



CO₂ hydrogenation over Ru hydrotalcite-derived catalysts

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ABSTRACT

The hydrogenation of CO₂ over Ru catalysts is structure sensitive, the selectivity of the process can be driven either to the production of CH₄ or CO depending on Ru particles and support features. Herein, Ru-based MgAl-HT (HT=hydrotalcite) derived catalysts with different Ru loadings (0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 wt%) and promoted with La³⁺ were prepared, characterized, and tested for CO₂ methanation at high Gas Hourly Space Velocity values (480 L/g_{cat} h) feeding a CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 1/4/1 v/v mixture. The MgAlO_x mixed oxide obtained after calcination at 600 °C and reduction provided weak, medium and mainly strong basic sites, able to activate the CO₂ molecule, and hosted very small Ru nanoparticles (1–3 nm). However, the catalysts displayed a low activity in the low temperature range and a poor selectivity to CH₄. The addition of La³⁺, despite contributing to the basicity, did not have any significant effect on performance. In a comparison between Ru- and Ni-HT-derived catalysts, tested under similar reaction conditions, Ni largely overperformed Ru.

1. Introduction

Concern for environmental and resource protection, along with the growing energy demand, has prompted the development of catalytic technologies to convert greenhouse gases into value-added products. This concept is at the heart of so-called C1 chemistry, which uses compounds containing a single carbon atom such as CO₂ and CH₄ to produce value-added compounds or fuels [1].

The valorization of CO₂ through hydrogenation to CH₄ (methanation or Sabatier reaction) has been widely investigated in the last decade to develop enhanced catalysts and handle the heat generated by this exothermic reaction [2–6]. Ni-based catalysts are usually the best choice [7,8]. They are inexpensive and their activity in the low temperature range, initially poorer than for Ru catalysts [9–12], has been enhanced by tailoring the type of support and promoters. However, Ni is prone to deactivation by sulfur, water, and oxygen; consequently, catalysts could significantly decrease their activity in the conversion of real CO₂ streams, e.g. flue gases, and in adsorption/methanation cycles [13]; for

these applications, Ru-catalysts are considered more suitable [14–17].

The performance of Ru-based catalysts in CO₂ hydrogenation is structure sensitive [18–21] and therefore depends on the Ru loading [20,22–28]. The selectivity of the process over these catalysts can vary from 100 % towards CH₄ to 100 % towards CO [29]. It is widely agreed that when using Al₂O₃ as a support, Ru loadings between 2.5 and 5 wt% are required to drive the process towards the production of CH₄, due to the formation of Ru nanoparticles in the 5–10 nm range either after reduction or during the reaction [19,23,26,28]. The key role of a high Ru loading and large agglomerates or clusters in achieving a high CH₄ selectivity is confirmed for other non-reducible supports, e.g., MgO, MgAl₂O₄ [30] and also for reducible TiO₂ [20]. However, some deviations to this Ru particle size-selectivity tradeoff are reported when Ru is deposited on modified Al₂O₃ (i.e., containing highly basic hydroxylated alumina sites [24] or alkali doped [31]), high surface area MgO [25] or reducible supports (e.g. CeO₂ [32–34], TiO₂ [35,36] and ZrO₂ [37]) due to the role of the support on the CO₂ activation, Ru electronic modification or O mobility. For instance, on a high surface area MgO

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support, which also provides sites for CO₂ activation, small nanoparticles (2–4 nm) display good activity [25]. Furthermore, small nanoparticles or even single atoms reached full CH₄ selectivity in combination with CeO₂ [32].

Bulk Ni catalysts derived from hydrotalcite-type (HT) compounds show advantages in comparison to supported catalysts in CO₂ methanation [38–40]. Calcination of a NiMgAl hydrotalcite-type structure at moderate temperatures (e.g. 600 °C) followed by reduction generates a catalyst that combines the basic sites of a MgAlO_x mixed oxide with highly dispersed Ni nanoparticles [41]. The properties of the catalysts are enhanced by the addition of rare-earth elements such as La³⁺ [40, 42]. Despite the well-known superior properties of HT-derived Ni catalysts for CO₂ methanation, to the best of our knowledge, the application of Ru-based HT-derived catalysts for this reaction is scarce [43], although Ru³⁺ can be inserted in the lamellar structure of the HT and consequently generate highly dispersed Ru nanoparticles [44] and in turn catalysts for the conversion of real CO₂ streams, and in adsorption/methanation cycles. Non-thermal plasma activated CO₂ hydrogenation was performed over Ru/MgAl catalysts prepared by impregnating Ru on MgAl HTs and directly reducing this material [43]; plasma-catalyst interactions enable alternative pathways for promoting CO₂ hydrogenation than the conventional thermocatalytic process. Moreover, Ru was impregnated on a NiMgAlO_x HT-derived material to prepare a Ru-Ni bimetallic catalyst [45].

In this work, Ru-based catalysts obtained from coprecipitated RuMgAl HT compounds were studied in the hydrogenation of pure CO₂ at high Gas Hourly Space velocity (GHSV) values (480 L/g_{cat} h, similar to those previously used by us for Ni HT-derived catalysts [40,41]), as a first step in the development of these catalysts, showing potential applications for the conversion of real CO₂ streams. First, the effect of Ru loading (0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 wt%) on CO₂ conversion and CH₄/CO selectivity was investigated. Then La³⁺ was added to the 1 wt% Ru catalyst to modify the support basicity. The catalysts, as prepared and after catalytic tests, were characterized to correlate the performance with the physicochemical properties. For comparison purposes, a 1 wt% Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst was prepared by incipient wetness impregnation, characterized and tested in the reaction.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of the catalysts

The catalysts were prepared by the co-precipitation method at constant pH [41]. First, 1.0 M cation solutions of Ru/Mg/Al were prepared in molar ratios 0.22/70/29.78, 0.44/70/29.56 and 0.9/70/29.1 to obtain a wt% Ru in the final catalyst of 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 wt%, respectively. Similarly, the cation solution of Ru/La/Mg/Al was prepared in a molar ratio of 0.5/5/70/24.5 to obtain a 1 wt% Ru in the final catalyst. Mg²⁺, La³⁺ and Al³⁺ cations were added to the solution as nitrates (Mg(NO₃)₂•6 H₂O, Al(NO₃)₃•9 H₂O, La(NO₃)₃•6 H₂O) and the Ru³⁺ cation as chloride salt (RuCl₃•3 H₂O). The precipitation of the catalyst precursors was carried out into a batch reactor containing a 2.0 M Na₂CO₃ solution at 60 °C under stirring, where the cation solutions were dropped. The pH was kept constant at 10.0 ± 0.1 by adding the necessary volume of a 3 M NaOH solution. A suspension was obtained and left to age while being subjected to intense magnetic stirring for 1 h at 60 °C. Finally, the slurry was filtered and washed thoroughly with ultrapure water until pH 7.0 to remove the counterions of the starting salts (nitrate, chloride and sodium). The filtration cake was dried overnight in an oven at 40 °C and then ground to obtain a fine powder of HT catalyst precursors. The precursors were subsequently calcined at 600 °C for 6 h with a heating ramp of 10 °C/min. The catalysts were named as RuMgAl or RuLaMgAl followed by the Ru wt%, for example, RuMgAl-1 %.

A Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst was prepared by incipient wetness impregnation (IWI) to obtain a 1 wt% Ru loading. A 0.015 w/v Ru solution was prepared from the Ru(NO)(NO₃)₃ salt. The solution was dropped over 1 g of

γ-Al₂O₃ (195 m²/g) grounded into a fine powder. The slurry was dried in air oven at 40 °C and then it was calcined at 600 °C for 6 h with a heating ramp of 10 °C/min.

The catalytic tests were carried out after pelletization of the calcined solid using a SPECAC laboratory hydraulic press. The pellet was manually ground in a mortar and sieved to select the solid fraction with a particle size of 0.420–0.595 mm (sieve mesh 40–30), a size suitable for further dispersion in the quartz bed of equal particle size.

2.2. Characterization techniques

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded in a PANalytical X'Pert diffractometer. The diffractometer was equipped with a Cu-Kα radiation (λ_{mean} = 0.15418 nm) and a fast X'Celerator detector. Wide-angle diffractogram was collected over 2θ range from 5° to 80° with a step size of 0.05° and scan time 15.25 s per step.

Specific surface areas of the catalysts were assessed from N₂ (L'Air Liquide, 99.999 %) adsorption-desorption isotherms at –196 °C, recorded in a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 instrument. Prior to measurements, 0.15 g powder catalysts samples were degassed under vacuum (<30 μm Hg) at 150 °C for HT precursors (or at 250 °C for calcined catalysts) and maintained for 30 min before performing the measurement. The specific surface area (S_{BET}) was calculated using the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) multiple-point method in the relative pressure range P/P₀ from 0.05 to 0.3.

Hydrogen temperature programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) was performed on an AutoChem II (Chemisorption analyzer, Micromeritics). An amount of 100 mg of pelletized catalyst was first pretreated at 150 °C with a He flow of 30 mL/min for 30 min. After cooling to 40 °C in a He atmosphere, the carrier gas was switched to 5 % H₂/Ar (v/v) at 30 mL/min. Once the baseline was stabilized, the temperature was raised to 900 °C with a 10 °C/min ramp. The outlet stream passed through an ice trap to condense the water vapor generated during the reduction. The H₂ flow rate was measured using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).

The basicity of the samples was determined by thermo-programmed desorption of CO₂ (TPD-CO₂) using an AutoChem 2920 apparatus. Prior to each analysis, approximately 100 mg of pellet sample were heated at 150 °C for 30 min in He (50 mL/min) and then cooled to 40 °C. The catalyst was then reduced at 600 °C (5 °C/min heating rate) for 2 h under 5 % H₂/Ar (v/v) (50 mL/min). After that, CO₂ was adsorbed by introducing a 50 mL/min flow of pure CO₂ at 40 °C for 15 min. The sample was then flushed with 50 mL/min He for 60 min to remove weakly adsorbed CO₂. CO₂-TPD measurements were performed by increasing the temperature from 40 to 600 °C with a heating rate of 30 °C/min. The desorption of CO₂ was monitored with a TCD and using a mass spectrometer Cirrus 2. In this work, the evolution of the intensity of the signal at m/z = 44 was reported. The desorption profile was deconvoluted using Origin 8.0 software.

High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) characterization was performed using TEM/STEM FEI TECNAI F20 microscope, equipped with an EDS (Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) analyzer. The finely powdered catalyst was suspended in ethanol under the action of ultrasounds for 20 min. The suspension was then applied to a Cu grid with holey quanti-foil carbon film, which was dried at 100 °C before the measurement. STEM/HAADF (Scanning Transmission Electron Microscope/High-angle annular dark-field) images were recorded to calculate the particle size distributions. Particle size distributions were processed with approximately 200 particles in three different zones for each sample.

The surface of the samples was studied by X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) by using a Physical Electronics VersaProbe II Scanning XPS Microprobe spectrometer equipped with monochromatic X-ray Al Kα radiation. The binding energies were referenced to the C 1s peak from adventitious carbon at 284.5 eV. High-resolution spectra were recorded in a 29.35 eV constant energy pass, using a 200 μm diameter analysis area, and the pressure in the analysis chamber was

kept below 5×10^{-6} Pa. PHI ACCESS ESCA-F V6 software was used for data acquisition and analysis. The recorded spectra were analyzed with Gauss-Lorentz curves to determine more accurately the binding energy of the atomic levels of the different elements.

2.3. Catalytic tests

The catalytic tests were performed in a fixed-bed quartz reactor, with a diameter of 10.0 mm, placed in an electrically heated furnace, at 1 bar. The catalytic bed, consisting of the catalyst in pellet form (30 mg) dispersed in 470 mg of quartz with the same particle size (0.420–0.595 mm), was placed in the reactor. The height and volume of the catalytic bed were 5 mm and 377 mm³, respectively. The catalytic bed was placed on a bed of quartz wool seated on an α -Al₂O₃ monolith. The furnace temperature was kept constant whereas the catalyst temperature changed depending on the exothermic nature of the reaction. The gas temperature was measured with a K-type thermocouple (0.5 mm diameter) sliding in a 2 mm quartz sheath inside the catalyst bed. The temperature was measured along the catalytic bed according to a previous work [40].

The catalyst activation was carried out by in situ reduction at 600 °C with a flow of 200 mL/min of H₂/N₂ = 1/1 v/v for 2 h, with a heating ramp of 10 °C/min. After cooling to 200 °C and maintaining this temperature for 30 min, the reaction gas (CO₂/H₂/N₂ = 1/4/1 v/v) was injected with a total flow rate of 240 mL/min, corresponding to a GHSV (Gas Hourly Space Velocity) of 480 L/g_{cat} h. The high GHSV has two main purposes: i) to better highlight the differences in activity at low temperature moving away from thermodynamic equilibrium; ii) decrease the size of the reactor, whenever heat removal is possible. The catalytic tests were carried out in reaction cycles between 200 and 600 °C (only the results above 275 °C are shown since they catalysts were inactive below this value), the temperature being increased at 25 °C intervals up to 450 °C and at 50 °C between 450 and 600 °C. After passing through a cold trap for water condensation, the outlet stream was analyzed online by an Agilent 990 microGC, equipped with two thermal conductivity detectors (TCD) and a Molecular Sieve 5 A SS

column using Ar as a carrier for H₂, CO and CH₄ analysis and a PoraPLOT U using He as carrier for CO₂ quantification. Since no C₂₊ hydrocarbons were detected, CO₂ conversion, CH₄ and CO selectivities were defined as follows:

$$\text{CO}_2\text{conversion}(\%) = \frac{[\text{CH}_4] + [\text{CO}]}{[\text{CH}_4] + [\text{CO}] + [\text{CO}_2]} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{CO selectivity}(\%) = \frac{[\text{CO}]}{[\text{CH}_4] + [\text{CO}]} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

$$\text{CH}_4\text{selectivity}(\%) = \frac{[\text{CH}_4]}{[\text{CH}_4] + [\text{CO}]} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where [A] (A = [CH₄], [CO], and [CO₂]) stands for the molar ratio of component A in the outlet stream.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of the Ru loading

The diffraction patterns of the precipitated samples in Fig. S1 confirmed the formation of the hydrotalcite-like structure for all three Ru loadings [46]. After calcination at 600 °C (Fig. 1a), the characteristic MgAlO_x mixed oxides derived from HT-compounds were obtained, namely, a MgO rock-salt structure where Al³⁺ ions were inserted. The reflections of a segregated RuO₂ rutile-type crystalline phase were only observed for the high loaded RuMgAl-2 % catalyst. Conversely, for the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst, the RuO₂ reflections were intense (Fig. S2a). All the catalysts derived from HT compounds display specific surface area values around 190 m²/g (196–182 m²/g) (Table S1), similar to the value of the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ sample (185 m²/g). The impregnation of the Al₂O₃ with Ru and the following calcination did not significantly modify the specific surface area of the original support (195 m²/g).

The effect of Ru loading on the reducibility of HT-derived catalysts was investigated by H₂-TPR (Fig. 1b). The profiles showed H₂

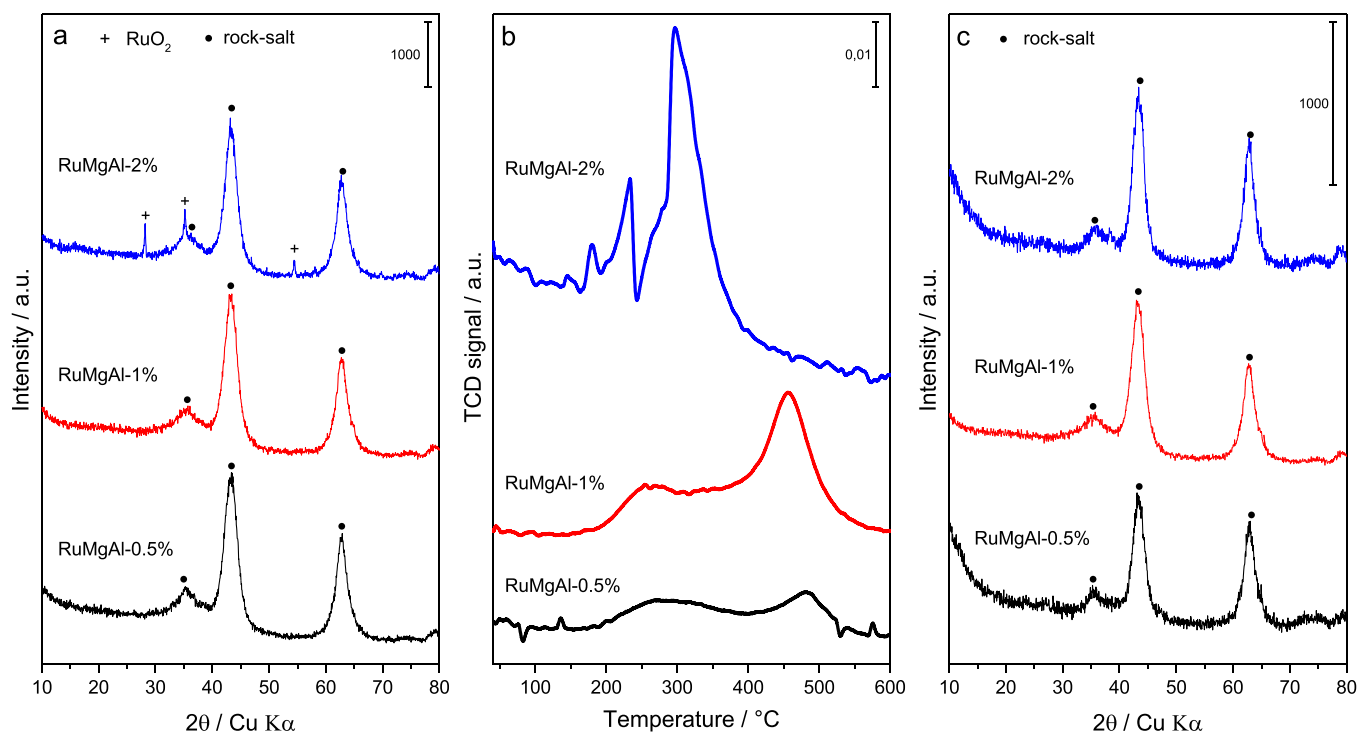


Fig. 1. Diffraction patterns (a) and H₂-TPR profiles (b) of HT-derived catalysts with different Ru loadings; (c) Diffraction patterns of catalysts after tests in the hydrogenation of CO₂.

consumption peaks at around 250 and 450–475 °C in the low loaded catalysts, the latter being more intense for RuMgAl-1 %. The low temperature peak was related to the reduction of well-dispersed RuO_x and bulk RuO₂ species [44,47]. Meanwhile, the high reduction temperature indicated the presence of ruthenium species highly interacting with the oxidic matrix [44,48]. These results suggested that the absence of RuO₂ reflections in the diffraction patterns of low loaded 1 and 0.5 wt% Ru catalysts was likely attributed to its high dispersion in the oxidic matrix. Indeed, the high reduction temperature peak disappeared in the high loaded RuMgAl-2 % catalyst, where Ru segregated as RuO₂ was clearly identified in the diffraction pattern; in this catalyst the second peak moved to ca. 300 °C, suggesting a lower interaction between the ruthenium species and the support or the presence of higher particles. The reduction profile of the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst showed two overlapped H₂ consumptions in the 200–300 °C interval (Fig. S2b), related to well dispersed RuO_x and RuO₂ particles [49], interacting more weakly with the support than for HT-derived catalysts.

The high-resolution Ru 3p_{3/2} core level spectrum of RuMgAl-1 % confirmed the presence of Ru⁴⁺, signal at 464.7 eV, which coexisted with Ru⁰ (462.0 eV) (Table 1 and Fig. S3). The formation of Ru⁰ could occur during the calcination process. The Ru⁴⁺ and Ru⁰ percentages were 56 % and 44 %, respectively [50,51]. The concentration of Ru species on the surface was around 2 wt%, higher than the one in the bulk. Meanwhile, the Mg/Al ratio was 2.0, in line with the 2.1 theoretical value. The high-resolution Ru 3p_{3/2} spectrum of the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst also evidenced the presence of both Ru⁴⁺ and Ru⁰ species, the latter one being more abundant (75 %). The BE of the Ru⁴⁺ species on the Al₂O₃ support was shifted towards slightly higher energies (465.5 eV), probably due to a different interaction active phase-support [51,52]. More remarkably, the concentration of the Ru species on the surface of the Al₂O₃ support largely overcome the theoretical one.

The basicity of RuMgAl-1 %, as a representative of the HT-derived catalysts, was evaluated by CO₂-TPD (Fig. 2); the low Ru loadings in the catalysts did not modify the basic properties of the materials. The measurement was performed over the catalyst in situ reduced at 600 °C to try to mimic the state of the catalyst under reaction conditions. A broad CO₂ removal peak was recorded in the 100–550 °C temperature range. Deconvolution of the signal into three peaks centered at 140, 200, and 320 °C, (Fig. S4) indicated the presence of weak (OH), medium (acid-base Lewis pairs), and strong basic sites (O²⁻), which adsorb hydrogen carbonate, bidentate carbonates and monodentate carbonate species respectively [53]. The CO₂ total uptake was 0.450 mmol/g_{cat}, the strong basic sites were the most abundant (66 %), followed by medium (22 %), and weak ones (13 %). It should be noted that medium basic sites were reported to be the most active for the methanation process [54].

The values of CO₂ conversion and selectivity to CO and CH₄ obtained on the three HT-derived catalysts are displayed in Fig. 3. All three catalysts were inactive at oven temperatures below 325 °C (Fig. 3a). After the reaction light-off, the conversion increased steadily up to 600 °C. Ru loading only had a minor effect on conversion when shifting from 0.5 wt % to 1 wt%. Remarkably, CO₂ conversion curves were similar for

Table 1
Identification of Ru species on the surface, Ru content and Mg/Al atomic surface ratio.

Catalyst	Ru 3p _{3/2} BE / eV	Ru wt%	Mg/Al ratio
RuMgAl-1 % fresh	462.0 (44)	1.93	2.0
	464.7 (66)		
RuMgAl-1 % reduced	462.9 (100)	1.54	2.0
	462.3 (75)		
Ru/Al ₂ O ₃ fresh	465.5 (25)	4.95	–
	461.7 (80)		
Ru/Al ₂ O ₃ reduced	465.6 (20)	0.90	–
	465.6 (20)		

The numbers in brackets referred to the % of the species.

RuMgAl-1 % and RuMgAl-2 %. This behavior deviated from the commonly observed improvement in performance by increasing the Ru loading from 1 to 2 wt% [19,21]. More surprisingly, CH₄ selectivity was very low, i.e., CO was the main reaction product. The CH₄ formation increased both with Ru loading and reaction temperature (Fig. 3b). For instance, over the low loaded RuMgAl-0.5 % catalyst at 350 °C, the selectivity to CH₄ was around 20 % (selectivity to CO ca. 80 %) and slightly increased until reaching ca. 29 % at 550 °C. Conversely, the production of CO was more suppressed over RuMgAl-2 % as the temperature raised, similar selectivity values to CO (50 %) and CH₄ (50 %) were obtained at 500 and 550 °C. Temperature profiles were recorded along the axial direction in the center of the catalytic bed (Fig. S5). The temperature was constant along the catalytic bed under all reaction conditions in agreement with a low contribution from the exothermic methanation reaction.

The catalytic results followed an anomalous trend, with a good Ni methanation catalyst, under the same reaction conditions, the CO selectivity increased with temperature due to the contribution of the reverse water gas shift (RWGS) [41]. In this work, we only observed a drop in the CH₄ selectivity at 600 °C oven temperature. A reconstruction/sintering of the catalyst that activates the catalyst due to the growth of the Ru particle size or modification of the support as previously reported for Ru/Al₂O₃ [19,28,55] could explain the catalytic results. To check the stability of the catalysts, tests were carried out at the end of the first cycle over RuMgAl-1 %. The activity and the selectivity of the catalyst in the second reaction cycle were similar to the values in the first run (Fig. S6). Hence, the increase in CH₄ selectivity with temperature could not be related to the sintering of Ru particles. The diffraction patterns of all three catalysts after the catalytic tests evidenced the stability of the MgAlO_x support, since the patterns before and after reaction were similar, with the exception of the disappearance of the RuO₂ phase due to the catalyst reduction (Fig. 1c). Moreover, the absence of reflections due to the Ru⁰ phase suggested the formation of small nanoparticles.

Considering that the reaction took place through the formation of Ru-CO intermediates [20], it could be hypothesized that Ru species were saturated by CO and therefore there were not enough sites to activate the H₂ molecule, and consequently formation of CO selectivity instead of CH₄ was preferred. This behavior likely depended on the GHSV, which in this work was very high (480 L/g_{cat} h). However, the tests carried out on the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst under the same reaction conditions showed that the production of CH₄ was favored over the production of CO and it followed the expected trend, i.e., it decreased as the reaction temperature did (Fig. 4).

To explain the differences in the catalytic activity of the RuMgAl-1 % HT-derived and Ru/Al₂O₃, the reduced and spent catalysts were characterized. The high-resolution Ru 3p_{3/2} core level spectra of RuMgAl-1 % and Ru/Al₂O₃ reduced at 600 °C revealed that in both types of catalysts ruthenium species were in the metallic state (Table 1). Their concentration on the catalyst surface decreased during reduction, likely due to agglomeration in larger Ru particles, and it was slightly higher on the HT-derived than on the Al₂O₃ supported catalyst (1.5 vs 0.90 %). Considering that both catalysts had similar specific surface areas (ca. 190 m²/g), the concentration of Ru on the catalyst surface of the freshly reduced catalysts could not explain the differences in the selectivity of the process. This also suggested that the embedment of Ru in the bulk of HT-derived catalysts was not responsible for the low activity. STEM/HAADF images showed that the RuMgAl-1 % catalyst contained Ru nanoparticles (NPs) with a narrow particle size distribution from 0.5 to 3 nm (Fig. 5a), similar to those obtained in a high surface area MgO [25]. Conversely, in the 1 wt% Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst a broad distribution of larger Ru NPs (from 2 to 25 nm) was obtained (Fig. 5b). These larger Ru NPs were responsible for the Ru⁰ reflections clearly identified in the diffraction pattern of the Ru/Al₂O₃ (Fig. S2a), while the very small NPs in the HT-derived catalyst could not be detected by XRD (Fig. 1c). The formation of small Ru NPs (1–3 nm) was also demonstrated for the

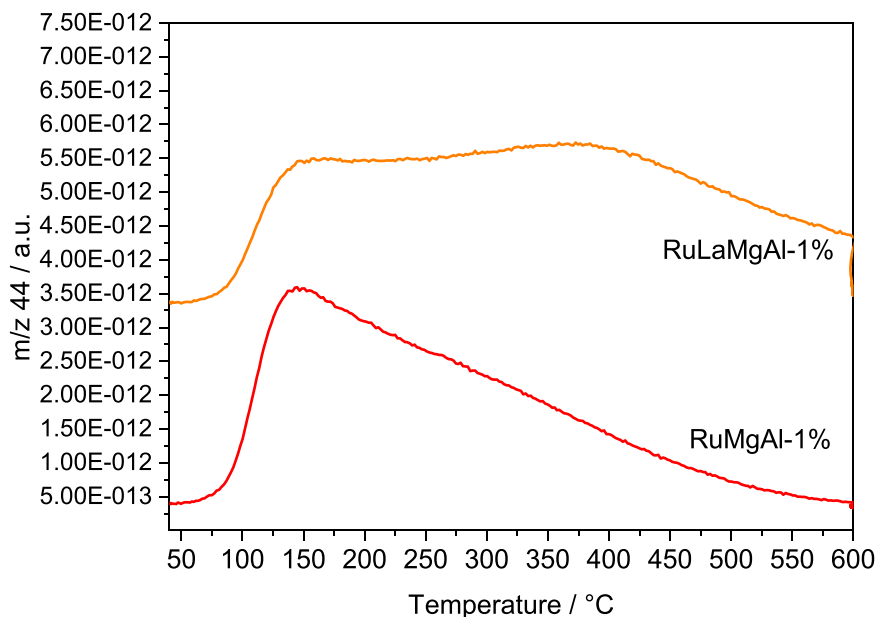


Fig. 2. CO₂-TPD profiles of RuMgAl-1% and RuLaMgAl-1% catalysts reduced at 600 °C.

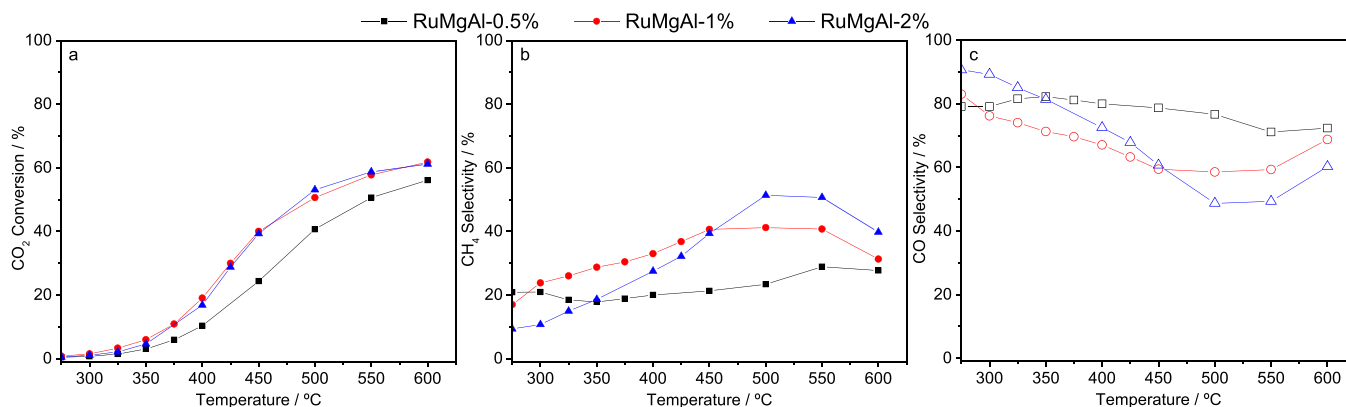


Fig. 3. Effect of the Ru loading in RuMgAl HT-derived catalysts on the CO₂ conversion (a), CH₄ selectivity (b), and CO selectivity (c).

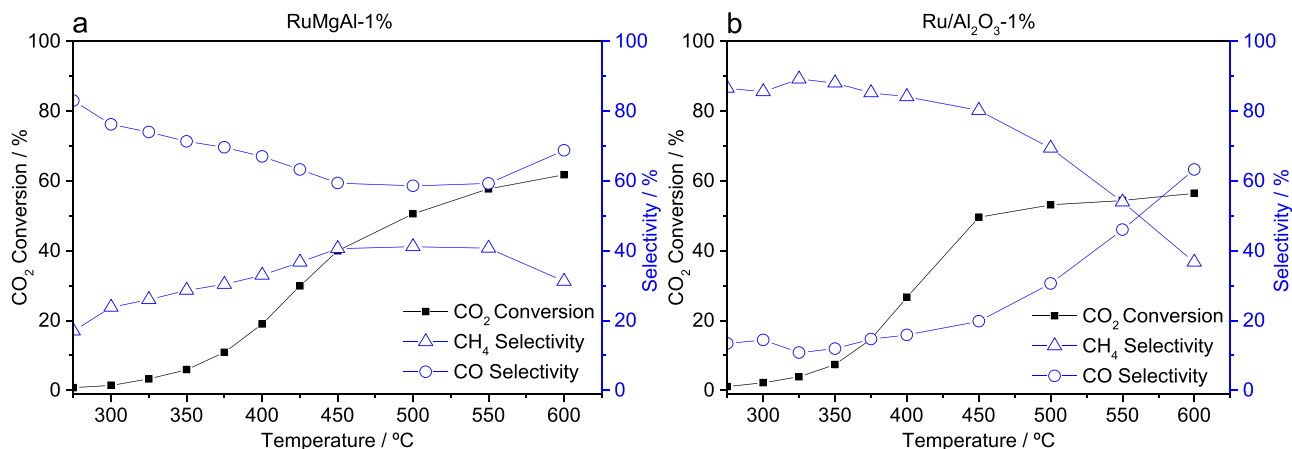


Fig. 4. Comparison of the catalytic activity in the CO₂ hydrogenation of the RuMgAl HT-derived (a) and Ru/Al₂O₃ (b) catalysts.

RuMgAl-2% spent catalyst (Fig. S7a), though in this case also large particles were identified (Fig. S7b). However, under our reaction conditions in this work, a moderate dispersion of Ru particles, as in the impregnated Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst, was preferred to achieve a higher

selectivity in CH₄, likely related to a lower Ru-CO interaction and coverage [32,56] or to a stronger H-spillover effect [32] from large Ru NPs.

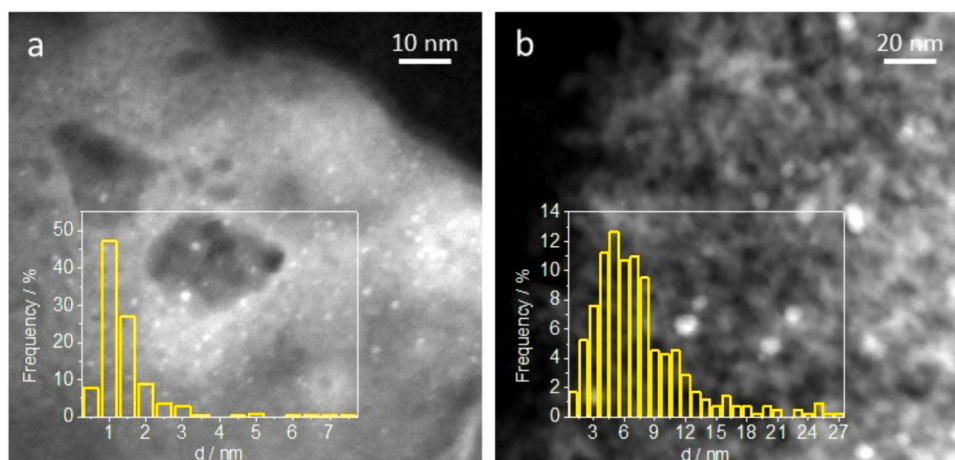


Fig. 5. STEM/HAADF images and Ru particle size distribution in RuMgAl-1 % (a) and Ru/Al₂O₃ (b) catalysts. The brighter dots correspond to the Ru particles.

3.2. Effect of the basicity. La³⁺ incorporation

The well-known basic properties of the Ru HT-derived catalyst were also confirmed in this work; however, the combination of small Ru NPs with a basic support did not provide active sites suitable for the selective hydrogenation of CO₂ to CH₄ as previously reported for Ru on MgO [25]. This behavior could be related to the presence of strong basic sites (less active than medium basic sites [54]) and/or to a low H-spill over from Ru to the CO₂ species activated on the support surface or at the Ru-support interface. Since the increase in the Ru loading from 1 to 2 wt % did not significantly modify the Ru particle size or the H-spill over process, an attempt was made to improve the activity through the modification of the basicity of the MgAlO_x matrix. A catalyst was prepared incorporating La³⁺ cations (RuLaMgAl) [40,41,57].

The large ionic radius and strong anionic character of La³⁺ provoked that part of the cations was outside the brucite-type layers as La(CO₃)(OH) and La₂(CO₃)₂(OH)₂ side phases (Fig. S8) [41]. Accordingly, after calcination at 600 °C, La₂O₂CO₃ was also observed in the catalyst (Fig. 6a). The presence of La³⁺ did not modify the reducibility of the catalyst (Fig. 6b); H₂ consumption was related to well dispersed RuO_x and Ru⁴⁺ species that highly interacted with the oxidic matrix. As expected, La³⁺ provoked an increase in the CO₂ uptake; however, it was mainly due to the development of additional strong basic sites (cf. the more intense CO₂-TPD signal at ca. 320 °C in Fig. 2). Unfortunately, the signal in the TPD profile did not return to the baseline at the end of the

measurement (600 °C), which made it not possible to perform the peak deconvolution and to an underestimation the total CO₂ uptake.

Regrettably, the modification of the basicity of the oxidic matrix did not have any positive effect (Fig. 7), as previously observed for Ni HT-derived catalysts. The CO₂ conversion roughly followed the same trend as in the RuMgAl-1 % catalyst (Fig. 7a). Contrarily, CH₄ production was further suppressed; the selectivity to CH₄ decreased (and therefore the selectivity to CO increased) ca. 10–12 % (Fig. 7b).

The catalytic data and the characterization results showed that though CO₂ could be activated on both the HT-derived support and the Ru particles, the activity was limited to the production of CO, likely due to the Ru⁰ small particle size and the poor H₂ activation [19]. CO₂ may firstly interact with the support, but then it was not hydrogenated to CH₄, and it was only reduced to CO. Some unreactive CO species were reported by Wang et al. and identified as geminal CO molecules adsorbed on low-coordinated sites [23]. A Langmuir–Hinshelwood type mechanism was proposed wherein the H-assisted dissociation of the reactive CO was the rate-determining. Similarly, the quasi-saturation of Ru particles with CO and the limitation of the reaction by the competitive Langmuir-type co-adsorption of H₂ was reported by Dreyer et al. [56]. A higher reaction temperature could weaken the Ru-CO bond and promote the H-spill over, therefore the CO₂ conversion to CH₄ could increase, explaining the enhancement in the CH₄ selectivity observed during the catalytic cycle in Figs. 3 and 7.

Comparing the performance of the Ru-HT derived catalysts with the

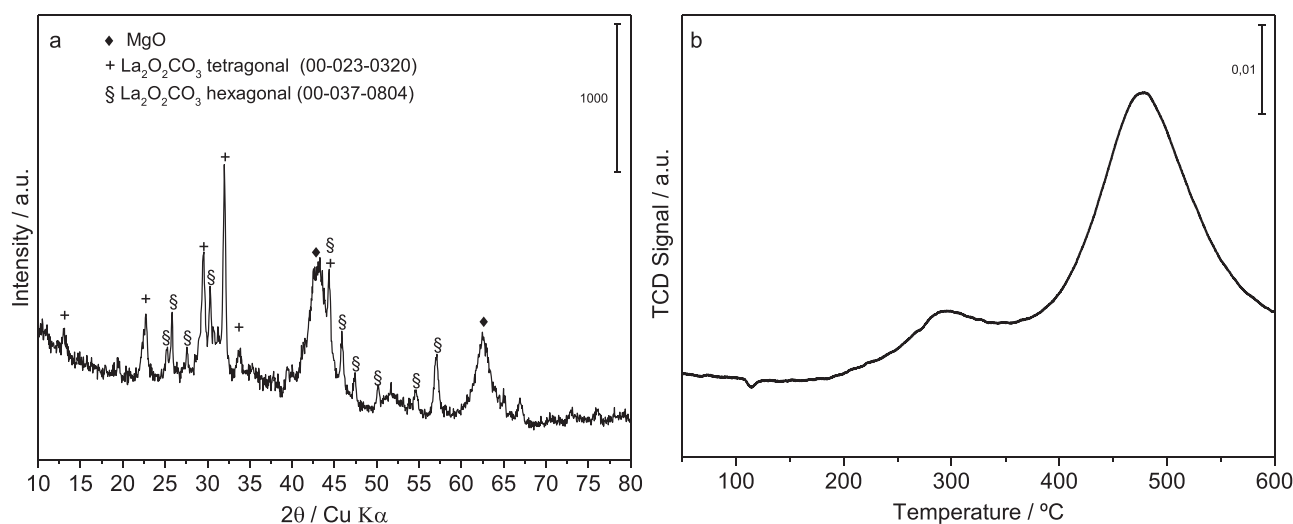


Fig. 6. Diffraction pattern (a) and H₂-TPR (b) profile of the RuLaMgAl catalyst.

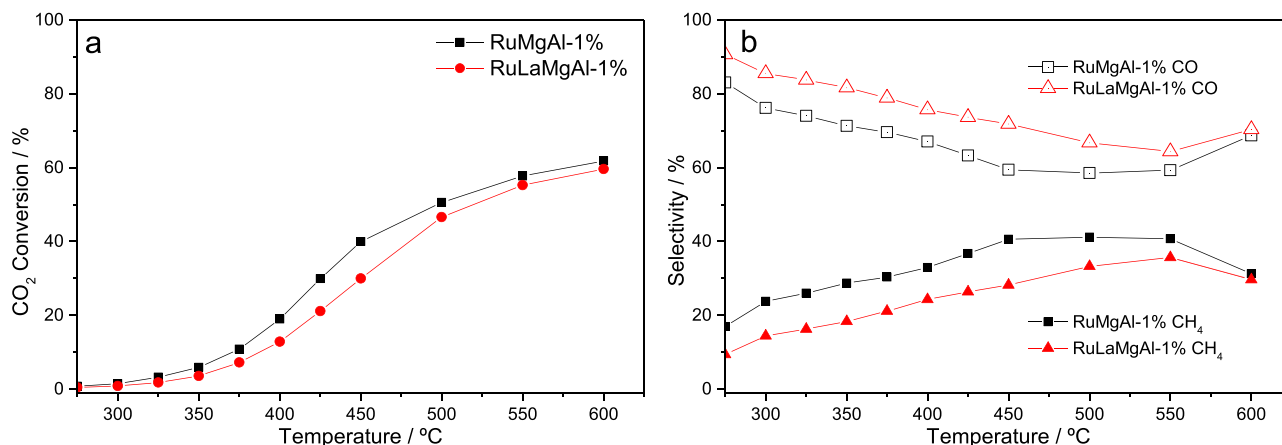


Fig. 7. Effect of the addition of La to the catalyst formulation on the CO₂ conversion (a) and selectivity to CH₄ and CO (b).

performance of Ni-HT derived catalysts previously reported by us [40, 41], tested under the same reaction conditions, it was clear that the latter largely outperform the Ru-based catalysts. For instance, a Ni₅₀Mg₂₅La₅Al₂₀ catalyst at 250 °C oven temperature reached a CO₂ conversion close to 60 % and almost full CH₄ selectivity (98 %) [41], while the Ru catalysts were inactive. The higher activity of Ni in comparison to Ru agrees with previously results obtained in a 1 kW reactor [58], where the activity of Ni-based catalyst was about 3 times higher than the activity of the Ru-based catalyst at 275 °C.

4. Conclusions

Ru-containing MgAl hydrotalcite-type compounds as precursors of catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation allowed the formation of small (1–3 nm) Ru nanoparticles strongly interacting with the basic MgAlO_x matrix. However, the combination of these important features for CO₂ methanation did not provide active and selective catalytic sites for the conversion of CO₂ to CH₄. The catalysts were poorly active, requiring temperatures above 300 °C to initiate the CO₂ conversion, and they drove the reaction mainly to CO production, even after tailoring the basicity by adding of La³⁺. Comparison with a more CH₄-selective Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst suggested that the small Ru NPs were responsible of the poor ability of the catalysts to produce CH₄ and that the basic properties of the support played only a marginal role when the ability of the catalyst to adsorb CO and to activate H₂ was not optimized. To develop HT-derived Ru catalysts for the selective production of CH₄ further work is required to optimize the Ru particle size, as well as to better characterize the Ru-CO interaction and the H₂ activation in situ or operando.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Alexander Misol: Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Ilenia Giarnieri:** Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Francesca Ospitali:** Measurements. **Adriana Ballarini:** Investigation, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **José Jiménez-Jiménez:** Investigation, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Enrique Rodríguez-Castellón:** Investigation, Validation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Francisco Martín Labajos:** Investigation, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Giuseppe Fornasari:** Investigation, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Patricia Benito:** Conceptualization, Validation, Supervision, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence

the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.cattod.2023.114362](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2023.114362).

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