



Article RuNi/MMO Catalysts Derived from a NiAl-NO₃-LDH Precursor for CO Selective Methanation in H₂-Rich Gases

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Abstract: CO selective methanation (CO-SMET) is a promising method for deep CO removal from H_2 -rich gases. In this study, a series of RuNi/MMO catalysts are prepared using the support MMO-N derived from NiAl-NO₃-LDHs, which was prepared from NiAl-CO₃-LDHs via an acid–alcohol ion-exchange reaction. The prepared catalysts were characterized by XRD, SEM, TEM, XPS, H_2 -TPR, CO-TPD, CO₂-TPD, NH₃-TPD, and TG. The RuNi/MMO-N catalyst demonstrated excellent CO-SMET performance, successfully reducing the CO to less than 10 ppm with a selectivity greater than 50% in a reaction temperature window ranging from 180 °C to 260 °C. Compared with similar catalysts derived from NiAl-CO₃-LDHs, the exceptional CO-SMET capability of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst is suggested to be associated with a more effective hydrogen spillover, a larger number of electron-rich Ni sites, and a higher density of acid sites on the surface of RuNi/MMO-N, which are conducive to CO adsorption and the inhibition of CO₂ methanation.

Keywords: LDHs; mixed metal oxides; RuNi/MMO catalyst; CO methanation; hydrogen-rich gas; CO removal

1. Introduction

Hydrogen or hydrogen-rich gas used as fuel for proton exchange membrane fuel cells (PEMFCs) is mainly derived from the steam reforming of hydrocarbons. It is vital to remove as much of the carbon monoxide (CO) as possible and obtain concentrations lower than 10 ppm since the presence of CO can poison the Pt electrode of the PEMFCs and degrade the performance [1–3]. CO selective methanation (CO-SMET) is regarded as a potential technology for deep CO removal from H₂-rich gases because it does not require the addition of extra gas [4–6]. Because reforming gas contains approximately 20 vol% carbon dioxide (CO₂), CO-SMET is typically accompanied by side reactions of CO₂ methanation and reverse water gas shift (RWGS) [7–9]. Therefore, a suitable CO-SMET catalyst can remove CO to levels below 10 ppm while inhibiting the methanation of CO₂.

Recently, various Ru- and Ni-based catalysts have been reported for CO-SMET [10–12]. Many support materials have been investigated, including metal oxides [13,14] and carbon materials [15,16]. Mixed metal oxides (MMOs) [17,18] derived from layered double hydroxides (LDHs) via calcination are widely used as support catalysts in CO-SMET owing to their superior thermal stability, excellent metal dispersion, and large specific surface area [19,20]. However, the presence of numerous basic sites on such catalysts is beneficial for the adsorption and activation of CO_2 , resulting in numerous CO_2 methanation side reactions [21,22].

Zhang et al. [23] reported that the acidity and basicity of the calcined material can be adjusted by changing the interlayer anions of LDHs. Liu et al. [24] showed that anions with a lower charge in LDHs exhibited stronger acidity. Wang et al. [25] found that the



Citation: Li, Z.; Zhao, X.; Ma, J.; Dong, X. RuNi/MMO Catalysts Derived from a NiAl-NO₃-LDH Precursor for CO Selective Methanation in H₂-Rich Gases. *Catalysts* **2023**, *13*, 1245. https:// doi.org/10.3390/catal13091245

Academic Editors: Jean-François Lamonier and Leonarda Liotta

Received: 24 June 2023 Revised: 1 August 2023 Accepted: 25 August 2023 Published: 27 August 2023



Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). interlayer anions of LDHs affect their surface area, morphology, and thermal stability. The performance of LDH-based catalysts is significantly improved by changing the interlayer anion of LDHs [26,27]. It remains a major challenge to improve the performance of CO-SMET catalysts by optimizing the interlayer anions of LDHs to weaken the surface alkaline sites of MMO derived from LDHs, thereby effectively inhibiting the methanation of CO₂. However, relevant investigations are currently limited.

In this study, a series of RuNi/MMO catalysts are fabricated by an impregnation method using an MMO-N support derived from a nitrate intercalated LDH (LDHs-N) precursor, which was prepared from a carbonate-intercalated LDH (LDHs-C) acid–alcohol ion-exchange reaction. Compared with similar catalysts in the literature, the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst exhibited a higher activity with effluent CO concentrations of less than 10 ppm in a temperature window ranging from 180 °C to 260 °C for CO-SMET.

2. Results and Discussion

Figure 1 shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the prepared LDH and MMO samples with different concentrations of HNO₃ ethanol solutions (0.03 M, 0.06 M, 0.09 M, and 0.12 M) in the acid–alcohol ion-exchange reaction. As shown in Figure 1a, the diffraction peaks of the LDHs-C samples at 11.4° , 23.2° , 35.2° , and 62.1° correspond to the (003), (006), (012), and (110) crystal planes of the LDHs (JCPDS 48-3170), respectively [28]. The typical LDH crystal plane diffraction peaks of the LDHs-N samples were almost identical to those of the LDHs-C samples, indicating that the LDHs-N samples were formed and that the acid–alcohol ion-exchange reaction did not destroy their layered structure. Compared to LDHs-C, the diffraction peak of LDHs-N shifted to a lower angle, possibly due to the expansion of their interlayer distance by the insertion of NO₃⁻ anions into the LDHs [24].

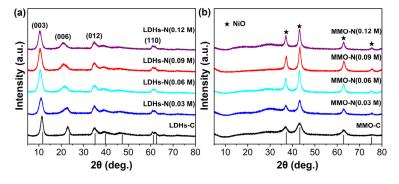


Figure 1. XRD patterns of (a) LDHs and (b) the corresponding calcined samples of MMOs.

The average particle size of the LDHs in the c direction (D_{LDHs}) was calculated from the (003) reflection based on the Scherrer equation and is summarized in Table S1. The d_{003} of LDHs-C is 0.781 nm, which is close to the 0.75 nm value for that of standard carbonate intercalated LDH [11]. The d_{003} of LDHs-N (0.06–0.09 M) was 0.831–0.834 nm, which was closest to the 0.833 nm of d_{003} of nitrate-intercalated LDH previously reported [29,30], indicating that LDH materials containing nitrate intercalation were successfully prepared by ion-exchange reactions. This was further confirmed by the elemental analysis of LDHs-N (0.09 M) (Table S2).

Figure 1b shows that the diffraction peaks of the NiO species appeared for all MMO samples transformed from the LDH precursor by calcination (JCPDS 47-1049) [31]. It is worth noting that the absence of the characteristic diffraction peaks of Al₂O₃ and spinel species for all MMO samples indicates that no crystalline phase of Al₂O₃ or nickel aluminate spinel was formed during the calcination of LDHs.

The RuNi/MMO catalyst synthesized using the MMO-N (0.09 M) support, which was transferred from LDHs-N (0.09 M), exhibited a lower hydrogen reduction temperature (Figure S1) and superior catalytic performance than the other RuNi/MMO-N in the CO-SMET reaction (Figure S2). Therefore, unless otherwise specified, in this paper, MMO-N

denotes MMO-N (0.09 M) derived from LDHs-N (0.09 M), and LDHs-N denotes LDHs-N (0.09 M) prepared from LDHs-C using acid–alcohol ion exchange in a 0.09 M HNO₃ ethanol solution.

Figure S3 is the N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms of RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/ MMO-N catalysts. All catalysts exhibited the typical IV type isotherms with an H1-type hysteresis loop according to the IUPAC classification, which are characteristic of mesoporous materials [32]. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area, average pore size, and pore volume of RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts are summarized in Table S3. Compared with RuNi/MMO-C, the BET surface area of RuNi/MMO-N increased significantly, which facilitates the dispersion of the active metal and thus improves the performance of the catalyst.

The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of LDHs-C, LDHs-N, MMO-C, and MMO-N are shown in Figure 2. As shown in Figure 2a,b, both LDHs-C and LDHs-N exhibited LDH nanosheet structures. As shown in Figure 2c,d, the layered structure of the LDHs collapsed after calcination. Numerous agglomerations of blocks or grain granules were observed in MMO-C and MMO-N. Smaller grain granules and LDH nanosheets with a few sheets or a single-layered structure were observed over some MMO-N compared to the MMO-C catalyst, indicating that the precursor of MMO treated with the HNO₃ ethanol solution has a good thermal stability.

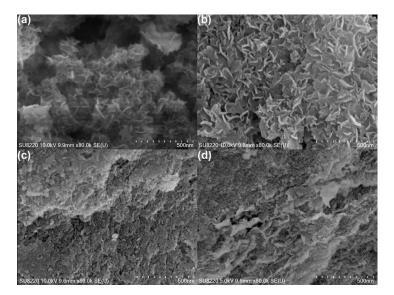


Figure 2. SEM images of (a) LDHs-C, (b) LDHs-N, (c) MMO-C, and (d) MMO-N.

The structures and compositions of the RuNi/MMO-N and RuNi/MMO-C samples were measured by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), as shown in Figure 3. The average sizes of the Ni and Ru nanoparticles for RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts are around 4.8 nm and 2.7 nm, respectively. In RuNi/MMO-C (Figure 3a,b), the Ni and Ru nanoparticles exhibited some agglomeration on MMO. Their fringe spacings were 0.204 and 0.234 nm, respectively, consistent with the Ni (111) (JCPDS 04-0850) and Ru (100) (JCPDS 06-0663) planes, and no Ni-Ru alloy nanoparticles were observed. For RuNi/MMO-N (Figure 3c,d), the Ni and Ru nanoparticles were uniformly dispersed on the support without significant agglomeration, as confirmed by the XRD analyses. As shown in Figure S3, the XRD pattern of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst exhibits weak peaks related to the NiO species in comparison with RuNi/MMO-C, corresponding to the lower crystallinity and smaller grain size of NiO. In addition, the RuNi/MMO-N sample exhibited the same fringe spacing for Ni and Ru nanoparticles as RuNi/MMO-C. The appearance of small particles with an interplanar spacing of 0.210 nm indicates the formation of Ni-Ru alloy nanoparticles [33,34], which can suppress CO₂ methanation and further enhances CO hydrogenation to CH_4 [35].

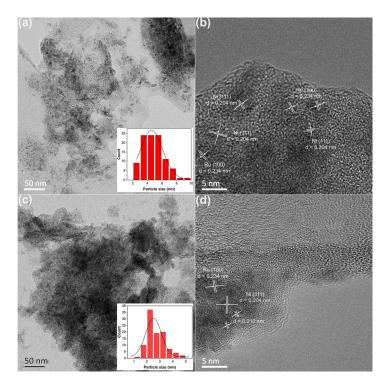


Figure 3. (a) TEM and (b) HRTEM images of RuNi/MMO-C. (c) TEM and (d) HRTEM images of the RuNi/MMO-N.

The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of Ni 2p and Ru 3p for RuNi/ MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N are shown in Figure 4. For RuNi/MMO-C, the Ni 2p spectrum displays two peaks at the binding energies of 852.93 eV and 856.15 eV, corresponding to Ni⁰ species and Ni²⁺ species, respectively, and the peaks at 861.90 eV are assigned to the oscillating satellite peaks [36–38]. The Ru $3d_{3/2}$ peak centered at approximately 284.80 eV congenitally overlaps with the C1s signal [39], and the signals at 281.17 eV and 285.66 eV were assigned to Ru $3d_{5/2}$ and Ru $3d_{3/2}$, respectively [40,41]. On the other hand, only one signal located at 462.33 eV emerges from RuNi/MMO-C, which matches the Ru 3p spectrum of metallic Ru⁰ [42], indicating that the Ru³⁺ species was reduced completely. Compared to RuNi/MMO-C, the Ni 2p spectrum in RuNi/MMO-N shifted toward a lower binding energy, whereas the Ru 3d and Ru 3p spectra move toward a higher binding energy, implying that the electron is transferred from Ru to Ni. This indicates the formation of more electron-rich Ni sites, thus promoting the dissociation of CO in CO-SMET [43,44].

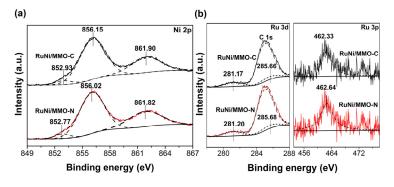


Figure 4. The (**a**) Ni 2p and (**b**) Ru 3d and 3p XPS spectra for the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

The H₂ temperature-programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts with three reduction peaks are shown in Figure 5. The metallic Ru is characterized by the weak peak of the reduction of Ru³⁺ around 100–200 °C. The

peaks at 429 °C and 605 °C are attributed to the reduction of α -type (surface amorphous NiO or bulk NiO) and γ -type (strongly interacting with MMO or called Al-rich phase) NiO species, respectively [45,46]. It has been reported that abundant acid sites enhance the hydrogen spillover effect [47–49]. Since the acid sites of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst is more abundant than those of the RuNi/MMO-C sample, as shown in the NH₃ temperature-programmed desorption experiments, the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst enhanced the hydrogen spillover effect. This promotes the reduction of NiO in the catalyst [41], thus improving the activity of the catalyst. In addition, the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst improved the dispersion of metallic Ni and Ru particles compared to the RuNi/MMO-C catalyst, as verified by TEM (Figure 3), resulting in a decreased reduction temperature and better catalytic activity [15].

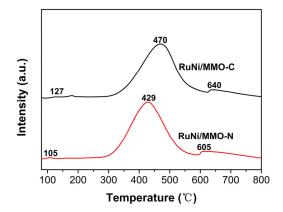


Figure 5. H₂-TPR profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

The results of CO temperature-programmed desorption (CO-TPD) analyses are shown in Figure 6. Two TPD peaks are observed for the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts. The low-temperature (50–300 °C) peak is ascribed to CO adsorbed weakly onto the catalyst surfaces [50]. The high-temperature (300–600 °C) peak is assigned to the bridgebonded adsorptive CO [28]; it is generally believed that bridged chemical adsorption contributes more to the formation of CH₄ than single-site chemisorption [51]. In contrast to the RuNi/MMO-C catalyst, the peak position of bridge-adsorbed CO shifted from 436 °C to 449 °C for RuNi/MMO-N, indicating a stronger interaction between the active sites of RuNi/MMO-N and CO [6]. The enhanced CO adsorption capacity of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst, which was confirmed by the enhanced peak area of CO-TPD (Figure 6), provides strong evidence of its superior activity and selectivity in the CO-SMET reaction.

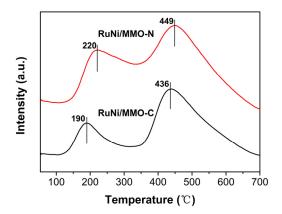


Figure 6. The CO-TPD profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

The CO₂ temperature-programmed desorption (CO₂-TPD) profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts possessing three CO₂ desorption peaks are shown in Figure 7. In this case, the quantity of CO₂ adsorbed indicates the total number of basic sites,

and the CO₂ desorption temperature demonstrates the strength of the basic sites. The peak below 150 °C corresponds to weak basic sites due to CO₂ interaction with surface hydroxyl groups. The peaks observed at 150–300 °C and over 300 °C correspond to moderate and strong basic sites, resulting from CO₂ interacting with Lewis acid–base pairings and isolated/surface O^{2–} anions [52]. As shown in Figure 7, the CO₂ desorption temperature of RuNi/MMO-N was lower than that of RuNi/MMO-C, indicating that the CO₂ adsorption ability of RuNi/MMO-N was lower than that of RuNi/MMO-C. Thus, it is not conducive to the activation of CO₂, inhibits the methanation of CO₂ [22], and improves the selectivity of the CO methanation reaction.

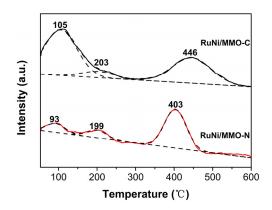


Figure 7. The CO₂-TPD profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

The peak areas of CO₂-TPD for the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts are listed in Table S4. The areas of the three basic sites over RuNi/MMO-N were clearly lower than those of RuNi/MMO-C, indicating that the ion exchange of the LDH precursor weakened the basicity of the catalyst's surface, which reduced the adsorption capacity of CO₂ and effectively inhibited the methanation of CO₂ [53].

To further corroborate this conclusion, the NH₃ temperature-programmed desorption (NH₃-TPD) measurements were conducted on the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts, and the results are shown in Figure 8. Similar to CO₂-TPD, the NH₃ desorption temperature represents the strength of the acid sites and the area of the desorption peak indicates the total number of acid sites. The low-temperature peaks at 100–300 °C correspond to weak Lewis acid sites, while the high-temperature peaks at 300–550 °C represent strong Lewis acid sites [54]. The NH₃ desorption temperature of RuNi/MMO-N was higher than that of RuNi/MMO-C in terms of strong acid sites, indicating the enhanced acidity of the RuNi/MMO-N samples. Compared with the RuNi/MMO-C sample, the increase in the peak area of NH₃-TPD at the two acid sites on RuNi/MMO-N indicates an increase in the number of acid sites. This promotes the adsorption of CO molecules and inhibits the dissociation of CO₂ [55,56], thus facilitating the CO-SMET reaction.

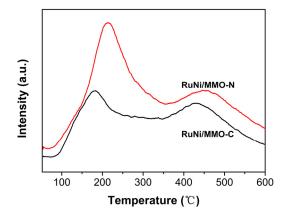


Figure 8. The NH₃-TPD profiles of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

The performances of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts in the CO-SMET are shown in Figure 9. In Figure 9a, it was additionally observed that the CO outlet concentrations of CO-SMET initially decreased to below 10 ppm over the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts and then increased with increasing reaction temperature owing to competitive CO₂ methanation in the reaction system [11]. As shown in Figure 9b, the reaction selectivity for all catalyst samples remained near 100% at low temperatures and then decreased rapidly as the reaction temperature increased. This is because CO methanation mainly produces CH₄ at low temperatures, while CO₂ also participates in competitive methanation reactions to produce large amounts of CH₄ at higher temperatures, resulting in a reduced selectivity for CO-SMET [11].

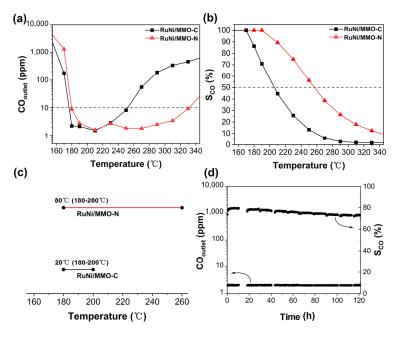


Figure 9. Catalytic performance of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts for CO-SMET: (**a**) CO concentration; (**b**) the selectivity of CO methanation. (**c**) The suitable working temperature window. (**d**) The long-term durability test of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst at 210 °C.

Compared to RuNi/MMO-C, a drastic improvement in the CO-SMET activity was observed owing to the more favorable hydrogen spillover effect [49], better dispersion of Ni and Ru particles [15], and increased electron-rich Ni sites [43] on the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst. In addition, the low density of the basic sites and high density of the acid sites present on the surface of RuNi/MMO-N are conducive to CO adsorption and inhibition of CO₂ methanation [22,55], thus improving the performance of the CO-SMET reaction.

In this study, the reaction temperature window, with a CO concentration in the effluent of less than 10 ppm and a CO selectivity greater than 50%, was considered as the suitable working temperature window of the catalyst for the CO-SMET reaction [13]. As shown in Figure 9c, the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst displays excellent catalytic performance under the suitable working temperature window ranging from 180 °C to 260 °C compared with RuNi/MMO-C. In addition, the CO-SMET performance of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst is superior to the majority of those previously reported for Ru- and Ni-based catalysts (Table S5).

The stability of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst was examined by long-term durability tests at 210 °C, as shown in Figure 9d. The effluent CO concentration was relatively stable at 2 ppm over the reaction time of 120 h. Notably, the CO selectivity of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst was maintained above 70%, yet decreased slightly as the reaction progressed, which may be due to the sintering of nickel and ruthenium particles and carbon deposition during the long-term test [57].

Figure 10 shows the thermogravimetry (TG) and derivative thermogravimetry (DTG) curves of the spent RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts. The mass loss at temperatures below 250 °C was attributed to the removal of adsorbed water. The weight increase in the temperature window of 200 °C to 350 °C was ascribed to the oxidation of metallic Ni. The weight loss above 350 °C is ascribed to the oxidation of the deposited carbon produced from the cracking reactions of CH₄ [58,59]. The weight loss rate of the spent RuNi/MMO-N (1.4%) was lower than that of the spent RuNi/MMO-C (2.5%), indicating that the RuNi/MMO-N catalysts have strong resistance to carbon deposition and, therefore, a good stability during the CO-SMET reaction.

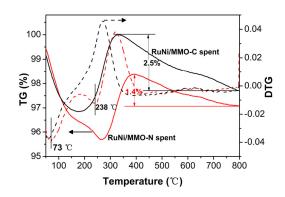


Figure 10. TG and DTG curves of spent the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Materials

All chemicals and reagents, including RuCl₃ \cdot nH₂O, Ni(NO₃)₂ \cdot 6H₂O, Al(NO₃)₃ \cdot 9H₂O, NaOH, and Na₂CO₃, HNO₃, and C₂H₅OH, were commercially available and directly used as received.

3.2. Preparation of the Catalysts

NiAl-CO₃-LDHs were prepared using the co-precipitation technique [11]. A total of 10.91 g Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and 4.69 g Al(NO₃)₃·9H₂O were initially dissolved in 50 mL of deionized water to obtain a homogeneous solution (solution A). A total of 1.00 g of NaOH and 2.65 g of Na₂CO₃ were dissolved in 50 mL of deionized water to obtain another homogeneous solution (solution B). Solution B was then added dropwise to Solution A until the pH of the mixed solution reached 9. Finally, the precipitates were aged for 18 h at 80 °C, washed with deionized water three times, and dried at 60 °C overnight. The target product was named LDHs-C.

NiAl-NO₃-LDHs were prepared by ion exchange [29]. A total of 1.20 g of LDHs-C was added to 200 mL HNO₃–ethanol solutions of varying HNO₃ concentrations (0.03 M, 0.06 M, 0.09 M, and 0.12 M). The resulting suspension was stirred under N₂ flow for 1 h at room temperature for ion exchange. The powders were then filtered, washed with ethanol three times, and dried at 60 °C overnight. The final product NiAl-NO₃-LDHs was denoted as LDHs-N (0.03 M, 0.06 M, 0.09 M, and 0.12 M).

The LDHs-C and LDHs-N precursors were calcined in an Ar atmosphere at 450 °C for 1 h to obtain the products MMO-C and MMO-N, respectively.

RuNi/MMO catalysts were synthesized using an incipient wetness impregnation method. A total of 0.30 g of the as-synthesized MMO-C and MMO-N were immersed in a 0.76 mL aqueous solution of 1 wt% RuCl₃·nH₂O for 24 h, dried at 130 °C overnight, and then reduced at 350 °C in a 50 vol% H₂/N₂ atmosphere at a flow of 60 mL/min for 1.5 h. The synthesized catalysts were named RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N, respectively. The Ru loading in the RuNi/MMO catalyst was determined by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES), as shown in Table S3.

3.3. Catalyst Characterization

The XRD patterns of the samples were recorded using a Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 0.154$ nm), operating at a current of 40 mA and a voltage of 40 kV. The scanning range was set between 5 and 80°. Prior to the test, 50 mg powder samples were smeared uniformly onto a sample holder to ensure a flat upper surface.

SEM images were obtained using a Hitachi SU8220 (Tokyo, Japan) scanning electron microscope, set at the working acceleration voltage of 10 kV. Firstly, a conductive adhesive was stuck on the sample table, followed by evenly spreading 10 mg powder samples onto the conductive adhesive. Subsequently, an ear wash ball was used to blow off the non-adhered powder. Prior to the test, the powder samples were sprayed with gold in the vacuum coating apparatus to enhance conductivity.

The morphology and elemental composition of the catalysts were identified by TEM using a JEOL JEM-2100F Transmission Electron Microscope (Tokyo, Japan), operating at the acceleration voltage of 200 kV. Prior to the test, 5 mg powder samples were uniformly dispersed in anhydrous ethanol for 0.5 h using ultrasound, and then a small amount of suspension was transferred onto a copper mesh using a pipette. The samples were subsequently subjected to a drying treatment.

The XPS analysis was conducted using a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD Multifunctional photoelectron spectrometer (Kratos Analytical Ltd., Manchester, UK). An excitation source of Al K α (1486.6 eV) was used. Specifically, 20 mg powder samples were securely fixed on the sample stage using conductive adhesive. The non-adhered powder was removed by gently blowing with an ear wash ball. The binding energy of carbon C 1s (284.8 eV) on the sample surface served as the internal standard.

The TG analysis of the catalysts was performed using a Thermo Gravimetric Analyzer (NETZSCH TG 209 F3 Tarsus, Germany). Typically, 8 mg catalysts were tested and heated under atmospheric conditions. The heating rate was set at $10 \,^{\circ}C/min$, and the temperature range for heating was from 50 $^{\circ}C$ to 800 $^{\circ}C$.

H₂-TPR analysis was conducted using a Micromeritics AutoChem II 2920 instrument (Micromeritics Instrument Corporation, Norcross, GA, USA). Typically, 200 mg catalysts were placed in a reaction tube. Initially, the catalysts were pretreated in a 10 vol% He atmosphere at the 30 mL/min flow rate at 200 °C for 0.5 h to purify their surface. After cooling down to room temperature, the He flow was switched to a 10 vol% H₂/Ar atmosphere at a flow rate of 30 mL/min and heating at a temperature ranging from 80 °C to 800 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C/min.

CO-TPD, CO₂-TPD, and NH₃-TPD analyses were conducted using Autochem II 2950 (Micromeritics, USA). The effluent gas was detected by a mass spectrometer (MKS Cirrus 2). The concentrations of CO, CO₂, and NH₃ were determined by the intensities of m/z at 18, 28, and 18, respectively. Briefly, 200 mg catalysts were placed in a reaction tube. Initially, the catalysts were pre-reduced in a 50 vol% H_2/N_2 atmosphere with a flow rate of 60 mL/min at 350 °C for 1.5 h. After cooling to room temperature with an N₂ flow, a CO or CO₂ or NH₃ atmosphere with a flow rate of 30 mL/min was introduced for 1 h until saturation. Subsequently, the inlet gas was switched to a He flow (30 mL/min) for 1 h to remove the physically adsorbed CO or CO₂ or NH₃ on the surface of the catalysts. Finally, the temperature was increased to 700 °C (CO) or 600 °C (CO₂, NH₃) under a He flow (30 mL/min) with a heating rate of 10 °C/min for desorption.

The N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms were examined on an automatic adsorption machine (Micromeritics ASAP2460) at -196 °C. The samples were degassed at 200 °C for 8 h under vacuum before starting N₂ adsorption. The specific surface areas of the catalysts were determined according to the BET method. The pore size distributions and pore volumes were derived according to the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method using the desorption branch of the isotherms.

The contents of Ni and Ru in the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts were measured on Agilent 5110 ICP-OES (USA). Prior to measurements, the samples were digested in an HF aqueous solution.

3.4. Catalyst Evaluation

The CO-SMET reaction was conducted in a quartz tubular fixed-bed reactor with a diameter of 6 mm at atmospheric pressure. Prior to the measurement, 0.20 g samples were loaded into the center of a quartz tube and fixed with quartz wool, and then, the catalysts were pre-reduced at 350 °C in a 50 vol% H_2/N_2 atmosphere at the flow of 60 mL/min for 1.5 h. The reaction gas (1 vol% CO, 20 vol% CO₂, and 79 vol% H₂), which simulated the dry-basis reformate gas, was introduced into the reactor by the mass flow controller (Sevenstar D07-7) at the flow rate of 20 mL/min. The reaction temperature was controlled and measured by the temperature controller (Yudian AI-708P). The compositions of feedstock and effluent gases were examined on-line by a gas chromatograph (Agilent 7820A) equipped with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) and a flame ionization detector (FID). The operating temperatures of TCD, FID, and packed column (ATEO, TDX-01, $3 \text{ m} \times 3 \text{ mm}$) were 200 °C, 250 °C, and 140 °C, respectively. Standard gases containing H₂, CO, CO₂, and CH₄ were purchased from Guangzhou Shengying Gas Company (China). The CO-SMET reaction was performed at temperatures between 150 °C and 350 °C. The catalytic performance was evaluated based on the CO concentration in the effluent [11]. CO selectivity (S_{CO}) was calculated using the following equation:

$$S_{\rm CO} = \frac{F_{\rm CO}^{in} - F_{\rm CO}^{out}}{F_{\rm CH_4}^{out}} \times 100\% \tag{1}$$

where F_{CO}^{in} is the flow rate of CO in the feedstock, mmol/min; F_{CO}^{out} is the flow rate of CO in the effluent, mmol/min; and $F_{CH_4}^{out}$ is the flow rate of CH₄ in the effluent, mmol/min.

4. Conclusions

In summary, RuNi/MMO catalysts derived from the LDHs precursor via nitrate intercalation were fabricated for CO selective methanation. Compared to RuNi/MMO-C, the prepared RuNi/MMO-N catalyst demonstrated a higher activity and selectivity for CO-SMET at reaction temperatures ranging from 180 °C to 260 °C. The excellent catalytic performance of the RuNi/MMO-N catalyst was attributed to (1) the better surface dispersion of Ni and Ru particles; (2) enhanced hydrogen overflow effect due to the abundance of acid sites in the catalyst; (3) an increase in electron-rich Ni sites that promoted CO dissociation; and (4) a higher density of acid sites that promoted CO adsorption and inhibited CO₂ dissociation. Furthermore, this catalyst demonstrated long-term catalytic stability and carbon resistance.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: https: //www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/catal13091245/s1. Table S1: Structural characteristics of the prepared LDHs; Table S2: C and N chemical compositions of LDHs; Table S3: The physicochemical properties of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts; Table S4: The peak areas of CO₂-TPD for the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts; Table S5: Summary of the CO-SMET performances for the Ru- and Ni-based catalysts developed in recent years; Figure S1: H₂-TPR profiles of different HNO₃-ethanol solutions concentrations (0.03 M, 0.06 M, 0.09 M, and 0.12 M) of the RuNi/MMO catalysts; Figure S2: (a) The CO outlet concentration and (b) the selectivity of CO methanation over the different RuNi/MMO-N catalysts; Figure S3: (a) N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms and (b) BJH pore size distributions of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts; Figure S4: XRD patterns of the RuNi/MMO-C and RuNi/MMO-N catalysts. References [15,20,57,60–67] are cited in the Supplementary Materials. **Author Contributions:** Methodology, Z.L. and X.Z.; formal analysis, Z.L.; resources, X.Z.; data curation, Z.L.; writing—original draft preparation, Z.L. and X.Z.; writing—review and editing, Z.L. and X.D.; investigation, Z.L., X.Z. and J.M.; supervision, X.D.; funding acquisition, X.D. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 21978098) and the Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province of China (No. 2020A1515010488).

Data Availability Statement: The datasets generated and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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