

Cyclic performance in CO₂ capture-methanation of bifunctional Ru with different base metals: Effect of the reactivity of CO_x ad-species

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ABSTRACT

Bifunctional materials based on Ru nanoparticles and an alkaline metal (K, Na or Ba) have been scrutinized for several cycles of CO₂ capture and subsequent methanation at different temperatures from 250 °C to 450 °C. The optimum performance in terms of stable cyclic operation, amount of captured CO₂ and relevant methane productivity was attained at different temperature window for each material. For the materials here prepared, the limiting lower operation temperature of stable cyclic performance was determined by the methanation kinetics, which depended on reactivity of CO_x ad-species captured with each alkaline metal. The highest activity was found with Ba-containing materials, which exhibited a stable and relevant cyclic CH₄ productivity at 250 °C, being one of the lowest operation temperatures reported for a dual functional material to date. This material exhibited stable cyclic performance also in the presence of O₂ and H₂O, although the CH₄ productivity decreases slightly and reversibly compared to that using CO₂ containing gas free of O₂ and H₂O.

1. Introduction

CO₂ emissions have been increasing in the last few decades due to anthropogenic causes leading to global warming [1]. In this scenario, the Paris Agreement sets out a global framework to limit global warming to well below 2 °C and pursuing efforts to limit it to 1.5 °C [2]. To reach this target, intense research efforts have been devoted to carbon capture and storage (CCS) and carbon capture and utilization (CCU). Post-combustion effluents contain CO₂ plus a complex mixture of other components (H₂O, O₂, sulphur and nitrogen oxides). Therefore, the conversion cannot be performed directly and CO₂ needs to be captured previously. Chemical absorption using solvents such as ethanolamine seems more suitable than adsorption for CO₂ capture from post-combustion gases, which are emitted at low pressure [3]. Nevertheless, the steps of thermal regeneration of solvent and CO₂ purification are energy intensive, and the rates of solvent degradation and equipment corrosion can also penalise this process [4]. Physical adsorption is more suitable for CO₂ capture at high pressure and low temperatures and yields less waste during cycling. However, the used adsorbents have

lower selectivity to CO₂ and lower adsorption rate. Solid sorbents such as alkaline metal oxides can reversibly and selectively capture CO₂ by forming carbonates [5,6]. This process is carried out at intermediate temperatures (200–400 °C), matching the temperature of post-combustion flue gases. Subsequently, the captured CO₂ can be utilized to produce fuel by reacting with renewable hydrogen, and in turn regenerating the adsorbent for next cycle. In this way, CO₂ utilisation is coupled with the storage of the intermittent renewable energy to produce a stable and transportable energy carrier such as methane. The process is also known as combined CO₂ capture and methanation (CCCM) [7]. The methane can be used as fuel for mobility, residential sector, power generation or raw material in industry. [8] Different process configurations can be devised to perform CCCM. One way is using two separate units with different gas feeds, i.e. one unit for the periodic adsorption and desorption of CO₂ and the other for the methanation [9–12]. In this configuration, each unit has different operating conditions which can be optimised independently but it is energy and time intensive due to temperature swings. CCCM can be also performed in one unique unit containing both the capture material and the

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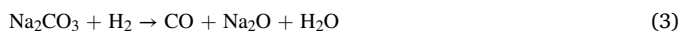
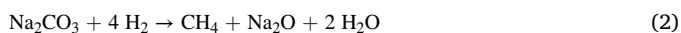
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methanation catalyst with periodic swinging of the gas feed. This process will also allow for continuous operation using two parallel reactors working in tandem. In this process, both CO₂ capturing solid and methanation catalyst can be either physically separated [13] or a single homogeneous solid can feature both functionalities. This latter type of solid is denoted as “dual functional material (DFM)”, which usually consists of two different metals in very intimate contact: an alkaline metal as CO₂-absorbing material and a transition metal (Ni,Ru) as methanation catalyst on a high surface area support such alumina. Both absorption and methanation reactions operate in the same temperature window (300–500 °C) enabling isothermal operation for both steps, avoiding temperature swings, and also matching the temperature of post-combustion flue gases. The main reactions occurring in the two steps for the case of Na₂O as capture material can be outlined as follows [14]:

CO₂ capture step:



Hydrogenation/regeneration step:



It is claimed that the close proximity between the two functionalities (capture and methanation) results in enhanced performance for the regeneration/methanation step [7,14]. On the one hand, because the close proximity between the two functions favours the spill-over of H₂ to the captured CO_x ad-species [15] and concomitantly the transport of desorbed CO₂ to the metal catalytic sites [16,17]. On the other hand, since the CO₂ desorption is endothermic and the methanation is exothermic, the heat transfer is faster and both reactions can be energetically balanced choosing the suitable adsorbent and reaction conditions. Moreover, this process avoids the high energy consumption of conventional CO₂ separation and purification needed when the process is carried out in two separate units. For all the reasons mentioned heretofore, DFMs contribute remarkably to process intensification. However, since the process of CO₂ desorption and conversion are coupled, DFMs introduce other challenges in terms of material preparation and process parameters design for an optimum operation.

Intense effort has been devoted recently to optimise catalyst formulations and preparation strategies. Farrauto et al. pioneered the research on DFMs for CCCM. They started preparing DFMs varying both the Ru loadings (1–10 wt%) and CaO loading (1–10 wt%) on γ -Al₂O₃ [18]. The best catalyst was that with intermediate Ru loading (5 wt%). The same group performed a screening of different active phases for methanation (Ru, Rh, Pt, Pd, Ni, Co) and adsorption (MgO, K₂O₃, Na₂CO₃) [19,20]. They performed both CO₂ capture and conversion at 320 °C, finding that Ru provided better performance than Ni and the best alkaline among those tested was Na. Some authors used other metals such as FeCrCu [21] or Cu [22] to produce selectively syngas instead of CH₄. In cycles of CO₂ capture and methanation, the temperature of regeneration (CO₂ release) and methanation should match. CaCO₃ decomposition temperatures is around 700°C [6], being incompatible with temperatures of methanation which are much lower (250–400 °C) since at higher temperatures the reverse-water gas shift (RWGS) reaction prevails, leading to CO. Carbonates formed with Na have less stability than those with Ca. Consequently, DFMs based on Ni-Na produced more CH₄ at lower temperature than Ni-Ca as corroborated by Bermejo-López et al. [23]. For Ni-Ca the CH₄ production was maximized at 400 °C, which is a relatively high temperature entailing massive energy consumption. The order of impregnation of metal also affects the performance. Using the combination CaO:Ru, Duyar et al. [18] found that impregnation of Ru on CaO/ γ -Al₂O₃ resulted in better performance compared to materials where CaO is impregnated on Ru/ γ -Al₂O₃. Kuramoto et al. [24] tested Ni on alumina plus several alkaline metals (K,

Na, Ca) for CCM. Among the tested materials, Ni/Na- γ -Al₂O₃ showed the highest activity for integrated CCM. The Ni-based DFM exhibited a high CO₂ conversion exceeding 90%, even when 20% O₂ was present in CO₂-containing combustion flue gas. However, the temperature of testing was relatively high (450 °C) and it would be desired to operate the process at lower temperatures for energy saving. Elsewhere, Urakawa et al. [25] studied DFM based on Ni on ZrO₂ promoted with K- or La- in the operating temperature range 250–450 °C. La-doped catalyst was more efficient for methanation but a high proportion of unreacted CO₂ was released because the catalyst was not sufficiently active at lower temperatures. To have fast methanation kinetics and regenerate the catalyst for subsequent cycle, the processes are usually carried out at temperatures above 300 °C for K and Na based DFMs [20]. Other alkaline that has been used in DFM is Li [26]. Li-Ru/Al₂O₃ provided better performance than its counterparts with K or Na, showing cyclic CH₄ production at low temperature of 230 °C, which is the lowest temperature reported for DFMs. Working at lower temperatures would reduce the energy requirements for heating gases and would avoid hot spots. Low temperatures would be even more crucial when the direct CO₂ capture from air (DAC) is addressed as proposed in the literature [14,24,27] since air should be heated during the long adsorption times required for this very diluted CO₂ source. The operation temperature of DFM is determined by the optimum methanation kinetics. Using state-of-the art DFM, 320°C is chosen as optimum temperature [14]. Methanation can occur at lower temperatures but kinetics is slow with current DFMs. Therefore, it is a challenge to find novel DFMs able to be regenerated and with fast methanation kinetics at temperatures lower than 250 °C. Since the temperature affects the adsorption/reaction thermodynamics and kinetics, the operation temperature should be optimized on an individual basis for each DFM type. Only a few works perform parametric studies optimising the temperature for several cycles [28,29]. These works found that the best temperatures were 320 °C and 300 °C for the optimised catalyst 5%Ru-10%CaO/ γ -Al₂O₃ [28] and 5% Ru-6.1% Na₂O/ γ -Al₂O₃, [29] respectively.

As explained above, different metals of group I and group II have been compared as capture component for DFMs [23,24,30]. Among the metals tested, heavier group II metals such as Ba are comparatively scarcely investigated in existing literature. To the best of our knowledge, there is only one group reporting Ba as CO₂ capture material in DFM to date [31,32]. This works indicate that BaO is less effective than other alkaline metals because it forms stable carbonates at temperatures from 350 °C to 500 °C, [31] thus avoiding regeneration in subsequent cycle. However, the performance at lower temperatures was not explored. Many works do not address the long-term stability and the CH₄ productivity is only reported for one or few cycles of capture and reduction [17,23,25,32]. Some work performed up to ten cycles and the performance degrades with the number of cycles, which is attributed to sintering of alkaline metal [33]. Therefore, for practical application, it is crucial to check the stability in cyclic tests at different temperatures.

Herein, we have compared the performance of DFMs consisting of one methanation metal (Ru) and a CO₂ capture material. As capture material, we have also scrutinized the less explored barium besides the widely used alkaline metals (Na, K). We study the cyclic performance as a function of the operation temperature in the range from 250 °C to 450 °C. DFMs are usually tested only at temperatures above 300 °C. To assess the cyclic stability, at least 6 cycles have been carried out at each temperature for all DFMs. Finally, a selected catalyst and temperature has been tested in the cyclic capture of CO₂ using a gas containing also H₂O and O₂. The characterisation by different techniques shed some light into the reaction mechanism and the reasons of the dependence of the cyclic stability and reaction kinetics on the type of base metal.

2. Experimental

2.1. Catalyst preparation

Alumina support was prepared from Pural (SASOL) calcined at 500 °C in air. The chemicals precursor for Ru metal was Ru(NO₃)₃NO (Alfa Aesar). As precursor of the alkaline metals K₂CO₃, NaNO₃ and Ba(NO₃)₂ (Sigma-Aldrich) were used.

The DFM were prepared by successive incipient wetness impregnation first of the alkaline precursor and second of Ru precursor. That means that in the impregnation the precursor was diluted in the volume of water corresponding to the pore volume of the solid. The alkaline metal precursor was weighted to yield a final loading of 10 wt% respect to γ -alumina weight, diluted in water and impregnated on alumina by incipient wetness impregnation. After drying at 110 °C, the material was calcined at 500 °C under N₂. Subsequently, the amount Ru precursor was weighted to set a 3 wt% loading with respect to alumina. After drying at 110 °C, the material was calcined at 500 °C under N₂ flow for 1 h and subsequently reduced under H₂ flow at the same temperature for 1 h.

2.2. Cyclic testing

The testing in cycle of CO₂ adsorption and reduction was carried out in a continuous-flow 6 mm-outer-diameter quartz reactor inside a vertical furnace equipped with a temperature controller (Eurotherm). The amount of monometallic catalyst used in the catalytic tests was 50 mg. For the bimetallic catalyst, the amount of catalyst was adjusted to have the same Ru weight than the monometallic catalyst. Particle size was between 20 and 53 μ m (625–270 mesh). Subsequently, the catalyst was diluted with the double volume of SiC and placed inside the reactor forming a packed bed of 2 cm length with a thermocouple inside the bed. The high thermal conductivity of SiC, particle size < 100 μ m and the small bed diameter guarantees that the temperature is uniform throughout all the bed without hot spots. The temperature of the bed is exactly that measured by the thermocouple. This bed gives rise to 16 Pa pressure drop. The reaction temperature was controlled with a thermocouple inside the catalytic bed. Prior to cyclic tests, the catalyst was heated to 500 °C in N₂ flow using a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ and it was reduced with H₂ (60 mL min⁻¹) at 500 °C for 1 h. The reactor was allowed to cool down until the temperature of the cyclic testing). The cycles consist of two stages: (i) first, flowing 60 mL/min of 5% CO₂ in Ar and (ii) second, flowing 60 mL/min of 5% H₂ in Ar. The times of each stage were varied for the different experiments (between 2 and 10 min) until steady state was reached. Between the two stages, the reactor was swept with 57 mL/min Ar flow for 5–25 min until CO₂ signal stabilisation. Six or more capture/reduction cycles were performed for all the materials. Gas analysis was performed using a Pfeiffer vacuum mass spectrometer. The following m/z signals were recorded in mass spectrometer: 2, 16, 18, 28, 40, 44. The signals of the gases were calibrated considering the baseline of Ar and the fragmentation pattern of each mass. The main m/z signals used for each gas were 2 (H₂), 16 (CH₄), 18 (H₂O), 28 (CO), 40 (Ar) and 44 (CO₂). The concentration of CO was calculated subtracting the contribution of CO₂ from m/z = 28. The concentration of CH₄ was calculated subtracting the contribution of CO₂, CO and H₂O from m/z = 16. The correct calibration of the mass spectrometer was double checked analyzing the gases using a calibrated Agilent Micro GC 3000 A.

2.3. Catalyst characterization

The catalysts were characterized by transient techniques, namely, temperature-programmed desorption of pre-adsorbed CO₂ (CO₂-TPD) and temperature programmed surface reaction (TPSR). These experiments were conducted in the same set-up as catalytic testing. The purpose of CO₂-TPD experiments is to quantify the CO₂ chemisorbed at 300 °C. To this end, the catalyst was heated to 500 °C at a heating rate of 10 K

min⁻¹ in inert gas. At this temperature, the catalyst was reduced with 100 mL min⁻¹ of H₂ mixture for 1 h. Subsequently, the temperature was set at 300 °C and 60 mL min⁻¹ of CO₂ was flushed for 1 h. The gas was switched to 60 mL min⁻¹ Ar and the reactor was allowed to cool down to room temperature. Ar flow was kept constant overnight to remove all weakly physisorbed CO₂. Then the gas was adjusted to 60 mL min⁻¹ of Ar and, when the signal of the mass spectrometer was stable, the temperature was increased to 500 °C at a rate of 10 °C per minute while monitoring the desorbed gases, mainly CO₂.

The main purpose of TPSR experiments is to determine the temperature at which CH₄ starts to evolve from reaction of H₂ gas with CO₂ previously adsorbed on the catalyst. To this end, the catalyst was heated to 500 °C at a heating rate of 10 K min⁻¹ in inert gas. At this temperature, the catalyst was reduced with 100 mL min⁻¹ of H₂ mixture for 1 h. Subsequently, the catalyst was cooled down to 50 °C under Ar. When this temperature is reached 60 mL min⁻¹ of CO₂ was flushed for 1 h. Then, the gas was switched to 60 mL min⁻¹ of 5% H₂ in Ar and kept until the signal of the mass spectrometer was stable. Subsequently, the temperature was increased to 500 °C at a rate of 10 °C per minute while monitoring the desorbed gases, mainly CH₄.

The XEDS-mapping analyses were performed in STEM mode with a probe size of \sim 1 nm using the Oxford INCA Energy 2000 system detector. The samples were ground until powder and a suspended in ethanol solution using an ultrasonic bath. Then some drops were added into the copper grid with carbon coated layers (Aname, Lacey carbon 200 mesh) leaving to dry at room temperature to evaporate ethanol before introducing in the microscope.

Structural properties of the catalyst were determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD), XRD profiles were obtained in Polycrystal X'Pert Pro PANalytical diffractometer using Ni-filtered Cu K α radiation (λ = 1.54 Å, 45 kV and 40 mA) with a 0.04° step and the Diffract-EVA software was used for the phases identification.

The X-ray photoelectron spectra of the samples after reaction were recorded using an Omicron spectrometer refurbished by SPECS, equipped with a PHOIBOS 100 R4 analyzer and a monochromatic X-ray source (Mg K α) operated at 75 W, with a pass energy of 30 eV and an energy step of 0.050 eV. Each sample was pressed into a small pellet, placed in the sample holder and degassed in the chamber for 6–8 h to achieve a dynamic vacuum below 10⁻⁸ Pa before analysis. The spectral data for each sample were analysed using CASA XPS software. The binding energy is referenced to the Al 2p line at 74.7 eV. The relative concentrations and atomic ratios were determined from the integrated intensities of photoelectron lines corrected for the corresponding atomic sensitivity factor. Carbon elemental analysis was carried out directly in a Flash 1112 de Thermofisher.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Testing in cycles of CO₂ capture and reduction

Herein, the cyclic performance in CO₂ capture and subsequent hydrogenation has been assessed for at least 6 isothermal cycles at different temperatures ranging from 250 °C to 450 °C and using the different materials prepared in this work. As example, Fig. 1 shows representative cycles of CO₂ capture and reduction at 300 °C for a monometallic and the three bimetallic materials. The cyclic testing at other temperatures for all DFMs are shown in [supplementary information \(Figs. S1-S3 of supplementary material\)](#). In the stage of feeding CO₂ in Ar, CO₂ is initially captured on the storage material. We have to note that we used an excess of CO₂ to ensure the saturation of the capture material. Therefore, this work has been focused on the comparison of the material capacity but not on the CO₂ capture efficiency that should be a next step because high efficiency is necessary for industrial application. In order to emit a CO₂-free gas, it would be only necessary to increase the amount of DFM or decrease the flow rate of CO₂ containing gas. Concomitantly to CO₂ feeding, there is a release of other gases such as CO, H₂O and minor

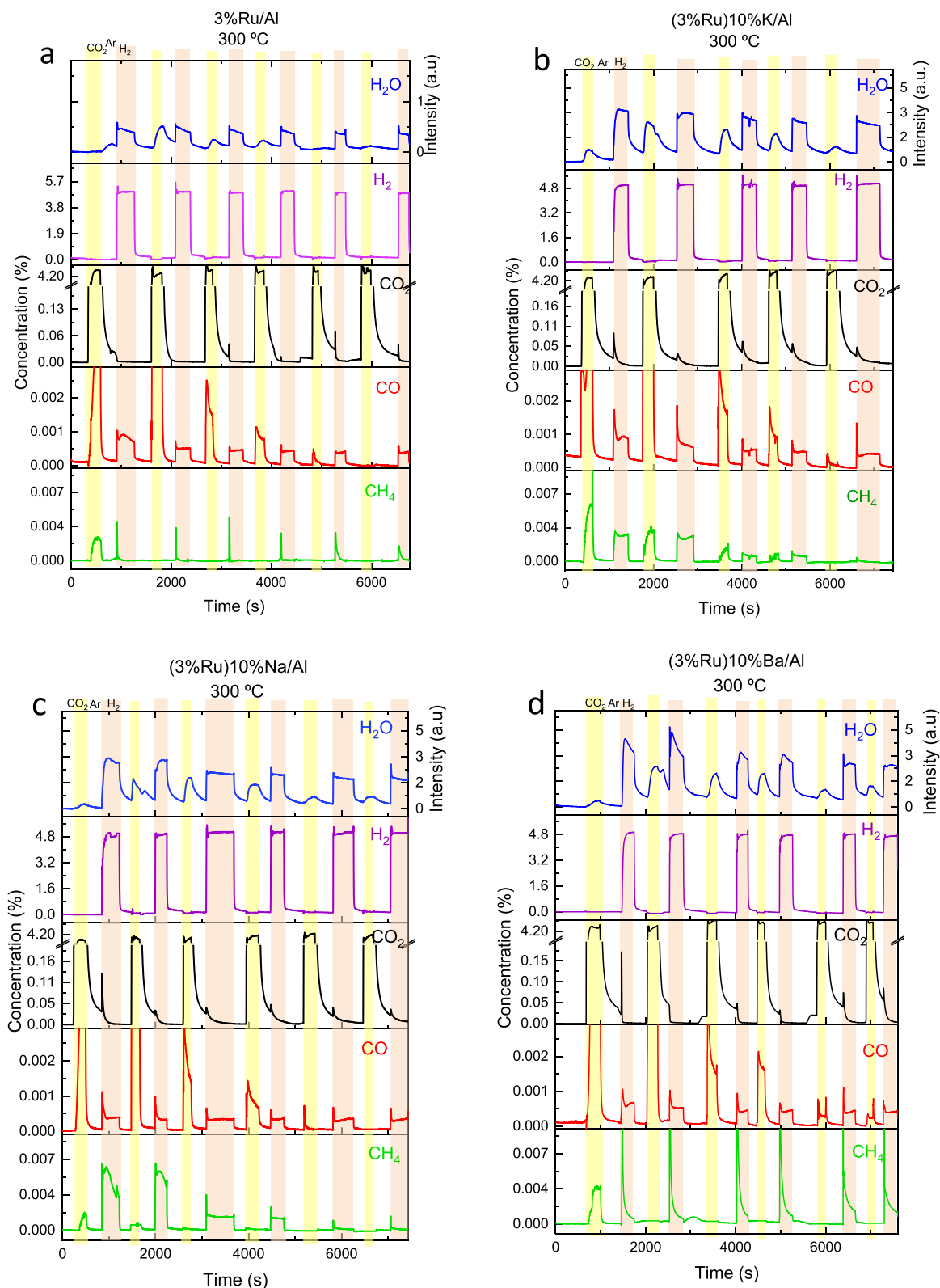


Fig. 1. Representative cycles CO₂ capture and conversion using Ru-based catalysts with and without different alkaline metals at 300 °C: (a) monometallic 3% Ru/Al; (b) (3%Ru)10%K/Al; (c) (3%Ru)10%Na/Al; (d) (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al. CO₂ capture step is shadowed in yellow while reduction step is shadowed in red.

amount of CH₄. These gases are the products of CO₂ gas reduction by the hydrogen atoms that remain chemisorbed on Ru metal after previous stage under H₂ containing gas. The main product in this oxidation stage is CO, which is formed primarily via r-WGS reaction between CO₂ and residual surface hydrogen [32]. The concentration of the released gases

during CO₂ feeding stage decreases as the number of cycles increase. The reason could be that initially the catalyst contains the highest amount of -H species because it has been reduced previously at 500 °C in H₂. In the following reduction stage, the catalyst is reduced/regenerated with 5% H₂ in Ar at temperatures lower than 500 °C and shorter time, e.g. in

Fig. 1 the catalyst is regenerated at 300 °C during 5 min. It can be envisaged that the amount of -H chemisorbed in reduction stage decreases as the number of cycles increases. After a few first conditioning cycles, the concentration of gases evolved during CO₂ feed tend to stabilise to their minimal value.

In the reduction stage, captured CO₂ is converted with the evolution of CH₄, CO, H₂O and unreacted CO₂. H₂O is formed by reaction of H₂ with oxygen coming from CO₂ dissociation in previous step. The amount of released CO₂ is minor and decreases to zero as reaction temperature increases (Supplementary Figures and Table S1). CO formation is higher in the first cycles and its intensity decays as the cycle number increases. In contrast, the intensity of CH₄ peak either decays to negligible values when the DFM performance degrades (Fig. 1b,c) or it is almost constant for all the cycles indicating a stable cyclic CH₄ production (Fig. 1d). In this latter case, this results in a CH₄ selectivity rise as the number of cycles increases.

Fig. 2 shows a magnification of the reduction stage corresponding to 2nd cycle of Fig. 1 for the different catalyst. For the monometallic 3% Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst, there is some spike in the CO, CH₄ and H₂O evolution upon H₂ switching on. CH₄ concentration drops to zero in less than 20 s. However, CO concentration remains constant and H₂O decays slowly during 400 s. The absence of alkaline metal suggest that the prolonged minor CO production comes from species stored in the Al₂O₃ support. Compared to monometallic 3%Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst, for the alkaline-containing materials, there is also a spike in CH₄ production but it takes longer to drop to zero. For the monometallic Ru catalyst, CO₂ can adsorb both on the metal and on the -OH of Al₂O₃ support [16]. When the alkaline is introduced an additional adsorption occurs, which is reported as bicarbonates and bidentate carbonates [16] or formates [22]. For Ba-containing material CH₄ evolution last more than 40 s while for K and Na-containing materials the CH₄ production is sustained for the whole duration of the reduction stage (~ 400 s). The shorter duration of

the release of CH₄ for Ba-containing material than for K and Na-containing ones may be attributed to the higher amount of stored CO₂ in K and Na containing materials than in Ba-containing ones as shown in CO₂-TPD below. For K and Na containing materials there is also a minor release of unreacted CO₂, while no CO₂ at all is observed for Ba-containing material.

We quantified the CH₄ released in the first 100 s after the onset of the CH₄ spike. This was done by integrating the area under the mass spectrometer signal. The quantification of CH₄ and CO gases produced per gram of DFM as a function of the cycle number for the different temperatures and DFMs is displayed in Fig. 3.

The CO concentration decreases with the number of cycles (Fig. 3b,d, f) as explained for Fig. 1 description. The first cycles are conditioning cycles and are not relevant to the cyclic performance. After several cycles, the CO concentration stabilises at a small value (0.00–0.06 mmol g⁻¹). On the other hand, the CH₄ productivity depends on the temperature and on the type of DFM. The selectivity to CH₄ for all catalyst is above 80% when stable cyclic performance is achieved. At 300 °C, for K and Na based materials the CH₄ productivity decays progressively with the cycle number to negligible values in 5th cycle. Other authors also reported degradation with the cycle number at 300°C for physical mixtures of Na sorbent and Ru catalyst [10]. In contrast to our work, aging studies performed with 5%Ru, 6.1%Na₂O/γ-Al₂O₃ tablets by other authors [29] showed stable cyclic performance at 300 °C or slow very deactivation at 320 °C under industrially relevant conditions [34]. This suggest that the performance is very sensitive to the metal loadings and preparation method and we have to perform further optimisation of the formulation of our catalyst. The measurement of temperature is also very critical since methanation is an exothermic reaction and hot spots can occur. In our experiments the use of a thermal conductive diluting particles (SiC) in the bed where the thermocouple is inserted guaranties the measurement of the true temperature [35].

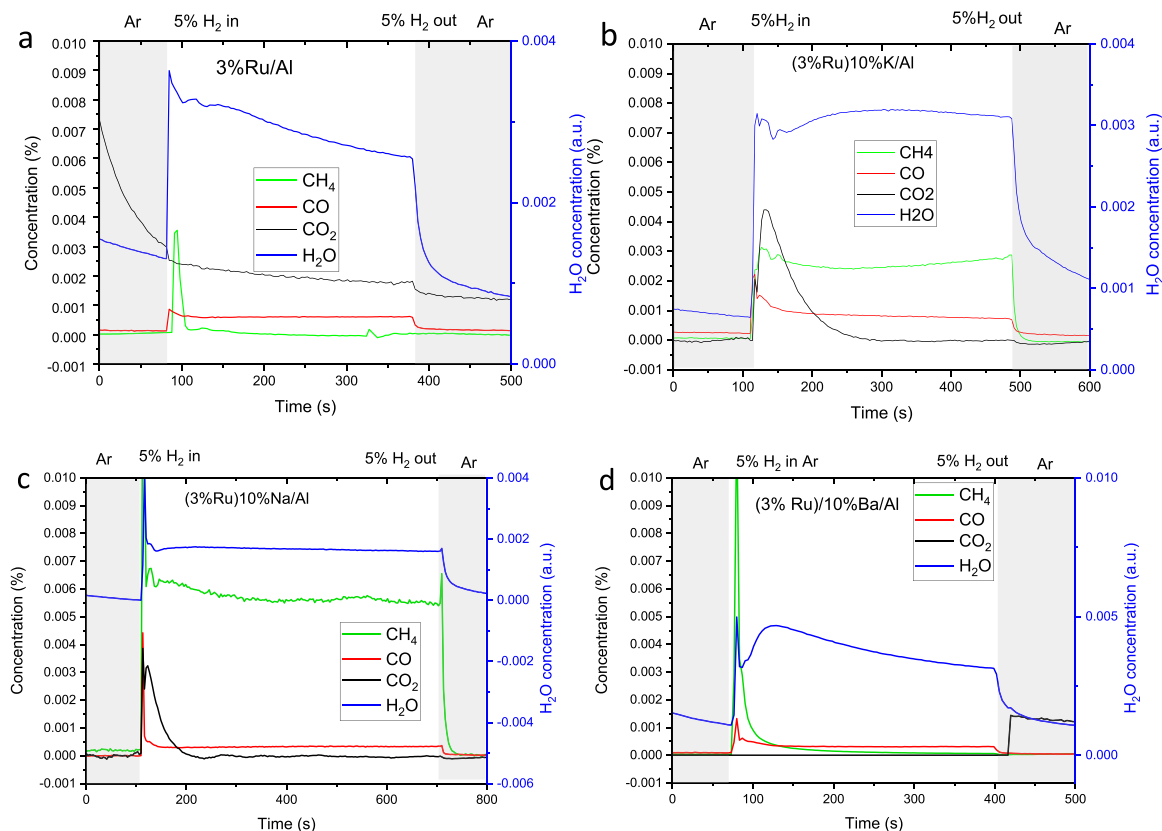


Fig. 2. Gas composition in 2nd cycle of reduction stage (5% H₂ in Ar) for different catalysts at 300 °C: (a) 3%Ru/Al; (b) (3%Ru)/10%K/Al; (c) (3%Ru)/10%Na/Al; (d) (3%Ru)/10%Ba/Al.

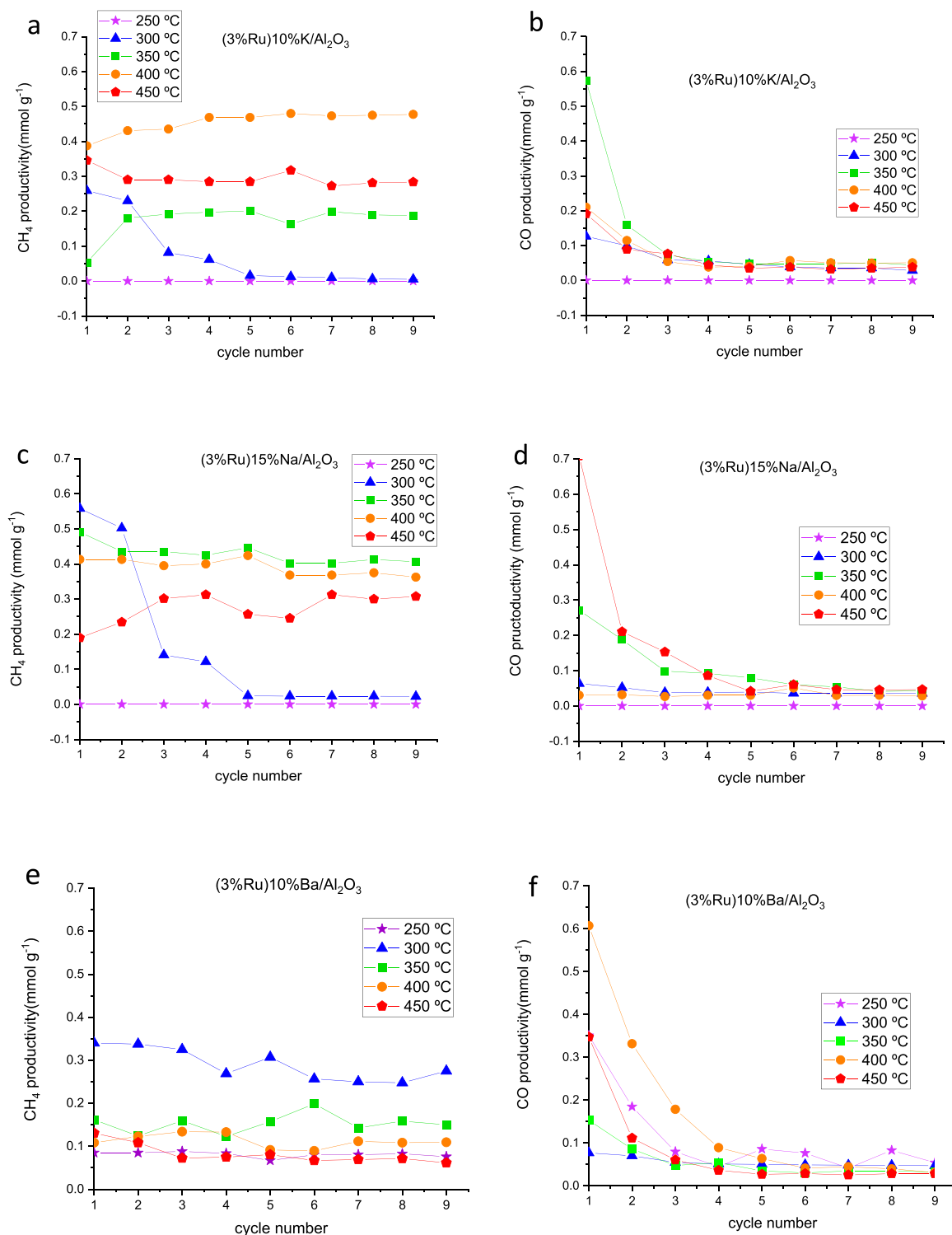


Fig. 3. Productivity of CH₄ (a,c,e) and CO (b,d,f) during the first 100 s of the reduction stage in each cycle for (3%Ru)10%K/Al (a,b), (3%Ru)10%Na/Al (c,d) and (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al (e,f).

On the other hand, the Ba-based material here prepared provided a stable CH₄ productivity $\sim 0.28 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$ at 300 °C after a small decay in the first cycles. For operation temperatures equal or above 350 °C, the CH₄ productivity is almost constant with the cycle number for all the prepared materials. The decrease of CH₄ productivity with cycle number for K and Na based materials at 300 °C can be attributed to the incomplete regeneration of capture material due to the building up of carbonated species that are stable at this temperature in H₂. [36] Since

the alkaline oxide is not completely regenerated for the next CO₂ capture stage, it loses CO₂ capacity as the cycle number increases. Apparently, for temperatures equal or above 350 °C, most carbonated species become unstable and are able to react with H₂, regenerating properly the capture material. For the temperatures of stable cyclic performance, CH₄ productivity does not follow a direct dependence with the temperature. The temperature of maximum CH₄ productivity is different for each material, namely 400 °C ($0.48 \pm 0.03 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$), 350 °C (0.41

$\pm 0.04 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$) and 300°C ($0.28 \pm 0.03 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$) for (3%Ru)10%K/Al, (3%Ru)10%Na/Al and (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al, respectively. The variation of CH₄ productivity with the temperature for the same DFM is difficult to rationalise because the several processes involved in the stages of CO₂ capture and reduction have different dependences with the temperature. The CO₂ adsorption is favoured at lower temperatures while CO_x methanation kinetics is favoured at higher temperatures. Moreover, the kinetics of reduction of the RuO_x active phases are also favoured at higher temperatures. It is remarkable that the CH₄ productivity for Ba-containing DFM is significantly higher at 300°C than at higher temperatures. Other authors found that CO₂ is strongly adsorbed on supported BaO at temperatures from 350°C to 500°C in the form of carbonates with a very high thermal stability [31]. These species could not be completely hydrogenated when exposed to 4% H₂/He at 350°C . This would explain the substantially poorer CH₄ productivity found here for temperatures of 350°C and above compared to that for 300°C , at which these stable Ba carbonates are not presumably formed.

Since the performance of (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al at the lowest temperature of 300°C was stable while keeping a high value of CH₄ productivity, we decided to perform the cyclic test at a lower temperature of 250°C . At this temperature, we found that, while K and Na based DFMs provided negligible CH₄ productivity, (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al provided a stable CH₄ productivity of $0.08 \pm 0.005 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$ during the 10 tested cycles as displayed in (Fig. 4 and S5a). Subsequently, other 10 cycles were performed introducing in the feed 11% H₂O and 4.5% O₂ along with 5% CO₂ in Ar (Fig. 4 and S5b). The CH₄ productivity is slightly suppressed down to $0.05 \pm 0.003 \text{ mmol g}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4) because less CO₂ is captured probably due to competitive adsorption with water vapor. However, the CH₄ productivity remains stable from cycles 11–20 and the effect is reversible because the material recovers its initial CH₄ productivity after removal of H₂O and O₂ from the feed gas in the last cycles 21–30 (Fig. 4 and S5c). Thus, the stable cyclic performance of (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al at a very low temperature of 250°C qualified this material as highly promising for cyclic CO₂ capture from diluted source and subsequent conversion to concentrated CH₄ even in the presence of H₂O and O₂. Catalyst with relevant methanation kinetics at low temperatures are highly desired for the energetic sustainability of the process, especially for direct air capture (DAC) application in which very large gas volume should flow through the DFM and be heated from room temperature to the desired temperature. Regarding energy consumption in regeneration step of DFM, no external supply of heat is necessary because the temperature is sustained by the heat generated by the exergonic methanation reaction. For processes that capture and regeneration are performed using two different materials in contrast to DFM, the regeneration is very

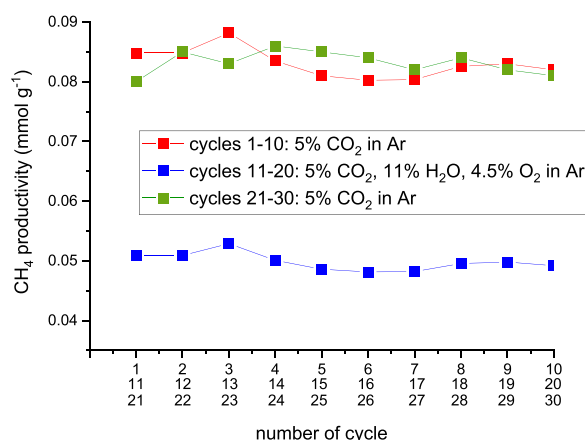


Fig. 4. CH₄ productivity in CO₂ capture and conversion at 250°C using (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al material: (red) cycles 1–10, feeding 5% CO₂ in Ar for the capture step; (blue) cycles 11–20, feeding 5% CO₂, 11% H₂O, 4.5% O₂ in Ar for the capture step; (green) cycles 21–30, feeding 5% CO₂ in Ar for the capture step.

energy intensive and makes the process uneconomic [37–39]. Although the CH₄ concentration in the gas in our experiment is low (lower than 0.01%) for analysis purposes, it can be increased in practice. To this end, only increasing the ratio of DFM material to gas flow rate would be necessary as demonstrated in the literature [13]. For the validation of the materials under industrially relevant conditions, it is important to perform long-term aging studies using a real flue gas (containing O₂ and water vapour) and the scale up of the process. Our results show that H₂O compete with CO₂ for the alkaline capture sites reducing the capture capacity and it is not clear how this will affect in the longer term and with variations of humidity. On the other hand, O₂ can partially oxidise the noble metal. However, it is reported that Ru reduces readily when exposed again to H₂ atmosphere [29,40]. Some authors found deactivation of low loading Ru (<1 wt%) in the presence of O₂ due to the loss of active surface area by Ru sintering. These authors also mentioned that the deactivation is less severe for higher loadings as is our case [34]. Elsewhere, aging study of similar DFMs was performed with simulated flue and the performance was stable [29].

The carbon content of the DFMs after the last cycle was analysed by elemental analysis. This carbon accounts for carbon species accumulated in the DFMs during all the CO₂ captured cycles that has not been released in regeneration step under H₂. Generally speaking, the retained carbon decays as temperature increases. It is apparent that some CO₂ is irreversibly captured (accumulated carbon). The amount of carbon irreversible adsorbed decreases when increasing the temperature. Accordingly, a higher proportion of the capture capacity is restored for the subsequent cycle. At the lower temperatures (250 and 300°C), the amount of irreversibly adsorbed CO₂ is significantly lower for Ba containing DFM than for the other alkaline containing DFMs. For Ba containing material, at the lower temperatures some CO₂ is capture in all the cycles, which is subsequently released as CH₄ keeping a stable cyclic performance.

3.2. Characterization of the reactivity of CO_x ad-species by transient techniques

To assess the CO₂ capture capacity of the dual functional materials, we performed temperature programmed reaction after chemisorption of CO₂ at 300°C (CO₂-TPD) shown in Fig. 6a. The CO₂ desorption profile exhibited two peaks, one at lower temperature around 100°C and a second at higher temperature around 350°C . The first corresponds to physisorbed CO₂ while the second is chemisorbed CO₂. We have no clear explanation for the physisorbed CO₂ since the adsorption was carried out at higher temperature and physisorbed CO₂ should have been removed. It could be attributed to some residual CO₂ present when cooling in Ar. The amount of total desorbed CO₂ follows this increasing order: no alkaline < Ba < Na < K. Therefore, the presence of the alkaline favours the CO₂ capture and the type alkaline follow the same sequence as when they are ordered as a function of the maximum CH₄ productivity, although corresponding to different operation temperatures (Fig. 3), i.e. K (0.48 mmol g^{-1} at 400°C) < Na (0.41 mmol g^{-1} at 350°C) < Ba (0.28 mmol g^{-1} at 300°C).

The reactivity of the different materials towards hydrogenation of adsorbed CO₂ was assessed by TPSR (Fig. 6b–d). To this end, the CO₂ that was previously adsorbed at 50°C is allowed to react with a H₂ flowing gas while heating up to 500°C at a rate of $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$. Synchronously, released CO₂, CH₄ and CO gases are monitored by mass spectrometry. At the lowest temperatures, only physisorbed CO₂ evolves because the methanation kinetics are too slow at low temperatures (Fig. 6b). After reaching a certain temperature, CO₂ decays coinciding with the onset of CH₄ and CO, Fig. 5c and 5d, respectively. The trace of CH₄ (Fig. 6c) is around 10-times more intense than that of CO (Fig. 6d), in line with the high selectivity of these materials to CH₄. In the case of (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al, no CO was peak was observed, thus this catalyst being the most selective to CH₄ at low temperatures (Fig. 5). Moreover, CO peak also evolves at lower temperatures than CH₄ peak suggesting that CO is an

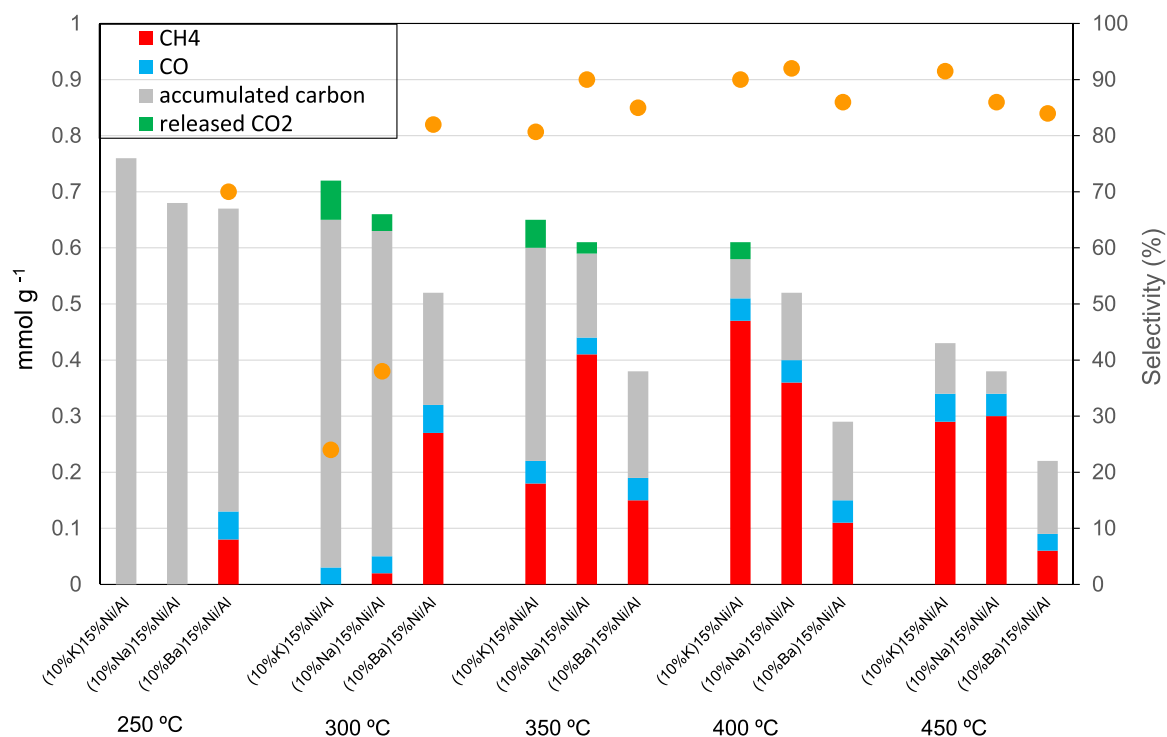


Fig. 5. Carbon balance, CH₄ and CO productivity and selectivity in the last cycle. Accumulated carbon is measured by elemental analysis in the last cycle.

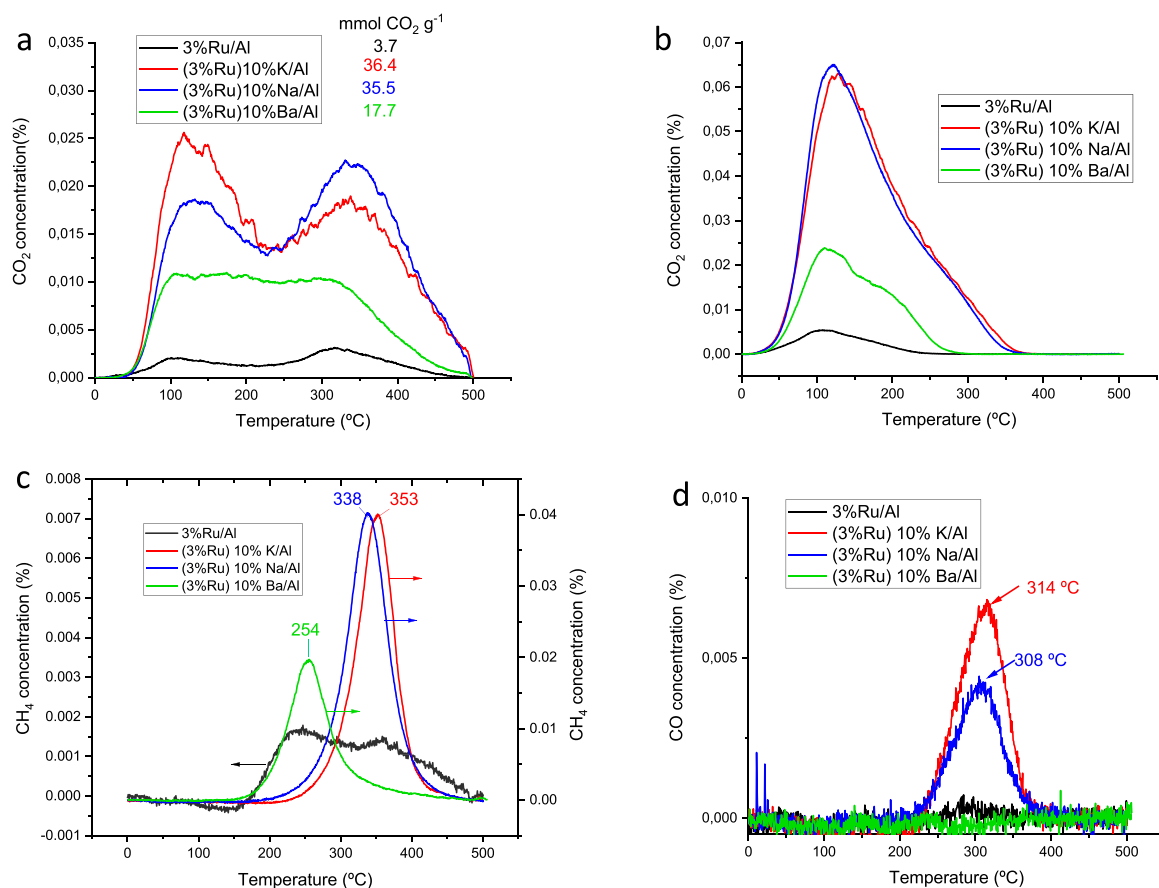


Fig. 6. Characterisation by CO₂-TPD (a) and TPSR (b,c,d) for DFM. (a) CO₂ trace in CO₂-TPD experiment; (b) CO₂ trace in TPSR experiment; (c) CH₄ trace in TPSR experiment; (d) CO trace in TPSR experiment.

intermediate for CH₄ formation. In first step CO₂ is hydrogenated to CO by r-WGS and later CO is hydrogenated to produce CH₄. It is important to note that TPSR experiments (Fig. 6) and cyclic test (Fig. 3) are fundamentally different type of experiments leading to different selectivities. The temperature is dynamic and static in TPSR and cyclic test, respectively. In addition, CO₂ is adsorbed at room temperature and at high temperature (>250 °C) in TPSR and cyclic test, respectively, which leads to different CO_x ad-species and subsequent selectivities. However, TPSR gives insight about the reactivity of CO_x species adsorbed at quasi-room temperature and allows the comparison of CO₂-alkaline adsorption strength for the different base metals.

The monometallic 3%Ru/Al₂O₃ catalyst exhibits a broader and weaker CH₄ peak (Fig. 6c left axis) due to the much lower amount of CO₂ captured than for the alkaline metal containing materials (Fig. 6 right axis). The CH₄ peak for (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al displayed the maximum at 254 °C with the onset at ~160 °C. These temperatures were ca. 100 °C lower than those corresponding to the CH₄ peaks for the materials containing the alkaline metals (K, Na). This indicates that (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al is more active, catalysing methanation at lower temperatures. Consequently, the strength of the bond between the CO_x ad-species and BaO is weaker and it is readily regenerated at lower temperatures than for the alkaline-containing materials. The lowest CH₄ peak temperature in TPSR found for (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al at 254 °C could explain its stable performance in cyclic tests at 250 °C (Fig. 4) and 300°C (Fig. 1). In contrast, the CH₄ peak temperature for K and Na containing material, occurring at 353 °C and 338 °C, respectively, with onset at around 250 °C agrees with the results of cyclic tests, in which these materials do not produce any appreciable amount of CH₄ at 250 °C and the cyclic

performance degrades at 300 °C losing CO₂ capacity with the number of cycles (Fig. 1).

3.3. Ex-situ characterization of the materials

The materials before reaction were characterized by XEDS-mapping in STEM mode (Fig. 7 and Figs. S6, S7 of supplementary information). As a representative example, Fig. 7 shows the XEDS-mapping for (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al material. The mappings for all the materials show that both the base metal (Ba, K, and Na) and Ru nanoparticles are distributed throughout all the alumina surface. This guarantees the proximity between both functions, which is a requisite for the synergistic operation of the dual functional materials. In one place, a high local concentration of Ba is found indicating some clustering,

In the XRD diffractograms of used materials (Fig. 8), the more intense diffraction peaks correspond to the (400) and (440) phases of γ -alumina (PDF 04-0858). The XRD pattern showed the formation of Ru nanoparticles as indicated by Ru (101) and (103) planes at 2 θ values of 44.0° and 78.1° (PDF 70-0274). The presence of reduced Ru agrees with the preparation procedure which includes a final step of reduction in H₂ at 500 °C. Ru can oxidise upon re-exposition to air but RuO₂ with the main diffraction peak at 28.0° (110) (PDF 431027) is not visible in the diffractograms suggesting that RuO₂ is amorphous or very small layer. For (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al, the sharp diffraction peaks at 23.9° and 34° can be also assigned to (111) and (211) crystal phases of barium oxides (PDF 03-0306). For (3%Ru)10%K/Al, the characteristic peak of K₂O at 31.6° (PDF 16-0820) was observed. For (3%Ru)10%Na/Al, the sharp peaks at 32° can be ascribed to Na₂O (PDF 65-2978) [41,42].

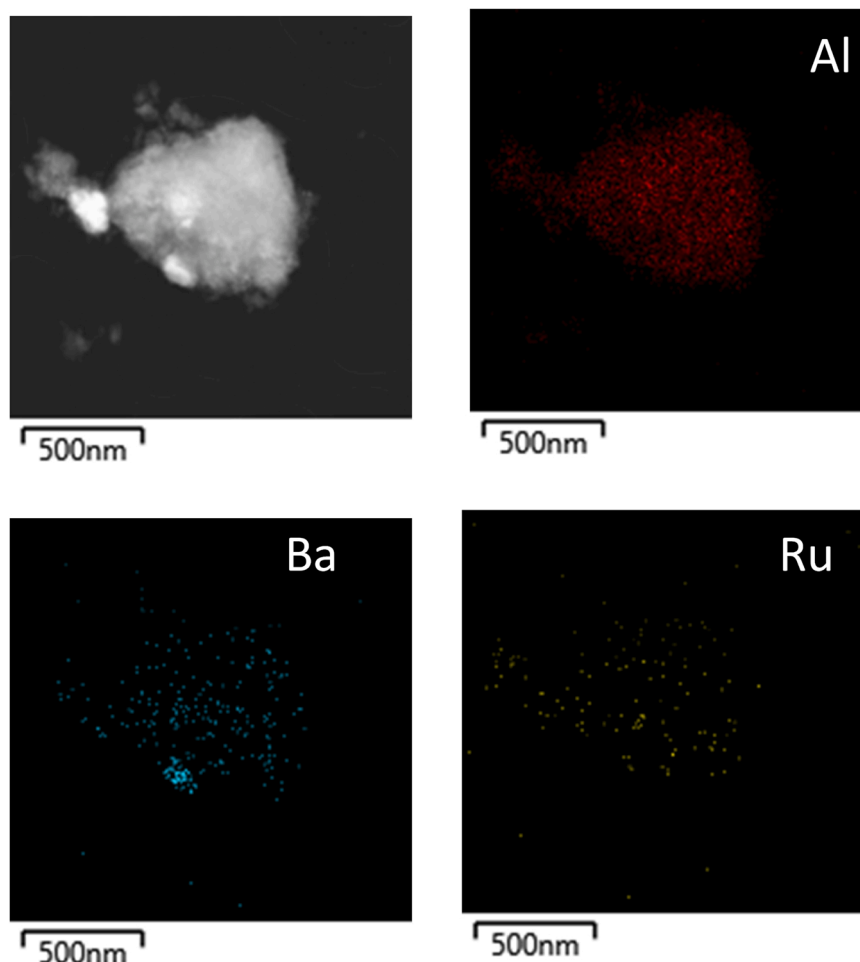


Fig. 7. XEDS-mapping in STEM mode for the used (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al material.

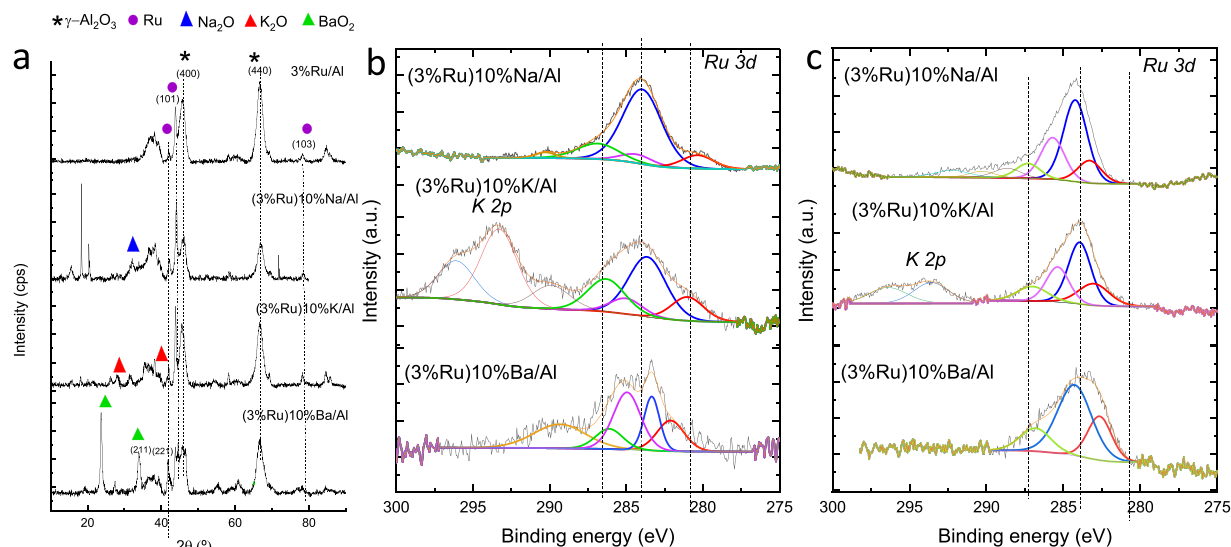


Fig. 8. Characterization of DFMs materials: (a) X-ray diffraction peaks for monometallic and bimetallic catalysts before use; (b) X-ray photoelectron Ru 3d core level spectra of *ex-situ* reduced DFMs before reaction; (c) X-ray photoelectron Ru 3d core level spectra of DFMs after the step of CO₂ capture.

Figs. 8b and 8c show the Ru 3d XPS core level spectra of the as-prepared materials (*ex-situ* reduced at 500 °C in H₂ and passivated at atmospheric conditions) and of DFMs after the step of reaction with CO₂, respectively. The K-containing material displays also an overlapping peak at higher binding energies which corresponds to K 2p core level. The Ru 3d_{5/2} peaks at 280.3 eV and 280.9 eV are generally attributed to Ru⁰ [43] and RuO₂ [44] respectively. A peak of Ru 3d_{5/2} spectrum at 282.2 eV is assigned to Ru of oxidation state higher than IV⁺ such as Ru oxyhydroxide [45]. Above 283 eV is difficult to assign the Ru 3d peak because they overlap with the C 1 s peak at 284.6 eV. It is important to note that the C 1 s peak (blue line in Fig. 8b and c) must come from carbonated species and it is present both in reduced and used materials. In the *ex-situ* reduced samples, the presence of the peak of C 1 s at 284.6 eV indicates that CO₂ is adsorbed from the atmosphere even at room temperature [46]. Therefore, for the study of Ru species, we have focused on the contributions below 283 eV. The position of the peak corresponding to the more reduced species (red peak corresponding to either Ru⁰ or RuO₂) along with the Ru/Al ratios are listed in Table 1. Among the *ex-situ* reduced DFMs, the Ba-containing one exhibited a shift towards more oxidised species, suggesting an electron-withdrawing effect of Ba over Ru which may also explain its enhanced performance. In contrast, Na apparently exerts a slight electron donating effect. After reaction with CO₂ (Fig. 8c), the peak of the most reduced species (Ru⁰ and RuO₂) vanished or shifted to higher binding energies for all the materials. This is in line with either the oxidation of Ru (oxidation state > IV⁺) during CO₂ cycle or that the carbonated species have an electro-withdrawing effect. Regarding the Ru/Al ratio determined by XPS (Table S1), the absolute values must be taken with caution because XPS probes only the outermost surface Ru species. However, some conclusions can be derived from relative variations. Compared to the monometallic 3%Ru/Al catalyst, the Ru/Al ratio decreases in the reduced bimetallic catalysts which can be due to a certain Ru masking by the alkaline metal. After formation of the carbonated species in the used catalysts, Ru is apparently segregated to the surface, increasing the Ru/Al ratio. The Al/O atomic ratio for the monometallic catalyst is close to the stoichiometric of Al₂O₃ (0.66). The ratio decreases when adding the alkaline in the bimetallic materials, which can be explained by the increase of oxygen content due to the alkaline oxide formation. The Al/O decreases further after reaction with CO₂, possibly due to increase of oxygen content due to the formation of the alkaline carbonated species and the oxidation of Ru. In summary, the main conclusion of XPS characterization is that Ru and base metals undergoes some redox

changes during cycling between reduced species and oxidized states.

We performed a carbon balance in the last cycle for each material and temperature (Table S2 of supplementary material). The captured CO₂ was estimated by analysing the carbon content of the sample after capture step by elemental analysis. It is apparent that the captured CO₂ decreases when temperature increases. The opposite trend is observed for the unreacted carbon suggesting that stable carbon-containing species are retained at the lower temperatures. The cyclic testing and the characterisation of the materials lead us to propose the following mechanism (Fig. 9). During CO₂ feeding, CO₂ is captured by dissociative adsorption on Ru nanoparticles and on basic sites of Al₂O₃ support and by alkaline metal (step 1 of Fig. 9). Concomitantly, Ru is partially oxidised and CO and H₂O are released to atmosphere. In the next step of H₂-feeding, a complex multistep process occurs. First, the partially oxidised noble metal is reduced (step 2 of Fig. 9). Subsequently, CH₄ and CO evolve via two different mechanisms (step 3 of Fig. 9). One route (yellow arrows) is the reduction of the CO_x ad-species captured on the alkaline metal or alumina support mediated by spill-over of H₂ dissociatively chemisorbed on the catalyst surface. [15,47] Other co-operating mechanism also suggested in the literature (green arrows) [16,17,31] is that the heat generated by the exothermicity of methanation may trigger the thermal desorption of adsorbed CO₂, which is transported to Ru sites and reduced thanks to chemisorbed -H on Ru. In the process, the structure/composition of DFM undergoes some dynamic changes which lead to the regeneration of the material for next cycle. The kinetics of reduction and regeneration of the capture material depends mainly on the type of alkaline metal and on the temperature. In the case of Ba containing material, the kinetics of reduction are revealed faster by TPSR experiments and the catalyst is properly regenerated even at low temperature (Fig. 9 step 4 left). In contrast, the slower reduction kinetics for the other alkali metals makes that the alkaline is not completely reduced/regenerated for next cycle at temperatures < 350 °C. Although the slower kinetics of Na-based DFM makes that material is not properly regenerated at 300 °C under our reaction conditions (Figs. 1 and 3a and c), stable cyclic performance could be obtained by increasing the methanation time and H₂ concentration. In fact, stable cyclic performance has been attained during 50 cycles with similar material (5%Ru-6% Na on Al₂O₃) [29] at 300 °C by using 15 min and 15% H₂ in the methanation step. The optimization of H₂ concentration and time will be addressed in future works. The faster kinetics of Ba can be attributed to several factors such as the higher reducibility of CO_x ad-species or promoting effects (geometric or electronic) of the alkaline on the Ru metal catalyst. [48] To

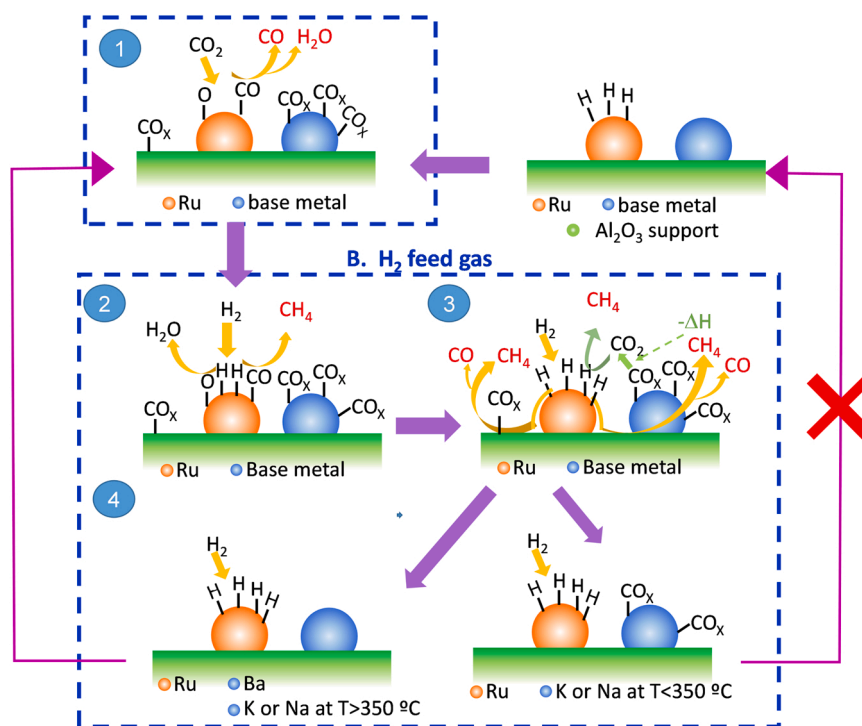


Fig. 9. Schematic representation of the proposed reaction mechanism.

unravel the exact reasons of the different behaviour for each metal, studies by in-situ or operando FTIR spectroscopy[22] must be very helpful in future research. Other matter that should be researched is to design the catalyst to make it even more selective to CH₄ avoiding the release of CO traces.

4. Conclusions

The concept of “dual functional material” has excellent prospects for capturing CO₂ from diluted feeds, like post-combustion flue gas or direct air capture, and subsequently reduce it to CH₄. The integration of both capture and conversion in one single reactor and using only one single homogeneous material entails significant benefits in terms of process intensification. Herein, the cyclic stability of dual functional materials consisting of Ru as methanation catalyst and an alkali metal (K or Na) or alkaline-earth metal (Ba) as CO₂ capture materials has been assessed. While K and Na have been widely used in DFMs, heavy alkaline earth metals such as Ba material have been rarely used. Each material exhibited a different temperature window where CH₄ productivity is maximized, namely, the highest temperature for K-containing DFM (ca. 400 °C), intermediate temperature for Na-containing DFM (ca. 350 °C) and the lowest temperature for Ba-containing DFM (<300 °C). Regarding the cyclic stability, the performance of K and Na based materials at 300 °C degraded in the first 5 cycles down to zero CH₄ yield. At temperatures of 350 °C and above, stable cyclic performance was found when using these materials. In contrast, the performance of Ba-containing material at 300 °C was stable keeping a high value of CH₄ productivity (0.28 ± 0.03 mmol g⁻¹). Moreover, this catalyst afforded a noticeable CH₄ production (0.05 – 0.08 mmol g⁻¹) and cyclic stability at a temperature as low as 250 °C and even in the presence of O₂ and H₂O, at which the other DFMs exhibited negligible CH₄ yield. To the best of our knowledge, this is one of the lowest temperatures reported to date for a dual functional material in the CO₂ capture and methanation process. TPSR experiments disclosed that the reason of this behaviour is the enhanced reactivity of the CO_x ad-species for Ba-containing material, which start to react at a temperature as low as 160 °C. This temperature is more than 50°C lower than the onset temperature for the reaction of

CO_x ad-species when using K and Na containing materials. The enhanced methanation kinetics affords in turn an adequate regeneration of the material for a subsequent CO₂ capture cycle, leading to a stable cyclic performance. The selectivity to CH₄ is above 80% for the relevant temperatures, being CO an intermediate in CH₄ formation. The characterization of the materials revealed a good distribution of both the methanation and capture functions on the alumina support. XPS of as-prepared DFMs revealed that Ba-containing DFM exhibited the most electron-deficient Ru state among DFMs, which can be on the base of the enhanced performance. This microenvironment created by each base metal would impact on redox dynamics of the two metals and thus on the reactivity of CO_x ad-species.

Supporting information

Figure S1: Scheme and photograph of the set-up; Fig. S2-S4: Cycles CO₂ capture and conversion using Ru-based catalysts with different alkaline metals at different temperatures 350 °C, 400 °C, 450 °C; Fig. S5: cycles of CO₂ capture and conversion at 250 °C using (3%Ru)10%Ba/Al; Figs. S6 and S7: XEDS-mapping in STEM mode for (3%Ru)10%K/Al and (3%Ru)10%Na/Al materials, respectively; Table S1: XPS data of catalyst before and after reaction; Table S2: Balance of carbon: CH₄, CO productivity, unreacted CO₂ and carbon capture for the last cycle at different temperatures.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Enrique García-Bordejé: Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – original draft preparation. **Ana Belén Dongil:** Investigation, Data curation. **Jorge Moral:** Investigation. **José M. Conesa:** Investigation, Data curation. **Antonio Guerrero-Ruiz:** Writing – review & editing. **Inmaculada Rodríguez-Ramos:** 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

The authors do not have permission to share data.

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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.2022.102370](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2022.102370).

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