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CO2 methanation over Ni-Al LDH-derived catalyst with variable Ni/Al ratio



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ABSTRACT

CO₂ methanation is a promising technology to recycle CO₂ into useful chemicals, fuels, and energy, avoiding its emissions in the atmosphere, as well as for the purification of H₂ streams containing CO₂. In this work, Ni-Al LDH-derived catalysts with Ni/Al ratio between 0.5 and 4 were prepared by co-precipitation and evaluated in CO₂ methanation. The samples were characterized by N₂ physisorption, X-ray diffraction, temperature-programmed reduction, temperature-programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD, H₂-TPD) and oxidation. Catalytic tests were carried out in a fixed-bed reactor at atmospheric pressure, inlet mixture of H₂:CO₂:N₂ = 4:1:15 and GHSV = 60000 mL (g_{cat} h)⁻¹, in stepwise mode (200–400 °C) and stability at 300 °C. The catalysts presented high activity and selectivity, reaching 92.3 % of CO₂ conversion at 300 °C, along with 100 % CH₄ selectivity for the catalyst with NiAl = 2 due to its high number of weak-to-medium strength basic sites. The amount of H₂-chemisorbed was higher for NiAl = 1, whereas the highest number of basic sites was for NiAl = 2. These results indicate that LDH-derived Ni-Al catalysts with a Ni/Al ratio between 1 and 2 would be suitable for CO₂ methanation.

1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission is a rising threat to the global environment, as it is a leading greenhouse gas (GHG) in terms of total volume emitted [1,2]. In 2020, although CO₂ total emissions shared the lowest amount since 2011 given the Covid-19 pandemic outbreak, more than 32 Gton were emitted, showing that mitigating emissions must be a major global concern to achieve a sustainable, decarbonized economy [3]. However, it is an enormous challenge as the majority of energy and fuel consumption globally relies on fossil sources such as oil, coal, and natural gas, representing 83 % of primary energy consumption in 2020 [3].

Many governments, companies, and researchers have been diligently developing and implementing technologies and processes that could allow reduced carbon emissions, either by capturing or even avoiding CO_2 emissions at all [4]. An interesting alternative, which contributes not just to reduce emissions, but also to using captured carbon as an energy and chemical source, is the CO_2 conversion to numerous chemical compounds such as methane (CH₄), methanol (CH₃OH), ethanol (C₂H₅OH), among others. In this context, CO₂ methanation rises as a promising chemical route to CO_2 utilization [5,6].

CH₄ produced by CO₂ hydrogenation may be used as an energy source, fuel, or feedstock to obtain fine chemicals [7,8]. CH₄ is a carrier of H₂ obtained by water splitting using renewable energy sources such as solar and wind, as CH₄ is a more stable, safer-to-work molecule and easier to transport compared to H₂. Then, CH₄ can be directly distributed in existent natural gas grids [9–11]. Moreover, methanation can be applied to CO and CO₂-contaminated H₂ stream purification to use in fuel cells and ammonia synthesis, which demand high-purity H₂ feedstock [12,13].

The general CO₂ methanation reaction involves the hydrogenation of CO₂ producing CH₄ and H₂O (Eq. 1). However, considering the thermodynamic aspects of the process, the reaction occurs in a two-step mechanism, starting with the mildly endothermic reverse water-gas shift (RWGS, Eq. 2) reaction producing CO, which is therefore converted to CO₂ via the highly exothermic CO methanation reaction (Eq. 3) [5,9,14,15]. The high exothermicity of the overall process thermodynamically favors its occurrence in temperatures as low as 200 °C, where theoretically full CO₂ conversion could be attained. However, due to kinetics limitations in low temperatures and difficulty in activating CO₂, highly active and selective catalysts are required to perform this reaction. CO₂ methanation can be easily carried out at atmospheric pressure

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and low temperatures. However, at temperatures higher than 400 $^{\circ}$ C, RWGS reaction becomes favored, which limits the temperature range from 200 to 450 $^{\circ}$ C [15–19].

$$4 H_2 + CO_2 \leftrightarrows CH_4 + 2 H_2O \ \Delta H_R^0 = -165 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$
(1)

$$H_2 + CO_2 \leftrightarrows CO + H_2O \ \Delta H_R^0 = 41 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$
⁽²⁾

$$3 H_2 + CO \leftrightarrows CH_4 + H_2O \Delta H_R^0 = -206 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$
 (3)

Although Ni-based supported catalysts are widely used, LDH-derived materials have been recently spotlighted as interesting candidates as catalysts for CO₂ methanation [20–26]. These materials are comprised of multiple positively-charged layers or lamellae of combined divalent (Ni²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cu²⁺, etc.) and trivalent (Al³⁺, Fe³⁺, etc.) metal cations surrounded by hydroxide ions, intercalated by anions (CO₃²⁻, OH⁻) that act as compensation charges and H₂O [24]. Such characteristics as variable composition, adjustable acid-base property, high surface area and dispersion, low crystallite size, as well as high stability and adsorption capacity, are highly sought after in materials to use as catalysts [19,24].

Some papers addressed Ni-Al LDH-derived catalysts applied to CO_2 methanation. Abate et al. (2016) investigated the effect of different pH during catalysts preparation, using NaOH and Na₂CO₃ alkaline solution to obtain a pH 12 (Ni-Al 12) and Na₂CO₃ (Ni-Al 8.7) to a pH 8.7 catalysts, with fixed Ni content (75–80 % wt.). Ni-Al 12 exhibited slightly higher CO₂ conversion and CH₄ yield, around 85 % at 300 °C when compared to Ni-Al 8.7 and a commercial catalyst. The higher activity of Ni-Al 12 was attributed to improved reducibility, higher metallic surface area, and dispersion [27]. Daroughegi et al. (2017) studied the effect of ultrasound assistance during co-precipitation, using a NaOH alkaline solution (pH = 10). A 25 % (wt.) Ni catalyst reached 74 % CO₂ conversion at 350 °C, which was due to a higher number of active sites – higher specific surface area and dispersion – and improved reducibility [28].

Gabrovska et al. (2012) prepared catalysts with Ni^{2+}/Al^{3+} (M^{II}/M^{III}) of 0.5, 1.5, and 3. While at low reduction temperatures of 400–450 $^{\circ}$ C the catalyst with the highest Ni amount showed higher activity, in higher ones (530-600 °C) the catalyst with the lowest Ni amount was more active due to facilitated reduction [29]. Guo et al. (2018) prepared high Ni^{2+}/Al^{3+} ratio ($M^{II}/M^{III} = 1-6$) catalysts by hydrothermal synthesis, where Ni₅Al-MO (5/1) presented 89.4 % CO₂ conversion and 99 % CH₄ selectivity at 250 °C, attributed to basicity and reducibility properties. However, partially segregated NiO was formed during calcination, presenting a high mean crystallite size (20 nm approx.) upon reduction to Ni⁰ [30]. Wierzbicki et al. (2017) synthesized Ni-Mg-Al catalysts, using NaOH alkaline solution (pH = 9.5-10), with fixed $M^{II}/M^{III} = 3$ and variable Ni/Mg content (0.6–9). The catalyst with higher Ni content (42 % wt.) presented the highest number of basic sites, improved reducibility, and the lowest crystallite size, reaching 72 % CO₂ conversion and 99 % CH₄ selectivity at a low temperature of 250 °C [31].

Previously, our group studied Ni-Al and Co-Al LDH-derived catalysts in CO₂ methanation, finding out that basicity plays a pivotal role in catalytic performance [32]. Thereby, the present work aimed to produce high-purity, co-precipitated Ni-Al LDH-derived mixed oxides, ranging from a wide molar proportion $M^{II}/M^{III} = 0.5-4$, seeking to evaluate the best ratio to obtain catalysts with features such as small crystallite size, high dispersion, improved reducibility and proper basicity, which can provide high catalytic performance and resistance to deactivation in CO₂ methanation reaction.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

The precursor salts nickel nitrate (Ni(NO3)2.6H2O, 97 % P.A.),

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 Table 1

 Molar proportions of co-precipitated LDH catalysts.

			•	
	Samples	Ni (%M)	Al (%M)	M ^{II} /M ^{III} molar ratio
Ì	Ni33Al66	33	66	0.5
	Ni50Al50	50	50	1
	Ni66Al33	66	33	2
	Ni80Al20	80	20	4

aluminum nitrate (Al(NO₃)₂0.9 H₂O, 98 % P.A.), sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃, 99.5 % ACS) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 97 % ACS) were provided by Synth and used as received. The catalysts were prepared by the co-precipitation method as described in detail in previous papers by our group [32–34]. A nitrate solution (1 M) with required proportions and an alkaline solution (2 M) with Na₂CO₃ and NaOH (50/50 %M) were dropwise-added continuously in a jacketed reactor maintained at 50 °C and constant pH (8 ± 0.1). The precipitate solution was collected and aged for 1 h at 60 °C under vigorous agitation, then washed and filtered until conductivity reached less than 50 μ S. The resulting material was dried at 80 °C overnight, sieved (32–42 mesh), and calcined in synthetic air at 600 °C for 6 h to obtain the mixed oxide catalysts. The prepared catalysts, which are summarized in Table 1, were denoted as NixAly, where x and y are the molar proportions of Ni (M^{II}, divalent metal) and Al (M^{III}, trivalent metal), respectively.

2.2. Catalyst characterization

To obtain the physicochemical properties of calcined samples, N₂ physisorption analyzes were performed via a Quantachrome 4200e pore and surface analyzer. The samples were degassed under vacuum for 3 h at 300 °C, and then analyses were performed with liquid N₂ (-196 °C). Multipoint BET and BJH methods were employed to estimate the specific surface area, and pore volume and size, respectively [35].

X-ray diffractometry (XRD) was performed in a D2 Phaser (Bruker, 30 kV, 10 mA) diffractometer, with Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm) source, to evaluate the crystalline structure. XRD patterns of synthesized material (LDH), fresh samples (calcined and reduced), and spent samples (after catalytic tests) were obtained. The average crystallite sizes were estimated using the Scherrer equation [34].

A multipurpose equipment (SAMP3), equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD), was used to record thermal analyzes of H_2 temperature-programmed reduction (H_2 -TPR), CO₂ (CO₂-TPD) and H_2 (H_2 -TPD) temperature-programmed desorption. Reduction profiles were obtained through H_2 -TPR analysis. The samples (100 mg) were initially pretreated under N_2 flow at 100 °C. The analyzes were then carried out from 100 to 800 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ under a 5 % H_2/N_2 (30 mL min⁻¹) flow [33].

For both CO₂-TPD and H₂-TPD analyses, the samples were firstly reduced at 600 °C for 1 h with 10 % H₂/N₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) flow. CO₂-TPD analysis was used to measure the basic properties of the catalysts. The reduced samples (100 mg) were purged with pure He flow (30 mL min⁻¹) at 100 °C for 30 min, then the He flow was switched to CO₂ (30 mL min⁻¹) to perform adsorption for 30 min and purged again with He as before. The CO₂ desorption step was recorded from 100 to 800 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ under pure He flow [30,32].

 $\rm H_2\text{-}TPD$ analysis was employed to obtain the $\rm H_2$ adsorption profile of the catalysts. The reduced samples (200 mg) were purged with a pure $\rm N_2$ flow (30 mL min⁻¹) for 30 min at ambient temperature, then $\rm H_2$ adsorption took place with pure $\rm H_2$ flow (20 mL min⁻¹) for 1 h and purged with $\rm N_2$ as previously. The $\rm H_2$ desorption was measured from 50 °C to 800 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ with pure $\rm N_2$ flow [36,37]. The surface metallic area and metal dispersion were estimated using Eqs. (4) and (5), respectively, as presented by Stangeland et al. [37]:

$$S_{N^0}(m^2g^{-1}) = \frac{\mathbf{Y} \times N_A \times F_S}{\mathbf{A}}$$
(4)

Table 2

Physicochemical properties of Ni-Al catalysts by N2 physisorption and H2-TPD.

Samples	M ^{II} /M ^{III} molar ratio	S _{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹) ^a	V _{pore} (cm ³ g ⁻¹) ^b	D _{pore} (nm) ^b	$\begin{array}{c}S_{\mathrm{Ni}}^{0}\\(m^{2}\\g^{-1})^{\mathrm{c}}\end{array}$	Dispersion (γ_{Ni}^{0}) (%) ^c
Ni33Al66	0.5	295.1	0.374	3.9	15.8	4.6
Ni50Al50	1	216.0	0.284	3.9	23.0	5.0
Ni66Al33	2	175.1	0.332	3.9	17.2	3.2
Ni80Al20	4	139.2	0.321	6.4	8.4	1.4

^a Obtained via BET method from N₂ physisorption data.

^b Obtained via BJH method from N₂ physisorption data.

^c Obtained via H₂-TPD chemisorption data.

$$\gamma_{N^0}(\%) = \frac{Y \times F_S}{\frac{W_m}{M_m}} \times 10 \tag{5}$$

where Y represents the amount of chemisorbed H₂ (mol g⁻¹_{cat}), N_A is Avogadro number (6.023 \times 10²³ atoms mol⁻¹), A is surface Ni atoms located at a unit area (1.54 \times 10¹⁹ atoms m⁻²), F_S is the stoichiometric factor (H₂/Ni = 2), W_m is Ni metal loading (g_{Ni} g⁻¹_{cat}) and M_m is Ni molar mass (58.69 g_{Ni} mol⁻¹).

Temperature-programmed oxidation (TPO) was employed to evaluate carbon deposits of catalysts spent in stability tests. SDT Q600 thermobalance (TA Instruments) was used, where samples (10 mg) were heated at 10 °C min⁻¹ from ambient temperature to 800 °C with synthetic air flow (100 mL min⁻¹) [38].

2.3. Catalytic tests

The catalytic tests were performed as described in the previous papers [32,39,40], utilizing a fixed-bed tubular quartz reactor, heated by an electric resistive furnace and gas flows controlled by digital mass controllers (Sierra Instruments). The gas mixture products were analyzed online in a Varian 3600 Cx gas chromatograph equipped with a thermal conductivity detector and a Porapak-Q column, using N₂ as

carrier gas.

The catalyst samples (100 mg) were reduced in situ at 600 °C for 1 h using 100 mL min⁻¹ of 10 % H₂/N₂. Activity tests were performed with mixture of H₂:CO₂:N₂ = 4:1:15 (v/v, 100 mL min⁻¹), a GHSV of 60000 mL (g_{cat} h)⁻¹ and atmospheric pressure. Variable temperature tests were carried out in stepwise mode from 200 to 400 °C ($\Delta T = 50$ °C) with five GC analyses at each temperature. Stability tests at a fixed temperature of 300 °C were carried out for 300 min (5 h) where GC analyzes were conducted every 10 min

The CO_2 conversion, CH_4 selectivity, and CH_4 yield (on a dry basis) were obtained from Eqs. (6)–(8), respectively:

$$X_{CO_2}(\%) = \frac{F_{CO_{2in}} - F_{CO_{2out}}}{F_{CO_{2in}}} \times 100$$
(6)

$$S_{CH_4}(\%) = \frac{F_{CH_{4\,out}}}{F_{CH_{4\,out}} + F_{CO_{out}}} \times 100$$
(7)

$$Y_{CH_4}(\%) = X_{CO_2} . S_{CH_4} \times 100$$
(8)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalyst characterization

Table 2 summarizes the specific surface area, pore volume, and average pore diameter estimated from N₂ physisorption analysis of calcined samples (mixed oxides), while Fig. 1 presents the N₂ physisorption isotherms and Fig. S1 (supplementary material) presents the pore volume distributions. The surface area notably decreases when increasing Ni loading, from 295.1 for Ni33Al66 to 139.2 m² g⁻¹ for Ni80Al20, perhaps due to the increase of Ni loading causing pore blockage, as well as the simultaneous decrease of Al loading, as Al-based oxides present high surface areas [35,41,42]. Pore volume follows the same behavior as surface area, except for Ni50Al50, which had the lowest one. The mean pore diameter was the same for samples until $M^{II}/M^{III} = 2$, with Ni80Al20 presenting the higher one. These results



Fig. 1. N₂ physisorption isotherms of Ni-Al calcined catalysts, where: (a) Ni33Al66, (b) Ni50Al50, (c) Ni66Al33, and (d) Ni80Al20.



Fig. 2. XRD patterns of (a) calcined and (b) reduced Ni-Al samples.

Table 3

Average crystallite size of fresh reduced (before reaction) and spent (after reaction) samples.

Samples	M ^{II} /M ^{III} molar ratio	Average crystallite size (nm)			
		D _{red}	D ^{a,b} step	D _{stab}	
Ni33Al66	0.5	3.3	4.1	3.1	
Ni50A150	1	3.3	3.0	3.6	
Ni66Al33	2	5.9	4.3	5.8	
Ni80Al20	4	6.3	6.8	7.4	

^aDetermined from XRD pattern of Ni⁰ at 44.8°.

^bAfter tests in stepwise mode between 200 and 400 °C.

^cAfter 5 h stability tests at 300 °C.

suggest that lower M^{II}/M^{III} proportions improve metal dispersion on the surface, thus enhancing the catalysts textural properties [31]. It should be noted that the decrease in the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio implies a decrease in the amount of Ni and a simultaneous increase of Al in the sample. Considering that Al plays the role of structural promoter, the decrease in the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio results in a catalyst with a higher specific surface area and, as the amount of Ni decreases, the active metal dispersion increases.

The samples present isotherms type IV (a), which indicates capillary condensation followed by hysteresis between adsorption-desorption curves due to the presence of pores with a diameter higher than 4 nm and are characteristic of mesoporous materials (2–50 nm). The samples Ni33Al66 and Ni50Al50 presented hysteresis loop type H2 (b), which may indicate pore blocking in narrow pore necks, meanwhile samples Ni66Al33 and Ni80Al20 have H3 hysteresis that is related to plate-like particles, as found in LDH and LDH-derived materials [43].

The XRD patterns of as-prepared samples (Fig. S2) presented characteristic hydrotalcite peaks ($2\theta = 11.5^\circ$, 23.4° , 35° , 39.8° , 46.7° , 61.8°), demonstrating that LDH-like materials were successfully obtained [31]. XRD patterns of calcined and reduced samples are shown in Fig. 2. The calcined samples presented three main peaks, at $2\theta = 37.5^{\circ}$, 43.3°, and 63°. These peaks are ascribed to the NiO phase obtained upon calcination, although may also represent Ni-Al-O spinel phases (NiAl2O4 - normal, Ni₂AlO₄ - inverse), which are expected for ex-LDH materials; however, cannot be precisely observed through XRD analysis due to similar reflection angles [23,31]. The reduced samples presented main reflections at 44.8° and 52.3° attributed to Ni⁰ phase. The peak at 37.5° may be related to Ni-Al-O spinels, mainly for lower MII/MIII ratio samples, indicating that the mixed oxides were not completely reduced [23, 44]. All reduced samples presented small crystallite sizes, as seen in Table 3, although they show an increase in crystallite size for M^{II}/M^{III} ratios above 1.

Fig. 3 shows the reduction profiles of calcined samples. The samples presented a broad main peak at high temperatures (> 400 °C)



Fig. 3. H₂-TPR profiles of calcined Ni-Al samples.

Table 4

Quantified data from thermal characterization (TPR, TPD, and TPO) of Ni-Al catalysts.

Samples	M ^{II} / M ^{III} molar ratio	H_2 consumption (µmol g_{cat}^{-1}) ^a	CO_2 desorption (µmol g ⁻¹ _{cat}) ^b	H_2 desorption (µmol g ⁻¹ _{cat}) ^c	Carbon deposited $(g g_{cat}^{-1})^d$
Ni33Al66	0.5	90.5	11.5	41.0	30.6
Ni50Al50	1	119.7	20.3	59.6	24.1
Ni66Al33	2	154.5	27.3	44.4	22.4
Ni80Al20	4	178.1	21.2	23.2	14.7

^a Obtained through H₂-TPR profiles.

 $^{\rm b}\,$ Obtained through CO2-TPD profiles.

^c Obtained through H₂-TPD profiles.

^d Obtained through TPO profiles.

representing Ni-Al-O spinel mixed oxides reduction to Ni⁰. This peak increases for higher M^{II}/M^{III} ratios as well as total H₂ consumption (Table 4), as the Ni content increases [26,30,45]. Bulk NiO reduction, which occurs at lower temperatures, is negligible in these samples, demonstrating that all Ni was in the mixed oxide phase. Reduction of Ni-Al-O oxides is more difficult than of bulk NiO, as the mixed oxides



Fig. 4. CO₂-TPD profiles of reduced Ni-Al samples.

have strong interaction between Ni²⁺ and Al³⁺ ions and high dispersion of Ni in the lattice [45]. The reduction temperatures were shifted to higher ones when decreasing M^{II}/M^{III} ratio due to a lower amount of Ni-rich phases, where the Ni particles were smaller and consequently have strong interaction with Al [31]. As the peak is considerably broad in all samples, it should be a result of overlapping individual peaks, and then the profiles were refined through deconvolution. This treatment revealed the presence of two to four peaks overlapped, depending on the sample composition. The correspondent reduction temperatures and percentual peak areas are presented in Table S1. The sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 1$ (Ni50Al50) presented two peaks, centered at 625 and 686 °C, which can be assigned to Ni₂AlO₄ and NiAl₂O₄ spinel reduction, respectively, with similar peak areas. The sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 2$ (Ni66Al33) had three peaks, where the Ni₂AlO₄ inverse spinel at 602 °C and the NiAl₂O₄ normal spinel at 681 °C. The first peak at 533 °C may be associated with large NiO particles interacting weakly with Ni-Al-O phases, which is then of easier reducibility than spinels [27]. A similar pattern was observed for the sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 4$ (Ni80Al20), with the first peak at 468 °C of NiO/Ni-Al-O reduction, a second peak at 568 °C for Ni₂AlO₄, and the third peak at 657 °C for NiAl₂O₄. This sample also presented the fourth peak at 716 °C, possibly related to small Ni particles, interacting strongly with Ni-Al-O spinels and/or Al₂O₃ which are hardly reducible.

The sample with a lower M^{II}/M^{III} ratio of 0.5 (Ni33Al66) had a different behavior compared to the other samples. The small first peak at 573 °C could be related to large Ni particles interaction weakly with Ni-Al-O, similarly to Ni66Al33 and Ni80Al20 samples, as it is unlikely that Ni₂AlO₄ spinel was formed given the low Ni content. Then, the sample is mainly formed by NiAl₂O₄ spinel, correspondent to the peak at 637 °C, and a small shoulder at 769 °C, which is related to small Ni particles interacting strongly with NiAl₂O₄, smilarly to Ni80Al20 catalyst. Except for catalyst Ni33Al66, higher M^{II}/M^{III} ratios lead to lower reduction temperatures, for both the first peak (Ni66Al33 and Ni80Al20 only) and spinel-like peaks, which shows its facilitated reduction. Daroughegi et al. (2017) stated that to lower Ni loadings the peak temperatures shift to higher ones whereas the peak intensities decline, revealing a high interaction between catalysts components associated with small Ni crystallite size, which agrees with XRD calculations [28].

The CO₂-TPD profiles of reduced samples are depicted in Fig. 4. The samples presented three peaks, observed through deconvolution, where the peaks ranging from 100 to 250 °C are related to weak basic sites, from 250 to 400 °C to medium basic sites, and from 400 °C onwards to



Fig. 5. H₂-TPD profiles of reduced Ni-Al samples (scales amplified compared to Ni50Al50: Ni33Al66 and Ni66Al33 1.5x, Ni80Al20 2.5x).

strong basic sites [31,46,47]. All samples show a pronounced peak of weak basicity. The samples with M^{II}/M^{III} from 0.5 to 2 have mainly medium basic sites, while the sample with M^{II}/M^{III} of 4 has more sites of weak basicity. When increasing M^{II}/M^{III} ratio from 0.5 to 2, the proportion of medium basic sites is increased, whereas strong basic sites are less pronounced, as shown in Table S2. The peak temperature for each range increases for higher $M^{\rm II}/M^{\rm III}$ ratios, indicating that basic strength also increases for the higher Ni loadings [31,48]. However, while the basic sites number increases mainly as weak sites for high M^{II}/M^{III} ratios, the catalyst Ni66Al33 has a higher number of medium basic sites, and a total number of weak-to-medium ones, than the other catalysts. This catalyst exhibited the highest total number of basic sites and consequently higher basicity among all catalysts, as shown in Table 4. The presence of high basicity benefits the CO₂ adsorption during the reaction, as it is a mild acidic molecule, facilitating CO₂ activation and thus reaction at the surface. Meanwhile, there is no consensus in the literature on which type of basic sites – weak, medium or strong – are better for CO₂ methanation. Some authors suggest that strong basic sites are responsible to promote activity, while others state these sites adsorbs CO₂ irreversibly and do not participate in the reaction [44,47,49]. The most accepted is that medium basic sites are more prone to promote CO2 adsorption-dissociation-reaction cycle, as observed in recent studies [44,47,50]. However, regarding weak basic sites, it could also promote CO_2 activation according to some reports [51,52]. Therefore, the Ni66Al33 catalyst presents the best basic properties, as it has mainly weak-to-medium basicity associated with a high density of basic sites.

The H₂-TPD analyses were conducted to evaluate the chemisorption capacity of the samples. As shown in Fig. 5, the profiles had similar trends, where two main regions are observed; the peak ranging from 100 to 250 °C can be related to hydrogen adsorbed on Ni active sites, whereas above 200 °C, the broad peak is attributed to hydrogen highly-interacting with Ni-Al species. However, H₂-spillover species adsorbed at the surface could be also expected at higher temperatures [47,53]. H₂-spillover species comprise H-atoms originated from H₂ dissociated over active sites which migrated from Ni to mixed oxides with high interaction [54–56]. As observed before, each region is comprised of some minor peaks, indicating sites with different metal-hydrogen interactions and small-size particles. Through deconvolution two peaks were obtained at each region, as seen in Table S3, where main H₂ desorption occurs in the second region [53,57]. While the temperature and area of the first and second peaks do not follow a clear trend,



Fig. 6. CO₂ conversion over Ni-Al samples as a function of reaction temperature. Sources of equilibrium curve: Gao et al. (2012), Schaaf et al. (2014).

increasing the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio increases the temperature of the third and fourth peaks, also increasing the area of the third peak and decreasing the area of the fourth peak, showing that Ni-Al interaction plays an important role in H₂ adsorption strength, even if adsorption over active sites (Ni⁰) is more important to adsorb and activate H₂ [53]. Total H₂ desorption data (Table 4) obtained via H2-TPD profile integration were used to estimate total surface metallic area (S_{Ni}^{0}) and dispersion (γ_{Ni}^{0}) and these results are summarized in Table 2. Both metallic area and dispersion increase when increasing M^{II}/M^{III} ratio until 1 and then decrease for higher M^{II}/M^{III} ratios, and even if Ni66Al33 has a slightly larger metallic area than Ni33Al66 it has lower dispersion due to a higher Ni amount. These results suggest that higher metal dispersion could be attained until equimolar Ni-Al composition by enhancing metal species interaction, whereas further increasing Ni content leads to worse species distribution possibly due to the formation of Ni agglomerates. which agrees with the crystallite sizes estimated through XRD [53].

3.2. Catalytic tests

The catalytic tests were performed firstly in stepwise mode, from 200 °C to 400 °C, where the activity results are expressed in terms of CO₂ conversion as shown in Fig. 6, where the equilibrium curve based on data by Gao et al. (2012) and Schaaf et al. (2014) was also included for reference [58,59]. The conversion had similar trends overall. From 200 to 300 °C, the catalysts with higher Ni content showed higher activity, although all presented a strong increment from 200 to 250 °C, followed by a slight increase at 300 °C, reaching the maximum CO₂ conversion of 92.3 % for Ni66Al33. Although thermodynamics indicates even higher conversions could be attained at low temperatures, these results show that kinetics favors the reaction when increasing temperature; thus, kinetics acts as a limiting factor under 300 °C [15]. Moreover, at 300 °C the CO₂ conversion is near the equilibrium conversion, i.e., close to the maximum feasible conversion. Further increasing to 350 and 400 °C led to the lower catalytic activity of all catalysts, decreasing conversion by around 10-20 %, an effect attributed to reverse water-gas shift (RWGS) reaction being favored at higher temperatures, also increasing H₂O and decreasing CH₄ production [25,30]. Despite having the lowest activity at 200-250 °C among the catalysts, the Ni50Al50 catalyst exhibited a high conversion after 300 °C, like Ni66Al33. This behavior is related to a slower activation of Ni50Al50 due to the strong interaction of mixed oxides, since highly dispersed and small-sized particles are hardly reducible, as observed through XRD and H2-TPR analysis [28,47].



Fig. 7. CH_4 selectivity as a function of reaction temperature for CO_2 methanation over Ni-Al catalysts.

Therefore, the high metallic area and dispersion of Ni50Al50, associated with its small crystallite size, are responsible for both the low activity at low temperatures and the high activity after 300 $^\circ$ C.

Regarding selectivity, only CH₄ was produced and no CO was detected from 200° to 350°C for all catalysts, as shown in Fig. 7 and Fig. S3, respectively, except for Ni33Al66 which produced less than 2 % CO at 350 °C. At 400 °C, CO was formed for all catalysts at a low amount (< 5 %). Only Ni33Al66 showed more significant CO selectivity, although just around 5 %. As observed at 350–400 °C in CO₂ conversion, CO formation occurs due to the RWGS reaction which is favored at higher temperatures, also leading to increased H₂O formation, which is a product of both CO₂ methanation and RWGS reactions, as stated in the previous literature [30,60,61].

The high activity and selectivity of these catalysts could be assigned mainly to high basicity and small crystallite sizes, although their good dispersion and metallic area may also contribute to their performance, while the specific surface area does not seem relevant [44,62]. Nonetheless, basicity seems to be responsible for the differences in catalytic performance among the samples. The catalyst Ni66Al33 stands out possibly as a consequence of the higher number of basic sites, mainly in the weak-to-medium basicity range, which was observed in previous studies, emphasizing the role of basicity in CO_2 adsorption and activation [30,32]. A similar outcome was reported by Wierzbicki et al. (2016) for Ni-Mg-Al La-doped, LDH-derived catalysts acknowledging that presence of medium-strength basic sites was responsible for high CO₂ adsorption and activity of catalysts towards methanation [50]. Although the reducibility of these samples can be harder to attain than bulk or supported catalysts, it was successfully activated to reach high catalytic performances alongside the aforementioned properties. Therefore, due to the smaller reducible area in the TPR and a higher amount of NiAl₂O₄ spinel phase in Ni33Al66, this catalyst presented the lowest activity, because this phase is more difficult to reduce, and even some authors consider it inactive for CO₂ methanation [28]. According to CH₄ yield (Fig. S4), the order of activity at 300 °C (maximum CO2 conversion and 100 % CH4 selectivity) is Ni66Al33 > Ni80Al20 \approx Ni50Al50 > Ni33Al66.

The results clearly show that the role of aluminum is only as a structural promoter, since although the specific surface area increases with the aluminum content in the catalyst, the activity was independent of the specific surface area. This behavior has been verified previously for LDH-derived catalysts [64,65].

The stability of CO_2 conversion and CH_4 selectivity over time-onstream were evaluated at 300 °C for all catalysts, as shown in Fig. 8, as well as CH_4 and CO yield shown in Fig. S5. All catalysts presented



Fig. 8. CO₂ conversion (X_{CO2}) and CH₄ selectivity (S_{CH4}) with the time on stream at 300 $^\circ C$ for CO₂ methanation over Ni-Al catalysts.

high stability, maintaining CO₂ conversion at around 90 % for catalysts with $M^{II}/M^{III} \geq 1$, while for Ni33Al66 ($M^{II}/M^{III} = 0.5$) was around 70 %. CH₄ selectivity was maintained at 100 % for all catalysts during the time-on-stream. These results also indicate that carbon formation and sintering were not significant [30,31].

3.3. Catalyst characterization after reactions

The XRD patterns of spent catalysts are shown in Fig. 9 for both stepwise (a) and stability (b) tests. The samples presented the same peaks as fresh reduced, at 44.8° and 52.3° attributed to $\mathrm{Ni}^0,$ showing that the catalysts maintained their active phase after use, along with a peak at 37.5° assigned to unreduced Ni-Al-O spinels, which remained even after reduction and exposed to the reactional environment [23,44]. Regarding the tests in stepwise mode, the spent ones had slight crystallite size differences in comparison to fresh reduced samples (Table 3), where Ni33Al66 and Ni80Al20 showed a small increase. For the stability tests, spent samples did not show appreciable differences in crystallite size in comparison to fresh reduced ones, where only Ni80Al20 had a crystallite size growth. However, the differences in crystallite size were negligible for both stepwise and stability spent samples concerning fresh reduced samples and all catalysts maintained small crystallite size, which indicates that sintering was negligible, and no carbon-related peaks were detected, in agreement with stability tests results.

The TPO profiles of spent catalysts in stability tests are presented in

Fig. 10. The catalysts had similar trends with three main regions according to the oxidation temperature. The first region (I) ranging from room temperature to 250 °C shows a weight loss related to moisture adsorbed in the surface and pores and it is verified that the weight loss was proportional to the specific surface area of the samples; the second region (II) ranging approximately from 250 to 400 °C is attributed to Ni⁰ oxidation that remained after catalytic tests, as the weight gain represents Ni oxidation, the gain was proportional to the Ni amount of the samples. The third region (III) ranging from 400 to 800 °C presents slight weight loss, representing carbon deposits oxidation [32,63]. Based on weight loss of region (III), carbon deposits were estimated as shown in Table 4. Although the carbon deposits after tests were low, the carbon amount increases when the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio decreases, which can be ascribed to the differences in the basic properties among the samples, as shown by the CO₂-TDP results. Low carbon deposition indicates that all samples have proper basic properties, which along with reactional parameters such as temperature range and H₂/CO₂ ratio were favorable to avoiding carbon formation [15.34].

Table 5 summarizes a comparison among the catalyst in this work and from literature, considering parameters where its maximum activity, selectivity, and stability were attained. Ni66Al33 stands out with higher CO_2 conversion and CH_4 selectivity despite presenting lower total basicity when compared to those from Wierzbicki et al. (2017) and Guo



Fig. 10. TPO profiles of the spent Ni-Al catalysts after stability tests at 300 °C.



Fig. 9. XRD patterns of spent Ni-Al catalysts after (a) reactions between 200 and 400 °C, and (b) stability tests at 300 °C.

Table 5

Comparison of LDH-derived catalysts applied to CO₂ methanation.

Catalyst	Reactional parameters	XCO ₂ , SCH ₄ at 300 °C (%)	CO_2 desorbed (µmol g ⁻¹ _{cat})	$S_{Ni}^{0}, D_{Ni}^{0} (m^{2} g_{cat}^{-1}, \%)$	D _{fresh} – D _{spent} (nm)	Reference
Ni66Al33	$\begin{array}{l} m_{cat}=0.1 \; g, \; H_2/CO_2=4, P=1 \; atm, \; T=200400 \; (300)^{a} \; ^{\circ}\text{C}, \; GHSV\\ = 60000 \; mL \; (g_{cat} \; h)^{-1}, \; 300 \; min^{a} \end{array}$	92.3, 100	27.3	17.2, 3.2	2.8 ^b /5.9 ^c - 4.3 ^d /5.8 ^e	This study
25Ni-Al ₂ O ₃	$\begin{split} m_{cat} &= 0.2 \text{ g}, H_2/CO_2 = 3.5, P = 1 \text{ atm}, T = 200500 (350)^a \ ^\circ\text{C}, \\ GHSV &= 9000 \text{ mL} (g_{cat} \text{ h})^{-1}, 600 \text{ min}^a \end{split}$	74, 100 (350 °C)	n/d	n/d	5.8 ^b /6 ^c	[28]
Ni-Al 12	$m_{cat} = 0.6 (0.13)^a g, H_2/CO_2 = 4, P = 1 (5)^a bar$ T = 250-400 (300) ^a °C, GHSV = 20.000 h ⁻¹ , 1500 min ^a	85, 98	n/d	42.2, 13	3.6 ^b	[27]
Ni42.5-Mg- Al	$H_2/CO_2 = 4$, P = 1 atm, T = 250–450 (250) ^a °C, GHSV = 12,000 h ⁻¹ , 1440 min ^a	82, 100	134	n/d	5 ^b -5 ^d	[31]
Ni ₅ Al-MO	$m_{cat}=0.5$ g, $H_2/CO_2=4,$ $P=1$ atm, $T=150400~(250)^{a}$ °C, GHSV $=2400~h^{-1},$ 7200 min a	89, 99 (250 °C)	1373	n/d	n/d	[30]
Ni-Al ₂ O ₃ - HT	$\begin{split} m_{cat} = 0.04 \text{ g}, H_2/CO_2 = 4, P = 1 \text{ atm}, T = 200400 \ (350)^{a} ^{\circ}\text{C}, \text{GHSV} \\ = 75,000 \ \text{mL} \ (g_{cat} \ h)^{-1}, 1200 \ \text{min}^{a} \end{split}$	82.5, 99.4 (350 °C)	n/d	n/d	4 ^c	[17]

^a Reactional parameters of stability tests that differ from stepwise tests.

^b for fresh calcined samples.

^c for fresh reduced samples.

^d for spent samples tested in stepwise mode.

^e for spent samples tested in stability mode.

et al. (2018) [30,31]; less metallic surface area and dispersion than that of Abate et al. (2016) [27]; and variable reactional parameters such as lower sample mass and higher GHSV, except for that of He et al. (2014) [17]. All compared catalysts presented near 100 % CH_4 selectivity.

4. Conclusions

Ni-Al mixed oxides LDH-derived obtained by co-precipitation with variable M^{II}/M^{III} molar ratios were evaluated in CO₂ methanation. The increase in the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio caused a decrease in the specific surface area and a consequent increase in the crystallinity of the oxides. On the other hand, although the amount of H₂ consumed in the TPR increases with Ni content, i.e., with the M^{II}/M^{III} ratio, the amount of chemisorbed H₂ was higher for the sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 1$, while the greater number of alkaline sites were obtained for the sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 2$.

The catalysts were found to be highly active and selective towards CH₄ production, reaching 92.3 % CO₂ conversion and 100 % CH₄ selectivity at 300 °C for the sample with $M^{II}/M^{III} = 2$, attributed to their small crystallite size, improved metallic area, high dispersion, and high basicity, mainly in weak-to-medium strength range. The catalysts also presented high stability, maintaining their activity and selectivity during the time-on-stream tests, which is attributed to improved resistance to sintering, and low carbon formation. These results prove that LDH-derived Ni-Al catalysts with M^{II}/M^{III} molar ratios between 1 and 2 are highly suitable for CO₂ methanation.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Yan Resing Dias: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Oscar W. Perez-Lopez:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

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.jcou.2022.102381.

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