH ₄ + steam (1:3): Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ ⁶⁰	500	68	68.99	15.10	Not observed	6.09
CH ₄ + H ₂ O (2:1) ⁶¹	NR	45.8	100	40	0	60
CH ₄ : 0.5Pd/CeO ₂ ⁶²	980	23.6	50	NR	Not observed	NR
CH ₄ + ~20 % steam ²¹	200	18.88	40.73	6.78	42.31	Not observed
0.3 vol.% CH ₄ + 2 vol.% H ₂ O ²³	200	49	NR	45	NR	NR

Comparison of our research with existing literature on NTP-assisted conversion of methane is presented in Table 5. In our previous work, we have tested various flow rates viz. 50 ml/min, 80 ml/min, 110 ml/min, and 140 ml/min and the corresponding conversion was recorded to be 21.54 %, 17.4 %, 13.36 %, and 10.54 %, respectively, which shows that a low flow rate is proportional to higher methane conversion.⁶ It is observed that further reducing the flow rate from 50 ml/min (previous work)⁶ to 30 ml/min (current work) resulted in ~four times higher methane conversion using plasma alone as reported in Table 5. Further, compared to previous work,⁶ the selectivity towards CO and C₂H₆ is found to enhance with the presence of β -Ga₂O₃. Although Liu *et al.* reported a 100% selectivity for H₂, the yield was only 20.14%,⁶¹ which is lower compared to the H₂ yield (30%) obtained by plasma alone

in the current work. Furthermore, they observed the reaction to be highly selective toward CO_2 (60% selectivity), whereas we did not observe CO_2 formation. While $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ exhibits high methane conversion rates (refer to Table 5), it is associated with CO_2 formation.⁶⁰ Similarly, the use of $0.5\text{Pd}/\text{CeO}_2$ with plasma for CH_4 conversion displays higher H_2 selectivity.⁶² However, it's important to note that these reactions were conducted at significantly higher temperatures (500 °C and 980 °C) compared to this work (60°C). Overall, our results demonstrate that the synergy of plasma- $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ effectively facilitates the conversion of CH_4 to H_2 , CO , and C_2H_6 .

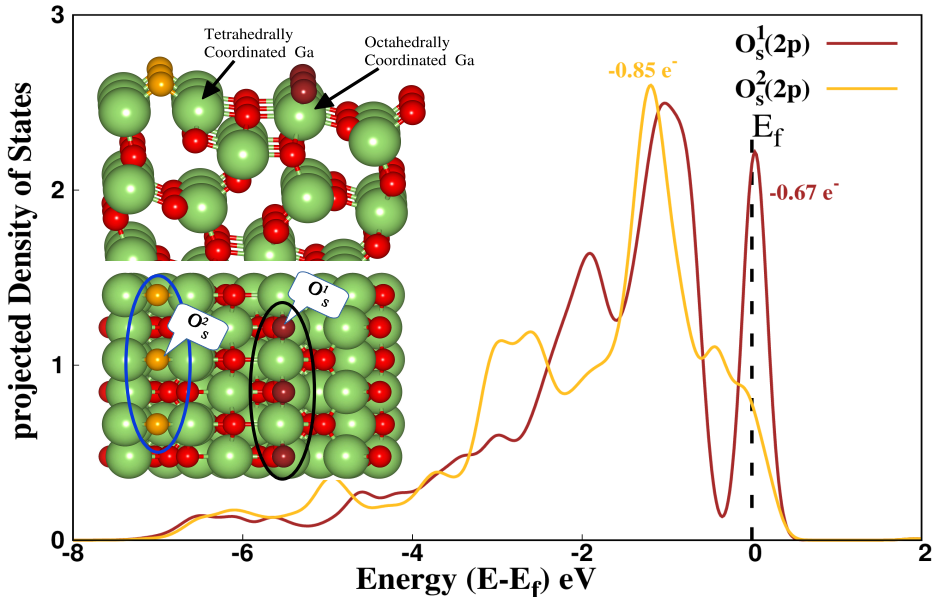


Figure 6: Site projected density of states for distinct surface oxygens on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202). Both the oxygens at the surface are co-ordinated to two Ga atoms. O_s^1 :brown is co-ordinated to the octahedral Ga chain and O_s^2 :golden is a part of tetrahedral Ga. O's in red belong to subsurface and does not contribute to the reactivity. Fermi energy (E_f) is set to coincide with 0 eV. Presence of sharp peak near E_f makes O_s^1 site active for C-H bond cleavage.

To understand the reactivity, we investigate the electronic structure of $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202) and $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111) surfaces. Our analysis shows that surface oxygen plays a vital role in activating the CH_4 molecule by abstracting the H atom leading to the C-H bond cleavage. To gain further insights, we investigate the site-projected density of states ($pDOS$) for O(2p). There are two unique oxygen species present at the $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202) surface, which is evident from the difference in the $pDOS$ shown in Figure 6. These oxygens are referred as " O_s^1 " and " O_s^2 " henceforth. A schematic representation of distinct surface oxygen atoms is also

shown in Figure 6, here O_s^1 is represented in brown and O_s^2 is shown in golden. The O's shown in red in Figure 6 belong to the subsurface and does not contribute to the reactivity. A sharp peak is observed at Fermi energy (E_f) for O_s^1 of magnitude almost double that of O_s^2 . Both the oxygens are bi-coordinated to surface Ga atoms, however O_s^1 is coordinated to the octahedral Ga atom while O_s^2 is a part of tetrahedral chain. Hence, O_s^1 is charge deficient which is also evident from the Mulliken charges as noted in Figure 6. The Mulliken charge on O_s^1 oxygen is $-0.67 e^-$, while on O_s^2 it is $-0.85 e^-$, making O_s^1 oxygen species more electrophilic. The availability of empty states near E_f and the electrophilic nature makes O_s^1 more reactive sites for interaction with CH_4 . Hence, when CH_4 is placed in the vicinity of this oxygen (i.e. O_s^1), it readily abstract a hydrogen from methane to form CH_3^* and H^* . The H atom binds to surface O_s^1 sites forming hydroxide.

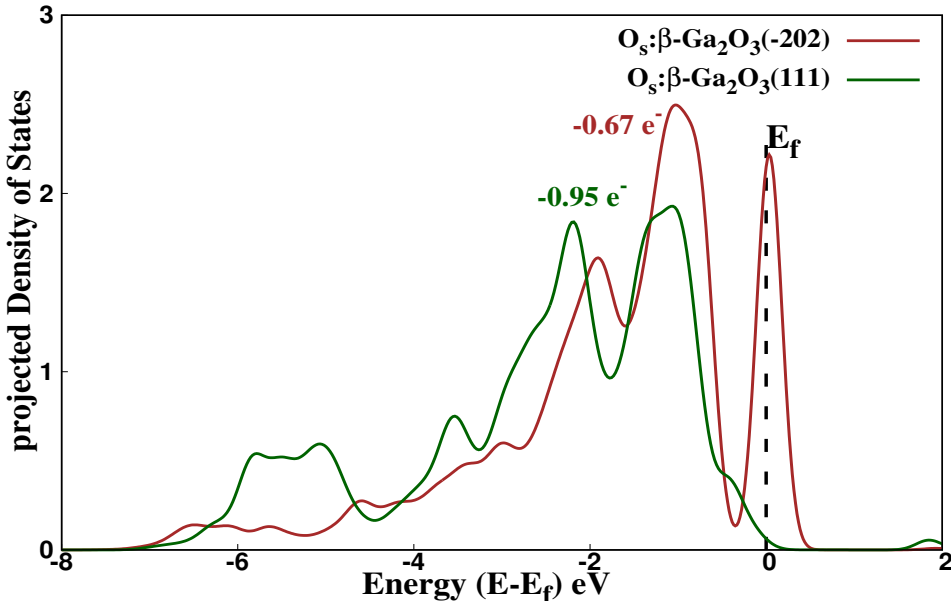


Figure 7: *pDOS* for (2p) states of surface oxygen (O_s) of β -Ga₂O₃ ($\bar{2}02$) and β -Ga₂O₃ (111). The E_f is set to coincide with 0 eV. The O_s of β -Ga₂O₃ ($\bar{2}02$) are found to be more reactive for methane activation compared to β -Ga₂O₃(111) owing to the presence of states near E_f .

Further, we observed that β -Ga₂O₃ (111) does not activate CH_4 significantly compared to β -Ga₂O₃ ($\bar{2}02$). The correlation between states at Fermi and site specific reactivity is demonstrated in series of investigations on interaction of methanol with Zn based catalysts.⁶³⁻⁶⁵ In Figure 7 we compare *pDOS* for surface oxygens of β -Ga₂O₃: ($\bar{2}02$) and (111).

It is evident from the Figure 7, that O(2p) states are well below Fermi energy for $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111) while states are available at Fermi for surface oxygen of $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202). This is inline with the Mulliken charges reported in Figure 7. Hence, $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (-202) is more reactive than $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ (111).

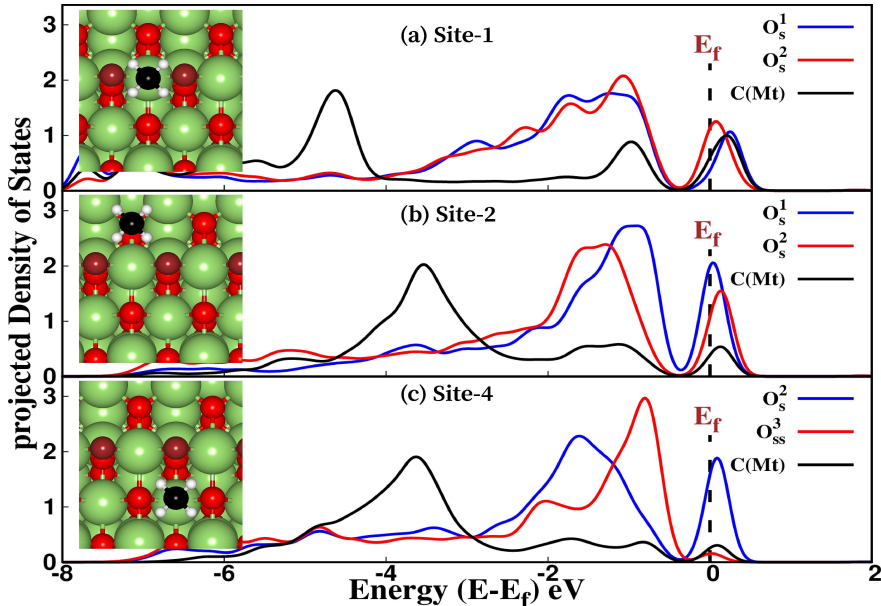


Figure 8: $pDOS$ for 3 representative cases of initial geometries is reported. (a) site-1: leads to formation of CH_3O_s^* , (b) site-2: formation of CH_3^* , and (c) a representative case of physisorption. Fermi energy (E_f) is set to coincide with 0 eV. It is evident from the $pDOS$ that significant overlap near E_f between the 2p orbitals of C and O_s leads to C-H bond dissociation in (a) and (b) where as, magnitude of overlap is minimum for (c), hence physisorption is observed. Here, O_s are surface oxygen differentiated by brown color for the aid of eyes. O_{ss} represents sub-surface oxygen and Mt represents methane molecule.

To gain further insights into what leads to the dissociation of methane to form CH_3O_s^* , CH_3^* or physisorption, the $pDOS$ of the initial geometries corresponding to each case is investigated. In Figure 8, we plot $pDOS$ for the (2p) states of the surface oxygens closest to the CH_4 molecule and the (2p) states of C in CH_4 . In case (a) and (b), which lead to the formation of CH_3O_s^* and CH_3^* , respectively, the CH_4 molecule is in the vicinity of O_s^1 , specifically at site 1 and 2 as shown in Figure SI-4(a). For the case (a), a significant overlap between the energy states of both surface oxygens and C is observed, resulting in the C-H bond cleavage and the formation of surface adsorbed CH_3O_s^* . On the other hand, in case (b), the extent of overlap is less compared to case (a) and hence CH_3 does not bind to the surface oxygen instead it desorbs as methyl species. Further, for case (c), the available energy

states do not significantly overlap, resulting in physisorption of CH_4 . Hence, we understand that for the dissociation of CH_4 a significant overlap between the available energy states of surface and CH_4 molecule is essential.

Table 6: We compare the NTP catalytic conversion of methane in current work with the photocatalytic conversion of methane over $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ catalysts reported in literature. Findings of this work are reported in blue. NA refers to not applicable

Catalyst	Reaction condition	Gas flow rate (ml/min)	Reaction temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	H_2 formation rate ($\mu\text{molg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$)
NA (This work)	CH_4	30	60	281.4
NA	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$			255
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$	CH_4			366
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$			367.6
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ⁴⁰	CH_4	50	200	0.3
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$			4.5
Pt(0.05)/ $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$	CH_4			6
Pt(0.05)/ $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$	$\text{CH}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$			17.1
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ³⁹	CH_4	200 μmol batch process	37	1.45
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ⁶⁶	10 % CH_4/Ar	30	-	0.225
Pd(0.5)/ $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$			350 (in dark)	0.29
$\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ ⁴¹	10 % CH_4/Ar	30	46	0.24
Pd(0.18)-Bi(0.18)/ $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$				1.375

In Table 6, we present a comparison between the NTP-assisted conversion of methane (current study) and photocatalysis employing $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$. The present work demonstrates that H_2 formation rate is enhanced by 30% in presence of $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ photocatalyst compared to no catalysts, as reported in Table 6. On the contrary, with only photocatalysis the H_2 formation rate is very low even with the incorporation of promoters (refer Table 6). Hence, the combined effect of NTP and $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$ accelerates the conversion rate of methane to hydrogen and ethane. Since, UV light is generated during plasma reactions, there is a possibility that electron and holes pairs are produced on $\beta\text{-Ga}_2\text{O}_3$, leading to enhanced activity. Further, it is to be noted that CO_2 was not produced in the reaction. Thus, our

process can avoid vast CO₂ emissions.

Conclusion

In this study, DFT is used to investigate the interaction of methane with β -Ga₂O₃ (-202) and (111). Methane weakly interacts with (111), where as on (-202) spontaneous cleavage of the C-H bond is observed in absence and presence of water. A barrier of 0.1 eV is calculated for the formation of ethane using CI-NEB. We took these predictions further by conducting NTP-assisted methane reforming over β -Ga₂O₃, in the presence and absence of water. In a cylindrical DBD reactor, conversion of methane or reforming it in the presence of water, provide a high yield of H₂ and CO at atmospheric pressure and low temperature at specific power and flow rate. We report the conversion of methane to hydrogen and ethane along with other higher hydrocarbons, and the formation rate is enhanced in the presence of β -Ga₂O₃. CO formation is observed with the incorporation of water into the system. It is noteworthy that utilizing NTP for methane conversion does not produce CO₂. This observation is significant as it suggests the potential to circumvent CO₂ emissions in this process. Analysis of electronic signatures indicates the presence of electrophilic oxygen species on the surface of β -Ga₂O₃ (-202) which is absent on β -Ga₂O₃ (111). These electrophilic oxygen species are crucial in facilitating the spontaneous dissociation of methane on the former surface.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: We have filed an application for patent based on this work.

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Supporting Information Available

Supporting information is available and contains the following:

- (i) Bulk: monoclinic β -Ga₂O₃. (ii) BET specific surface area of β -Ga₂O₃.
- (iii) β -Ga₂O₃ (111): bare surface and after methane adsorption and pictorial representation of weakly adsorbed CH₄.
- (iv) β -Ga₂O₃ (-202): bare surface with unique adsorption sites.
- (v) Schematic representation of various geometries for co-adsorption of two methane molecules.
- (vi) temperature programmed desorption for CO₂.
- (vii) and (viii) Real time gas chromatography for methane conversion in presence and absence of water.

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