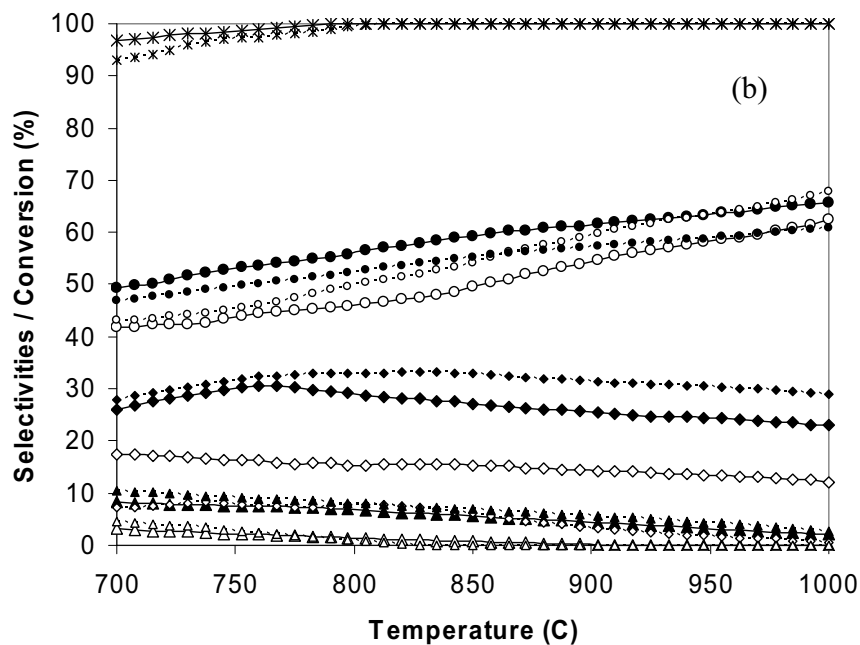
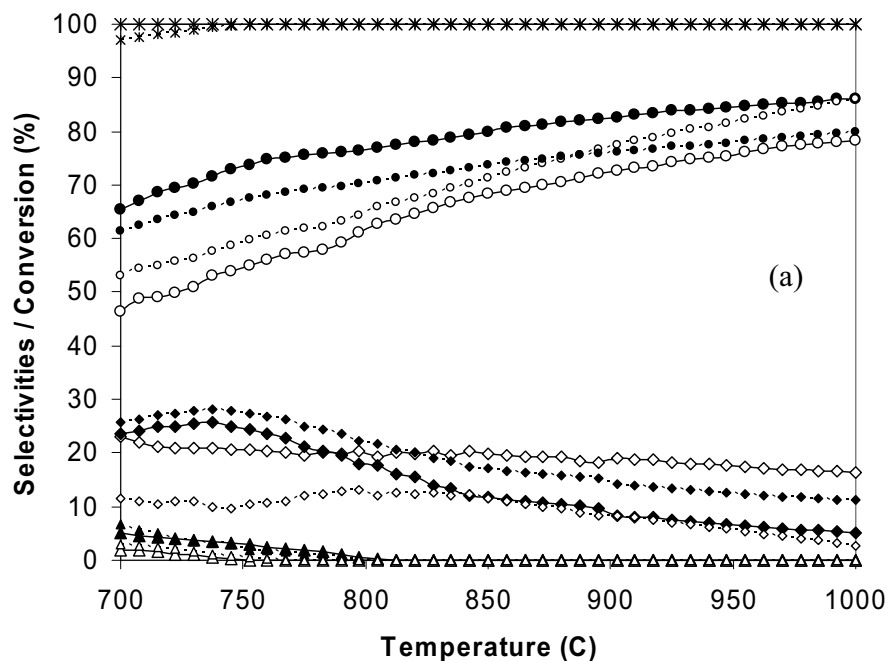


was found that, the main products from the ethanol steam reforming over Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) were H₂, CO, CO₂, and CH₄, with small amounts of C₂H₄ and C₂H₆ depending on the operating temperature. In contrast, significant amounts of C₂H₄ and C₂H₆ were also observed as well as other chemical components from the ethanol steam reforming over Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) and Ni/Al₂O₃ in the range of conditions studied. Consequently, less H₂, CO, and CO₂ selectivities were achieved over these catalysts.



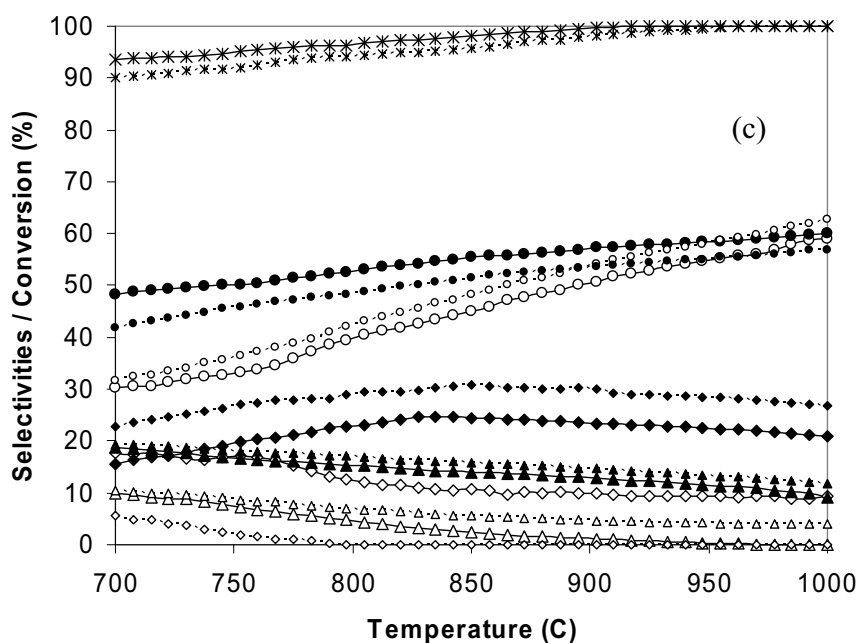
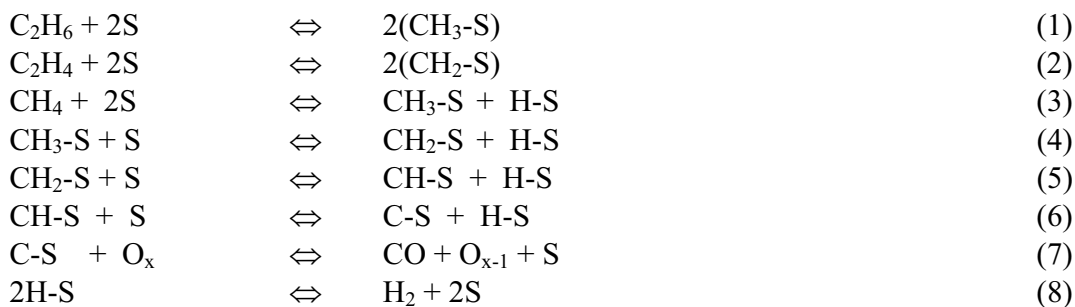


Figure 4 Effect of temperature on the conversion and product selectivities (EtOH (\times), H_2 (\bullet), CO (\circ), CO_2 (\diamond), CH_4 (\blacklozenge), C_2H_6 (\triangle), and C_2H_4 (\blacktriangle)) from ethanol steam reforming over Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (a), Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (b), and Ni/Al₂O₃ (c) with inlet EtOH/H₂O ratios of 1/3 (large symbols with solid lines) and 1/2 (small symbols with dot lines).

It can be concluded that Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) was found in this study to be a promising catalyst for the steam reforming of ethanol. This catalyst provided excellent resistance toward carbon deposition compared to conventional Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) and Ni/Al₂O₃. At the temperature higher than 800°C, the main products from the reforming of ethanol over Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) were H_2 , CO, CO_2 , and small amount of CH_4 ; neither C_2H_4 nor C_2H_6 was observed from the system over this catalyst. In contrast, the steam reforming of ethanol over Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) and Ni/Al₂O₃ formed significant amounts of C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 , in addition, high amount of carbon deposition was also observed over these catalysts. The high resistance toward carbon deposition for CeO₂ especially high surface area CeO₂ was reported in our previous publications and is mainly due to the high oxygen storage capacity (OSC) of this material. CeO₂ contains a high concentration of highly mobile oxygen vacancies and thus acts as a local source or sink for oxygen on its surface. It has been reported that at high temperature the lattice oxygen (O_x) at the CeO₂ surface can oxidize gaseous hydrocarbons (methane, ethane, and propane). Although conventional CeO₂ (CeO₂ (LSA)) has also been reported to provide high resistance toward carbon formation, the major weaknesses of CeO₂ (LSA) are its low specific surface area and also high size reduction due to the thermal sintering impact, resulting in its significant lower redox properties than CeO₂ (HSA), and its lower Ni dispersion percentage on the surface compared to Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) and Ni/Al₂O₃. These disadvantages result in the low ethanol steam reforming reactivity for Ni/CeO₂ (LSA). By using Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) as the catalyst, in addition to the reaction on Ni surface, ethane and ethylene formations and the possible carbon depositions from these hydrocarbons could be inhibited by the gas-solid reactions between these hydrocarbons and the lattice oxygen (O_x) at CeO₂ surface forming hydrogen and carbon dioxide, which are thermodynamically unflavored to form carbon species, as illustrated schematically below.



S is the catalyst surface site and CH_x-S is an intermediate surface hydrocarbon species. During the steam reforming, the lattice oxygen is regenerated by reaction with oxygen containing compounds (steam) present in the system.

Conclusion

Ni on high surface area CeO_2 support (Ni/ CeO_2 (HSA)) provides excellent reactivity toward the steam and autothermal reforming of ethanol with high resistance toward carbon deposition and better product selectivities compared to Ni/ Al_2O_3 and Ni on conventional low surface area ceria (Ni/ CeO_2 (LSA)). The main products from these reforming processes over Ni/ CeO_2 (HSA) were H_2 , CO, and CO_2 with small amount of CH_4 , whereas the formations of C_2H_4 and C_2H_6 were also observed together with the above gas components from the reactions over Ni/ CeO_2 (LSA) and Ni/ Al_2O_3 in the range of conditions studied. The great benefits of Ni/ CeO_2 (HSA) in terms of stability and reactivity toward ethanol reforming, high resistance toward carbon deposition, and good product selectivities are due to the high redox property of CeO_2 (HSA).

Acknowledgments

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Effect of high surface area CeO₂ and Ce-ZrO₂ supports over Ni catalyst on CH₄ reforming with H₂O in the presence of O₂, H₂, and CO₂

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Abstract

Methane steam reforming over Ni on high surface area (HSA) CeO₂ and Ce-ZrO₂ supports, synthesized by surfactant-assisted method, was studied and compared to conventional Ni/CeO₂, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂, and Ni/Al₂O₃. It was firstly observed that Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) with the Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 showed the best performance in terms of activity and stability. This catalyst presented considerably better resistance toward carbon formation than conventional Ni/CeO₂, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂, and Ni/Al₂O₃; and the minimum inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio requirement to operate without the detectable of carbon are significantly lower. These benefits are related to the high oxygen storage capacity (OSC) of high surface area Ce-ZrO₂ support. During the reforming process, in addition to the reactions on Ni surface, the redox reactions between the absorbed CH₄ and the lattice oxygen (O_x) on CeO₂ and Ce-ZrO₂ surface also take place, which effectively prevent the formation of carbon on the surface of Ni.

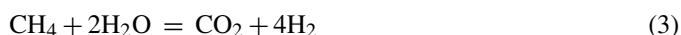
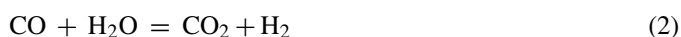
The effects of possible inlet co-reactant, i.e. H₂O, H₂, CO₂, and O₂ on the conversion of CH₄ were also studied. It was found that H₂ presented positive effect on the CH₄ conversion when small amount of H₂ was introduced; nevertheless, this positive effect became less pronounced and eventually inhibited the conversion of CH₄ at high inlet H₂ concentration particularly for Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA). The dependence of H₂O on the rate was non-monotonic due to the competition of the active sites, as have also been presented by Xu [1], Xu and Froment [2,3], Elnashaie et al. [4] and Elnashaie and Elshishini [5]. Addition of CO₂ inhibited the reforming rate, whereas addition of O₂ promoted the CH₄ conversion but reduced both CO and H₂ productions.

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Keywords: Methane steam reforming; Carbon formation; CeO₂; Ce-ZrO₂

1. Introduction

Methane steam reforming is a widely practiced technology to produce hydrogen or synthesis gas for utilization in chemical processes and solid oxide fuel cells (SOFCs). Three main reactions take place as in the following equations.



Both the water-gas shift reaction (Eq. (2)) and reverse methanation (Eq. (3)) are always associated with catalytic steam

reforming at elevated temperatures. Due to their overall high endothermic nature, these reactions are carried out at high-temperature (700–900 °C) to achieve high conversions.

Commercial catalysts for the methane steam reforming reaction are nickel on supports, such as Al₂O₃, MgO, MgAl₂O₄ or their mixtures. Selection of a support material is an important issue as it has been evident that metal catalysts are not very active for the steam reforming when supported on inert oxides [6]. Various support materials have been tested, for example, α-Al₂O₃ [7], γ-Al₂O₃ and γ-Al₂O₃ with alkali metal oxide and rare earth metal oxide [8], CaAl₂O₄ [9] and Ce-ZrO₂ [10]. A promising catalyst system for the reforming reactions appears to be a metal on Ce-ZrO₂ support, where the metal can be Ni, Pt or Pd [11–19]. Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ has also been successfully applied to partial oxidation and autothermal reforming of methane [20].

It is well-established that cerium oxide (CeO₂) and ceria-zirconia (Ce-ZrO₂) are useful in a wide variety of applications

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involving oxidation or partial oxidation of hydrocarbons (e.g. automotive catalysis) and as components of anodes for SOFCs. This material has high oxygen storage capacity, which is beneficial in oxidation processes and carbon combustion. The excellent resistance toward carbon formation from methane cracking reaction over CeO_2 compared to commercial $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was also reported recently [21]. The addition of zirconium oxide (ZrO_2) to cerium oxide (CeO_2) has been found to improve the oxygen storage capacity, redox property, thermal stability, and catalytic activity [22–31]. Nevertheless, the major limitations for applying CeO_2 and to a lesser extent Ce-ZrO_2 in high-temperature steam reforming are their low specific surface and surface area reduction due to sintering [21]. Therefore, the use of high surface area (HSA) ceria-based materials as the catalyst support would be a good alternative to improve the methane steam reforming performance. Several methods have been described recently for the preparation of high surface area (HSA) CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 solid solutions. Most interest is focused on the preparation of transition-metal oxides using templating pathways [32–34]. However, only a few of these composites showed a regular pore structure after calcination [35–37]. A surfactant-assisted approach was employed to prepare high surface area CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 with improved textural, structural and chemical properties for environmental applications [38]. They were prepared by reacting a cationic surfactant with a hydrous mixed oxide produced by co-precipitation under basic conditions. By this preparation procedure, materials with good homogeneity and stability especially after thermal treatments were achieved.

In the present work, high surface area (HSA) CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 were synthesized by the surfactant-assisted approach. Ni was selected as a metal catalyst and impregnated on these high surface area CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 . It should be noted that, for $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$, different ratios of Ce/Zr were firstly investigated to determine a suitable composition ratio. The stability and activity of Ni on high surface area CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 were then studied and compared to Ni on low surface area CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 , and also conventional $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$. Furthermore, the resistance toward carbon formation and the influences of possible inlet co-reactant, i.e. H_2 , H_2O , CO_2 , and O_2 (as oxidative steam reforming) on the methane steam reforming over these catalysts were determined by adding and varying the partial pressures of these components at the inlet feed, as these are important issues in the industrial applications.

2. Experimental

2.1. Material preparation and characterization

Conventional Ce-ZrO_2 supports (Ce-ZrO_2 (LSA)) with different Ce/Zr molar ratios were prepared by co-precipitation of cerium chloride ($\text{CeCl}_3 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$), and zirconium oxychloride ($\text{ZrOCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$) from Aldrich. The starting solution was prepared by mixing 0.1 M of metal salt solutions with 0.4 M of ammonia at a 2 to 1 volumetric ratio. This solution was stirred by magnetic stirring (100 rpm) for 3 h, then sealed and placed in a thermostatic bath maintained at 90°C . The ratio between each metal salt was altered to achieve nominal Ce/Zr molar ratios of 1/3, 1/1 and 3/1. The precipitate was filtered and washed with deionised water and acetone to remove the free surfactant. It was dried overnight in an oven at 110°C , and then calcined in air at 1000°C for 6 h.

High surface area (HSA) Ce-ZrO_2 supports were prepared by the surfactant-assisted method [38]. An aqueous solution of an appropriate cationic surfactant and 0.1 M cetyltrimethylammonium bromide solution from Aldrich were added to an 0.1 M aqueous solution containing $\text{CeCl}_3 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{ZrOCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in a desired molar ratio. The molar ratio of $([\text{Ce}] + [\text{Zr}])/[\text{cetyltrimethylammonium bromide}]$ was kept constant at 0.8. The mixture was stirred and then aqueous ammonia was slowly added with vigorous stirring. The mixture was continually stirred for 3 h, then sealed and placed in the thermostatic bath maintained at 90°C . After that, the mixture was cooled and the resulting precipitate was filtered and washed repeatedly with water and acetone. The filtered powder was dried in the oven at 110°C for 1 day and then calcined in air at 1000°C for 6 h. Similarly, CeO_2 (LSA and HSA) were prepared using the same procedures as Ce-ZrO_2 , but without the addition of $\text{ZrOCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$, Ni/CeO_2 and $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ with 5 wt.% Ni were prepared by impregnating the respective supports with NiCl_3 solution at room temperature. These solutions were stirred by magnetic stirring (100 rpm) for 6 h. The solution was dried overnight in the oven at 110°C , calcined in air at 1000°C and reduced with 10% H_2 for 6 h. The BET measurements of all synthesized Ni/CeO_2 and $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ were then carried out in order to determine the specific surface area. These values as well as the observed pore volume and pore size of the catalysts are presented in Table 1. It can be seen that the introduction of

Table 1
Specific surface areas, pore volume, and pore size of catalysts after treatments

Catalysts	Surface area after calcination ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$)	Pore volume ($\text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1}$)	Pore size (\AA)
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 1/3$)	45	0.15	63.71
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 1/1$)	44	0.14	63.90
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 3/1$)	41.5	0.14	63.15
Ni/CeO_2 (HSA)	24	0.13	63.02
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (LSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 1/3$)	20	0.13	63.67
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (LSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 1/1$)	18	0.11	61.19
$\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (LSA) ($\text{Ce}/\text{Zr} = 3/1$)	19	0.11	62.42
Ni/CeO_2 (LSA)	8.5	0.08	61.20

Table 2
Physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts

Catalyst	Metal-load (wt.%)	Metal-reducibility (%)	Ni-dispersion (%)
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	4.9	91.8	9.67
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	4.9	91.0	8.82
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	5.0	92.6	8.95
Ni/CeO ₂ (HSA)	5.0	92.2	6.41
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	4.8	90.8	4.69
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	4.9	91.6	4.73
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	4.9	92.1	4.68
Ni/CeO ₂ (LSA)	5.0	91.3	3.12
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	5.0	94.5	4.85

ZrO₂ stabilizes the surface area of catalyst, which is in good agreement with the results obtained on catalysts prepared by conventional routes [21]. It should be noted that the catalysts were also characterized with several physicochemical methods after reduction. The weight content of Ni in Ni/Al₂O₃, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (with different Ce/Zr ratio), and Ni/CeO₂ were determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis. The reducibility and dispersion percentages of nickel were measured from temperature programmed reduction (TPR) with 5% H₂ in Ar and temperature programmed desorption (TPD), respectively. All physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts are presented in Table 2.

2.2. Experimental set-up

Fig. 1 shows the schematic diagram of the experimental reactor system. It consists of three main sections: feed, reaction, and analysis sections. The main obligation of the feed section is to supply the components of interest, such as CH₄, H₂O, H₂, or O₂ to the reaction section, where an 8 mm internal diameter and 40 cm length quartz reactor was mounted vertically inside a furnace. The catalyst (with the weight of 50 mg) was loaded in the quartz reactor, which was packed with a small amount of quartz wool to prevent the catalyst from moving. Preliminary experiments were carried out to find suitable conditions in which internal and external mass transfer effects are not predominant. Considering the effect of external mass transfer, the total flow rate was kept constant at 100 cm³ min⁻¹ at a constant residence time of 5×10^{-4} g min cm⁻³ in all testing. The suitable average sizes of catalysts were also verified in order to confirm that the experiments were carried out within the region of intrinsic kinetics. In our system, a Type-K thermocouple was placed into the annular space between the reactor and furnace. This thermocouple was mounted in close contact with the catalyst bed to minimize the temperature difference. Another Type-K thermocouple, covering by closed-end quartz tube, was inserted in the middle of the quartz reactor in order to re-check the possible temperature gradient.

After the reactions, the exit gas was transferred via trace-heated lines to the analysis section, which consists of a Porapak Q column Shimadzu 14B gas chromatography (GC) and a mass spectrometer (MS). The gas chromatography was applied in order to investigate the steady state condition experiments,

whereas the mass spectrometer was used for the transient carbon formation and water-gas shift reaction experiments.

2.3. Temperature programmed techniques (TP)

In the present work, temperature programmed technique (TP) was applied for studying carbon formation and water-gas shift reaction experiments. Temperature programmed methane adsorption (TPMA) was done in order to investigate the reaction of methane with the surface of catalyst. Five percent CH₄ in He with the total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹ was introduced into the system, while the operating temperature increased from room temperature to 900 °C by the rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. Then, the system was cooled down to the room temperature under helium flow. After the TPMA experiment, the carbon deposited on the catalyst was investigated by the temperature programmed oxidation (TPO). Ten percent O₂ in He with the total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹ was introduced into the system, after a He purge. Similar to TPMA, the temperature was increased from room temperature to 900 °C. The amount of carbon formation on the surface of each catalyst was then determined by measuring the CO and CO₂ yield obtained from the TPO result.

The temperature programmed reaction (TPR_x) of CO/H₂O/He gas mixture was also carried out in order to investigate the water-gas shift reaction. The mixture of 5%CO and 10%H₂O in He was introduced into the system during heating up period by the rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ before reaching the isothermal condition at 900 °C.

3. Results

3.1. Selection of suitable Ce/Zr ratio for Ni/Ce-ZrO₂

Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ catalysts with different Ce/Zr ratios (1/3, 1/1, and 3/1) were firstly tested in methane steam reforming conditions at 900 °C for both HSA and LSA materials in order to select the most suitable ratio of Ce/Zr for the main studies. The results shown in Fig. 2 revealed that at steady state, the Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 shows the best performance in terms of stability and activity for both high and low surface areas. Consequently, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 was selected for further investigations.

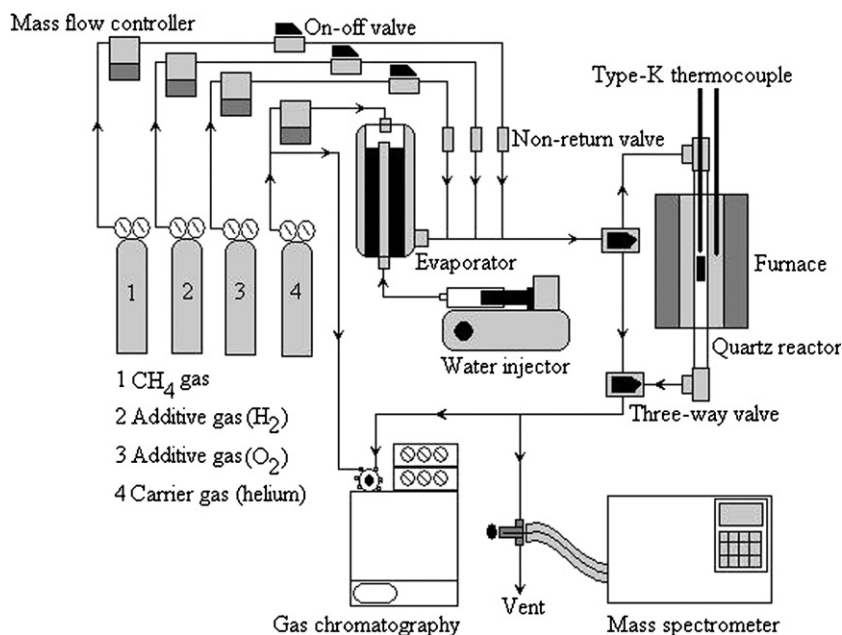


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the experimental set-up.

3.2. Stability and activity toward methane steam reforming

The reactivity of methane steam reforming over Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1, Ni/Al₂O₃, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) were then tested. The inlet components were CH₄/H₂O/H₂ in helium with the inlet ratio of 1.0/3.0/0.2 (with the inlet CH₄ partial pressure of 4 kPa). The main products from the reactions over these catalysts were H₂ and CO with some CO₂, indicating a contribution from the water-gas shift, and the reverse methanation at this high-temperature. The steam reforming rate was measured as a function of time in order to indicate the stability and the deactivation rate. The variations in CH₄ conversion with time for different catalysts are shown in Fig. 3. At steady state, Ni/CeO₂

(HSA) and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) presented much higher reactivity toward the methane steam reforming than Ni/Al₂O₃, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA). As seen from the figure, the steam reforming activities of Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) and Ni/Al₂O₃ significantly declined with time before reaching a new steady state rate at a much lower value, while the activity of Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA), and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) declined slightly. Catalyst stabilities expressed as a deactivation percentage are given in Table 3. In order to investigate the reason of the catalyst deactivation, the post-reaction temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) experiments were then carried out. TPO experiments detected small amount of carbon formation on the surface of Ni over ceria-based supports, whereas significant amount of carbon deposited was observed from the TPO over Ni/Al₂O₃ (1.31 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹). According to these TPO results, the deacti-

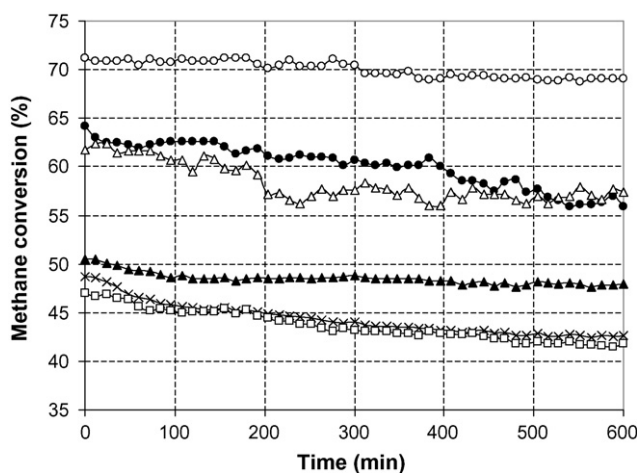


Fig. 2. Steam reforming of methane at 900 °C for Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ with different Ce/Zr ratios using the inlet CH₄/H₂O/H₂ ratio of 1.0/3.0/0.2 (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) Ce/Zr=3/1 (○), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) Ce/Zr=1/1 (●), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) Ce/Zr=1/3 (Δ), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) Ce/Zr=3/1 (▲), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) Ce/Zr=1/1 (×), and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) Ce/Zr=1/3 (□)).

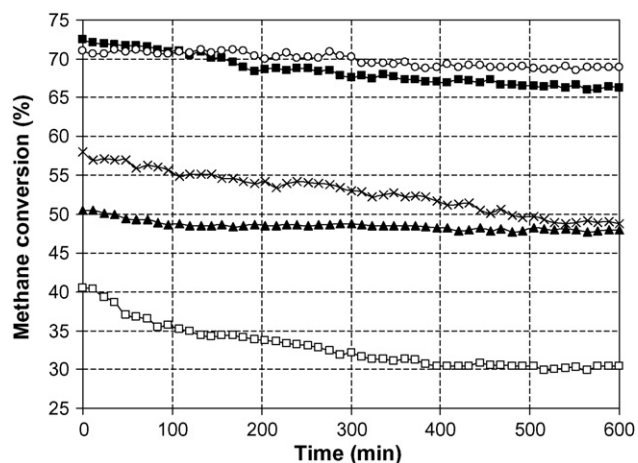


Fig. 3. Steam reforming of methane at 900 °C for different catalysts using the inlet CH₄/H₂O/H₂ ratio of 1.0/3.0/0.2 (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (○), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (■), Ni/Al₂O₃ (×), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (▲), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (□)).

Table 3

Physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts after running the reaction at 900 °C for 10 h

Catalyst	Deactivation (%)	Surface area after reaction (m ² g ⁻¹)	C. formation ^a (mmol g _{cat} ⁻¹)	Ni-dispersion (%)
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	7.0	42	0.08	9.62
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	12	40	0.11	8.71
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	3.0	40	~0	8.75
Ni/CeO ₂ (HSA)	8.7	22	~0	6.33
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	11	18	0.21	4.52
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	12	15	0.19	4.61
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	5.1	18	~0	4.62
Ni/CeO ₂ (LSA)	24	6.2	0.14	3.06
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	16	40	1.31	4.81

^a Measured from temperature programmed oxidation (TPO).

vation of Ni/Al₂O₃ during the methane steam reforming was mainly related to the carbon formation. In contrast, the deactivations of Ni/CeO₂ and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ were not caused by the carbon formation; the BET measurement (Table 3) suggested that the deactivations of Ni/CeO₂ and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂, particularly for the low surface area supports, could be due to reduction of surface area. The lower magnitude of the reduction for Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) than for the LSA materials indicates a higher thermal stability for CeO₂ (HSA) and Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA). It should be noted from the BET and TPO studies that although Ni/Al₂O₃ was thermally stable at high operating temperature, it was more susceptible to carbon formation which led to the catalyst deactivation.

3.3. Resistance toward carbon formation

More investigations on the resistance toward the formation of carbon species for all catalysts were investigated by Temperature programmed techniques, i.e. TPMA and TPO. In order to provide the best conditions for testing and obtain the actual resistance toward carbon formation, the influences of exposure time and methane concentration on the amount of carbon formation were firstly determined. Five percent CH₄ in He was fed to the catalyst bed at the isothermal condition (900 °C) for several exposure times (15, 30, 60, 90, 120, 150, and 180 min). The profiles of carbon formation over different catalysts with several exposure times are shown in Fig. 4. Clearly, the quantity of carbon formed on the catalyst surface increased with increasing CH₄ exposure time, and reached its maximum value after 120 min for all catalysts. The influence of inlet CH₄ concentration on the amount of carbon formation was then investigated by introducing different inlet methane partial pressures (2.0–10.0 kPa) with the constant exposure time of 120 min. The amount of carbon deposition seemed to be independent of the inlet methane partial pressure at the same operating conditions. It should be noted that although the rate of carbon formation reaction (CH₄ → C + H₂) should vary with the methane partial pressure, the reaction time of 120 min may be sufficiently long enough to achieve its maximum carbon formation on the surface of each catalyst and, therefore, the influence of methane partial pressure on coke deactivation was not obviously observed. Therefore, in all experiments, TPMA was carried out by introducing 5% CH₄ in He for 120 min before investigating the degree

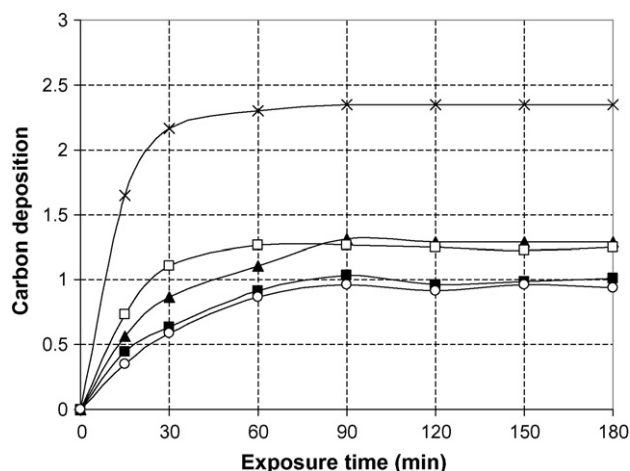


Fig. 4. Influence of exposure time on the amount of carbon formation (mmol g_{cat}⁻¹) for different catalysts at 900 °C (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (○), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (■), Ni/Al₂O₃ (×), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (▲), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (□)).

of carbon formation by TPO. Fig. 5 presents the TPMA results for Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA), and Ni/Al₂O₃, while Fig. 6 presents the TPO results for those catalysts.

As seen in Fig. 5, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide were also produced together with hydrogen for Ni catalysts on ceria-

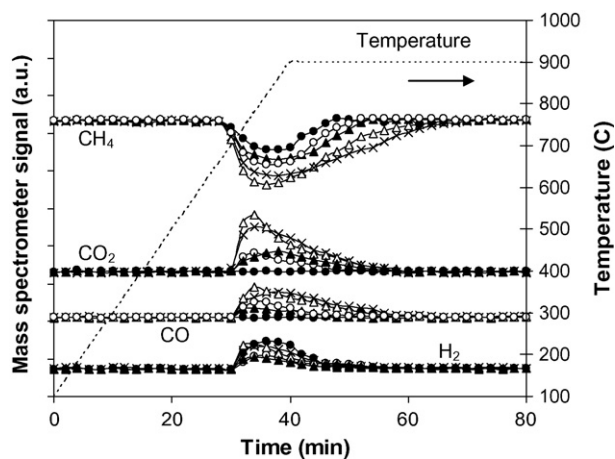


Fig. 5. TPMA over (Δ) Ni/CeO₂-ZrO₂ (HSA), (×) Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), (○) Ni/CeO₂-ZrO₂ (LSA), (▲) Ni/CeO₂ (LSA), and (●) Ni/Al₂O₃.

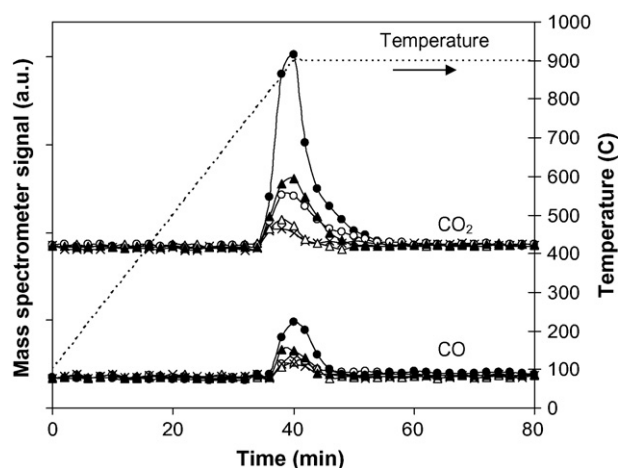
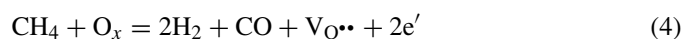


Fig. 6. Temperature programmed oxidation over (Δ) Ni/CeO₂-ZrO₂ (HSA), (\times) Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), (\circ) Ni/CeO₂-ZrO₂ (LSA), (\blacktriangle) Ni/CeO₂ (LSA), and (\bullet) Ni/Al₂O₃ following TPMA to 900 °C.

based supports, whereas only hydrogen peak was detected for TPMA over Ni/Al₂O₃. The CO and CO₂ formations from TPMA of Ni catalysts on ceria-based supports comes from the gas–solid reaction of CH₄ with the lattice oxygen (O_x) on ceria surface (Eq. (4)):



V_O^{••} denotes an oxygen vacancy with an effective charge 2⁺, e' is an electron which can either be more or less localized on a cerium ion or delocalized in a conduction band. The quantities of carbon deposited (mmol g_{cat}⁻¹) on the surface of each catalyst, which could be calculated by measuring the CO and CO₂ yields, are presented in Table 4. Clearly, Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) provided higher resistance toward carbon formation than Ni/Al₂O₃, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA).

The influence of adding H₂O along with CH₄ at the feed on the amount of carbon formation was studied by varying the inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio from 0.0/0.05 to 0.15/0.05. As seen in Table 4, it was observed that the carbon deposition over nickel catalyst on ceria-based supports rapidly decreased with increasing inlet steam partial pressure. Nickel catalyst on low surface area (LSA) Ce-ZrO₂ required inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio of 3.0 in order to prevent the formation of carbon species on catalyst surface, while nickel catalyst on high surface area (HSA) Ce-ZrO₂ required inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio as low as 1.0. It should be noted that Ni/Al₂O₃ required much higher H₂O/CH₄ ratio to reduce the carbon formation, and the carbon species remains detectable on the surface of Ni/Al₂O₃ even the inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio is higher than 3.0.

3.4. Effect of inlet co-reactant compositions

The influences of possible co-reactant compositions, i.e. H₂, H₂O, CO₂, and O₂ on the conversion of CH₄ over these Ni catalysts were investigated. First, various inlet H₂ partial pressures were added along with CH₄ and H₂O to the feed in order to investigate the influence of this component on the CH₄ conversion. The inlet CH₄ and H₂O partial pressures were kept constant at 4.0 and 12.0 kPa, respectively. As shown in Fig. 7, with the

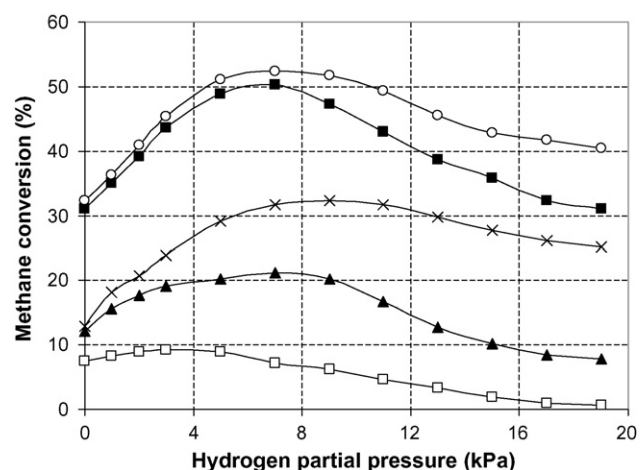


Fig. 7. Effect of hydrogen partial pressure on steam reforming rate over different catalysts at 800 °C (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (\circ), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (\blacksquare), Ni/Al₂O₃ (\times), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (\blacktriangle), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (\square)).

presence of low H₂ partial pressure (0–5 kPa), H₂ presented positive effect on the CH₄ conversion. Without inlet hydrogen, the CH₄ conversions for all catalysts were apparently low, suggesting that some hydrogen must be fed together with methane and steam to obtain significant reforming rate. Similar result was earlier reported over Ni/ZrO₂ [1]. Table 5 gives the reaction orders in H₂ for all catalysts in this range of H₂ partial pressure. Compared to Ni/Al₂O₃, the reaction orders in hydrogen for Ni catalyst on ceria-based supports, especially on high surface area (HSA) supports were significantly lower. The CH₄ conversion at higher inlet H₂ partial pressures (>5 kPa) was also measured. When the inlet hydrogen partial pressure was greater than 8–10 kPa, a strong reduction in rate was observed for all catalysts, Fig. 7, as expected.

Fig. 8 shows the effect of steam on the CH₄ conversion. It was found that the conversion increased with increasing inlet H₂O partial pressure at low values but H₂O then presented a negative effect on the reforming rate at higher inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio. It should be noted that the steam requirement for Ni/CeO₂

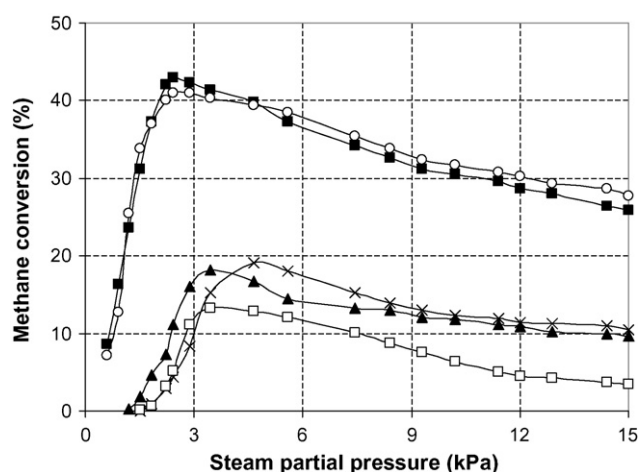


Fig. 8. Effect of steam partial pressure on steam reforming rate over different catalysts at 800 °C (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (\circ), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (\blacksquare), Ni/Al₂O₃ (\times), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (\blacktriangle), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (\square)).

Table 4
Dependence of inlet H₂O/CH₄ ratio on the amount of carbon formation on the catalyst surface (900 °C)

Catalysts	Amount of carbon formation at various H ₂ O/CH ₄ ratios (mmol g _{cat} ^{−1})							
	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0	2.0	3.0
Ni/CeO ₂ (HSA)	0.90	0.73	0.59	0.26	0.14	0.09	~0	~0
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA)	1.04	0.85	0.54	0.21	0.07	~0	~0	~0
Ni/CeO ₂ (LSA)	1.26	1.24	1.09	0.73	0.50	0.34	0.23	0.14
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA)	1.30	1.18	0.79	0.56	0.32	0.18	0.09	~0
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	2.37	2.37	2.25	2.16	2.06	1.99	1.49	1.35

Table 5
Reaction orders in hydrogen from the methane steam reforming reaction at low hydrogen partial pressure (4 kPa CH₄, 12 kPa H₂O, and up to 5 kPa H₂)

Catalysts	Reaction order in hydrogen at different temperatures				
	650 °C	700 °C	750 °C	800 °C	850 °C
Ni/CeO ₂ (HSA)	0.16	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.17
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA)	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.16	0.17
Ni/CeO ₂ (LSA)	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.17
Ni/Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA)	0.18	0.19	0.18	0.20	0.18
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	0.34	0.31	0.28	0.30	0.29

(HSA) and Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) to achieve the maximum reforming reactivity were lower than the others.

The methane steam reforming in the presence of CO₂ was then investigated by adding different inlet CO₂ partial pressures (1–5 kPa) to the feed gas. Fig. 9 presents the effect of CO₂ on the reforming rate for each catalyst by plotting the relationship between $\ln(\text{Rate}_{\text{with CO}_2} / \text{Rate}_{\text{without CO}_2})$ and $\ln(P_{\text{CO}_2})$. As seen from this figure, CO₂ presented a negative effect on the CH₄ conversion for all catalysts; however, in contrast to the influence of H₂, the weaker inhibition effect by CO₂ was observed for Ni on ceria-based supports. According to the reaction order in CO₂ calculation, the reaction order in CO₂ for Ni/Al₂O₃ was approximately −0.12, whereas those over Ni on ceria-based supports were around −0.06 to −0.03, which clearly indicated the weaker inhibitory effect of CO₂ for Ni on ceria-based supports.

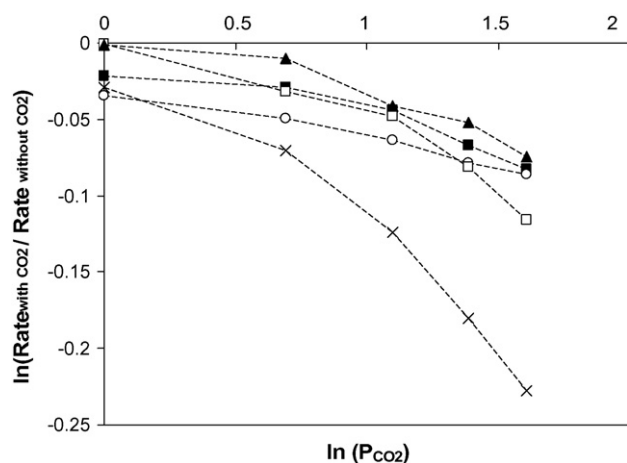


Fig. 9. Effect of carbon dioxide partial pressure on steam reforming rate over different catalysts at 800 °C (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (○), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (■), Ni/Al₂O₃ (×), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (▲), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (□)).

Finally, the methane steam reforming in the presence of O₂ (as autothermal reforming) was then carried out by adding different O₂ partial pressures (1–4 kPa) into the feed gas at several operating temperatures. The rate increased with increasing the inlet oxygen partial pressure for all catalysts as shown in Fig. 10. However, H₂ and CO/(CO + CO₂) production selectivity were found to decrease with increasing O₂ concentration as shown in Fig. 11 for Ni/Al₂O₃, Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) and Fig. 12 for Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) and Ni/CeO₂ (HSA), respectively. It should be noted that, at the same operating conditions, the CO/(CO + CO₂) production selectivity for Ni/Al₂O₃ was observed to be higher than that over Ni on ceria-based supports. The difference in this production selectivity is due to the reactivity toward the water-gas shift reaction of each support. The water-gas shift reaction (WGS) activities of each support was also carried out in the present work to ensure the influence of this reaction on the CO/(CO + CO₂) selectivity. Fig. 13 shows the activities of all supports toward this reaction at several tem-

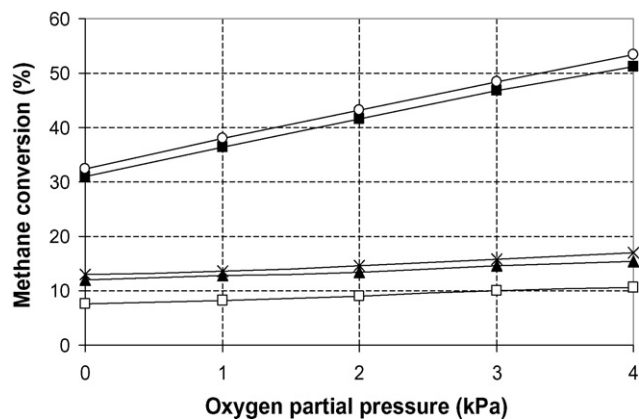


Fig. 10. Effect of oxygen partial pressure on steam reforming rate over different catalysts at 800 °C (Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (○), Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (■), Ni/Al₂O₃ (×), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (▲), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (□)).

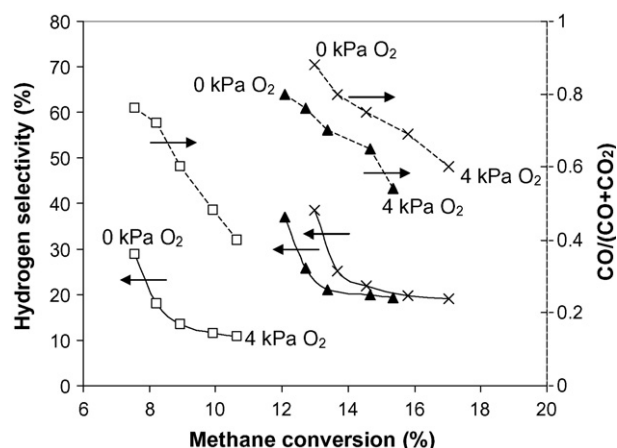


Fig. 11. Effect of oxygen partial pressure on the H₂ selectivity (solid lines) and CO/(CO + CO₂) (dot lines) at isoconversion from steam reforming over Ni/Al₂O₃ (x), Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (LSA) (▲), and Ni/CeO₂ (LSA) (□) at 800 °C.

peratures. Among the supports, the activity toward this reaction over CeO₂ (HSA) was the highest.

4. Discussion

Improvements of stability and activity toward methane steam reforming were achieved for Ni on high surface area (HSA) ceria-based supports. The high stability is due to the lower sintering rate compared to Ni on low surface area (LSA) ceria-based supports and the higher resistance toward carbon deposition compared to Ni/Al₂O₃, while the high reforming activity is possibly due to the improvement of Ni-dispersion on the high surface area support (Table 2), and also the strong gas–solid redox reaction between methane and the high surface area (HSA) ceria-based supports. It has been reported that the solid–gas reaction between CeO₂ and CH₄ produces synthesis gas with a H₂/CO ratio of two (Eq. (4)), while the reduced ceria can react with CO₂ and H₂O to recover CeO₂ and also produce CO and H₂ (Eqs. (5) and (6)) [39–41]. Importantly, we reported in our previous work that these redox reactions (Eqs. (4)–(6))

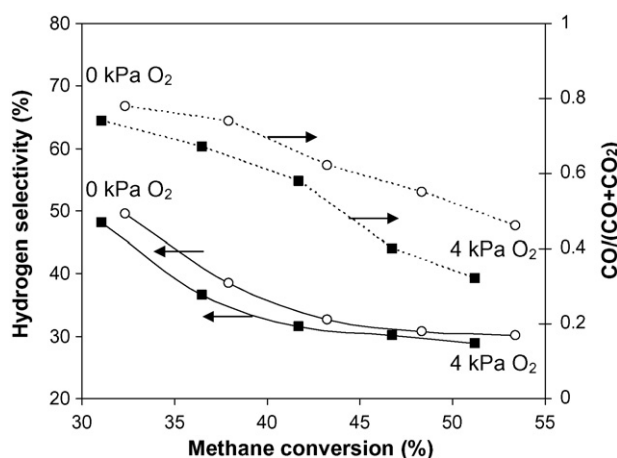


Fig. 12. Effect of oxygen partial pressure on the H₂ selectivity (solid lines) and CO/(CO + CO₂) (dot lines) at isoconversion from steam reforming over Ni/Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (○), and Ni/CeO₂ (HSA) (■) at 800 °C.

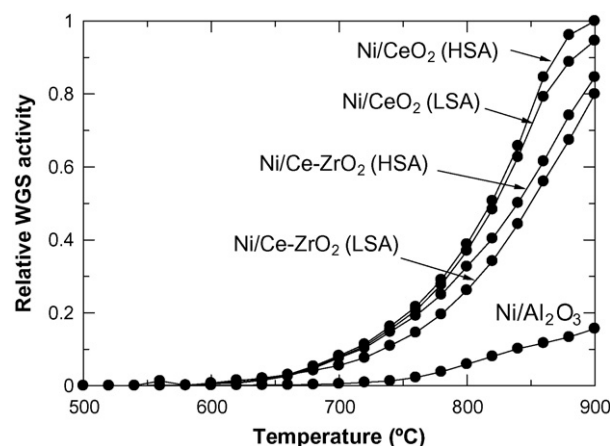
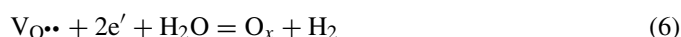


Fig. 13. The activities of each catalyst toward the water-gas shift reaction.

increase with increasing the specific active surface area of CeO₂ [42].



The addition of suitable ratio of ZrO₂ over ceria, as Ce-ZrO₂, has also been widely reported to improve the oxygen storage capacity, and the redox reactivity of material [22–31]. These benefits were associated with enhanced reducibility of cerium (IV) in Ce-ZrO₂, which is a consequence of high O²⁻ mobility inside the fluorite lattice. The reason for the increasing mobility might be related to the lattice strain, which is generated by the introduction of a smaller isovalent Zr cation into the CeO₂ lattice (Zr⁴⁺ has a crystal ionic radius of 0.84 Å, which is smaller than 0.97 Å for Ce⁴⁺ in the same co-ordination environment).

The high resistance toward carbon deposition, which was observed from the catalyst over high surface area ceria-based supports, is also related to the facile redox reaction. During the steam reforming of methane, the following reactions are theoretically the most probable reactions that could lead to surface carbon formation:



Reactions (9)–(10) are favorable at low-temperatures, whereas the Boudouard reaction (Eq. (7)) and the decomposition of methane (Eq. (8)) are the major pathways for carbon formation at high-temperatures as they show the largest change in Gibbs energy. According to the range of temperature in this study, carbon formation would be formed via the decomposition of methane and Boudouard reactions. By applying ceria-based supports, the formation of carbon species via both reactions could be inhibited by the redox reactions with the lattice oxygen (O_x) forming H₂ and CO₂, which is thermodynamically unfavored to form carbon species in this range of conditions.

Therefore, significant lower amount of carbon deposition were consequently observed even at low inlet $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{CH}_4$ ratio.

The experiments on the effect of co-reactants yielded non-linear positive hydrogen trend. The positive effect at the low hydrogen appearance could be due to the reduction of oxidized state on the surface active site of nickel, while the inhibitory effect at high hydrogen partial pressure is due to the reverse methane steam reforming methanation, and the reverse water-gas shift reactions [1–3]. In addition, the presence of hydrogen atom on some active sites of nickel particle could also lead to the decrease in methane conversion [1–3]. Regarding the observed reaction order in hydrogen, the inhibitory impact for Ni catalysts on ceria-based supports (both HSA and LSA) is stronger than that for $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ due to the redox property of the ceria-based materials. As described earlier, the gas-solid reaction between the ceria-based materials and CH_4 can generate CO and H_2 , while the reduced state can react with steam and CO_2 to produce H_2 and CO, respectively. For $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ and Ni/CeO_2 , although hydrogen prevents the oxidized state of nickel, this component can also reduce ceria via the reverse of Eq. (6) and consequently results in the inhibition of methane conversion via Eq. (4). This explanation is in good agreement with the previous studies [43] which investigated kinetics parameters for the methane steam reforming on ceria-based materials and reported the negative effect of hydrogen on methane conversion over these materials due to the change of Ce^{4+} to Ce^{3+} .

The dependence of H_2O on the CH_4 conversion is non-monotonic due to adsorption competition between CH_4 and H_2O on the catalyst active sites. Previous works [4,5] also reported the same results and explanation. The CH_4 conversion increased with increasing the inlet O_2 partial pressure. However, the $\text{CO}/(\text{CO} + \text{CO}_2)$ production selectivity and H_2 production rates strongly decreased with increasing O_2 partial pressure. This could be due to the combustion of H_2 and CO productions and the inhibition of H_2O adsorption on the catalyst surface active sites by O_2 .

5. Conclusion

High surface area CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 are the good candidates to be used as the support for Ni catalysts for the steam reforming of CH_4 producing H_2 for later utilization in SOFC. The great advantages of Ni on high surface area (HSA) ceria-based supports are the high reforming reactivity, and also the high stability due to their excellent resistance toward carbon formation. Lower inlet $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{CH}_4$ ratio is required for Ni on high surface area (HSA) CeO_2 and Ce-ZrO_2 to prevent the carbon formation.

According to the effect of co-reactants (i.e. H_2O , H_2 , CO_2 , and O_2), the effects of H_2O on the methane steam reforming over Ni/CeO_2 (HSA) and $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) are similar to those for $\text{Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ in terms of reaction orders, whereas a stronger negative effect of H_2 was observed over Ni/CeO_2 (HSA) and $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) as H_2 inhibits the gas-solid reaction between CeO_2 and CH_4 . Additional of CO_2 inhibited the reforming rate, whereas addition of O_2 promoted the CH_4 conversion but reduced both CO and H_2 productions due to the

further combustion and/or the inhibition of H_2O adsorption on the catalyst surface active sites. Lastly, the difference between Ni/CeO_2 (HSA) and $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ (HSA) is the $\text{CO}/(\text{CO} + \text{CO}_2)$ production selectivity. This selectivity for $\text{Ni}/\text{Ce-ZrO}_2$ is higher than that for Ni/CeO_2 due to the high reactivity toward water-gas shift reaction of CeO_2 compared to Ce-ZrO_2 .

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High temperature desulfurization over nano-scale high surface area ceria for application in SOFC

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Abstract—In the present work, suitable absorbent material for high temperature desulfurization was investigated in order to apply internally in solid oxide fuel cells (SOFC). It was found that nano-scale high surface area CeO₂ has useful desulfurization activity and enables efficient removal of H₂S from feed gas between 500 to 850 °C. In this range of temperature, compared to the conventional low surface area CeO₂, 80-85% of H₂S was removed by nano-scale high surface area CeO₂, whereas only 30-32% of H₂S was removed by conventional low surface area CeO₂. According to the XRD studies, the product formed after desulfurization over nano-scale high surface area CeO₂ was Ce₂O₃S. EDS mapping also suggested the uniform distribution of sulfur on the surface of CeO₂. Regeneration experiments were then conducted by temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) experiment. Ce₂O₃S can be recovered to CeO₂ after exposure in the oxidation condition at temperature above 600 °C. It should be noted that SO₂ is the product from this regeneration process. According to the SEM/EDS and XRD measurements, all Ce₂O₃S forming is converted to CeO₂ after oxidative regeneration. As the final step, a deactivation model considering the concentration and temperature dependencies on the desulfurization activity of CeO₂ was applied and the experimental results were fitted in this model for later application in the SOFC model.

Key words: Desulfurization, SOFC, CeO₂, Deactivation Model

INTRODUCTION

Due to the present oil crisis and global warming, numerous efforts have been focused on the use of alternative and renewable energy sources. Biogas is one important energy source due to its closed cycle operation and producibility from biodegradable solid wastes such as cattle dung (diary wastes), piggery wastes, municipal solid wastes, and industrial effluents. Currently, there are numerous attempts to use biogas as a primary fuel for electrical generation by using several energy devices, i.e., internal combustion engines and fuel cells. As biogas always contains high concentration of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) (approximately 1,000-2,000 ppm depending on its source), it cannot be utilized directly to the energy devices. Biogas must be initially purified in order to remove H₂S which easily poisons the process reactor. In addition, the removal of H₂S would also help in preventing odors, safety hazards, and corrosion of the biogas transport equipment.

The appropriate technologies of desulfurization depend on the final applications as well as the operating conditions. Several researchers have studied desulfurization by selective oxidation of H₂S over solid absorbents at low temperature (200-300 °C). Park et al. [1] investigated this reaction over Bi₄V_{2-x}Sb_xO_{11-y} material and reported good H₂S conversion with less than 2% of SO₂ selectivity in the temperature range of 220-260 °C. Lee et al. [2] also studied this desulfurization reaction on zeolite-NaX and zeolite-KX. They

found that Zeolite-KX was superior to the zeolite-NaX in terms of selectivity to elemental sulfur and resistance to deactivation. In detail, elemental sulfur yield over zeolite-NaX was achieved at about 90% at 225 °C for the first 4 hours, but gradually decreased to 55% after 40 hours, whereas the yield of elemental sulfur on zeolite-KX was obtained within the range of 86% at 250 °C after 40 hours.

It should be noted that selective oxidation may not be suitable for high temperature applications such as coal or residual oil gasification, and fuel cell applications, which operate in the temperature range of 400-1,200 °C, due to the large temperature differences in the process. Several high temperature desulfurization techniques are, therefore, desired for use in such applications [3]. Previously, the high temperature removal of hydrogen sulfide from simulated gas was carried out in batch type fluidized-bed reactor by using natural manganese ore consisting of several metal oxides (MnO₂: 51.85%, FeO₃: 3.86%, CaO: 0.11%) [4]. It was found that H₂S removal efficiency increased with increasing temperature but decreased with increasing excess gas velocity. In addition, the breakthrough time for H₂S decreased as the gas velocity increased.

As another example of the high temperature application, fuel cell has drawn a great interest from many researchers as it can generate electricity at high efficiency. Various types of fuel cells are available, in that the solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC) has garnered much attention because of its large electricity production capacity. To establish these highly efficient processes, it is necessary to develop a high temperature treatment process for the various feed stocks, i.e., biogas and natural gas, which consist of a significant amount of H₂S. To date, fuel cell systems rely mainly on batch operation of sorbent

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technology for sulfur removal. Although this technology possesses the necessary removal efficiency, the low capacity associated with the batchwise operation and the potential utilization of high sulfur hydrocarbon feed stocks greatly affect the fuel cell processor footprint, types of sorbent and sorbent maintenance interval [5]. A widely established metal oxide, ZnO, has been used as a high temperature desulfurization sorbent. ZnO has the most favorable thermodynamics for H₂S removal among sorbents that have been investigated. However, despite its attractive thermodynamic properties, the reduction of ZnO and subsequent vaporization of elemental zinc create a serious problem over many cycles of sulfidation/regeneration at high temperatures [6,7]. As a result, alternate absorbents to minimize ZnO problems at high temperature ranges are needed.

Meng et al. [8] and Kay et al. [9] first described the use of cerium oxide (or ceria) sorbents for high-temperature desulfurization. It is well established that ceria and metal oxide (e.g., Gd, Nb, and Zr) doped cerias provide high oxygen storage capacity, which is beneficial in oxidation processes. Several researchers have also reported the benefit of adding or doping this material on the reforming and partial oxidation catalysts in terms of catalyst stability and the resistance toward carbon deposition [10,11]. Focusing on the use of ceria as the sorbent for desulfurization, in laboratory-scaled fixed-bed reactor tests, the H₂S concentration was reduced from 1.2 v% to 3 ppmv at 872 °C and 1 atm by using reduced ceria, CeO_n (n < 2). However, only a few data were reported particularly on the material characterization and the mechanism of desulfurization. Abbasian et al. [12] and Li et al. [13] studied mixed-oxide sorbents containing cerium and copper oxides. Although some evidence of cerium sulfidation was reported, the primary function of the ceria was considered to be for maintaining the active copper in a highly dispersed form. Zeng et al. [14] studied the H₂S removal in presence of hydrogen on CeO₂ sorbent. They reported complete conversion of CeO₂ to CeO₂S during sulfidation in the temperature range of 500–700 °C and regeneration of Ce₂O₃S to CeO₂ by using SO₂. According to phase diagrams, relevant reactions were reported by Kay et al. [9] as:

Sulfidation



Regeneration



It should be noted that the major limitations to apply CeO₂ in the high temperature process are its low specific surface and high surface area reduction percentage due to the high surface sintering. It was observed from our previous work that the surface area reduction of CeO₂ after exposure in the reaction conditions at 900 °C was 23% and 28%, respectively. The corresponding post-reaction specific surface areas were only 1.9 and 8.7 m² g⁻¹, respectively [15]. The use of high surface area CeO₂ would be a good alternative procedure to improve the performance of H₂S removal at high temperature. In this paper, nano-scale high surface area CeO₂ (from nano-Arc Company, US) was used as a sorbent for the desulfurization process. The reactions during sulfidation and oxidative regeneration were investigated. Some analytical techniques were employed to characterize the sorbents at different stages of operation. In addition, the deactivation model considering the concentration depen-

dency of the activity was developed and fitted with the experimental results to determine the kinetic parameters for the later application in SOFC model fueled by conventional fuel: biogas and natural gas. Regarding the selection of the suitable model, it should be noted that the formation of a dense product layer over the solid reactant results in an additional diffusion resistance and is expected to cause a drop in the reaction rate. One would also expect it to cause significant changes in the pore structure, active surface area, and activity per unit area of solid reactant with reaction extent. These changes cause a decrease of the solid reactant activity with time. As reported in the literature, the deactivation model works well for such gas-solid reactions [16]. In this model, the effects of these factors on the diminishing rate of sulfur fixation were combined in a deactivation rate term [17].

EXPERIMENTAL

1. Fixed Bed Reactor Setup

A laboratory-scaled fixed bed quartz reactor of 30 cm height and 0.635 cm internal diameter was installed vertically in an electric furnace with a programmable temperature controller. Nano-scale CeO₂ (from nano-Arc Company, US) was first calcined at 900 °C before packing between two layers of quartz wool. The physical and chemical properties of CeO₂ are provided in Table 1. A type K thermocouple was located externally at the center of the catalyst to monitor the temperature of the reactor. Swagelok fittings and tubing were used to connect the reactor to the gas supply and gas sampling systems. Details of the reactor setup were shown in Fig. 1.

2. Analytical Methods

Pure CeO₂ and spent CeO₂ were characterized by using X-ray diffractometer (XRD) employing Cu 30 kW and 15 mA to determine the sulfur deposition on the sorbent. SEM and EDS analysis was also carried out to investigate the changes in morphology and sulfur distribution by elemental mapping. The conditions used were 40 kV and resolution of 4000.

Table 1. Physical and chemical properties of CeO₂

Surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	42.819
Bulk density	9.102
Pore volume	9.7443 × 10 ⁻²

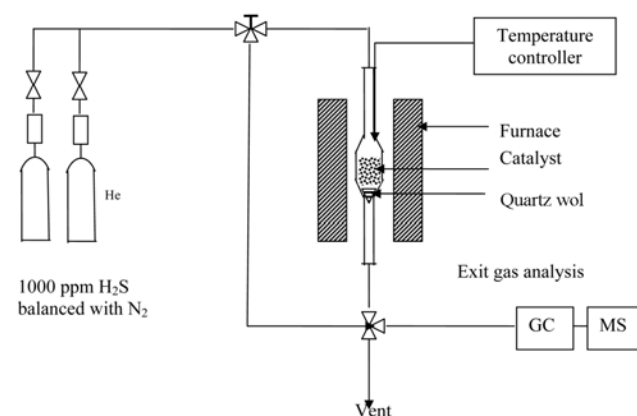


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of experimental setup.

Table 2. Operating conditions of GC

Detector	TCD
Detector temperature (°C)	150
Column	Porapak-Q
Oven temperature (°C)	Linear programming @ 20 °C min ⁻¹
Current (mA)	150

3. Gas Analysis

Gas analysis was carried out by using Shimadzu gas chromatography (GC-14B) equipped with a Porapak-Q column and a TCD detector. The H₂S peak was obtained by using a linear temperature programming in the column oven. The temperature was increased from 40 to 200 °C at a ramp rate of 20 °C min⁻¹. The operating conditions of the GC are summarized in Table 2. It should be noted that the TCD calibration was carried out by mixing pure H₂S and N₂ at various ratios. Mixture of 0.01% (molar) H₂S balanced with nitrogen was used to calibrate the concentration by diluting with helium gas.

4. Procedures for Sulfidation Experiments

The sulfidation experiments were carried out in a fixed bed reactor. The experimental procedures were divided into the study of optimum temperature and the establishment of breakthrough curves for the adsorption of H₂S on CeO₂ sorbent.

Regarding the study of optimum temperature, a set of experiments was carried out to test the desulfurization activity of CeO₂ sorbent at various temperatures: 400, 500, 600, 700, 800 and 850 °C. The amount of CeO₂ was kept at 500 mg, while the total flow rate was 100 cm³ min⁻¹. The temperature was increased linearly at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ until reaching a desired temperature. The reactor was then kept under isothermal condition for 30 min. The exit gases from the reactor were connected to the gas chromatography (GC) equipped with TCD detector to detect the H₂S level after adsorption at each temperature level. The breakthrough curve experiments were then carried out at the suitable temperatures for the desulfurization. The reactor was operated by using a feed gas (100 cm³ min⁻¹) with H₂S concentration of 1,000 ppm. The reactor was heated to a desired temperature at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. The system was operated under isothermal until breakthrough of H₂S appeared at the exit of the bed.

5. Oxidative Regeneration of Sulfided CeO₂ by Temperature Programmed Reaction Study

The characteristics of the regeneration of the sulfided CeO₂ were examined with a temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) apparatus equipped with quadrupole mass spectrometer. In the TPO examination, 10% oxygen balanced in helium or nitrogen was fed into the microreactor in the TPO apparatus at a flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹. A sample of 50 mg was packed into the micro reactor of 1/4" size. The sample was heated to 900 °C at a constant heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. The exit gases were monitored continuously with the mass spectrometer.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Sulfidation Results

First, the effect of temperature on the desulfurization activity of nano-scale CeO₂ sorbent was studied in the range of 400 to 850 °C.

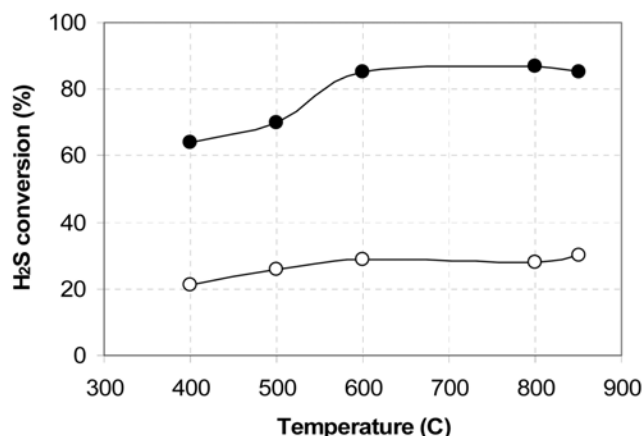


Fig. 2. Conversions of H₂S at different temperatures (nano-scale high surface area CeO₂ (●), and conventional low surface area CeO₂ (○)).

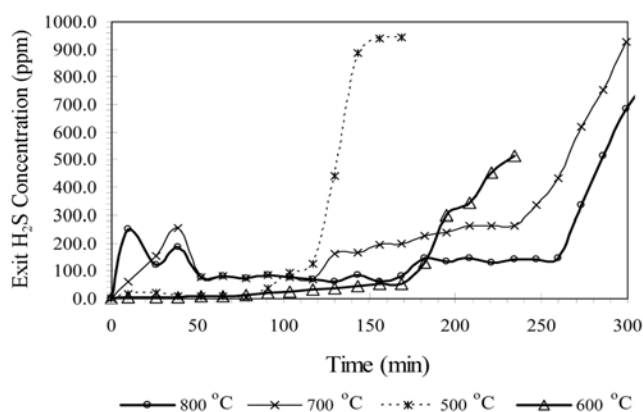


Fig. 3. Sulfidation break through curves of CeO₂.

The conversion of H₂S (X) defined in Eq. (3) was plotted with temperature as shown in Fig. 2. It should be noted that the desulfurization activity of conventional low surface area CeO₂ (synthesized by the precipitation method with the specific surface area of 3.1 m² g⁻¹) was also performed for comparison.

$$X = \frac{\text{Conc}_{\text{Initial}} - \text{Conc}_{\text{Exit}}}{\text{Conc}_{\text{Initial}}} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

It was found that the H₂S conversion from the desulfurization over nano-scale CeO₂ was almost 3 times higher than that over conventional low surface area CeO₂. The conversion increased readily with increasing temperature and then became constant at above 600 °C. The breakthrough results for nano-scale CeO₂, which refers to a predetermined H₂S outlet condition when a certain concentration of H₂S cannot be removed by the catalyst bed [18], at several temperatures are presented in Fig. 3. As seen from the figure, the breakthrough period increased with increasing temperature. It should be noted that a few bumps (higher H₂S concentration regions) appeared in some early part of the pre-breakthrough curves. These early bumps could be associated with incomplete reduction of ceria at the early state. Without pre-reduction, the reduction and sulfidation occurred simultaneously on the surface of ceria, as explained by Zeng et al.

[14]. According to the gas product detected from gas chromatography during the sulfidation testing, small amounts of hydrogen and oxygen were also detected along with steam, which could have been formed by the combustion of hydrogen and oxygen.

2. Regeneration of Sulfided CeO_2

Regeneration of sulfided CeO_2 was conducted by using 10% oxygen as a regeneration agent for two different samples sulfided at 700 and 800 °C. A sample was packed and heated in a micro tube reactor installed in the furnace at a constant heating rate of 10 °C min^{-1} . The amount of O_2 and SO_2 evolved at each temperature level was monitored by mass spectrometer. Figs. 4 and 5 show the results of the samples sulfided at 700 and 800 °C, respectively. Both figures indicate the consumption of O_2 and evolution of SO_2 during

the temperature range of 600 and 800 °C. The evolution temperature observed in the present work is in good agreement with several previous works in the literature [19-21], which investigated the oxidation of $\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$ in the range of operating temperature between 600-800 °C by TPO technique and observed the evolution of SO_2 around 800 °C. According to the calculation of area under peaks from Figs. 4 and 5, the amount of SO_2 evolved was approximately 1.25 mol% from the sulfided sample at 700 °C by consuming oxygen of 2% whereas the amount of SO_2 evolved from the sulfided sample at 800 °C was about 3 mol% with the oxygen consuming of 4%. The difference in the amount of SO_2 evolution from the sulfidation at different temperatures, which was also observed by several researchers, could be mainly due to the increase of oxygen mobility on the

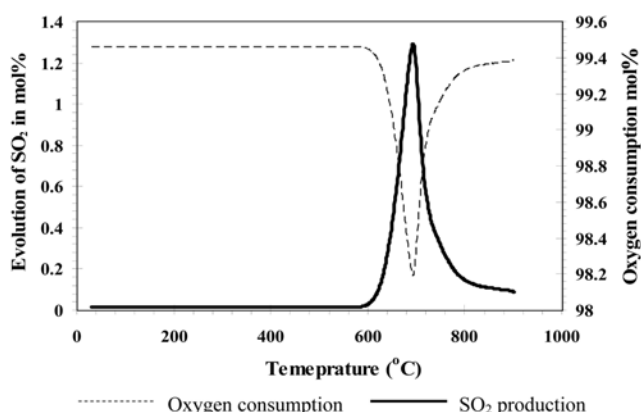


Fig. 4. Oxidative regeneration of CeO_2 sulfided at 700 °C.

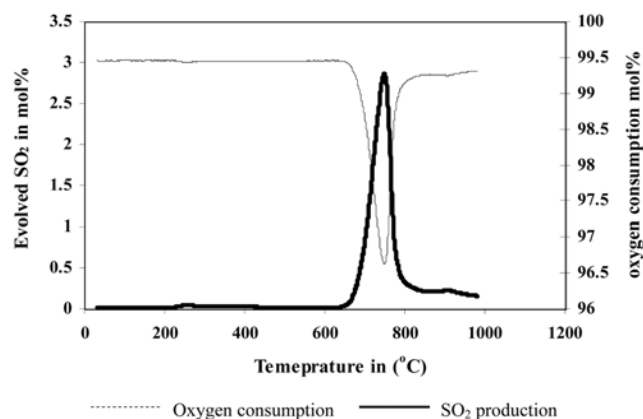
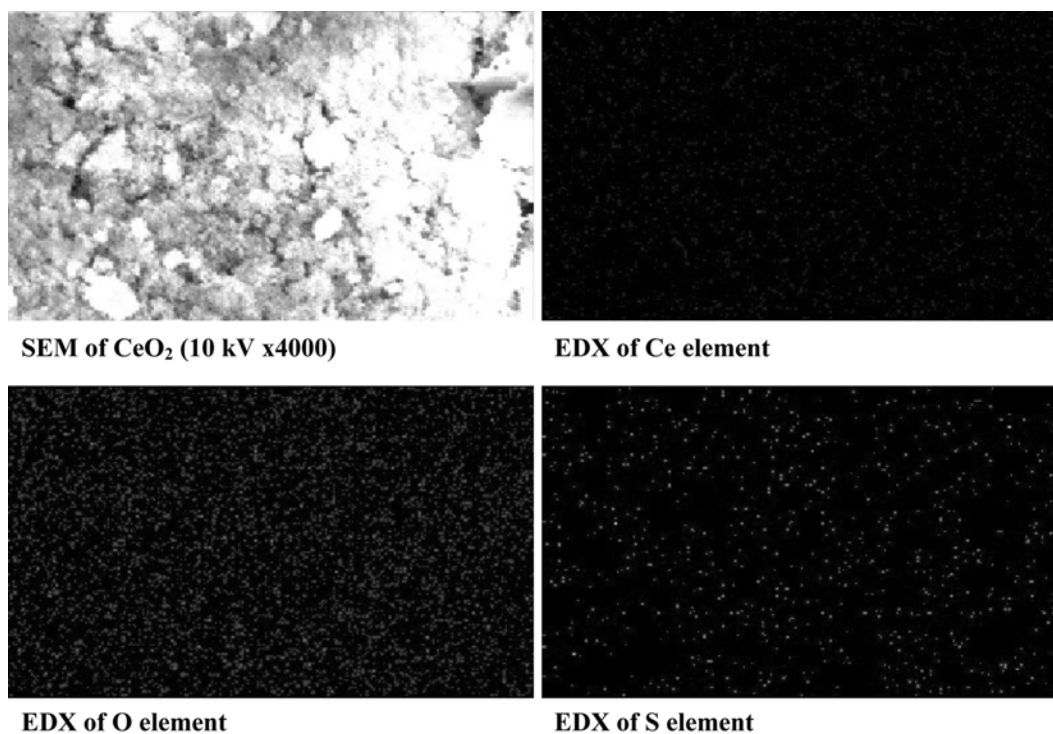


Fig. 5. Oxidative regeneration of CeO_2 sulfided at 800 °C.



(a) SEM and elemental mapping of CeO_2 sulfided at 700 °C

Fig. 6. Mapping of sulfur, oxygen and cerium distribution on the sulfided CeO_2 .

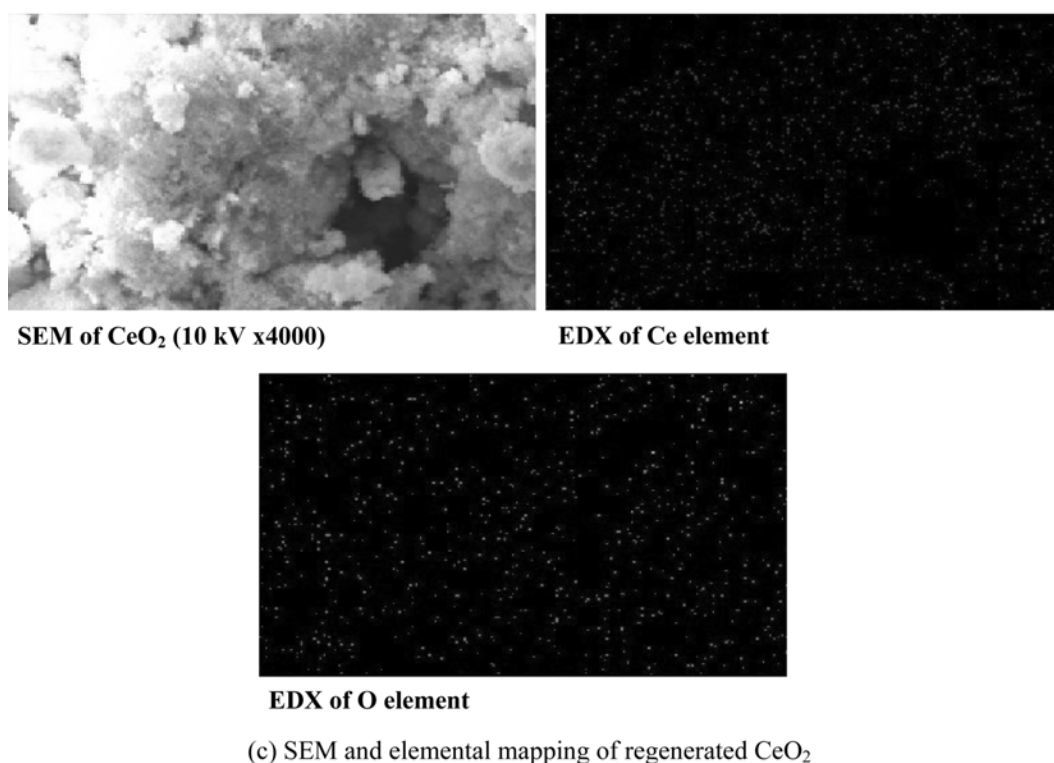
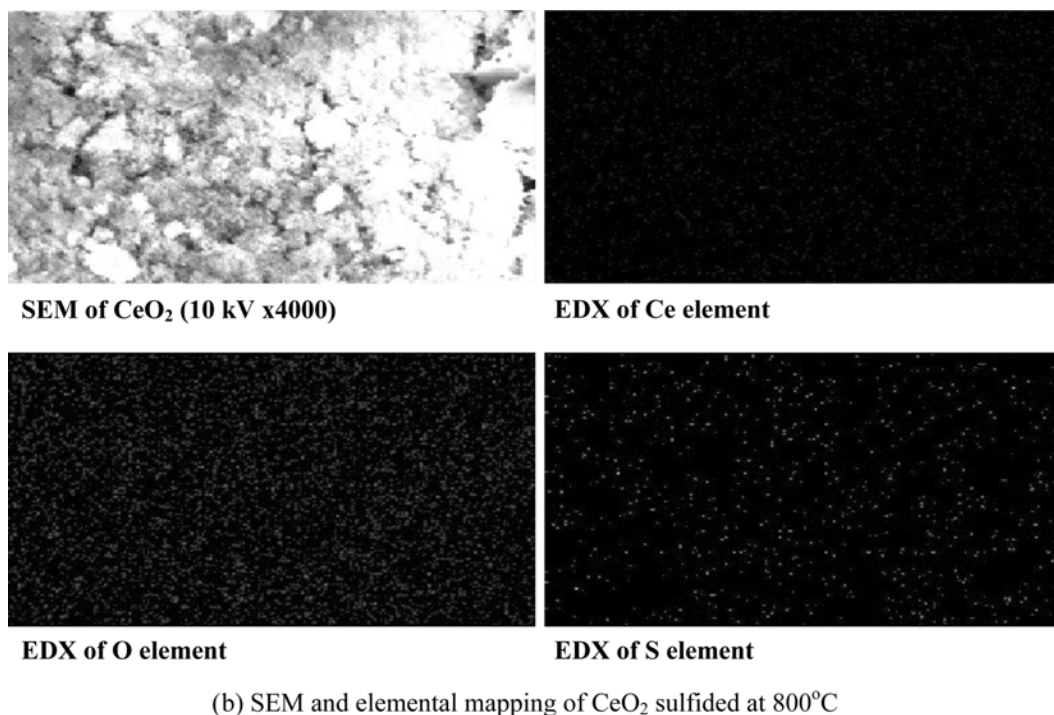


Fig. 6. Continued.

surface of CeO₂ by increasing temperature. It is well established that ceria-based material contains a high concentration of highly mobile oxygen vacancies, which act as local sources or sinks for oxygen involved in reactions taking place on its surface. That high oxygen mobility, high oxygen storage capacity, and its modifiable ability render the ceria-based material very interesting for a wide

range of catalytic applications. At higher temperature, the gas-solid reaction between the inlet sulfur compound and the bulk lattice oxygen on the surface of CeO₂ occurred easily, and consequently resulted in a high sulfidation reaction [22]. Previous work from Zeng et al. [14] also reported that the degree of sulfidation increases with increasing temperature.

3. Characterization of Absorbent

Sulfided CeO_2 was subjected to its surface analysis by SEM/EDS and XRD measurements to determine the distribution of sulfur and the type of product formation on the surface of the CeO_2 . From the SEM & EDS mapping as shown in Fig. 6, sulfur distribution on the surface of the catalyst was detected. According to the sulfur distribution at 700 and 800 °C, as shown in Figs. 6(a) and 6(b), respectively, the sulfur concentrations at 800 °C are higher than those at 700 °C, which is in good agreement with the observed SO_2 peaks shown in Figs. 4 and 5. In addition, from the sulfur mapping observed by the EDS, it was found that the sulfur element was uniformly distributed over the surface of CeO_2 . Larger particles in the figure are

due to aggregation of smaller particles and the change in the porous structure. As CeO_2 consists of high surface oxygen ions, these ions make it become easily exchanged to sulfur upon H_2S adsorption [23].

In addition to the SEM/EDS measurement, sulfided CeO_2 was subjected to XRD studies to determine the type product formed. From the XRD analysis as shown in Fig. 8, major phases of the sulfided CeO_2 are $\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$ (Pattern 26-1085). The pattern was compared with that of pure CeO_2 (pattern 34-0394) as shown in Fig. 7. The XRD patterns of spent CeO_2 indicate that the cerium oxide sulfide ($\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$) was formed from the reaction of CeO_2 with H_2S . Peaks of spent CeO_2 were decreased and peak broadening occurred at the

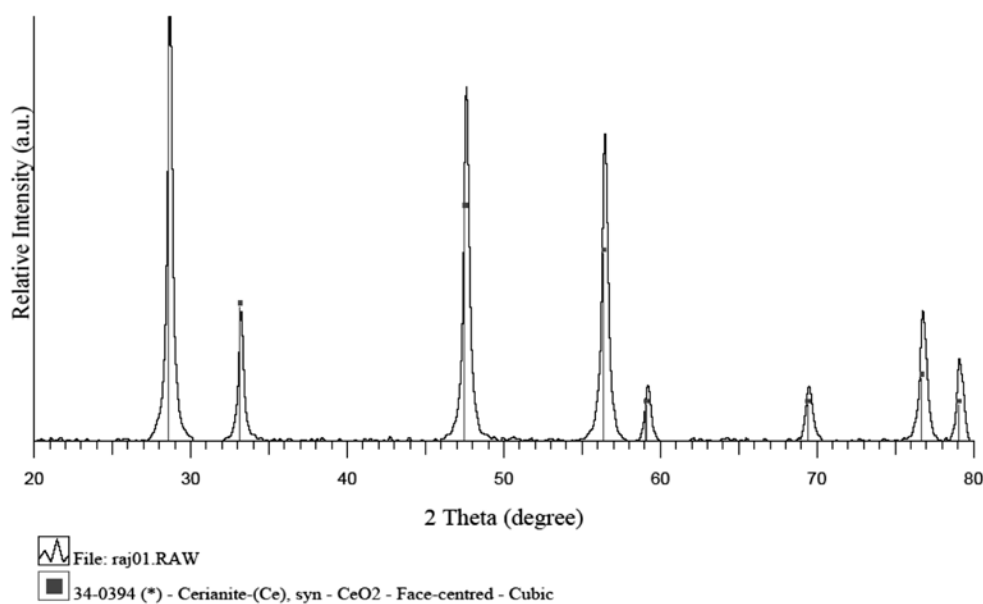


Fig. 7. XRD pattern of pure CeO_2 .

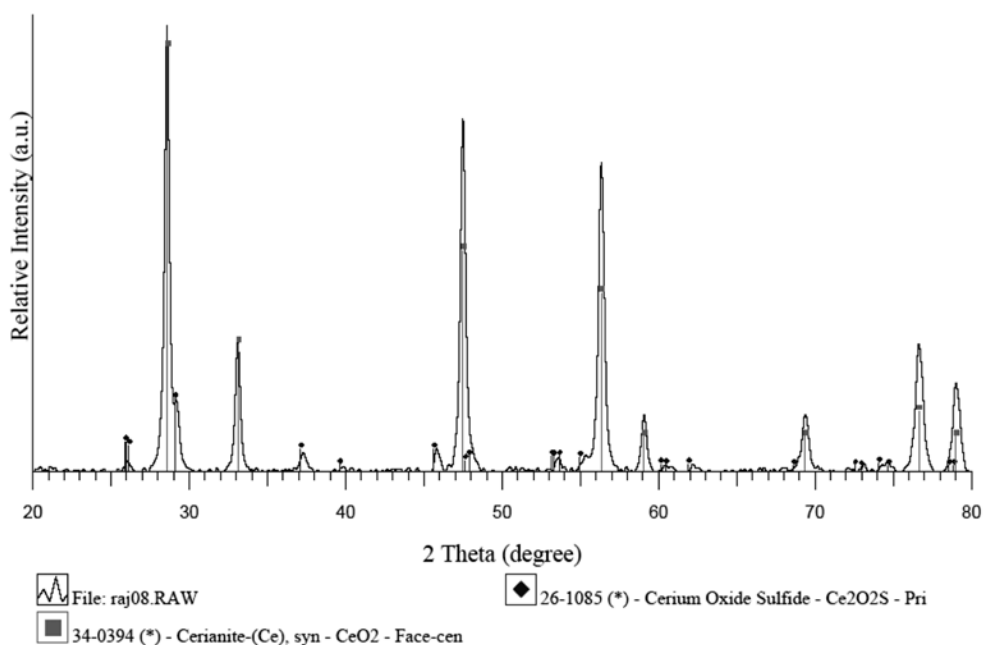


Fig. 8. XRD pattern of CeO_2 sulfided at 800 °C (JCPDS-ICDD).

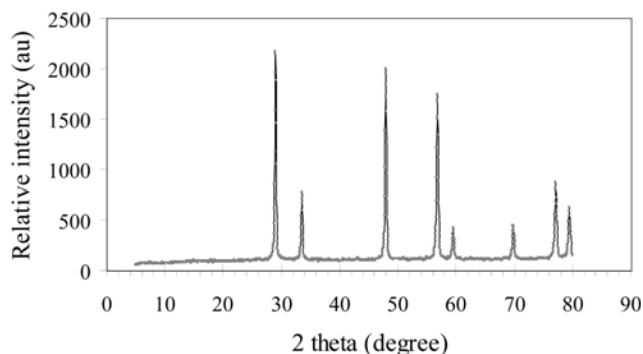
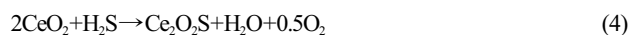


Fig. 9. XRD pattern of regenerated sulfided CeO_2 (JCPDS-ICDD).

CeO_2 peaks due to the formation of $\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$. Sulfided CeO_2 was subjected to oxidative regeneration at a constant heating rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ until 900°C . The sample after regeneration was analyzed by XRD to determine its potential reuse as a CeO_2 . It was found that the regenerated CeO_2 showed peaks at the same two theta angles as those of pure CeO_2 as shown in Fig. 9. This ensures the possible regeneration of sulfided CeO_2 .

From the evidence of sulfidation, regeneration, and catalyst characterization, a sequence of reactions that occurred during these processes can be proposed. The possible reaction mechanism of the sulfidation and regeneration can be predicted as follows:



It should be noted that the detectable of steam from the desulfurization experiments and the observation of $\text{Ce}_2\text{O}_3\text{S}$ phase from the XRD studies support this proposed sulfidation reaction mechanism: TPO and XRD analysis. The first experiment observed the formation of SO_2 from the regeneration process, while the second one confirmed that CeO_2 can be regenerated.

4. Deactivation Model for CeO_2 Absorbent

Deactivation models proposed in the literature [24] for gas-solid reactions with significant changes of activity of the solid due to textural changes, as well as product layer diffusion resistance during reaction, were reported to be quite successful in predicting conversion-time data. In the early work of Orbey et al. [16] and in the recent work of Suyadal et al. [25], deactivation models were used for the prediction of breakthrough curves in packed adsorption columns. In the present work, a deactivation model is proposed with the following assumptions: isothermal condition, pseudo-steady-state condition, first-order deactivation of the absorbent with respect to the solid surface which can be described in terms of an exponential decrease with time in its available surface, and constant activity throughout the surface of absorbent. The combined equation of mole balance and rate law for the packed bed reactor is given below:

$$V_o \cdot t \frac{dC_{H_2S}}{dt} = -k_d \cdot a(t) C_{H_2S} \quad (6)$$

The boundary conditions at inlet concentrations are

$$\begin{aligned} \text{At } t=0, \quad C_{H_2S} &= C_{H_2S_{in}} \\ \text{At } t=t, \quad C_{H_2S} &= C_{H_2S_{out}} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$a(t) = \frac{V_o}{Wk} \ln \left(\frac{C_{H_2S_{in}}}{C_{H_2S_{out}}} \right) \quad (7)$$

The first order exponential decay is $a(t) = e^{-k_d t}$, substituting Eq. (6) to Eq. (8):

$$-k_d \cdot t = \ln \frac{V_o}{Wk_o} + \ln \ln \left(\frac{C_{H_2S_{in}}}{C_{H_2S_{out}}} \right) \quad (8)$$

This equation is equivalent to the breakthrough [25]. Thus, when $\ln \ln (C_{H_2S_{in}}/C_{H_2S_{out}})$ is plotted versus operating time (t), a straight line should be obtained with a slope equal to $-k_d$ and intercept equal to $\ln(V_o/Wk_o)$ as shown in Fig. 10. Table 3 summarizes the model parameters determined at different temperatures. The fluctuation of 10 to 15% in correlation coefficient may be due to initial bumps.

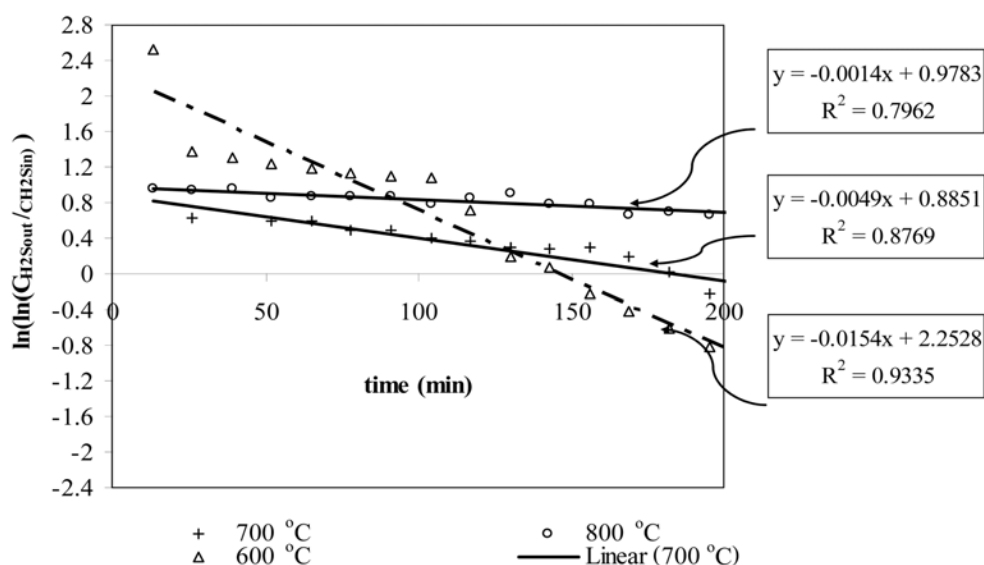
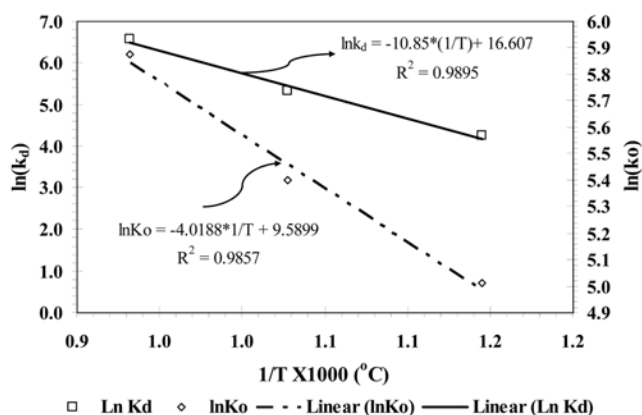


Fig. 10. Test of deactivation model equation.

Table 3. Summary of deactivation model parameters

Temperature (°C)	Vo/Wk _o (-)	k _o (cm ³ min ⁻¹ g ⁻¹)	k _d (min ⁻¹)	R ² (-)
600	2.55	3.566	0.0144	0.79
700	2.40	1.66	0.0049	0.89
800	2.66	1.503	0.0014	0.9351

**Fig. 11. Arrhenius plots of sorption rate constants and deactivation rate constants.**

The advantage of the deactivation model is the presence of only two adjustable parameters such as initial sorption rate constant K_o and the deactivation rate constant K_d . Both parameters showed an increasing trend with respect to an increase in the temperature. Sorption rate constant K_o and the deactivation rate constant K_d were correlated as a function of temperature using by Arrhenius equations (Eqs. (9) and (10)).

$$K_o = k_o e^{-E_o/RT} \quad (9)$$

$$K_d = k_d e^{-E_d/RT} \quad (10)$$

The temperature dependency was illustrated as shown in Fig. 11. The activation energies of k_o and k_d were found to be 33.4 and 90 kJ mol⁻¹. These high values of the activation energies indicate that the H₂S sorption on CeO₂ is chemical adsorption.

CONCLUSION

Nano-scale high surface area CeO₂ has useful desulfurization activity between 500 and 850 °C. Compared to the conventional low surface area CeO₂, 80-85% of H₂S was removed by nano-scale high surface area CeO₂, whereas 30-32% of H₂S was removed by conventional low surface area CeO₂. According to the XRD and EDS mapping, uniform Ce₂O₃S was formed after desulfurization. According to the TPO experiment, this component (Ce₂O₃S) can be recovered to CeO₂ after exposure in the oxidation condition at temperature above 600 °C. Furthermore, regarding the SEM/EDS and XRD measurements, all Ce₂O₃S forming is converted to CeO₂ after this oxidative regeneration.

As the final step, a deactivation model considering the concentration and temperature dependencies of the desulfurization activity

was proposed for later application in the SOFC model.

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Kinetic dependencies and reaction pathways in hydrocarbon and oxyhydrocarbon conversions catalyzed by ceria-based materials

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Abstract

Hydrocarbons (i.e. CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈) and oxyhydrocarbon (i.e. CH₃OH) conversions with and without co-reactants (H₂O and CO₂) were studied over ceria-based materials prepared by precipitation and cationic surfactant-assisted methods with/without Zr doping with an aim to understand their influences on material specific surface area, oxygen storage capacity (OSC), hydrocarbon reaction rate, resistance toward carbon deposition, and rigorous kinetic dependencies.

High surface area CeO₂ and Ce–ZrO₂ from the cationic surfactant-assisted method provided a higher degree of oxygen storage capacity (OSC) and reaction rates with greater resistance toward carbon deposition than those from the precipitation method. The reaction rates (mol g_{cat}^{−1} s^{−1}) per degree of OSC (mol_{Oxygen} g_{cat}^{−1}) were identical for all materials, indicating the linear influence of OSC on the rates. Nevertheless, the kinetic dependencies were unaffected by specific surface area, doping element, degree of OSC and reactions (i.e. H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking). The rates were proportional to hydrocarbon partial pressures with positive fraction reaction orders; independent of co-reactant partial pressures; but inhibited by CO and H₂. These kinetic dependencies were explained by a set of redox mechanistic proposal, in which the relevant elementary step is the reaction of intermediate surface hydrocarbon with lattice oxygen (O_l^x), and that lattice oxygen is efficiently replenished by rapid surface reactions with oxygen source from either CO₂, H₂O, or even CH₃OH.

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1. Introduction

Cerium oxide (or ceria) based material contains a high concentration of mobile oxygen vacancies, which act as local sources or sinks for oxygen involved in reactions taking place on its surface. The high oxygen mobility and oxygen storage capacity render this material very interesting for a wide range of catalytic applications involving oxidation and reforming of hydrocarbons [1–8]. Recently, one of the great potential applications of ceria-based materials is in an Indirect Internal Reforming-Solid Oxide Fuel Cell (IIR-SOFC) as an in-stack reforming catalyst [9,10]. In addition, it is also successfully applied in a direct internal reforming (DIR-SOFC), in which hydrocarbon and oxyhydrocarbon compounds (i.e. C₄H₁₀ and

CH₃OH) were efficiently reformed at ceria-based anodes (i.e. Cu–CeO₂ and Cu–CeO₂–YSZ) [11–16].

It has been well established that the gas–solid reaction between hydrocarbons and the lattice oxygen (O_l^x) on ceria surface can generate CO and H₂ at high temperature; in addition, the reactions of reduced ceria with oxygen-containing reactants, i.e. CO₂ and H₂O can regenerate the lattice oxygen (O_l^x) on CeO₂ surface [10,17–19]. The great benefit of ceria-based catalysts for reforming reactions is their high resistance toward carbon deposition compared to conventional metal catalysts [9,10]; however, the weaknesses are their low specific surface area and high deactivation due to the thermal sintering particularly when operated at such a high temperature [20]. The use of high surface area ceria (CeO₂ (HSA)) with high resistance toward the sintering was proposed to be a good approach to improve its catalytic reactivity [20]. Several techniques have been described for the preparation of CeO₂ (HSA) solid solution, i.e. homogeneous precipitation techni-

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ques with precipitating agents and additives [21–24], hydrothermal synthesis [25], spray pyrolysis methods [26], inert gas condensation of Ce followed by oxidation [27], thermal decomposition of carbonates [28], microemulsion [29], and electrochemical methods [30]. However, a few of these composites showed regular pore structure after calcination at moderate temperatures and a severe loss of surface area occurs during the thermal treatment [31]. Recently, Terribile et al. [32] synthesized CeO₂ (HSA) with improved textural, structural and chemical properties by using a novel cationic surfactant-assisted approach. They reported that CeO₂ with surface area of 40 m² g^{−1} was achieved after calcination at 1173 K. Compared to conventional CeO₂ (CeO₂ (LSA)) prepared by precipitation technique with surface area less than 10 m² g^{−1} after calcination at 1173 K [10], this highlights the great potential of CeO₂ prepared by surfactant-assisted technique for application as a catalyst under high reaction temperature. It should be noted that, apart from the investigation on preparation method, the addition of zirconium oxide (ZrO₂) has also been widely reported to improve surface area, oxygen storage capacity, redox property, thermal stability and catalytic activity of ceria [33–39].

Focusing on the reforming reactions of hydrocarbon compounds over ceria-based materials, until now, the reaction pathways and kinetic dependencies remains unclear. Here, we thereby probe the kinetic dependencies of hydrocarbons (i.e. CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈) and also oxyhydrocarbon (i.e. CH₃OH) conversion with and without co-reactants over ceria-based materials prepared by precipitation and cationic surfactant-assisted methods and with/without Zr doping. The relation between the material specific surface area, doping element, oxygen storage capacity (OSC), reaction rate, resistance toward carbon deposition, and kinetic dependence were identified. A rigorous kinetic, reaction pathways and rate expressions were then established.

2. Experimental methods

2.1. Material synthesis and characterization

CeO₂ was synthesized by precipitation (CeO₂ (LSA)) and cationic surfactant-assisted (CeO₂ (HSA)) methods. These preparation methods were described elsewhere in our previous publication [40]. The materials were dried overnight in ambient air at 383 K, and then calcined in a flow of dry air by increasing the temperature to 1173 K with a rate of 0.167 K s^{−1} and holding at 1173 K for 6 h. After calcined, fluorite-structured CeO₂ with good homogeneity were obtained.

Ce_{1−x}Zr_xO₂ (or Ce–ZrO₂) with different Ce/Zr molar ratios were prepared by either co-precipitation or surfactant-assisted method of cerium nitrate (Ce(NO₃)₃·H₂O), and zirconium oxychloride (ZrOCl₂·H₂O) (from Aldrich). The ratio between each metal salt was altered to achieve nominal Ce/Zr molar ratios: Ce_{1−x}Zr_xO₂, where $x = 0.25, 0.50$, and 0.75 respectively. After treatment, the specific surface areas of all CeO₂ and Ce–ZrO₂ were achieved from BET measurement. As presented in Table 1, after drying in the oven, surface areas of 105 and

Table 1

Specific surface areas of ceria-based materials before and after calcination at 1173 K

Catalysts	Surface area after drying (m ² g ^{−1})	Surface area after calcinations (m ² g ^{−1})
CeO ₂ (HSA)	105	29
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	135	49
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	120	47
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	115	46.5
CeO ₂ (LSA)	55	11
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	82	22
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	74	20.5
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	70	20

55 m² g^{−1} were observed for CeO₂ (HSA) and CeO₂ (LSA), respectively and, as expected, the surface area decreased at high calcination temperatures. However, the value for CeO₂ (HSA) is still appreciable after calcination at 1173 K. It can also be seen that the introduction of ZrO₂ stabilizes the surface area of ceria, which is in good agreement with several previous reports [41–43]. After treatment, the degree of OSC and redox reversibilities of all CeO₂ and Ce–ZrO₂ were determined by the temperature programmed reduction (TPR-1) and temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) following with second time temperature programmed reduction (TPR-2), respectively, at the same conditions. Details of these measurements are given in Section 3.1.

2.2. Catalytic H₂O and CO₂ reforming and cracking of hydrocarbons

To undergo the catalytic testing, an experimental reactor system was constructed as shown elsewhere [40]. The feed gases including the components of interest, i.e. CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, C₃H₈, CH₃OH, deionized H₂O (introduced via a syringe pump pass through an evaporator), CO₂, CO, and H₂ were introduced to a 10-mm diameter quartz reactor, which was mounted vertically inside tubular furnace. The catalysts (50 mg of ceria-based catalysts) were diluted with SiC (to obtain the total weight of 500 mg) in order to avoid temperature gradients and loaded in the quartz reactor. Preliminary experiments were carried out to find suitable conditions in which internal and external mass transfer effects are not predominant. Considering the effect of external mass transfer, the total flow rate was kept constant at 100 cm³ min^{−1} under a constant residence time of 5×10^{-3} g min cm^{−3} in all testing. The suitable average sizes of catalysts were also verified in order to confirm that the experiments were carried out within the region of isothermal kinetics. In our system, a Type-K thermocouple was placed into the annular space between the reactor and furnace. This thermocouple was mounted in close contact with the catalyst bed to minimize the temperature difference. Another Type-K thermocouple, covering by closed-end quartz tube, was inserted in the middle of the quartz reactor in order to re-check the possible temperature gradient.

Table 2
Results of TPR-1, TPO, TPR-2 analyses of ceria-based materials after calcination

Catalyst	Total H ₂ uptake from TPR-1 (μmol/g _{cat})	Total O ₂ uptake from TPO (μmol/g _{cat})	Total H ₂ uptake from TPR-2 (μmol/g _{cat})
CeO ₂ (HSA)	4105	2067	4109
Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	2899	1475	2876
Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	3701	1862	3694
Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	5247	2640	5250
CeO ₂ (LSA)	1794	898	1788
Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	1097	553	1085
Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	1745	744	1746
Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	2649	1328	2643

After the reactions, the exit gas mixture was transferred via trace-heated lines (373 K) to the analysis section, which consists of an online Porapak Q column Shimadzu 14B gas chromatograph (GC) with TCD and FID detectors and a mass spectrometer (MS). The GC was applied for the steady state kinetic studies, whereas the MS in which the sampling of the exit gas was done by a quartz capillary and differential pumping was used for the transient experiments. Kinetic effects were studied over wide ranges of temperature and reactant partial pressures.

2.3. Measurement of carbon formation

The temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) was applied to investigate the amount of carbon formed on catalyst surface by introducing 10% O₂ in He into the system, after purging with helium. The operating temperature increased from room temperature to 1273 K by a rate of 10 K min⁻¹. The amount of carbon formation on the surface of catalysts was determined by measuring the CO and CO₂ yields from the TPO results. In addition to the TPO method, the amount of carbon deposition was reconfirmed by the calculation of carbon balance in the system, which theoretically equals to the difference between inlet and outlet carbon containing components.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Redox properties and redox reversibility

After treatment, the degree of OSC for fresh ceria-based materials were investigated using TPR-1, which was performed by heating the catalysts up to 1273 K in 5% H₂ in He. The amount of H₂ uptake was correlated to the amount of oxygen stored in the catalysts. As presented in Table 2, the amount of H₂ uptakes over Ce-ZrO₂ and CeO₂ (HSA) are significantly higher than those over the low surface area cerias, suggesting the increasing of OSC with the doping of Zr and the increasing of material specific surface area. The benefit of OSC on the reforming reaction will be later presented in Section 3.3.

After purging with He, the redox reversibilities were then determined by applying TPO following with TPR-2. The TPO was carried out by heating the catalyst up to 1273 K in 10% O₂ in He; the amounts of O₂ chemisorbed were then measured, Table 2. Regarding the TPR-2 results as also shown in Table 2,

the amount of hydrogen uptakes for all materials were approximately similar to those from the TPR-1, indicating the reversibility of OSC for these synthesized ceria-based materials.

3.2. Reactivity toward the (H₂O and CO₂) reforming and cracking of CH₄

The H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking of CH₄ were tested at 1123 K by introducing CH₄ along with co-reactant (for H₂O and CO₂ reforming). It should be noted that the reactions over Ce-ZrO₂ catalysts with different Ce/Zr ratios (1/3, 1/1, and 3/1) were firstly tested. The results revealed that Ce-ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 shows the best performance in terms of stability and activity. Therefore, we report here detailed reactivity and kinetic data of Ce-ZrO₂ only with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

Fig. 1 shows the variations in CH₄ reforming rate (mol_{CH₄} g_{cat}⁻¹ s⁻¹) with time at the initial state (10 min; using MS) over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) by varying inlet co-reactant/CH₄ ratios from 0.0 (cracking reaction) to 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0, and 2.0, while Fig. 2 shows the stability and activity (under the period of 10 h; using GC-TCD) of H₂O and CO₂ reforming of CH₄ over several catalysts. The reforming rates expressed in the figures are obtained from the relation between the measured net reaction rate (r_m ; mol_{CH₄} g_{cat}⁻¹ s⁻¹) and the approach to equilibrium condition (η) using the following equation [44]:

$$r_t = r_m(1 - \eta)^{-1} \quad (1)$$

where η is either the approach to equilibrium for H₂O reforming (η_s) or for CO₂ reforming (η_d). Both parameters are determined from the following equation:

$$\eta_s = \frac{[P_{CO}][P_{H_2}]^3}{[P_{CH_4}][P_{H_2O}] K_s} \quad (2)$$

$$\eta_d = \frac{[P_{CO}]^2[P_{H_2}]^2}{[P_{CH_4}][P_{CO_2}] K_d} \quad (3)$$

where P_i is partial pressure of component i (atm); K_s and K_d are the equilibrium constants for H₂O and CO₂ reforming of CH₄ at a given temperature. It should be noted that, in the present work, the values of η were always kept below 0.2 in all experiments.

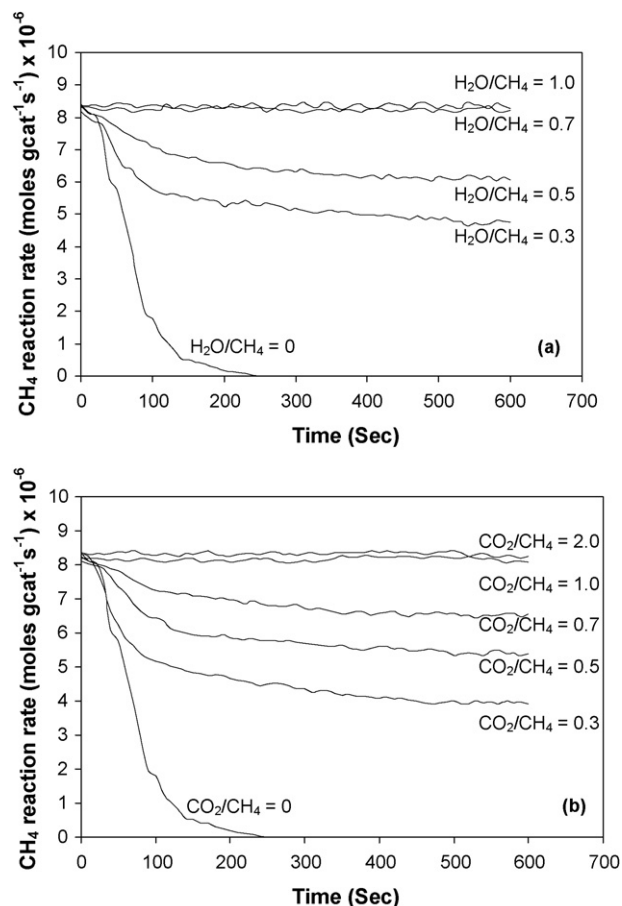


Fig. 1. CH₄ reaction rate at initial state (10 min) for H₂O reforming of CH₄ (a) and CO₂ reforming of CH₄ (b) over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (1123 K with 3 kPa CH₄ in He).

The main products from the reactions over these catalysts were H₂ and CO with some CO₂, indicating a contribution from the water–gas shift at this high temperature. Based on the measured concentrations of reactants and products during CH₄ reforming, the approach to water–gas shift equilibrium condition (η_{WGS}) in the range of temperature studied (1023–1123 K) are

always close to 1.0 in all type of catalysts, indicating that water–gas shift (WGS) reaction is at equilibrium. Fig. 1 indicates that the initial CH₄ reforming rate is unaffected by the concentration and type of co-reactants. Nevertheless, significant deactivation was observed for the cracking of CH₄ due to the loss of lattice oxygen (O_o^x) on the surface of ceria-based materials without the replacement by external oxygen containing sources (i.e. H₂O and CO₂). The rate of deactivation rapidly reduced when small content of H₂O or CO₂ was added.

Fig. 2 indicates that, at steady state, the high surface area materials showed much higher reactivity toward the CH₄ reforming than the low surface area one. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the CH₄ reaction rates (mol_{CH₄} g_{cat}⁻¹ s⁻¹) per surface area (m² g⁻¹) (in Table 1) for each type of catalyst with different surface areas are in the same range, e.g. $2.0\text{--}2.2 \times 10^{-7}$ mol_{CH₄} (m² s)⁻¹ for CeO₂, $1.0\text{--}1.1 \times 10^{-7}$ mol_{CH₄} (m² s)⁻¹ for Ce-ZrO₂ (Ce/Zr = 1/1), and $1.6\text{--}1.8 \times 10^{-7}$ mol_{CH₄} (m² s)⁻¹ for Ce-ZrO₂ (Ce/Zr = 3/1) (with the operating conditions of 3 kPa CH₄ at 1123 K) indicating the great impact of catalyst specific surface area on the rate. In addition, importantly, at the same reaction conditions, the CH₄ reaction rates (mol_{CH₄} g_{cat}⁻¹ s⁻¹) per degree of OSC (mol_{Oxygen} g_{cat}⁻¹) (in Table 2) for all catalyst are approximately identical (2.8×10^{-3} mol_{CH₄} mol_{oxygen}⁻¹ s⁻¹) for the inlet CH₄ of 3 kPa at 1123 K) indicating the linear influence of OSC on the reforming reactivity.

After purging in helium, the TPO detected small amount of carbon on the surface of materials from CH₄ cracking reaction (between 0.09 and 0.15 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ for high surface area materials and between 0.18 and 0.21 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ for low surface area one). These amounts of carbon deposited were ensured by the calculation of carbon balance. Regarding the calculation, the moles of carbon remaining in the system were 0.07–0.14 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ for high surface area materials and were 0.20 ± 0.01 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ for low surface area materials, which are in good agreement with the values observed from the TPO. No carbon formation was observed on high surface area materials when the inlet H₂O/CH₄ and CO₂/CH₄ ratios were higher than 0.7 and 1.0, whereas low surface area materials required inlet H₂O/CH₄ and CO₂/CH₄ ratios higher than 1.0 and 2.0 to operate without detectable carbon. The good resistance toward carbon deposition for ceria-based materials, which has been widely reported by previous researchers [9–10], is mainly due to their sufficient oxygen storage capacity (OSC). It should be noted that we observed high amount of carbon formation on the surface of Ni catalysts after exposure in the same reforming conditions as ceria-based materials [45,46]. Regarding the possible carbon formation during the reforming processes, the following reactions are theoretically the most probable reactions that could lead to carbon formation:

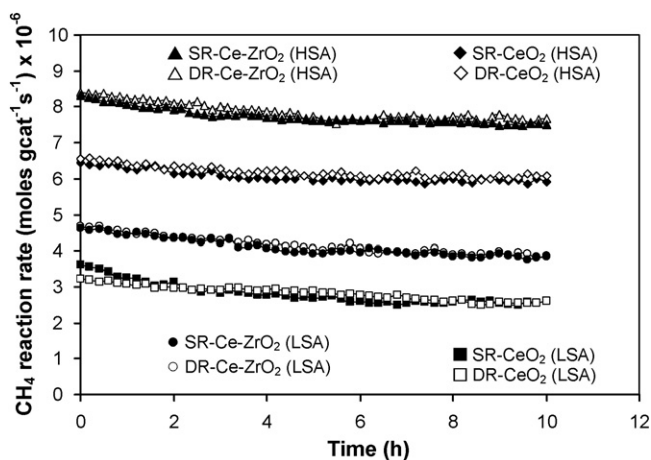
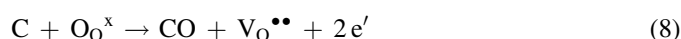


Fig. 2. Stability and activity testing of H₂O reforming (SR) and CO₂ reforming (DR) of CH₄ over several catalysts (at 1123 K with 3 kPa CH₄ and 3 kPa co-reactants).

At low temperature, reactions (6) and (7) are favorable, while reactions (4) and (5) are thermodynamically unflavored [47]. The Boudouard reaction (Eq. (4)) and the decomposition of CH_4 (Eq. (5)) are the major pathways for carbon formation at such a high temperature as they show the largest changes in Gibbs energy [48]. According to the range of temperature in this study, carbon formation would be formed via the decomposition of CH_4 and Boudouard reactions especially at high inlet $\text{CH}_4/\text{co-reactant}$ ratio. By applying CeO_2 , both reactions (Eqs. (4) and (5)) could be inhibited by the redox reaction between the surface carbon (C) forming via the adsorptions of CH_4 and CO (produced during the reforming process) with the lattice oxygen (O_O^\times) at CeO_2 surface (Eq. (8)).



Using the Kroger–Vink notation, $\text{V}_\text{O}^{\bullet\bullet}$ denotes as an oxygen vacancy with an effective charge 2^+ , and e' is an electron which can either be more or less localized on a cerium ion or delocalized in a conduction band. The greater resistance toward carbon deposition for high surface area ceria-based catalyst particularly Ce-ZrO_2 (HSA) is due to the significant higher amount of lattice oxygen (O_O^\times) on their surfaces, according to the results in Section 3.1.

3.3. Kinetic dependencies of forward CH_4 reforming rate on partial pressures of reactants (i.e. CH_4 and H_2O or CO_2) and products (CO and H_2)

The kinetic dependencies of CH_4 reforming rates on the partial pressures of CH_4 , H_2O , CO_2 , CO , and H_2 for all ceria-based materials were studied in the temperature range of 1023–1123 K. All measurements were carried out under the operating conditions without detectable carbon formation by controlling $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{CH}_4$ and CO_2/CH_4 inlet ratios according to the results from Section 3.2.

Fig. 3 shows the effect of CH_4 partial pressure on the rate ($\text{mol}_{\text{CH}_4} \text{mol}_{\text{oxygen}}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) over Ce-ZrO_2 (HSA) at several reaction temperatures, while Fig. 4 shows the effect of CH_4 partial pressure on the rate (per degree of OSC) over different catalysts

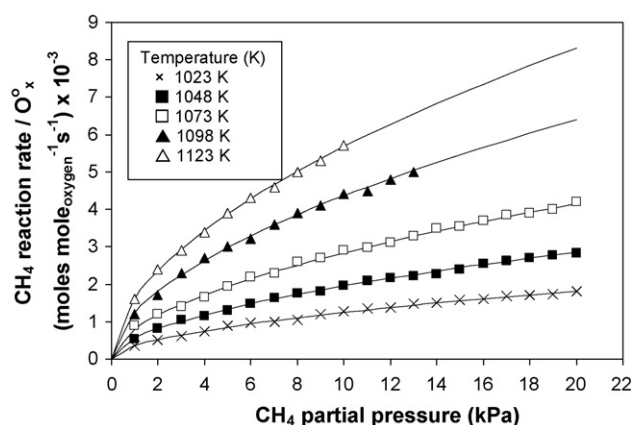


Fig. 3. Effect of temperature on CH_4 steam reforming over Ce-ZrO_2 (HSA) (with inlet $\text{CH}_4/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ of 1.0).

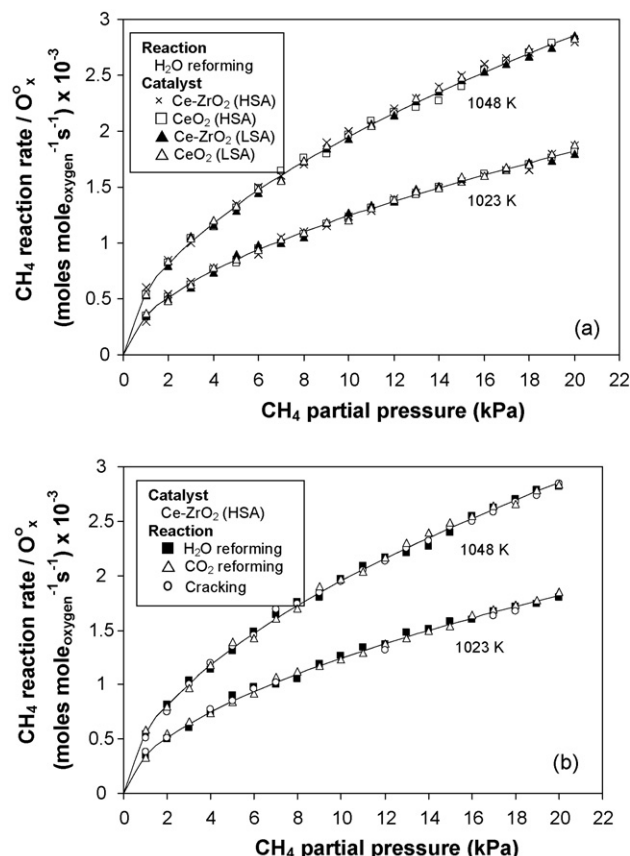


Fig. 4. Effect of CH_4 partial pressure on CH_4 reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored) over different catalysts (a) and different reactions (b).

(Fig. 4a) and different reactions (i.e. H_2O reforming, CO_2 reforming and cracking (initial rates) of CH_4) (Fig. 4b). The rate increased with increasing CH_4 partial pressures and operating temperature for all catalysts and reactions. The reaction order in CH_4 was determined by plotting $\ln(r_i)$ versus $\ln P_{\text{CH}_4}$ (the effects of product concentrations are taken into account via the term equilibrium condition (η)). The reaction orders in other components (CO_2 , H_2O , H_2 , and CO) were achieved using the same approach. The reaction order in CH_4 was observed to be positive fraction values approximately 0.52 (± 0.03) for all catalysts and reactions, and seemed to be independent of temperature and co-reactant (CO_2 and H_2O) partial pressures in the range of conditions studied.

Several inlet CO_2 or H_2O partial pressures were then introduced to the feed with constant CH_4 partial pressure in order to investigate the influence of these co-reactant partial pressures on the rate. Fig. 5 shows the effects of co-reactant on CH_4 reaction rate with several inlet CH_4 partial pressures over different reactions (Fig. 5a) and over different catalysts (Fig. 5b). It is clear that the rates were not influenced by H_2O and CO_2 partial pressures; thus, the reaction orders in both components would be zero. The reforming in the presences of CO and H_2 were also investigated by adding either CO or H_2 to the feed gas at several operating temperatures. The results in Figs. 6 and 7 showed that the rates are dependent on both CO and H_2 concentrations. Unlike CH_4 , both components inhibited the rate. The reaction order in CO was in the range of -0.15 to

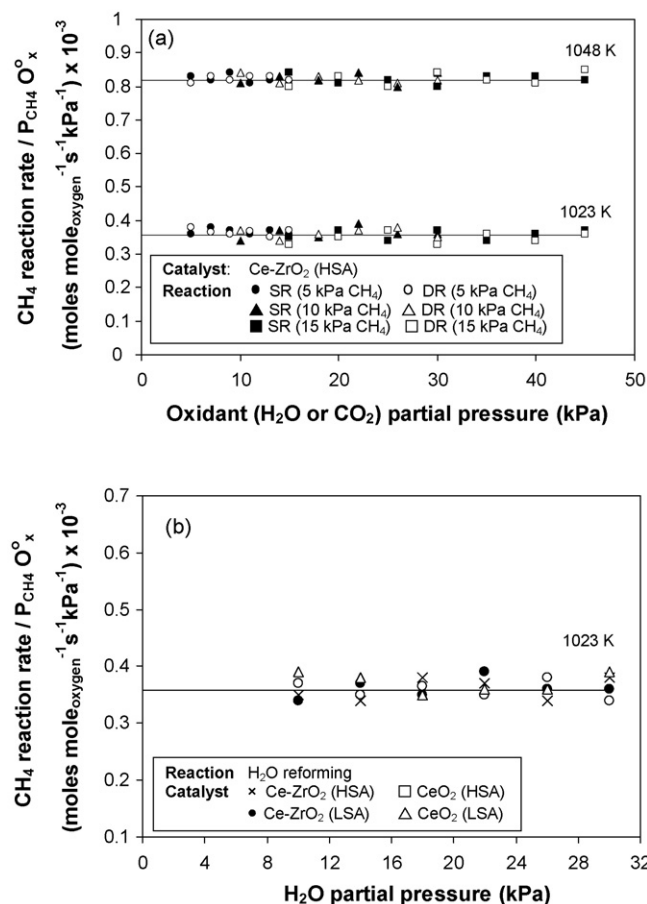


Fig. 5. Effect of co-reactant on CH₄ reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored and inlet CH₄ partial pressure) over different reactions (with several inlet CH₄ partial pressures) (a) and different catalysts (b).

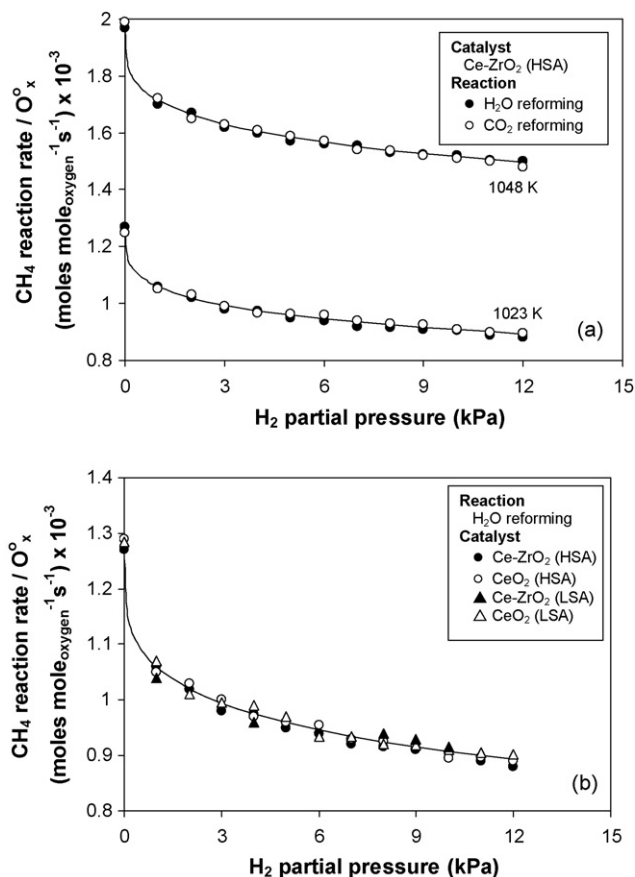


Fig. 6. Effect of H₂ on CH₄ reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored) over different reactions (a) and different catalysts (b).

−0.12, while the reaction order in H₂ was between −0.31 and −0.28 for all catalysts. Similar reaction orders and kinetic constants for all ceria-based materials indicate that the kinetic dependencies are not affected by the specific surface area (or degree of OSC) and the doping of Zr.

Some previous researchers have proposed the redox mechanism to explain the reforming behavior of ceria-based catalysts [9,10]. They indicated that the reforming reaction mechanism involves the reaction between methane, or an intermediate surface hydrocarbon species, and lattice oxygen at the ceria-based material surface [9]. During reforming reaction, the isothermal reaction rate reaches steady state where the co-reactant, i.e. steam, provides a continuous source of oxygen. They also proposed that the controlling step is the reaction of methane with ceria, and that oxygen is replenished by a significantly more facile surface reaction of the ceria with steam [9]. Therefore, we suggested here that the CH₄ reaction pathway for ceria-based materials involves the reaction between absorbed CH₄ (forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species) with the lattice oxygen (O_O^x) at CeO₂ surface, as illustrated schematically below.

CH₄ adsorption



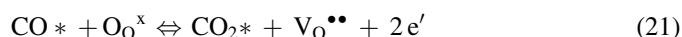
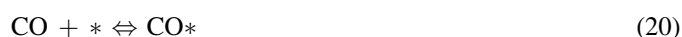
Co-reactant (H₂O and CO₂) adsorption



Redox reactions of lattice oxygen (O_O^x) with C* and O*



Inhibitory effects of CO and H₂



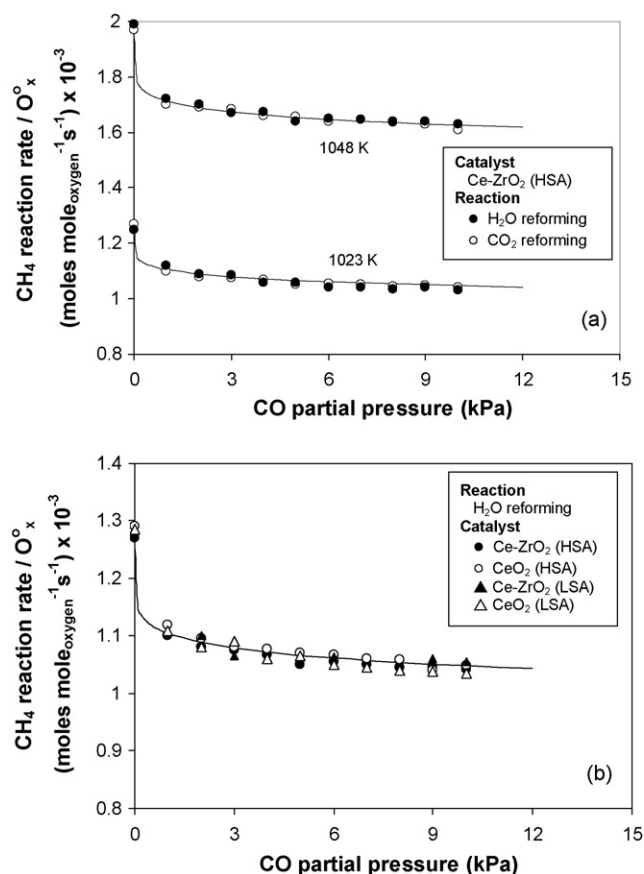


Fig. 7. Effect of CO on CH₄ reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored) over different reactions (a) and different catalysts (b).

where * is the surface active site of ceria-based materials. During the reactions, CH₄ adsorbed on * forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species (CH_x^{*}) (Eqs. (9–12)) and later reacted with the lattice oxygen (O_{O^x}) (Eq. (16)). The steady-state reforming rate is due to the continuous supply of the oxygen source by either CO₂ or H₂O (Eqs. (13–15)) that reacted with the reduced-state catalyst to recover lattice oxygen (O_{O^x}) (Eq. (17)). The identical rate for the H₂O and CO₂ reforming at

similar CH₄ partial pressures, as well as the stronger linear dependence of the reforming rate on CH₄ partial pressure with the positive fraction value of reaction order in this component, and the independent effects of CO₂ and H₂O provide the evidence that the sole kinetically relevant elementary step is the reaction of intermediate surface hydrocarbon species with the lattice oxygen (O_{O^x}), and that oxygen is replenished by a significantly rapid surface reaction of the reduced state with the oxygen source from either CO₂ or H₂O; this fast step maintains the lattice oxygen (O_{O^x}) essentially unreduced by adsorbed intermediate surface hydrocarbon. The unchanged state of lattice oxygen was confirmed by the calculation of oxygen balance during reactions and TPO after reactions. We have used these methods to probe the state of lattice oxygen, because characterizations of used catalysts are not practical due to the low catalyst amounts used and its mixing with SiC. According to the oxygen balance calculation, the mole of oxygen (from co-reactant) fed into the system was almost similar to that in the products for all reactions and testing times indicating the unchanged state of CeO₂ (to CeO_{2-x}) during the experiments. Furthermore, the TPO results after reactions also proved the unchanged state of material, as no oxygen uptakes were detected.

The negative effects of CO and H₂ are due to the reactions between these adsorbed components (CO* and H*) with the lattice oxygen (O_{O^x}) (Eqs. (18–21)), which consequently result in the inhibition of CH₄ conversion. From all observation, a simple CH₄ reaction rate expression for H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking (initial rate) can be written as following:

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k[P_{\text{CH}_4}]^{0.5}}{1 + K_{\text{H}}[P_{\text{H}_2}]^{0.3} + K_{\text{CO}}[P_{\text{CO}}]^{0.15}} \quad (22)$$

where P_i is the partial pressure of chemical component i , k is the rate constant, and K_{CO} and K_{H} are adsorption parameters, obtained from Van't Hoff equation. The rate constants (k) and the activation energies measured from the H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking (initial rate) of CH₄ are identical

Table 3

CH₄ reaction rate, rate constant and activation energies for CH₄ reactions on ceria-based materials (1048 K, 10 kPa CH₄ balance in He)

Catalysts	Reaction	CH ₄ reaction rate/O _{O^x} (moles mole _{oxygen} ⁻¹ s ⁻¹) × 10 ⁻³	Rate constant (s ⁻¹ kPa ⁻¹) × 10 ⁻³	Activation energy (kJ mol ⁻¹)
CeO ₂ (HSA)	H ₂ O reforming	1.96	0.53	154.2
	CO ₂ reforming	1.98	0.55	155.0
	Cracking	1.95 ^a	0.53	151.8
Ce-ZrO ₂ (HSA)	H ₂ O reforming	1.97	0.54	154.2
	CO ₂ reforming	1.95	0.52	153.4
	Cracking	1.94	0.55	150.9
CeO ₂ (LSA)	H ₂ O reforming	1.96	0.56	154.9
	CO ₂ reforming	1.95	0.54	152.1
	Cracking	1.96	0.57	154.3
Ce-ZrO ₂ (LSA)	H ₂ O reforming	1.95	0.56	155.2
	CO ₂ reforming	1.94	0.55	154.4
	Cracking	1.97	0.55	153.2

^a Initial CH₄ reaction rate.

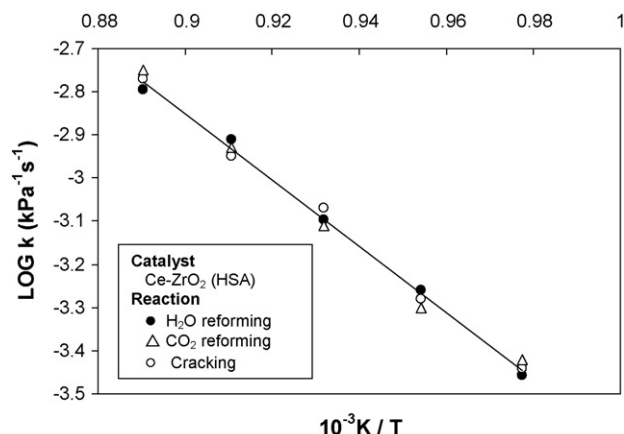


Fig. 8. Arrhenius plots for H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking of CH₄ over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA).

at each reaction temperature, Table 3. The activation energies for these three reactions, achieved by the Arrhenius plots as shown in Fig. 8, were between 150 and 155 kJ mol⁻¹, which are in good agreement with the values previously reported [9–10]. Due to the identical CH₄ reaction rates, the reaction order in CH₄, the rate constants, and the activation energies for all H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking of CH₄, it could be concluded that all three reactions over ceria-based materials have similar reaction pathways in CH₄ activity.

3.4. Reactivity toward reforming and decomposition of oxyhydrocarbon

The decompositions of CH₃OH with and without co-reactant elements (i.e. H₂O and CO₂) were studied to confirm the above redox mechanism. The feed condition was co-reactant/CH₃OH in helium with the several molar ratios in the temperature range of 873–1073 K (to prevent the influence of homogeneous non-catalytic reaction). It should be noted according to our experimental results that, similar to CH₄ reforming, the reaction rate (per degree of OSC) and the kinetic dependencies of CH₃OH reaction rates were identical for all ceria-based materials, except the requirement of inlet co-reactant partial pressure to operate without detectable carbon formation. We thereby report here detailed reactivity and kinetic data only on Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) sample.

Table 4

Reaction rate and fraction of by-products from the H₂O reforming of CH₃OH on Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) at several temperature and various inlet H₂O/CH₃OH ratios (3 kPa CH₃OH balance in He)

Temperature (K)	H ₂ O/CH ₃ OH ratio	CH ₃ OH reaction rate/O ₂ ^x (moles mole _{oxygen} ⁻¹ s ⁻¹) × 10 ⁻³	Yield of H ₂ production (%)	Fraction of by-products (%)		
				CO	CO ₂	CH ₄
923	0.0	1.21	24.5	46.6	17.5	35.9
973	0.0	2.77	34.9	68.1	16.7	15.2
1023	0.0	7.45	42.8	85.1	14.9	0
1023	1.0	7.44	44.1	77.2	22.8	0
1023	2.0	7.46	45.9	70.3	29.7	0
1023	3.0	7.42	47.7	64.2	35.8	0

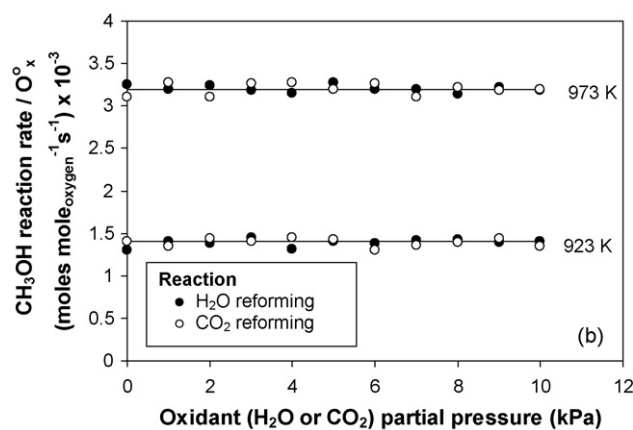
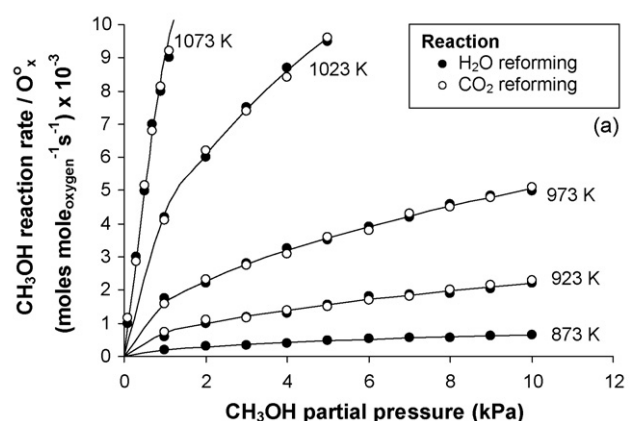


Fig. 9. Effects of CH₃OH partial pressure (a) and co-reactant partial pressure (b) on CH₃OH reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored) over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA).

After operation for 10 h, the main products from the reaction were H₂, CO, and CO₂, with small amount of CH₄ depending on the operating conditions, Table 4. According to the TPO, no carbon formation was observed in all studies. The effects of CH₃OH, H₂O, CO₂, CO and H₂ partial pressures on the rate was then studied by varying inlet CH₃OH partial pressure from 1 to 10 kPa (Fig. 9a) and changing the inlet co-reactant (H₂O or CO₂) partial pressure from 0 to 10 kPa (while keeping CH₃OH partial pressure constant at 4 kPa) (Fig. 9b). The results show that the reaction rate was proportional to CH₃OH concentration with the reaction order of 0.50 (±0.04). The rate was unaffected by H₂O and CO₂ partial pressures, in contrast, it was inhibited by the presence of H₂ and CO in the feed. The reaction orders in

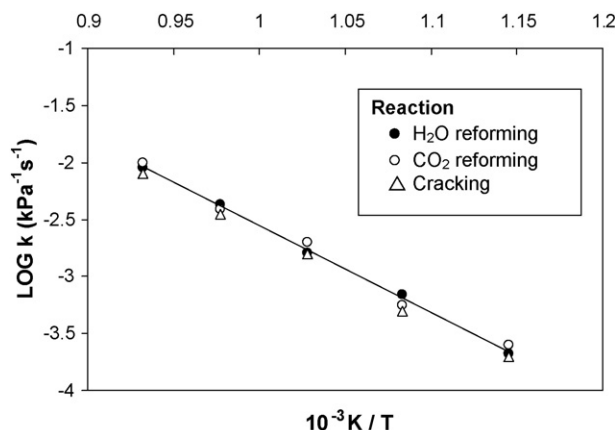
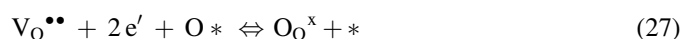


Fig. 10. Arrhenius plots for H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking of CH₃OH over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA).

H₂ and CO were between $-0.28 (\pm 0.01)$ and $-0.13 (\pm 0.02)$, respectively. The activation energies for H₂O reforming, CO₂ reforming and cracking of CH₃OH, achieved by the Arrhenius plots (Fig. 10), were 150–155 kJ/mol, which are closed to those observed from the CH₄ reactions. Therefore, based on the redox mechanistic proposal for CH₄ reaction, we suggested that the CH₃OH reaction mechanism over ceria-based materials could be written as followings:



CH₃OH first adsorbed on * forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species (CH₃*) and OH* (Eq. (23)). Similar to CH₄ reforming, the intermediate surface hydrocarbons then adsorbed on the active surface site and reacted with the lattice oxygen (O_o^x) (Eqs. (24) and (25)). The steady-state reforming rate is due to the continuous supply of the oxygen containing compounds present in the system (i.e. H₂O, CO₂ and also CH₃OH) to regenerate the lattice oxygen (O_o^x). The dependence of the CH₃OH decomposition rate on CH₃OH partial pressure without the co-reactant requirement and its

independence of the co-reactant partial pressures indicate that the lattice oxygen (O_o^x) is replenished by a sufficiently rapid reaction of the partially reduced state with the oxygen containing molecules in CH₃OH. The unchanged state of material was also confirmed by the calculation of oxygen balance during reactions and TPO after reactions.

The capability to decompose CH₃OH without requirement of steam is the great advantage of ceria-based materials for applying in SOFC system. Without the presence of steam being required, the consideration of water management in SOFC system is negligible and it is expected to simplify the overall SOFC system design, making SOFC more attractive to be used commercially.

3.5. Reactivity toward the high hydrocarbons (C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈) reforming

We again report here details only on Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) sample, as the kinetic dependencies for these hydrocarbons were identical for all ceria-based materials. The feed was hydrocarbon (either C₂H₄, C₂H₆, or C₃H₈) and co-reactant (either H₂O or CO₂) in He. Catalyst reactivity and the product selectivities are given in Table 5. At 923 K, the main products from the reforming reactions were CH₄, H₂, CO, and CO₂. The formation of C₂H₄ was also observed toward the reforming of C₃H₈ and C₂H₆. From the studies, H₂ and CO selectivities increased with increasing temperature, whereas CO₂ and C₂H₄ selectivities decreased. The dependence of CH₄ selectivity on the operating temperature was non-monotonic; maximum CH₄ production occurred at approximately 1073 K (43.8%, 30.6% and 23.5% from steam reforming of C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₈, respectively). These observations are in good agreement with our previous work, which studied the effect of temperature on the steam reforming of ethanol, ethane and ethylene over CeO₂ [49]. The decreases in CH₄ and C₂H₄ selectivities at higher temperature could be due to the further reforming to generate more CO and H₂. From the TPO testing, the amount of carbon deposited decreased with increasing inlet co-reactant concentration. At H₂O/hydrocarbons molar ratio higher than 3.0 and CO₂/hydrocarbons molar ratio higher than 5.0, no carbon formation was detected on the surface of Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA).

The influences of inlet component partial pressures on the reaction rate were then studied under the operating conditions without detectable carbon formation by changing the inlet

Table 5

Reaction rate and fraction of by-products from the H₂O and CO₂ reforming of C_nH_m on Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) (923 K, 3 kPa C_nH_m and 15 kPa co-reactant, balance in He)

Reactant	Co-reactant	C _n H _m reaction rate/O _o ^x	Yield of H ₂ production (%)	Fraction of by-products (%)				Activation energy (kJ mol ⁻¹)
				C ₂ H ₄	CH ₄	CO	CO ₂	
C ₂ H ₄	H ₂ O	2.04 ^a	26.7	–	40	48.2	11.8	150.4
	CO ₂	2.10	15.5					151.9
C ₂ H ₆	H ₂ O	2.85	29.9	9.3	28.6	49.2	12.9	148.6
	CO ₂	2.78	18.4					147.5
C ₃ H ₈	H ₂ O	5.39	34.3	18.6	20.3	48.5	12.6	145.0
	CO ₂	5.44	22.1					149.7

^a (moles mole_{oxygen}⁻¹ s⁻¹) × 10⁻³.

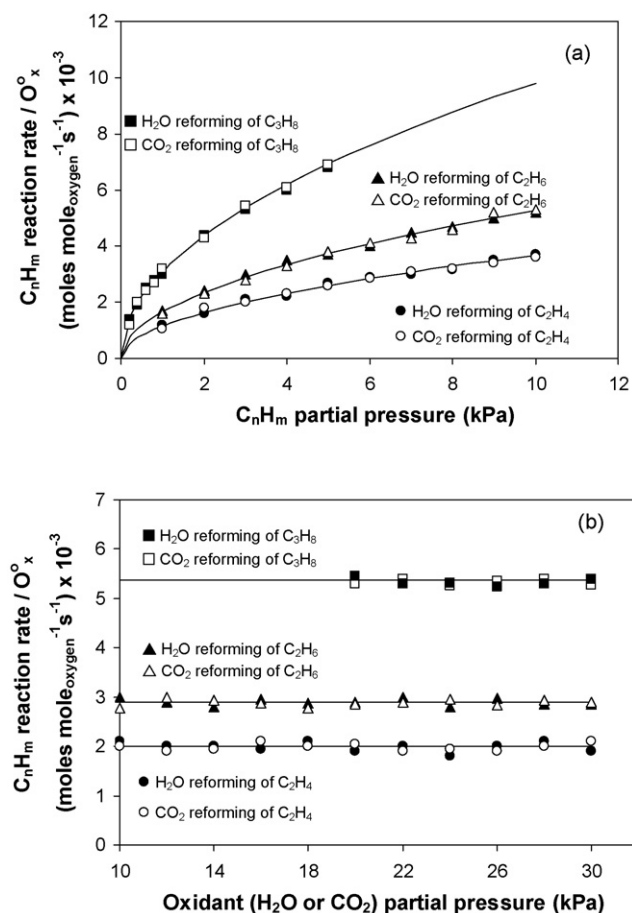


Fig. 11. Effects of C_nH_m partial pressures (a) and co-reactant partial pressure (b) on C_nH_m reaction rate (per moles of oxygen stored) over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA) at 923 K.

hydrocarbon and co-reactant partial pressures as represented in Fig. 11a and b. Similar trends as CH₄ and CH₃OH reforming were observed. The reforming rate was proportional to the hydrocarbons concentration with the reaction orders in all hydrocarbons between 0.53 and 0.55. The rate was independent of inlet H₂O and CO₂ partial pressures, but it was inhibited by the presence of H₂ and CO in the feed. Fig. 12 shows the

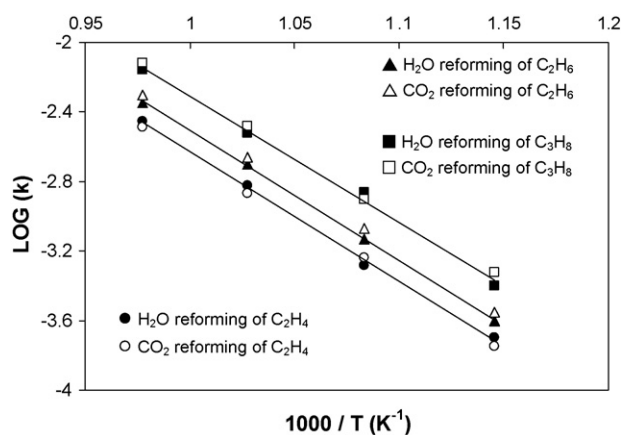


Fig. 12. Arrhenius plots for H₂O and CO₂ reforming of C_nH_m over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA).

Arrhenius plots for both H₂O and CO₂ reforming of C_nH_m over Ce-ZrO₂ (HSA). The observed activation energies for these C_nH_m reactions were in the same range as achieved from the CH₄ and CH₃OH reactions (145–152 kJ mol⁻¹). Therefore, it can also be summarized that the mechanisms for H₂O and CO₂ reforming of high hydrocarbon are almost similar to those of CH₄ except that the adsorptions of these hydrocarbon elements (Eqs. (28–30)) are applied instead of the CH₄ adsorption. In addition, the reforming of high hydrocarbons requires considerably higher content of co-reactant at the feed in order to operate properly without the problem of carbon deposition.



The capability to reform high hydrocarbon compounds with excellent resistance toward carbon deposition is another great benefit of ceria-based catalysts. Currently, natural gas and liquid petroleum gas (LPG) are the most promising primary fuels for the production of H₂ via reforming process. In order to reform these fuels, either an external pre-reforming unit or expensive noble metal catalysts (i.e. Rh) is normally required. By applying high surface area ceria-based materials as the reforming catalyst, all hydrocarbon elements can be reformed properly without the problem of carbon deposition eliminating the requirements of these costly processes.

4. Conclusion

High surface area CeO₂ and Ce-ZrO₂ provided higher CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, C₃H₈ and CH₃OH reforming rates with greater resistance toward carbon deposition than conventional Ce-ZrO₂ and CeO₂. The rates per amount of oxygen stored (moles mol⁻¹_{Oxygen} s⁻¹) on the surface of all ceria sample were in the same range, indicating the linear influence of OSC on the reaction rates. The kinetic dependencies of hydrocarbon conversions and the activation energies over these ceria-based materials were unaffected by the material specific surface area, doping element, degree of OSC and reactions. The rates were proportional to hydrocarbon partial pressures with positive fraction reaction order; independent of co-reactant partial pressures; but inhibited by CO and H₂. A set of unifying redox mechanistic proposal, in which the sole relevant elementary step is the reaction of intermediate surface hydrocarbon species with the lattice oxygen (O_l[•]) and that oxygen is efficiently replenished by a rapid surface reaction with oxygen source in the system, was applied to explain these observed kinetic dependencies.

The capabilities to decompose oxyhydrocarbons without the requirement of steam and reform high hydrocarbon compounds with excellent resistance toward carbon deposition are the great benefit of ceria-based catalysts particularly for applying in SOFC system. Without the presence of steam being required, the consideration of water management in SOFC system is negligible, while the capability to reform high hydrocarbon

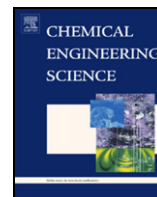
compounds with excellent resistance toward carbon deposition eliminates the requirement of expensive noble metal catalysts or the installation of external pre-reformer. These benefits simplify the overall SOFC system design, making SOFC more attractive for commercial uses.

Acknowledgements

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Reactivity of CeO₂ and Ce–ZrO₂ toward steam reforming of palm fatty acid distilled (PFAD) with co-fed oxygen and hydrogen

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ABSTRACT

Steam reforming of three types free fatty acids (i.e. palmitic, oleic and linoleic acids) and palm fatty acid distilled (PFAD) were studied over ceria-based materials prepared by precipitation and cationic surfactant-assisted methods with/without Zr doping with an aim to develop good reforming catalyst for converting PFAD to hydrogen with high reforming reactivity and low carbon deposition. Among all catalysts, high surface area (HSA) Ce–ZrO₂ (with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1) prepared by cationic surfactant-assisted method provided the highest steam reforming reactivity with greatest resistance toward carbon deposition; due to the high oxygen storage capacity (OSC) of this material. During steam reforming, the redox reactions between absorbed hydrocarbons (forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species) with lattice oxygen (O_l^{2−}) at Ce–ZrO₂ surface take place. The rapid redox reactions between surface carbon (C^{*}) forming via the adsorptions of hydrocarbon with lattice oxygen (O_l^{2−}) prevents the formation of carbon species from decomposition of hydrocarbons. At 1173 K, the main products from the steam reforming of PFAD over this catalyst are H₂, CO, and CO₂ with some amounts of CH₄ and C₂H₄ generated; the formations of these high hydrocarbons can be eliminated by increasing temperature up to 1273 K.

The addition of either oxygen or hydrogen together with PFAD and steam considerably reduced the degree of carbon deposition. The presence of oxygen also reduced the formations of hydrocarbons, on the other hand, these formations increased when hydrogen was introduced at the feed. The negative effect of hydrogen is due to hydrogenation reaction as well as the reduction of lattice oxygen by hydrogen, which consequently inhibits the reaction of lattice oxygen with surface hydrocarbon species.

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1. Introduction

According to the current oil crisis and the shortage of fossil fuels, the development of the biomass-based fuels (or biofuel) attracts much attention. Nowadays, one of the most practical biofuels is biodiesel, which are produced from palm oil. It should be noted that, recently, there are also several attempts to convert lignocellulosic biomass to biofuels (i.e. BTL); this conversion will reduce the competition of fuel with food market, which results in the food shortage and the rising of food price. Nevertheless, this technology remains need further development to achieve high efficiency.

Focusing on palm oil, over the past 10 years, this compound has become one of the attractive resources for biodiesel production since it constitutes a renewable and sustainable source of energy. Importantly, palm oil always contain high amount of free fatty acid (FFA)

and the presence of too high FFA easily results in high amounts of soap produced simultaneously with the transesterification reaction. Therefore, to avoid this reaction, most of FFA in palm oil must be firstly processed or removed (as called palm fatty acid distilled or PFAD). The conversion of this removed PFAD to valuable products or fuels (e.g. fatty acid methyl esters via esterification or even hydrogen) is an alternative way to reduce the cost for biodiesel production and consequently make biodiesel enable to compete economically with conventional petroleum diesel fuels. Among the prospective fuels, hydrogen is expected to be one of the most promising fuels in the near future. It is known as the zero-emission fuel and could be produced efficiently from the catalytic reforming of several hydrocarbon sources such as methane, methanol, bio-ethanol, gasoline and other oil derivatives. On this basis, the production of hydrogen from PFAD will provide the great benefit in terms of energy, environmental, and economical aspects.

Focusing on catalytic reforming process, steam reforming of several oxygenated hydrocarbons, e.g. methanol, acetic acid, ethanol, acetone, phenol or cresol as model compounds of bio-oils has widely

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been investigated (Basagiannis and Verykios, 2006; Galdámez et al., 2005; Czernik et al., 2004; Wang et al., 1997, 1996; Polychronopoulou et al., 2004; Takanabe et al., 2004; Fatsikostas et al., 2002; Liguras et al., 2003). Recently, many researchers have also investigated the addition of oxygen together with steam in a single process, calling an autothermal reforming, in order to reduce the degree of carbon formation as well as provide the thermal self-sustaining process. Until now, no literature work has reported the conversion fatty acids or PFAD to hydrogen by the catalytic reforming process; only few works have presented the catalytic reforming or cracking of acetic acid to hydrogen (Basagiannis and Verykios, 2007, in press; Davidian et al., 2008). PFAD normally consists mainly of palmitic acid ($C_{16}H_{32}O_2$; $CH_3(CH_2)_{14}COOH$), oleic acid ($C_{18}H_{34}O_2$; $CH_3(CH_2)_7CH=CH(CH_2)_7COOH$) and linoleic acid ($C_{18}H_{32}O_2$; $CH_3(CH_2)_4CH=CHCH_2CH=CH(CH_2)_7CO_2H$) with various ratios depending on the source of palm oils. The major difficulty to reform high hydrocarbon compounds like PFAD is the possible deactivation of the reforming catalyst due to the carbon deposition, as fatty acids can decompose homogeneously and form carbon species on the surface of catalyst. In addition, from its thermal decomposition, several gaseous hydrocarbon elements, which act as very strong promoters for carbon formation, can be formed. Worldwide efforts are in progress to explore a novel catalyst with high activity and stability for the reforming of heavy hydrocarbon compounds.

Recently, it is established that ceria and metal oxide (e.g. Gd, Nb, and Zr) doped cerias provide high oxygen storage capacity (OSC), which is beneficial in oxidation and reforming processes (Ramirez et al., 2002). The great benefit of ceria-based catalysts for the reforming reaction is their high resistance toward carbon deposition compared to the conventional metal catalysts i.e. Ni (Ramírez-Cabrera et al., 2003; Terribile et al., 1998a); however, the main weaknesses of the materials are their low specific surface area and high deactivation due to the thermal sintering particularly when operated at such a high temperature (Terribile et al., 1998a). The preparation and use of high surface area (HSA) ceria (CeO_2 , HSA) with high resistance toward the sintering would be a good alternative method to improve the catalytic reactivity (Terribile et al., 1998a). Recently, Terribile et al. (1998b) synthesized CeO_2 (HSA) with improved textural, structural and chemical properties for environmental applications by using a novel cationic surfactant-assisted approach. They reported that the reaction of cerium salts under basic conditions with ammonia in the presence of a cationic surfactant results in the precipitation of a gelatinous hydrous cerium oxide/surfactant mixture, which after calcination gives HSA, fluorite-structured CeO_2 with good homogeneity and stability. They suggested that the cationic surfactant acts as a surface area enhancer by incorporation into the hydrous oxide and lowering of the surface tension of water in the pores during drying.

In addition to the investigation on preparation method, the addition of zirconium oxide (ZrO_2) has also been reported to improve the specific surface area, OSC, redox property, thermal stability and catalytic activity of ceria (Ozawa et al., 1993; Balducci et al., 1998; Vlaic et al., 1997; Rao et al., 1994; Fornasiero et al., 1995; Yao et al., 1997). These benefits were associated with enhanced reducibility of cerium (IV) in $Ce-ZrO_2$, which is a consequence of high O^{2-} mobility inside the fluorite lattice. The reason for the increasing mobility might be related to the lattice strain, which is generated by the introduction of a smaller isovalent Zr cation into the CeO_2 lattice (Zr^{4+} has a crystal ionic radius of 0.84 Å, which is smaller than 0.97 Å for Ce^{4+} in the same co-ordination environment) (Kim, 1989).

In the present work, it is aimed to develop the reforming catalysts that can convert PFAD to hydrogen with high reforming activity and great resistance toward carbon formation. CeO_2 and $Ce-ZrO_2$ prepared by two different methods i.e. typical (co-) precipitation and cationic surfactant-assisted methods were selected as the catalyst in the present work. The steam reforming of palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid (as main components in PFAD) over these catalysts

were firstly studied and compared to conventional Ni/Al_2O_3 . The steam reforming of PFAD over selected catalyst was then carried out. The effects of temperature, oxygen adding and hydrogen adding on the reforming reactivity were also investigated. Lastly, the possible mechanism for steam reforming of PFAD over ceria-based catalysts was discussed.

2. Experimental methods

2.1. Raw material and chemicals

In the present work, palm fatty acid distillate (PFAD) was obtained from Chumporn Palm Oil Industry Public Company Limited., Thailand. It consists of 93 wt% FFA (mainly contains 46% palmitic acid, 34% oleic acid and 8% linoleic acid with small amount of other fatty acids i.e. stearic, myristic, tetracosenoic, linolenic, ecosanoic, ecosenoic, and palmitoleic acid). The rest elements are triglycerides, diglycerides (DG), monoglycerides (MG) and traces of impurities. The lab grade palmitic acid, oleic acid, and linoleic acid were supplied from Aldrich.

2.2. Material synthesis and characterization

In the present work, CeO_2 was synthesized by precipitation (CeO_2 (LSA)) and cationic surfactant-assisted (CeO_2 (HSA)) methods. CeO_2 (LSA) was prepared by the precipitation of cerium nitrate ($Ce(NO_3)_3 \cdot H_2O$) from Aldrich. The starting solution was prepared by slowly adding of 0.4 M ammonia (with flow rate of $0.254 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$) to 0.1 M of cerium nitrate solution until reaching volumetric ratio of 2:1. This solution was stirred by magnetic stirring (100 rpm) for 3 h, then sealed and placed in a thermostatic bath maintained at 363 K for 3 days to prevent an agglomeration of the particles. The precipitate was filtered and washed with deionized water and acetone to remove the free surfactant. It was dried overnight in an oven at 383 K, and then calcined at 1173 K for 6 h. Following to the work from Terribile et al. (1998b), CeO_2 (HSA) were prepared by adding an aqueous solution of the appropriate cationic surfactant, 0.1 M cetyltrimethylammonium bromide solution from Aldrich, to a 0.1 M cerium nitrate. The molar ratio of $([Ce])/[cetyltrimethylammonium \text{ bromide}]$ was kept constant at 0.8. The mixture was stirred and then aqueous ammonia was slowly added with vigorous stirring until the pH was 11.5 (Terribile et al., 1998b). After treatment with the same procedure as CeO_2 (LSA), fluorite-structured CeO_2 with good homogeneity were obtained.

$Ce_{1-x}Zr_xO_2$ (or $Ce-ZrO_2$) with different Ce/Zr molar ratios were also prepared by either co-precipitation or surfactant-assisted method of cerium nitrate ($Ce(NO_3)_3 \cdot H_2O$), and zirconium oxychloride ($ZrOCl_2 \cdot H_2O$) (from Aldrich). The ratio between each metal salt was altered to achieve nominal Ce/Zr molar ratios: $Ce_{1-x}Zr_xO_2$, where $x = 0.25, 0.50$, and 0.75 , respectively. After treatment, the specific surface areas of all CeO_2 and $Ce-ZrO_2$ were achieved from BET measurement. As presented in Table 1, after drying in the oven,

Table 1
Specific surface area of CeO_2 and $Ce-ZrO_2$ before and after calcination at 1173 K

Catalysts	Surface area after drying ($\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Surface area after calcination ($\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$)
CeO_2 (HSA)	105	29
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	135	49
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	120	47
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	115	46.5
CeO_2 (LSA)	55	11
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	82	22
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	74	20.5
$Ce-ZrO_2$ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	70	20

Table 2
Physicochemical properties of Ni/Al₂O₃ after reduction

Catalyst	Metal-load ^a (wt%)	BET surface area (m ² g ⁻¹)	Metal- reducibility ^b (%)	Metal- dispersion ^c (%)
Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	4.9	40	92.1	4.87

^aMeasured from X-ray fluorescence analysis.

^bMeasured from temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) with 5% hydrogen.

^cMeasured from temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) of hydrogen after TPR measurement.

surface areas of 105 and 55 m² g⁻¹ were observed for CeO₂ (HSA) and CeO₂(LSA), respectively, and, as expected, the surface area decreased at high calcination temperatures. However, the value for CeO₂ (HSA) is still appreciable after calcination at 1173 K. The achievement of HSA material by surfactant-assisted procedure is due to the interaction of hydrous oxide with cationic surfactants under basic conditions during the preparation (Terribile et al., 1998b). At high pH value, conducting the precipitation of hydrous oxide in the presence of cationic surfactant allows cation exchange process between H⁺ and the surfactant, resulting in a developed pore structure with an increase in surface area (Terribile et al., 1998b). It can also be seen that the introduction of ZrO₂ stabilizes the surface area of ceria, which is in good agreement with several previous reports (Kruse et al., 1998; Kaspar et al., 1999; Roh et al., 2004).

For comparison, Ni/Al₂O₃ (5 wt% Ni) was also prepared by impregnating γ -Al₂O₃ (from Aldrich) with Ni(NO₃)₂ solution (from Aldrich). After stirring, the solution was dried and calcined at 1173 K for 6 h. The catalyst powder was reduced with 10% H₂/Ar at 773 K for 6 h before use. After reduction, Ni/Al₂O₃ was characterized by several physicochemical methods. The weight contents of Ni were determined by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis. The reducibility percentage of nickel was measured and calculated from the degree of H₂ uptakes from temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) test using 5% H₂ with the total flow rate of 100 cm³ min⁻¹ and temperature from room temperature to 773 K, while the dispersion percentage of nickel was identified from temperature-programmed desorption (TPD) by measuring the volumetric H₂ chemisorbed. All physicochemical properties of the synthesized catalysts are presented in Table 2.

2.3. Apparatus and procedures

To undergoing the catalytic testing, an experimental reactor system was constructed. The feed including palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid, PFAD and deionized H₂O was introduced via a heated syringe pump passing through our design quartz vaporizer-mixer system, where the inlet fatty acids are injected as droplet before vaporized and mixed with steam/carrier gas. All inlet components were introduced to a 10-mm diameter quartz reactor, which is mounted vertically inside tubular furnace. The catalyst (100 mg) was loaded in the quartz reactor, which was packed with a small amount of quartz wool to prevent the catalyst from moving. Preliminary experiments were carried out to find suitable conditions in which internal and external mass transfer effects are not predominant. Considering the effect of external mass transfer, the total gas flow rate was varied between 10 and 150 cm³ min⁻¹ under a constant residence time of 10⁻³ g min cm⁻³. It was found that the reforming rate was independent of gas velocity when the gas flow rate was higher than 70 cm³ min⁻¹, indicating the absence of external mass transfer effects at this high velocity. Furthermore, the reactions on different average sizes of catalysts (up to 500 μ m) were carried out to confirm that the experiments were in the region of intrinsic kinetics. It was observed that the catalysts with the particle size less than 200 μ m showed no intraparticle diffusion limitation in the range of

conditions studied. Therefore, the total flow rate was kept constant at 100 cm³ min⁻¹ whereas catalyst diameter was between 100 and 200 μ m in all experiments.

In our system, a Type-K thermocouple was placed into the annular space between the reactor and the furnace. This thermocouple was mounted on the tubular reactor in close contact with the catalyst bed to minimize the temperature difference between the catalyst bed and the thermocouple. Another Type-K thermocouple was inserted in the middle of the quartz tube in order to re-check the possible temperature gradient. It is noted that the inner-system thermocouple is covered with small closed-end quartz rod to prevent the catalytic reactivity of thermocouple during reaction. After the reactions, the exit gas mixture was transferred via trace-heated lines to the analysis section, which consists of a Porapak Q column Shimadzu 14B gas chromatograph (GC) and a mass spectrometer (MS). The MS in which the sampling of the exit gas was done by a quartz capillary and differential pumping was used for the transient and carbon formation experiments, whereas the GC was applied in order to investigate the steady-state condition experiments and to recheck the results from MS. In the present work the reactivity of catalyst toward the reaction was defined in terms of hydrogen and other gaseous hydrocarbon by-product selectivities (based on carbon balance).

2.4. Measurement of carbon formation

In order to investigate the amount of carbon formed on catalyst surface, the oxidation reaction was applied by introducing 10% O₂ in helium into the system at isothermal condition (1173 K), after purging the system with helium. The amount of carbon formation on the surface of catalysts was determined by measuring the areas under peak of CO and CO₂ from the test compared with those from the calibrations of these components. It is noted that the calibrations of CO and CO₂ were performed by injecting a known amount of these calibration gases from a loop, in an injection valve in the bypass line.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Redox properties and redox reversibility

After treatment, the degrees of OSC for fresh ceria-based materials were investigated using reduction measurement (R-1), which was performed by purging the catalysts with 5% H₂ in helium at 1173 K. The amount of H₂ uptake is correlated to the amount of oxygen stored in the catalysts. As presented in Table 3, the amount of H₂ uptakes over HSA Ce–ZrO₂ and CeO₂ are significantly higher than those over the low surface area cerias, suggesting the increasing of OSC with the doping of Zr and the increasing of material specific surface area. The benefit of OSC on the reforming reaction will be later presented in Section 4. After purged with helium, the redox

Table 3
R-1, Ox-1, R-2 analyses of ceria-based materials after calcination

Catalyst	Total H ₂ uptake from R-1 (μ mol/g _{cat}) ^a	Total O ₂ uptake from Ox-1 (μ mol/g _{cat}) ^a	Total H ₂ uptake from R-2 (μ mol/g _{cat}) ^a
CeO ₂ (HSA)	4087	2012	4077
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	2883	1423	2879
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	3692	1848	3687
Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	5221	2620	5213
CeO ₂ (LSA)	1789	884	1780
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/3)	1087	551	1075
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 1/1)	1701	709	1694
Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA) (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	2625	1305	2621

^aDeviation = \pm 3%

Table 4

Hydrogen selectivity and distribution of other gaseous by-products from the steam reforming of fatty acids over several catalysts at 1173 K

Fuel	Catalyst	Hydrogen selectivity (%)	Distribution of the by-products (%)					
			CO	CO ₂	CH ₄	C ₂ H ₆	C ₂ H ₄	C ₃ H ₆
Palmitic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	71.8	24.1	44.7	25.4	1.9	3.7	0.2
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	68.3	21.4	39.1	30.7	2.5	5.8	0.5
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	62.7	19.2	38.6	31.7	3.3	6.3	0.9
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	54.9	18.1	35.5	34.8	3.5	7.1	1.0
Oleic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	69.2	22.2	40.9	28.3	2.5	5.3	0.8
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	61.9	19.1	38.2	33.8	2.6	5.4	0.9
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	60.4	18.9	37.6	33.3	2.9	6.7	0.6
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	52.3	17.4	32.2	36.4	3.9	8.9	1.2
Linoleic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	67.4	21.8	39.5	27.6	3.8	5.9	1.4
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	63.8	20.1	37.5	29.0	3.7	8.5	1.2
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	57.8	19.7	36.1	30.2	3.9	8.7	1.4
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	51.5	18.7	32.0	35.1	3.7	9.2	1.3
Palmitic acid	Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	65.5	29.8	40.1	22.2	3.9	9.8	1.4

reversibilities were then determined by applying oxidation measurement (Ox-1) following with second time reduction measurement (R-2). The amounts of O₂ chemisorbed and H₂ uptake are presented in Table 3. Regarding the results as also shown in Table 3, the amount of hydrogen uptakes for all materials were approximately identical to those from the R-1, indicating the reversibility of OSC for these synthesized ceria-based materials.

3.2. Reactivity toward the steam reforming of fatty acids

Before undergoing the tests on PFAD, the steam reforming of palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid were firstly investigated as these three hydrocarbons are the main components in PFAD. The experiments were carried out at 1173 K by introducing each fatty acid along with steam as co-reactant. It should be noted that the reactions for Ce–ZrO₂ with different Ce/Zr ratios (1/3, 1/1, and 3/1) were preliminary done over palmitic acid and the results revealed that Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1 synthesized from both techniques shows the best performance in terms of stability, activity and product selectivities. Therefore, we report here detailed reactivity of Ce–ZrO₂ only with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

Table 4 presents the summarize of gaseous product distribution from the steam reforming of palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid over CeO₂ and Ce–ZrO₂ prepared by two techniques, while Fig. 1 shows the variations in hydrogen selectivity (%) with time (under the period of 48 h) from the steam reforming of palmitic acid over these catalysts. It is noted that the product distribution in the present work is reported in term of selectivity, as the conversion of fatty acids is always 100% in the range of conditions studied. It can be seen from Fig. 1 that no significant deactivation was detected from these four catalysts indicating their good stability toward the reactions. From Table 4, apart from H₂, CO, and CO₂ productions, significant amount of CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆ were also detected from the reactions. The production of CO₂ indicates the contribution of the water–gas shift at this high temperature, while the presenting of gaseous hydrocarbons (i.e. CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆) comes from the decomposition of these fatty acids Eq. (1) in the Discussion section). Between these three fatty acids, palmitic acid provides highest hydrogen production, whereas hydrogen production from oleic acid is slightly higher than that from linoleic acid. Furthermore, compared between four catalysts (CeO₂ (HSA), CeO₂ (LSA), Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA), and Ce–ZrO₂ (LSA)), Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) presents the highest hydrogen production with considerably lower formations of CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆. It should be noted that, for comparison, the steam reforming of palmitic acid over conventional Ni/Al₂O₃ was tested at 1173 K. As

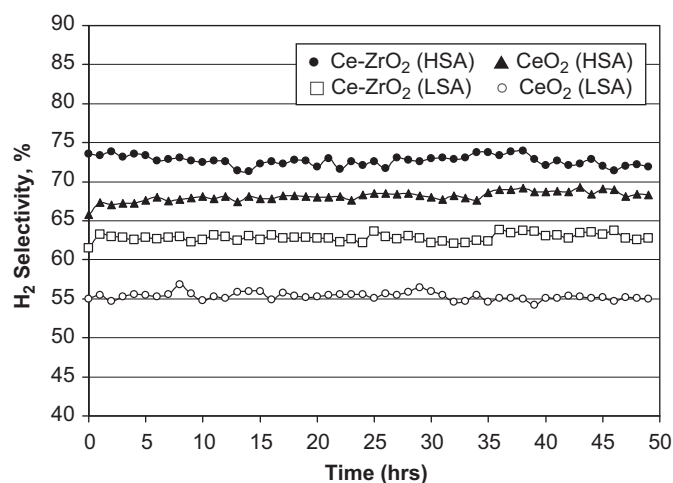


Fig. 1. Variation in hydrogen selectivities with time from steam reforming of palmitic acid at 1173 K over several catalysts.

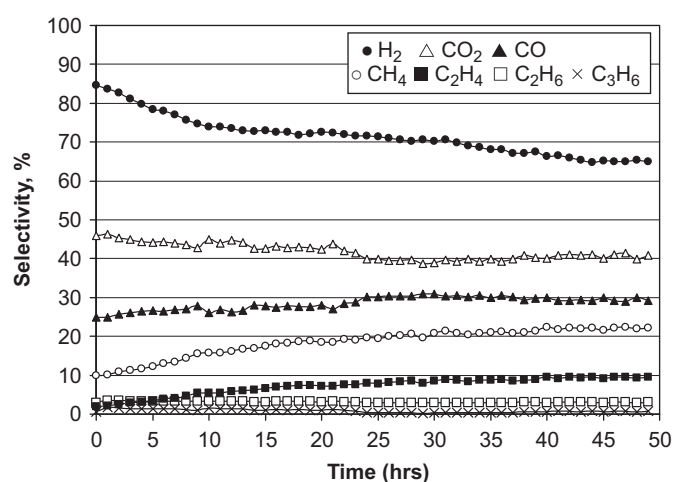


Fig. 2. Variations in hydrogen and other gaseous product selectivities with time from steam reforming of palmitic acid at 1173 K over Ni/Al₂O₃.

seen in Fig. 2, unstable profiles of hydrogen production yield, which related to the formation of carbon species on the surface of catalyst, were observed.

Table 5

Amount of carbon deposition on the surface of each catalyst after exposure in the steam reforming of fatty acids at 1173 K for 48 h

Fuel	Catalyst	Carbon formation ($\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$)
Palmitic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	5.0
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	5.3
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	5.9
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	6.4
Oleic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	5.1
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	5.5
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	6.4
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	6.9
Linoleic acid	Ce–ZrO ₂ (HSA)	5.4
	CeO ₂ (HSA)	5.5
	Ce–ZrO ₂ (LSA)	6.6
	CeO ₂ (LSA)	7.0
Palmitic acid	Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	9.5

After purging in helium, the post-reaction oxidation experiments were carried out by introducing of 10% oxygen in helium to determine the amount of carbon formation occurred in the system. The oxidation measurement detected some amount of carbon on the surface of ceria-based catalysts (between 5.0 and 5.5 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ for HSA materials and between 5.9 and 7.0 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$ for low surface area one), whereas significantly higher amount of carbon was found over Ni/Al₂O₃, Table 5, indicating the greater resistance toward carbon deposition of ceria-based catalysts. The explanation for the steam reforming reactivity of ceria-based catalysts with high resistance toward carbon deposition will be given in the Discussion section.

3.3. Reactivity toward the steam reforming of PFAD

From the results in Section 3.1, among all ceria-based catalysts, Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) with Ce/Zr ratios of 3/1 showed the greatest reactivities toward the steam reforming of palmitic acid, oleic acid and linoleic acid. Therefore, it was chosen for the further study to investigate the reactivity toward the steam reforming of PFAD. Instead of individual fatty acid, the feed was PFAD/H₂O in helium with the steam/carbon ratio of 3.0. It is noted that, before studying the catalyst performance, homogeneous (non-catalytic) steam reforming of PFAD (with above steam/carbon ratio) was also investigated at 1123 K. It was found that at this temperature PFAD were all homogeneously converted to CH₄, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, C₃H₆, CO, CO₂ and H₂ (with H₂ selectivity of 41.3% and CH₄, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, C₃H₆, CO, CO₂ selectivities of 22.3, 10.3, 16.8, 5.0, 16.4, 29.2%, respectively). It should also be noted that significant amount of carbon was also detected in the blank reactor after exposure for 10 h.

As for the catalyst testing, the variations in hydrogen production and gaseous by-product selectivities with time from the steam reforming of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂ at 1123 K are shown in Fig. 3. Similar trend as all three fatty acids was observed; the main products are H₂, CO, and CO₂ with some amounts of CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆. The post-reaction oxidation measurement indicated that the amount of carbon deposition on the surface of Ce–ZrO₂ after exposure in reforming condition for 48 h is 5.1 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$. As the next step, the effects of inlet steam/carbon ratio and temperature on the reforming reactivity were then studied by varying the inlet steam/carbon ratio from 3.0 to 5.0, 7.0, 9.0 and 11.0, and increasing the operating temperature from 1173 to 1198, 1223, 1248 and 1273 K. Fig. 4 presents the effect of inlet steam/carbon ratio on the hydrogen production and other by-product selectivities (after held the system for 10 h at each condition to ensure that the reaction reactivity is stable), whereas Table 6 presents the degree of carbon deposition observed from the post-reaction oxidation measurement.

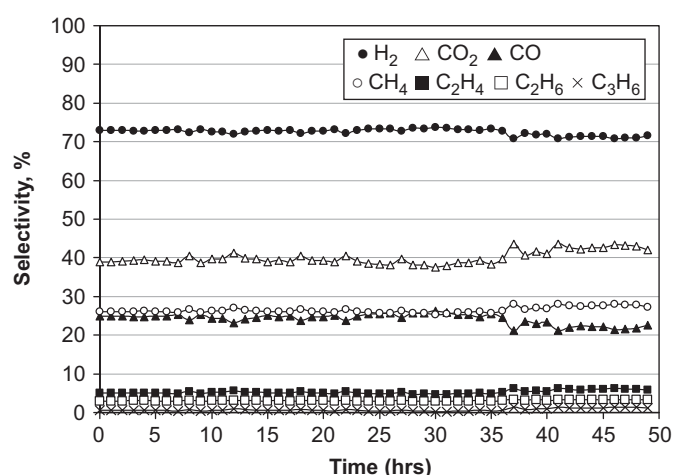


Fig. 3. Variations in hydrogen and other gaseous product selectivities with time from steam reforming of PFAD at 1173 K over Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

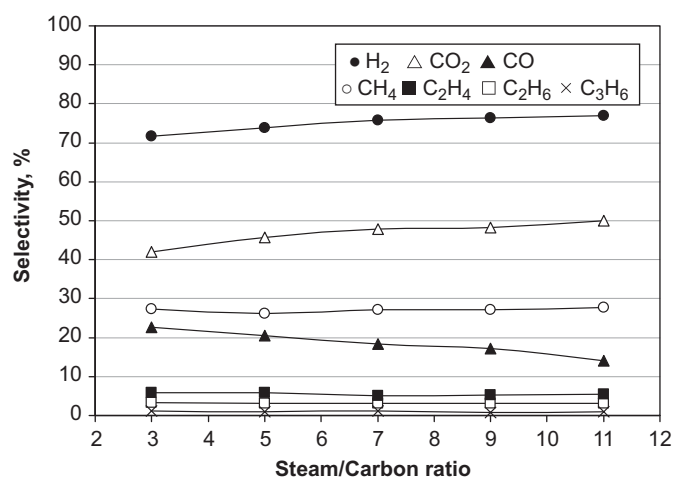


Fig. 4. Effect of inlet steam/carbon molar ratio on gaseous product selectivities from steam reforming of PFAD at 1173 K over Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

Table 6

Effects of inlet steam/carbon molar ratio and temperature on the degree of carbon formation after exposure in steam reforming of PFAD for 10 h

Catalyst	Steam/carbon molar ratio	Temperature (K)	Carbon formation ($\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$)
Ce–ZrO ₂ (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	3.0	1173	5.1
	5.0	1173	5.0
	7.0	1173	5.2
	9.0	1173	5.1
	11.0	1173	5.0
	3.0	1198	4.7
	3.0	1223	4.3
	3.0	1248	3.9
	3.0	1273	3.5

It can be seen that hydrogen and carbon dioxide increase with increasing steam content, whereas carbon monoxide decreases; this could be mainly due to the contribution of the water gas shift reaction. Nevertheless, all hydrocarbon (CH₄, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆) selectivities remain unchanged with increasing steam content and the amount of carbon deposition was relatively unaffected by the increasing of steam. Fig. 5 illustrates the influence of temperature

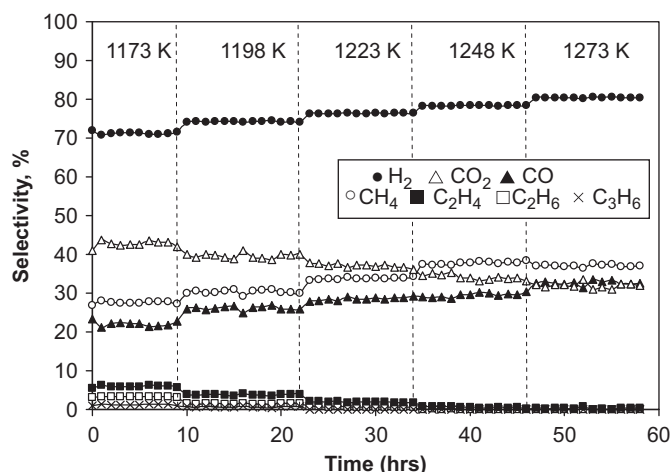


Fig. 5. Effect of temperature on hydrogen and other gaseous product selectivities with time from steam reforming of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

on the hydrogen yield and gaseous product selectivities. Clearly, the activities of catalyst increased with increasing temperature. At 1273 K, the main products from the steam reforming of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂ were H₂, CO, CO₂, and CH₄, with insignificant amounts of C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆. Table 6 also presents the effect of temperature on the degree of carbon deposition; it can be seen that the amount of carbon formation on Ce–ZrO₂ surface decreased with increasing temperature.

3.4. Reactivity towards reforming of PFAD with co-fed oxygen

According to the results in Section 3.3, Ce–ZrO₂ can reform PFAD efficiently with high resistance toward carbon formation compared to conventional Ni/Al₂O₃. Nevertheless, the major consideration for ceria-based catalyst is its relatively low reforming reactivity, which results in the remains of high hydrocarbons in the product due to the incomplete reforming reaction particularly at low operating temperature (1173–1198 K). These formations could be minimized by increasing the temperature to 1273 K, which means significantly high energy input is required for the system. As an alternative procedure to reduce the formations of these hydrocarbons, oxygen was added in the feed together with PFAD and steam as autothermal reforming operation. In the present work, the inlet steam/carbon molar ratio was kept constant at 3.0, while the inlet O₂/carbon molar ratios were varied from 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, to 1.0. The effect of oxygen concentration on product selectivities at 1173 K (after held the system for 10 h at each condition to ensure that the reaction reactivity is stable) is shown in Fig. 6.

It can be seen that hydrogen selectivity increased with increasing O₂/carbon molar ratio until the ratio reached 0.8, then oxygen showed no effect on the hydrogen production at higher inlet O₂/carbon molar ratio values. It should be noted that the conversion of O₂ was always closed to 100% in all testing. Fig. 6 also indicates that the dependence of oxygen on CH₄ production is non-monotonic. At suitable O₂/carbon molar ratio, higher H₂, CO, and CO₂ were observed from the autothermal reforming of PFAD, whereas no formation of C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆ was found compared to the steam reforming at the same operating conditions. The post-reaction oxidation measurement was then carried out to determine the degree of carbon formation on catalyst surface. From the oxidation measurement results shown in Table 7, significantly less quantities of carbon deposited were observed at high O₂/carbon molar ratio.

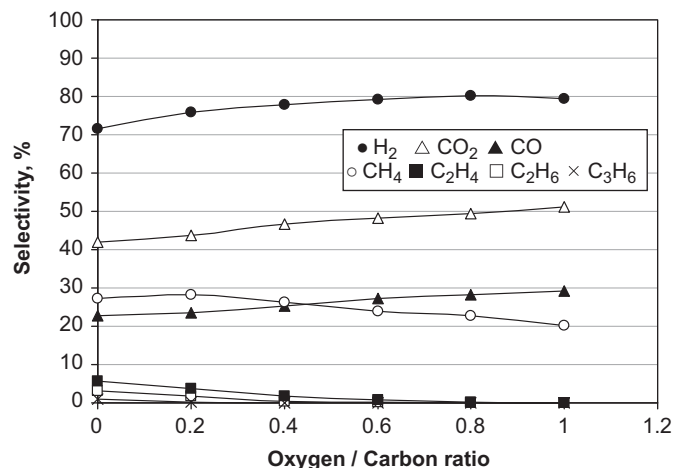


Fig. 6. Effect of inlet oxygen/carbon molar ratio on gaseous product selectivities from steam reforming of PFAD at 1173 K over Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

Table 7

Effects of inlet oxygen/carbon and hydrogen/carbon molar ratio on the degree of carbon formation after exposure in steam reforming of PFAD at 1023 K for 10 h

Catalyst	Oxygen/carbon molar ratio	Hydrogen/carbon molar ratio	Carbon formation (mmol g _{cat} ^{−1})
Ce–ZrO ₂ (Ce/Zr = 3/1)	0.2	–	4.7
	0.4	–	4.1
	0.6	–	3.6
	0.8	–	3.2
	1.0	–	3.0
	–	0.5	4.8
	–	1.0	4.5
	–	1.5	4.4
	–	2.0	4.2
	–	2.5	4.1
	–	3.0	3.9
	–	3.5	3.9
	–	4.0	3.8
	–	4.5	3.9
	–	5.0	3.8

3.5. Reactivity towards reforming of PFAD with co-fed hydrogen

Previously, we reported that the addition of hydrogen as co-feeding along with oxyhydrocarbon (i.e. ethanol) and steam over Ni catalysts could reduce the degree of carbon formation in the system as well as minimize the presences of intermediate hydrocarbon i.e. C₂H₄ and C₂H₆ occurring from the decomposition of ethanol during reaction (Laosiripojana et al., 2007). Here, we thereby investigated the reactivity of Ce–ZrO₂ towards reforming of PFAD with co-fed hydrogen. The inlet steam/carbon molar ratio was kept constant at 3.0, while the inlet H₂/carbon molar ratios were varied from 0.5 to 5.0. As hydrogen was used as the feed, the effect of this component on the catalyst performance was investigated in term of gaseous hydrocarbon (i.e. CH₄, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆) distribution instead of hydrogen production selectivity. Fig. 7 presents all product distribution from the steam reforming of PFAD in the presence of hydrogen over Ce–ZrO₂ (after held the system for 10 h at each condition to ensure that the reaction reactivity is stable), while Table 7 also reports the effect of hydrogen adding on the amount of carbon formation.

It was found that, with the presence of hydrogen, less amount of carbon deposited were observed on the surface of Ce–ZrO₂. However, the formations of hydrocarbon particularly CH₄ in the product increased with increasing H₂ content. Thus, the adding of hydrogen

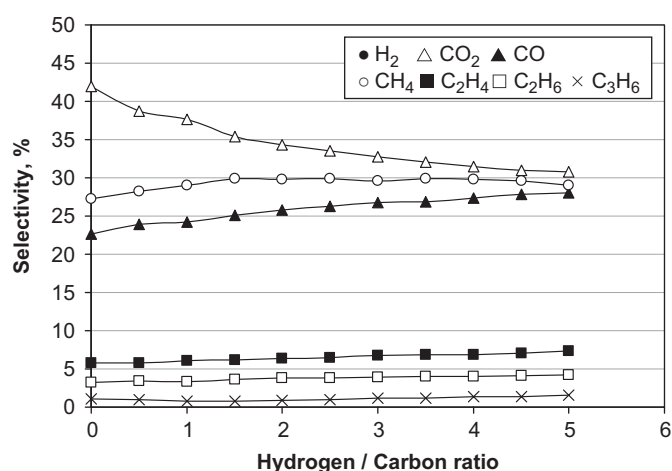
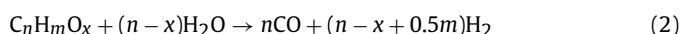
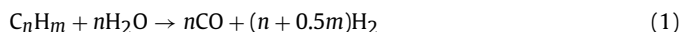


Fig. 7. Effect of inlet hydrogen/carbon molar ratio on gaseous product selectivities from steam reforming of PFAD at 1173 K over Ce–ZrO₂ with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1.

as co-fed is not the suitable procedure for improving the steam reforming performance of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂.

4. Discussion

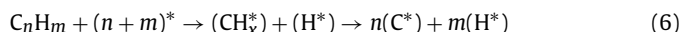
Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) was found in this study to have good reactivity toward the steam reforming of PFAD with excellent resistance towards carbon deposition compared to conventional Ni/Al₂O₃. Although Ni/Al₂O₃ provided higher initial H₂ yield, the reactivity decreases rapidly with time due to the significant carbon formation on its surface resulting in the low H₂ yield at steady-state condition (Fig. 2, Tables 4 and 5). It is noted that Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) also presented good reactivity toward steam reforming of palmitic, oleic, and linoleic acids. Among these three fatty acids, the steam reforming of palmitic acid provided highest hydrogen production with lowest presence of hydrocarbons (i.e. CH₄, C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆) in the product; this could be due to the lighter carbon molecule of palmitic acid (C₁₆) compared to oleic and linoleic acids (C₁₈). Nevertheless, the differences are not much significant. At the temperature of 1173 K, the main products from the reforming of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) were H₂, CO, CO₂, and CH₄ with some amounts of C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆. According to the mechanistic viewpoint, the overall reactions involved in the steam reforming of PFAD are very complex. At such a high operating temperature in the present work, the thermal decomposition of PFAD can take place producing several gaseous products (i.e. hydrogen, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, light hydrocarbons (C_nH_m) and oxygenates (C_nH_mO_x)) as well as carbon species forming on the surface of catalyst. By feeding steam, the steam reforming of hydrocarbons and oxygenates can then occur along with some side-reactions (e.g. water gas shift reaction and methanation).



Previously, we have proposed the redox mechanism to explain the reforming behavior of ceria-based catalysts by indicating that the reforming reaction mechanism involves the reaction between methane, or an intermediate surface hydrocarbon species, and lattice oxygen at the ceria-based material surface (Laosiripojana and

Assabumrungrat, 2005). During reforming reaction, the isothermal reaction rate reaches steady-state where co-reactant i.e. steam provides a continuing source of oxygen. We also proposed that the controlling step is the reaction of methane with ceria, and that oxygen is replenished by a significantly more facile surface reaction of the ceria with steam (Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2005). Therefore, we suggested here that the reaction pathway for steam reforming of PFAD over ceria-based materials involves the reaction between absorbed hydrocarbons (forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species) with the lattice oxygen (O_l^x) at CeO₂ surface, as illustrated schematically below.

C_nH_m adsorption:



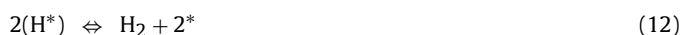
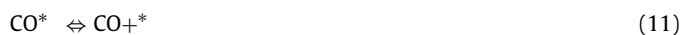
Co-reactant (H₂O) adsorption:



Redox reactions of lattice oxygen (O_l^x) with C^{*} and O^{*}



Desorption of products (CO and H₂)



Using the Kroger–Vink notation, V_O[·] denotes as an oxygen vacancy with an effective charge 2⁺, and e' is an electron which can either be more or less localized on a cerium ion or delocalized in a conduction band. * is the surface active site of ceria-based materials, there are two possibilities for this scheme depending on what is assumed for the catalyst active site. It can be a unique site, or can also be considered to be the same site as the catalyst oxidized site (O_x) (Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2005). During the reactions, hydrocarbons adsorbed on * forming intermediate surface hydrocarbon species (CH_x^{*}) (Eq. (6)) and later reacted with the lattice oxygen (O_l^x) (Eq. (9)). The steady-state reforming rate is due to the continuous supply of the oxygen source by H₂O (Eqs. (7) and (8)) that reacted with the reduced-state catalyst to recover lattice oxygen (O_l^x) (Eq. (10)).

The high resistance towards carbon deposition for ceria-based catalysts particularly Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) is mainly due to the high OSC of material. Previously, we reported the excellent resistance towards carbon deposition for CeO₂ especially for HSA CeO₂ (Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2005). CeO₂ contains a high concentration of highly mobile oxygen vacancies and thus acts as a local source or sink for oxygen on its surface. It has been reported that at high temperature the lattice oxygen (O_l^x) at the CeO₂ surface can oxidize gaseous hydrocarbons (methane Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2005, propane and butane Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2006). Although conventional CeO₂(CeO₂ (LSA)) has also been reported to provide high resistance towards carbon formation, the major weaknesses of CeO₂ (LSA) are its low specific surface area and also high size reduction due to the thermal sintering impact, resulting in its significant lower redox properties than CeO₂ (HSA). These disadvantages result in the low steam reforming reactivity for CeO₂ (LSA). It was also concluded here that the addition of ZrO₂ on CeO₂ promoted the reforming reactivity, which is in good agreement with the literatures.

According to our interested reaction (steam reforming of PFAD), carbon formation could occur from the decompositions of fatty acids

and gaseous hydrocarbon products. Theoretically, it can also occur from the Boudouard reaction especially at low inlet steam/carbon molar ratio:



These reactions could be inhibited by the redox reaction between the surface carbon (C) with the lattice oxygen (O_O^\times) at CeO_2 surface:



The greater resistance toward carbon deposition for HSA ceria-based catalyst particularly Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) is due to the significant higher amount of lattice oxygen (O_O^\times) on their surfaces, according to the results in Section 3.1.

It was also observed from the study that the addition of either oxygen or hydrogen together with PFAD and steam reduced the degree of carbon deposition. By addition of oxygen along with PFAD and steam as autothermal reforming, the partial oxidation of fatty acids takes place and fatty acids could possibly oxidize to methane and carbon monoxide; thus, the rate of fatty acid decomposition reduces and less C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆ are generated, which consequently results in the lower degree of carbon deposition on the surface of catalyst. In addition, oxygen also prevents the formation of carbon species via the hydrocarbon depositions by oxidizing these hydrocarbons to gaseous elements that are unfavored to form carbon species. Importantly, the presence of oxygen also helps steam to regenerate the lattice oxygen (O_O^\times) on CeO_2 surface ($0.5\text{O}_2 + \text{V}_\text{O}^\bullet + 2\text{e}' \rightarrow \text{O}_\text{O}^\times$), which eventually help promoting the reforming reactivity of ceria. It is noted that the major consideration of the autothermal reforming operation is the O₂/carbon ratio. The presence of too high oxygen concentration could oxidize hydrogen produced from the reaction and generate more steam.

By adding hydrogen at the feed, the degree of carbon formation also reduced due to the hydrogenation reaction. Nevertheless, it was found that in the presence of hydrogen at the feed the formations of hydrocarbon particularly CH₄ in the product increased. This negative effect of hydrogen appearance on CH₄, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆ conversions could be due to the hydrogenation of adsorbed CH_x species with this adding hydrogen and also from reduction of lattice oxygen by hydrogen and consequently inhibits the reaction of the lattice oxygen with the surface hydrocarbon species. This explanation is in good agreement with our previous studies (Laosiripojana and Assabumrungrat, 2005) which studied kinetics parameters for the methane steam reforming on ceria-based materials and reported the negative effect of hydrogen on methane conversion.

5. Conclusion

Steam reforming of free fatty acids (i.e. palmitic, oleic and linoleic acids) and palm fatty acid distilled (PFAD) were tested over ceria-based materials prepared by precipitation and cationic surfactant-assisted methods with/without Zr doping. Among all ceria-based catalysts, Ce–ZrO₂ (with Ce/Zr ratio of 3/1) from cationic surfactant-assisted method (Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA)) provided the highest degree of oxygen storage capacity (OSC) and steam reforming reactivity with greatest resistance toward carbon deposition. At 1173 K, the main products from the steam reforming of PFAD over Ce–ZrO₂ (HSA) are

H₂, CO, and CO₂ with some amounts of CH₄, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and C₃H₆; the formations of high hydrocarbon can be eliminated by increasing the operating temperature up to 1273 K.

The addition of either oxygen or hydrogen together with PFAD and steam reduced the degree of carbon deposition. The presence of oxygen also reduced the formations of C₂H₆, C₂H₄, and C₃H₆ due to the possible oxidation of fatty acids, which is eventually converted to methane and carbon monoxide. At suitable O₂H₂O/PFAD ratio, high H₂ selectivity without the formation of C₂₊ hydrocarbon was achieved. On the other hand, in the presence of hydrogen at the feed the formations of hydrocarbon in the product increased. This negative effect of hydrogen appearance on CH₄, C₂H₄, and C₂H₆ conversions is due to hydrogenation reaction and the reduction of lattice oxygen by hydrogen, which consequently inhibits the reaction of the lattice oxygen with the surface hydrocarbon species.

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