Highly efficient steam reforming of ethanol (SRE) over CeOx grown on the nano NixMgyO matrix: H2 production under a high GHSV condition

Xiang Luo, Yu Hong, Honglei Zhang, Kaiqi Shi, Gang Yang, Tao Wu





University of Nottingham Ningbo China, 199 Taikang East Road, Ningbo, 315100, China

First published 2019

This work is made available under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License:

http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0

The work is licenced to the University of Nottingham Ningbo China under the Global University Publication Licence:

https://www.nottingham.edu.cn/en/library/documents/research-support/global-university-publications-licence.pdf



Highly efficient steam reforming of ethanol (SRE) over CeO<sub>x</sub> grown on the

nano Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix: H<sub>2</sub> production under a high GHSV condition

Xiang Luo<sup>a,b</sup>, Yu Hong<sup>a</sup>, Honglei Zhang<sup>c</sup>, Kaiqi Shi<sup>a,b</sup>, Gang Yang<sup>a,b</sup>, Tao Wu<sup>a,b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Municipal Key Laboratory of Clean Energy Conversion Technologies, The University of Nottingham

Ningbo China, Ningbo 315100, China

<sup>b</sup> New Materials Institute, The University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo 315100, China

<sup>c</sup> School of Resource and Environmental Sciences, Hubei International Scientific and Technological

Cooperation Base of Sustainable Resource and Energy, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072, China

Corresponding author: tao.wu@nottingham.ac.uk

**Abstract** 

Steam reforming of ethanol (SRE) over non-noble metal catalysts is normally conducted at high

temperature (> 600 °C) to thermodynamically favour the catalytic process and carbon deposition

mitigation. However, high temperature inhibits water-gas shift reaction (WGSR) and therefore restrains

the yield of H<sub>2</sub> and leads to the formation of an excessive amount of CO. The modification of non-noble

metal catalyst to enhance WGSR is an attractive alternative. In this study, CeO<sub>x</sub> was firstly loaded onto a

nano-scaled Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix and subsequently used as the catalyst for hydrogen production via SRE.

Morphology of the catalyst materials was characterised by using a series of technologies, whilst H<sub>2</sub>-

temperature programmed reduction (H2-TPR), CO-temperature programmed deposition (CO-TPD) and X-

ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), etc., were employed to study the surface nickel, ceria clusters and

their interactions. The catalytic activity and durability of the catalyst were studied in the temperature

region of 500 - 800 °C. The CeO<sub>x</sub>-coated nano Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix exhibited an outstanding hydrogen yield of

4.82 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub> under a high gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) of 200,000 h<sup>-1</sup>. It is found that the unique

Ni<sup>0</sup>-CeO<sub>x</sub> structure facilitates the adsorption of CO on the surface and therefore promotes the effective

1

hydrogen production via WGSR. Moreover, this modified  $Ni_xMg_yO$  matrix is found to be a more robust and anti-coking nano-catalyst due to reversible switch between  $Ce^{4+}$  and  $Ce^{3+}$ .

**Keywords:** Steam reforming of ethanol; hydrogen production; Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix; CeO<sub>2</sub>; water-gas shift reaction

# 1. INTRODUCTION

The unique features of hydrogen, such as clean, inexhaustible, high conversion efficiency, make it a versatile energy carrier [1]. Currently, fossil fuels account for more than 90% of hydrogen production. The main processes for hydrogen production include natural gas reforming, coal and heavy oil gasification [2, 3], which are associated with formation of a fair amount of CO and  $SO_x$  as by-products. Along with the rise of fuel-cell hybrid electric vehicles [4, 5], higher purity hydrogen production from sustainable energy resources becomes particularly attractive in this regard [6].

Bio-ethanol has been increasingly used as a fuel and is considered as a promising alternative fuel for fuel cell due to its high H/C ratio and low cost of production [7]. It has the advantages of eliminating the risks and difficulties associated with the storage and transportation of hydrogen [8-10]. Therefore, hydrogen production from steam reforming of ethanol has been widely studied [8, 11, 12]. However, during the reforming of ethanol, apart from the desired water-gas shift reaction (WGSR), many other reactions may also occur, which are shown in Table 1. Operating conditions, and the composition and structure of the catalyst are also found to affect the reaction pathway and products distribution [11, 13].

To date, a suite of active metals (Pt, Rh, Pd, Ni, Cu, Zn, Fe) have been studied extensively as catalysts for SRE [14]. The results showed that Ni and Rh could enable the efficient hydrogen production. However, the large-scale application of Ni-based catalysts is still of challenges including carbon deposition and metallic sintering etc [15]. In our previous research [16], the nano-scaled MgO with a high specific surface area was synthesized as the supporting material of a novel Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix that exhibited a outstanding reforming activity and much better coke resistance ability when compared with the Ni/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> based catalysts and other commercialized catalysts. It is reported that the supporting material, MgO, can

facilitate CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption to accelerate the rate of coke gasification [16, 17]. But it also leads to the formation of a high CO content in the gaseous product and relatively low hydrogen yield, which can be attributed to the inhibition of WGSR at high temperature. From a thermodynamic perspective, the desired operating temperature of SRE process is in the region of 600 - 900 °C [18]. One of the reasons is that carbon deposition could be mitigated at high temperatures [19]. However, moderate temperature (> 600 °C) will thermodynamically inhibit H<sub>2</sub> formation via WGSR and lead to an excessive amount of CO in the product, which would hinder its further application in fuel cell [20, 21]. Therefore, low temperature SRE (< 400 °C) is highly attractive and is usually achieved by using various noble metals such as Pt, Rh, Ru, Pd, etc. [11, 13, 22, 23]. However, high price and low accessibility of noble metals might limit their large-scale use.

Another approach to enhance WGSR is to modify the non-noble catalyst directly. In earlier studies, it was found that the strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) inside the Ni-Ce system enabled the stabilization of Ni particles and improve the reducibility of Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions [24]. In fact, the spare electrons from Ce<sup>3+</sup> could migrate to neighbouring Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions and increase the reducibility of the subsurface Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions [25]. This activation of nickel sites may improve hydrogen production via the acceleration of ions exchange between CO and  $H_2O$ . On the other hand,  $CeO_2$  can accelerate water dissociation to form  $OH^-$  groups, which are essential for the hydrogen production from  $C_xH$  and  $C_yO_2H$  [26, 27].

To develop a robust catalyst for the in-situ hydrogen production in fuel cells, in this study, nano  $CeO_x$  clusters were grown over the novel  $Ni_xMg_yO$  matrix to introduce new interactions between  $CeO_x$  clusters and the restrained nickel ions inside the subsurface MgO matrix. The effect of this  $Ni^0$ - $CeO_x$  over WGSR was investigated under moderate temperature (> 600 °C). The overall catalytic performance in SRE was also studied under a high GHSV condition with a focus on hydrogen yield and anti-carbon formation ability.

### 2. EXPERIMENTAL

# 2.1 Preparation of catalysts

All chemicals used in this research are of analytical (Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China). Two types of catalysts, i.e., NixMgyO, NixMgyO-Ce, were prepared following the procedures

described elsewhere [16]. Firstly, magnesium nitrate and polyethylene glycol (PEG, Mn = 20 000) were dissolved in deionized water. Then, the ammonia solution (5 wt%), as a sedimentation agent, was introduced into the solution dropwise with continuous stirring. The slurry therefore formed was then transferred into a Teflon-lined vessel for hydrothermal treatment by being kept at 100 °C for 24 h [28]. The treated slurry was subsequently filtered without washing, dried at 120 °C for 24 h, and calcinated at 700 °C for 6 h. The calcined material was then impregnated with a nickel nitrate solution at 60 °C, and the obtained precursor was dried and calcined following the same processes described previously.

To prepare the Ce-modified catalysts, magnesium nitrate, PEG and cerium nitrate were initially dissolved in deionized water at a controlled molar ratio. The rest of the procedure was the same as for the preparation of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst.

In this study, the theoretical value of nickel loading was controlled at 10 wt% in mass, while the loading of Ce was 3 wt%, which was selected based on previous investigation on the effects of Ce loading as shown in Table S1. The denoted names and the actual compositions of individual catalysts are shown in Table 2.

#### 2.2 Characterization of catalysts

N2 adsorption-desorption experiment was carried out to show the surface morphology of the catalysts. Following the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method and Barett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) procedure described elsewhere [29], the specific surface area, pore volume and micropore volume of both fresh and spent catalysts were characterised by using a Micrometrics ASAP-2020. The measurements were performed at -196 °C, after the degas process at 300 °C for 5 h.

Crystal structure of the catalysts was analysed by using an X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D8 Advance) with a Cu X-ray tube ( $\lambda$  = 1.5406 Å). The diffraction intensity was recorded at a range of 2 $\theta$  between 10° and 90° with a step size of 0.01° and a counting time of 1 s.

The reducibility of nickel species on the fresh catalysts was studied via  $H_2$ -temperature programmed reduction ( $H_2$ -TPR) (Finetec, Finesorb 3010D) following the process detailed elsewhere [16]. In each test, approximately 30 mg of the catalyst was pre-treated at 300 °C in argon (99.999%) and then heated from

room temperature to 1000 °C at a heating rate of 5 °C/min under a specific atmosphere (10 vol%  $H_2$  in Argon).

In order to investigate the CO adsorption onto the surface nickel, the CO-temperature programmed desorption (CO-TPD) was also carried out using the Finetec Finesorb 3010D. Approximately 70 mg of sample was reduced by  $H_2$  at 700 °C for 2 h. The inflow gas was then switched to pure argon (99.999%) to purge off the residual  $H_2$ . Meanwhile, the bed temperature was decreased to 300 °C and kept isothermal for 1 h. The CO adsorption was conducted at room temperature for 30 min, followed by an argon-purging process until the signal of the thermal conductivity detector (TCD) became stable. The desorption process was carried out from room temperature to 750 °C at a heat rate of 5 °C/min.

The amount of carbon deposited on the used catalysts was quantified using thermogravimetric analysis (TGA, NETZSCH, model STA449F3). In each test, approximately 20 mg of the catalyst was kept at 105 °C for 20 min, and then heated to 1000 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min. An accurate balance would record the weight variations of the sample accompanied by increasing of temperature.

Raman spectrum was also applied to investigate disordered and graphitized carbon on the spent catalysts at room temperature by using a Renishaw inVia-reflex equipped with a 532 nm wavelength laser. Each sample was scanned from 800 to 3200 cm<sup>-1</sup> for at least 3 times at different positions to minimize experimental errors.

The oxidation states of elemental species on the surface of the catalysts were characterized by using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, Shimadzu Axis Ultradld Spectroscope), which was operated under a vacuum condition of  $10^{-9}$  Torr. A monochromatized Al K $\alpha$  radiation source was used along with the spectrum calibration of C 1s spectrum at 248.8 eV. Both reduced and spent catalysts were analyzed to find out the transformation of oxidation state of the surface metals.

The texture of the catalysts and the deposited carbon was observed using a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100F). For the sample preparation, the catalyst powder was dispersed in ethanol with 3 min ultrasonic treatment (40 kHz) and then titrated onto 400 mesh copper grids.

# 2.3 Steam reforming experiment

The schematic of experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1. During the course of testing, nitrogen (300 ml/min) was used as a carrier gas as well as a reference for the determination of the flow rates of product gases. Prior to each test, the catalyst was activated at 700  $^{\circ}$ C for 2 h under 25 vol% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub> at a flow rate of 400 ml/min. The water and ethanol mixture was injected into the reaction system by using a syringe pump (Eldex Lab, Inc.) at a rate of 1 ml/min (the gaseous flow rate of ethanol and water were 134.7 ml/min and 808.1 ml/min, respectively, GHSV = 200,000  $h^{-1}$ ). The steam to carbon molar ratio of the liquid mixture was fixed at 3 (steam/ethanol molar ratio = 6). The liquid mixture was evaporated in a preheater (300 °C) and mixed with nitrogen gas before being introduced to the reactor. The catalyst was loaded on the top of a perforated tray, which was placed in the middle of the reactor (310S stainless steel, I.D. = 12 mm). For each test, approximately 1.0 g of catalyst was diluted by 15.0 g of quartz sand (Aladdin, 2-3 mm  $\varphi$ ), which was calcined prior to mixing to remove moisture and volatile contaminant. A thin layer of silica wool was placed underneath the catalyst bed to prevent the loss of the catalyst powder. A thermocouple was placed along the central axis of the reactor to monitor temperature of the catalyst bed. The outflow gas passed through a cold trap and was collected by using a 1 L Tedlar bag and was analysed off-line by using a Gas Chromatograph (SHIMADZU, GC-2014). For each catalyst, its catalytic activity was tested at four different temperature levels, i.e., 500, 600, 700 and 800 °C. The composition of gas outflow was analysed 2 h after temperature of the catalyst bed had become stable. For the durability test, catalytic reforming was carried out at 700 °C and lasted for 30 h. All the tests were carried out under atmospheric pressure.

# 2.4 Evaluation of catalytic performance

The yield of hydrogen was defined based on the stoichiometry of the SRE reaction (R1):

$$H_2$$
 yield (mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>) =  $\frac{mole\ of\ produced\ hydrogen}{mole\ of\ input\ ethanol \times 6}$  (1)

The conversion of ethanol (X<sub>ethanol</sub>) was calculated only based on the production of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO. Other products, such as ethylene, acetaldehyde and acetylene, were neglected due to their extremely low mole fractions in the gas product [30].

$$X_{\text{ethanol}} (\%) = \frac{carbon \, mole \, of \, total \, products}{mole \, of \, input \, ethanol \, \times 2} \cdot 100\% \tag{2}$$

The yield of carbonaceous gases, such as CO<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub>, was calculated by:

Carbonaceous gas yield (mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>) = 
$$\frac{\text{mole of produced carbonaceous gas}}{\text{mole of input ethanol} \times 2}$$
 (3)

# 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

# 3.1 N<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption analysis

Structural features of the catalysts were characterised following the BET method, the results of which are illustrated in Table 3. It is clear that the fresh catalyst  $Ni_xMg_yO$ -Ce showed a very similar surface property to the  $Ni_xMg_yO$  catalyst, which indicates that the addition of Ce had no obvious influence on the morphology of the catalyst. This finding is also confirmed by their very similar shape of isotherms (Pseudotype II isotherm) and similar pore size distribution, as shown in Fig. 2 [16].

# 3.2 XRD analysis

Fig. 3 (A) shows the XRD patterns of the fresh catalysts that NiO and MgO exhibited the same structure as NaCl. Since no double structure peaks were observed at typical patterns of NiO or MgO, this means that the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix is actually a rocksalt-structure solid solution due to the similar ionic radius and the same valence number of Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions [16, 31]. For the fresh Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce, fluorite phase of CeO<sub>2</sub> was observed with weak intensity, which indicates small CeO<sub>2</sub> particulates dispersed over the catalyst surface [24, 32, 33]. The immiscibility of MgO and rare earth metal oxides resulted into a weak intensity of the rocksalt phase peak and increased the reducibility of surface nickel ions by altering nickel electronic property, which will affect the activity of metallic nickel clusters in SRE [24].

#### 3.3 Characteristics of Ni species

The  $H_2$ -TPR analysis was carried out to study the reducibility of surface metal ions and the interactions between nickel ions and the support, the results of which are shown in Fig. 4 (A). For the  $Ni_xMg_yO$  catalyst, the main peak (at 889 °C) was attributed to the reduction of  $Ni^{2+}$  ions dissolved inside the MgO lattice to form  $Ni_xMg_yO$  solid solution [34]. The broad shoulder peak at 630 °C or above was confirmed as the reduction of  $Ni^{2+}$  ions at sublayers in previous work [16].

For the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce, it is obvious that the total reducibility of primary nickel specie (around 884 °C) decreased after the doping with promoters, which suggests that surface isolated CeO2 could consume surface hydrogen gas and hinder hydrogen from penetrating into the matrix of solid solution for Ni<sup>2+</sup> reduction [35]. The broad shoulder peak near 730 °C could also be explained as the reduction of Ni<sup>2+</sup> at sublayers [24, 34], which was similar with the situation of the shoulder peak of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O at 630 °C. These broad shoulder peaks could also be attributed to the reduction of CeO<sub>2</sub> particles dispersed on the surface [36, 37]. Moreover, there is a noticeable broad peak at the low temperature region of 300-550 °C. The existence of this reduction peak could be explained by two reasons. The first reason is the direct reduction of surface  $CeO_2$  particles. At this temperature,  $CeO_2$  particles can be reduced from  $Ce^{4+}$  to  $Ce^{3+}$ by H<sub>2</sub> [21, 36]. On the other hand, the reduced CeO<sub>2</sub> particles could provide extra electrons that migrate to the neighbouring nickel sites or subsurface nickel merged inside MgO matrix and make Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions much easier to be reduced [24, 25, 38]. The second reason is the reduction of the uncovered Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions at the outermost layer with square pyramidal coordination or the reduction of NiO that has no interaction with the MgO surface [39, 40]. In order to further investigate the reason behind this, XRD experiment was conducted again to investigate the reduced catalysts, which were treated in a flow of 25 vol% H<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub> at 700 °C for 2 h.

As shown in Fig. 3 (B), no peaks for the reduced  $Ni^0$  were observed in the XRD pattern of the reduced  $Ni_xMg_yO$ . However, in the TPR pattern of the  $Ni_xMg_yO$ , low intensity humps in the temperature range of 300-550 °C were observed and it could be only ascribed to the existence of a small amount of  $Ni^{2+}$  ions over the surface [16]. The reason for such could be that  $Ni^0$  particles were highly dispersed on the internal

surface of the support or the formation of small size  $Ni^0$  crystals (< 5 nm), which cannot be detected by XRD analysis [41, 42]. For the  $Ni_xMg_yO$ -Ce, it was different from the  $Ni_xMg_yO$  catalyst that Ni (220) peak was found near 76.1°. Combined with the XPS results (shown in Fig. S1), in which the reduction of  $CeO_2$  was detected, it could be speculated that surface  $CeO_2$  is reduced under reducing atmosphere and form vacancies. These vacancies make the reduced  $CeO_x$  particles more wettable to the neighbouring nickel sites and accelerate the formation of metallic nickel particles on the surface, and lead to a new  $Ni^0$ -CeO<sub>x</sub> structure.

# 3.4 CO-TPD analysis

It is reported that the site for CO adsorption is Ni crystal but not the MgO support [43]. In this study, CO-temperature programmed desorption was carried out to find out the interactions between Ni sites and CO molecules. In Fig. 4 (B), the desorption peaks observed over the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O solid solutions could be divided into three groups. The peaks at low temperatures (< 200 °C) are ascribed to desorption of CO molecules with weak bonds from the smooth nickel crystal planes ( $\alpha$  site) [38, 44]. The second peak group, located in a higher temperature region (200-350 °C), could be attributed to more strongly bonded CO molecules [38]. The broader peaks, desorbed at temperatures above 400 °C, are associated with the CO dissociative adsorption over the stepped nickel surface ( $\beta$  site) [43]. Moreover, the board peaks above 400 °C could also be attributed to the formation of CO<sub>2</sub> due to oxidation of the adsorbed CO by the subsurface metal oxides or the product from WGSR of CO and surface hydroxyl groups [43, 45, 46]. Compared two catalysts, the amount of CO desorbed at low temperatures (< 400 °C) did not vary significantly because of their similar surface nickel content. However, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce showed much higher intensity peak above 400 °C, it confirmed the addition of CeO<sub>2</sub> facilitates the adsorption of CO at higher temperature. Moreover, higher capability of CO adsorption promotes the WGSR and results in a higher H<sub>2</sub> production.

# 3.5 Catalytic performance in SRE

### 3.5.1 Hydrogen yield and ethanol conversion

Hydrogen yield is a vital parameter for the evaluation of catalytic performance in steam reforming. In theory, 1 mole of ethanol can produce 6 moles of H<sub>2</sub>. However, some hydrogen molecules might participate in methanation reaction (the reverse of R12), and WGSR (R9) might be inhibited at a certain extend due to high temperature condition. As shown in Fig. 5 (A), the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst showed relatively low selectivity in hydrogen yield. At lower temperatures, for instance, 500 °C, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst only resulted in a H<sub>2</sub> yield of 0.75 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>, while the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst had considerably higher H<sub>2</sub> yields of 2.47 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>. At higher temperatures, such as 600, 700 and 800 °C, the initial H<sub>2</sub> yields of the modified catalyst were all above 4.70 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>, while the highest yield for the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst was only 3.34 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub> at 800 °C. Thus, the actual experiment result verified the promoting effects of nanoceria addition.

For the conversion of ethanol, it is clear (as shown in Fig. 5 (B)) that the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst showed a much lower ethanol conversion of 21.5% at 500 °C if compare to Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce, which had a more then double conversion of 49.8%. This result is consistent with their hydrogen yield. On the contrary, the ethanol conversion of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst at temperatures above 600 °C was on a similar level as the modified catalyst. The possible reason for such could be that the temperature above 600 °C is high enough to thermodynamically favour the decomposition of ethanol [11].

## 3.5.2 Durability test

The long-term tests were carried out at 700 °C for 30 h and the results are shown in Fig. 6. Normally, the catalytic activity of steam reforming catalyst decreases as a result of metal sintering (causing decreasing of active surface area) and carbon deposition (causing encapsulation of active metal particles) coupling with the blockage of surface defects [47, 48]. In this study, hydrogen yield and ethanol conversions of both catalysts increased at the initial stage of the reaction, and they showed even higher hydrogen yield rates at the final stage of the long-term tests. The reason for this observation could be the slow reduction of the active metal oxide (NiO) from the support matrix. At the early stage of the SRE, most of the nickel

ions were still in their oxidized state (Ni<sup>2+</sup>) and dispersed inside sublayers of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix, which were not reduced to Ni<sup>0</sup> during the hydrogen reduction process. However, these Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions were slowly reduced during the reforming process due to the higher H<sub>2</sub> concentration in gas phase. Therefore, more newly reduced Ni<sup>0</sup> sites formed when the SRE process proceeded, which resulted in the formation of more active sites and subsequently led to higher H<sub>2</sub> yields. This deduction was also confirmed by the comparison of XRD patterns of the reduced catalysts and the spent catalysts after long-term SRE tests as shown in Fig. 3 (B) and (C). It was found that the XRD spectrums of the reduced catalysts showed no Ni<sup>0</sup> diffraction peaks but appeared in the spent catalysts.

In general, both catalysts did not show notable deactivation during the long-term tests and the distribution of products did not vary significantly. The Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst showed a high efficiency in hydrogen production with a yield of 4.82 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>, which was achieved an extremely high GHSV (200,000 h<sup>-1</sup>) applied in this study. In Table 4, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst is also compared with many other nickel-based catalysts from recent literatures [49-54]. It is noteworthy that the Ni/Y<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst was the only catalyst, which showed higher hydrogen yield at 5.25 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>, while its space velocity was only one-twentieth of what was applied to Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce in this study.

# 3.5.3 Evolution of gas yields

From Fig. 6, it can be observed that the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O had higher ethanol conversion but lower hydrogen production. The reason behind this was further investigated by comparing the carbonaceous gases yields. For the modified catalyst, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce had different tendency in the yield of gas products. It showed lower methane yield, which suggested the pathways for the formation of methane were suppressed. These pathways included methanation reaction (the reverse of R10), direct decomposition of acetaldehyde (R6) and surface carbon hydrogenation (the reverse of R12). It can also be deduced that steam reforming of acetaldehyde (R5) was more favoured to produce H<sub>2</sub>. On the other hand, the surface carbon and CO were also favoured to be oxidized by the surface oxygen from CeO<sub>2</sub> instead of the hydrogenation to produce methane [55]. Therefore, these reaction pathways restricted the formation of methane and indirectly contributed to a higher hydrogen yield. Apart from the difference in methane

yield, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst also had higher CO<sub>2</sub> yield and lower CO yield, which indicated that WGSR was enhanced to produce more hydrogen. The results of CO-TPD test in this study also proved that the addition of Ce enhanced the adsorption of CO over surface nickel to promote the WGSR. From the point view of the WGSR mechanism, the adsorbed CO on the surface nickel sites can be easily oxidised to CO<sub>2</sub> by the vicinal CeO<sub>x</sub> particles. Then the reduced CeO<sub>x</sub> captures oxygen from the dissociation of water to production H<sub>2</sub>. In other words, ceria helps the generation of OH<sup>-</sup> groups via the decomposition of water molecule. The OH<sup>-</sup> groups can also promote the formation of H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> from C<sub>x</sub>H and C<sub>y</sub>O<sub>x</sub>H species [26]. Therefore, the Ni<sup>0</sup>-CeO<sub>x</sub> system facilitates hydrogen production via the promotion of CO adsorption and the dissociation of water.

# 3.6 Characterization of carbon deposits

In general, carbon deposits can physically cover the catalyst surface and results in the loss of activity. Thus, carbon deposition, as a major catalyst deactivation factor, was investigated in this study. Firstly, the amount of carbon deposits on the spent catalysts was measured by using a TGA. In Fig. 7 (A), the weight loss of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O reached ca. 24 wt%, while the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce exhibited much better performance with less than 1 wt% of weight loss. In addition, raman spectrum illustrated in Fig. 7 (B) shows that the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O exhibited much stronger integrated intensity of both D band (disordered carbon) and G band (graphite structure) if compared with the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce [56, 57]. In brief, both previous results indicate a dramatic promotion of catalyst capability in anti-carbon formation.

In order to figure out the mechanism behind this promotion, the XPS technique was applied to elucidate the nature of carbon species on catalysts surface at the C 1s region (in Fig. 7 and Table S3). In the patterns, the main peak and the other two attached shoulders can be classified as follows:  $285.0 \pm 0.2$  eV for graphite structure [24];  $285.8 \pm 0.2$  eV for "defects" or crystalline imperfections associated with disordered carbonaceous materials [58, 59]; 288-291 eV for  $CO_3^2$  species on MgO surface [60]. It was observed that the graphite peak intensity of the spent  $Ni_xMg_yO$  was very high but its "defects" peak was relatively low (Fig. 7 (C)), while the spent  $Ni_xMg_yO$ -Ce had a very low intensity of the graphite peak but higher intensity of the "defects" peak (Fig. 7 (D)). It should be emphasized that graphitic carbon is less

reactive and more difficulty for gasification. On the other hand, these types of carbon films can encapsulate active metal and cause catalytic activity loss. According to the mechanism of carbon growth, the graphitic forms is transformed from the surface accumulated carbon precursors at high temperature (> 600 °C) [47]. Thus, it can be speculated that the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst increased the gasification rate of carbon precursors lead to much less formation of ordered graphitic carbon. In fact, surface CeO<sub>x</sub> has a property of reversible shift of oxidation state ( $Ce^{4+} \rightleftharpoons Ce^{3+}$ ). The surface cerium oxide can act as a source of oxygen supply as well as sink for oxygen capture [61]. Thus, the grown CeO<sub>x</sub> can provide highly mobile oxygen atoms for deposited carbon removal.

## 3.7 Characterization of the spent catalysts

The spent catalysts in this research were also investigated with other characterization methods. The  $N_2$  adsorption-desorption analysis was employed again to test the spent catalysts after 30 h reaction, as shown in Table 3. Normally, the specific surface area and pore volume of the spent catalysts will decrease compared with those of their fresh state. This could be associated with pores blockage by carbon deposition and surface metal restructure after reforming test. However, the surface area and pore volume of the spent  $Ni_xMg_yO$  catalyst increased, instead. Based on the results of carbon deposits analyses, it was believed that this extraordinary increment was mainly due to the formation of a considerable amount of porous carbon over the catalyst surface. In TEM micrograph Fig. 8 (A) and (B), the filamentous carbons over the surface of the spent  $Ni_xMg_yO$  were confirmed, while the TEM observation of the spent catalyst  $Ni_xMg_yO$ -Ce did not find any graphited structure.

The sintering of surface nickel particles was determined by manual measurement from TEM images. In Fig. 8 (C) and (D), both reduced Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O and Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalysts showed very similar particle size distribution with average size of 7.2 and 7.1 nm, respectively. While, compared both spent catalysts in Fig. 8 (E) and (F) after reaction at 700 °C for 30 h, the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce showed relatively higher ratio of particles located in both size ranges between 5 to <10 nm and 10 to <15 nm, as well as its average particle size 14.7 nm is also smaller than that of the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O at 17.4 nm. Therefore, the deceleration of Ni particle growth over the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce could also contribute to its durability.

The XRD spectrum of the spent catalyst, in Fig. 3 (C), showed a unique diffraction peak located at 26.6° was observed on the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O. It indicates existence of significant amount of highly ordered carbon [62], which is in agreement with the findings of previous carbon deposits study. In addition, shoulder peak of metallic Ni on both spent catalysts positioned at  $2\theta$  near  $44.1^{\circ}$  [17]. This indicates the Ni<sup>2+</sup> ions in the sub-surface layers of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix was reduced after 30 h reaction [34]. However, the difference is more metallic nickel peaks were also found at  $51.3^{\circ}$  and  $76.1^{\circ}$  for the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce. Contrasted the previous H<sub>2</sub>-TPR result, we believe that the surface covered CeO<sub>x</sub> nanoparticles hindered hydrogen permeating into the matrix of solid solution and brought down the total reducibility of Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce. But this surface CeO<sub>x</sub> also alter the neighbouring nickel electronic property and improved their reducibility. This explained why more metallic nickel peaks were detected by the XRD. Coincidentally, more surface Ni<sup>o</sup> sites were also confirmed by XPS.

The surface Ni oxidation states were investigated by using XPS. Both the reduced and spent catalysts were analysed to compare their initial and final states. The Ni 2p spectra and deconvolution details are illustrated in Fig. 9, Table S2 and S3. The binding energies of Ni<sup>0</sup>, Ni<sup>2+</sup> and Ni<sup>3+</sup> in Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O solid solution are ca. 853.0 eV, 854.8 eV and 856.7 eV [24]. For the reduced catalysts, no Ni<sup>0</sup> was observed for all the three catalysts. This is also similar to the XRD analysis results of the freshly reduced catalysts. The reduction for 2 h at 700 °C still could not overcome the bonding forces of Ni-O-MgO sites. For the spent catalysts, Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O exhibited a substantial attenuation on the intensity of the Ni 2p, compared with Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce. The reason could be that the surface of the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O catalyst had severe deposited carbon, which formed a carbon layer and covered the surface Ni ions. Ni<sup>0</sup> was observed on both the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O and the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce, which was consistent with the results of XRD analysis. However, in Table S3, the different Ni<sup>0</sup> and Ni<sup>2+</sup> surface atomic compositions of both spent catalysts also demonstrated that the chemical environment of surface Ni changed due to the surface grown CeO<sub>x</sub>. For the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce, 12.4 wt% of Ni<sup>0</sup> was on the catalyst surface, while this figure was 19.1 wt% for the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O. This finding was also in agreement with the H2-TPR result that surface CeOx would partially cover nickel ions. However, if took the total number of Ni sites into account, the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce (5.38 wt% total Ni on the surface) had more Ni<sup>0</sup> sites than that of the spent Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O (2.85 wt% total Ni on the surface). This means more

nickel ions had been reduced and formed  $Ni^0$ -CeO<sub>x</sub> over the  $Ni_xMg_yO$ -Ce. The presence of  $Ce^{3+}$  was also confirmed by the Ce 3d spectra as shown in Fig. S1 [63].

# 4. CONCLUSIONS

In this research, it was found that the addition of CeO<sub>x</sub> improved the performance of Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O matrix in SRE, which is indicated by the enhanced hydrogen yield, the mitigation of carbon deposition and the extension of catalyst durability. It is found that the promotion of WGSR and the inhibition of methanation played as dominant role in promoting hydrogen yield. In the long-term test at a high GHSV at 200,000 h<sup>-1</sup>, the Ni<sub>x</sub>Mg<sub>y</sub>O-Ce catalyst showed an outstanding stable high hydrogen yield of 4.82 mol/mol<sub>ethanol</sub>, which is promising to be used commercially for hydrogen production from SRE.

# **Acknowledgments**

Following funding bodies are acknowledged for partially sponsoring this research: National Key R&D Program of China (2017YFB0602602 and 2017YFC0210400), Ningbo Bureau of Science and Technology (2012B82011 and 2012B10042)

#### Reference

- 1. Navarro, R.M., M.A. Peña, and J.L.G. Fierro, *Hydrogen Production Reactions from Carbon Feedstocks: Fossil Fuels and Biomass.* Chemical Reviews, 2007. **107**(10): p. 3952-3991.
- 2. Armor, J.N., *The multiple roles for catalysis in the production of H2*. Applied Catalysis A: General, 1999. **176**(2): p. 159-176.
- 3. Lee, C.H. and K.B. Lee, Sorption-enhanced water gas shift reaction for high-purity hydrogen production: Application of a Na-Mg double salt-based sorbent and the divided section packing concept. Applied Energy, 2017. **205**(Supplement C): p. 316-322.
- 4. Sulaiman, N., et al., *Optimization of energy management system for fuel-cell hybrid electric vehicles: Issues and recommendations.* Applied Energy, 2018. **228**: p. 2061-2079.
- 5. Yoshida, T. and K. Kojima, *Toyota MIRAI Fuel Cell Vehicle and Progress Toward a Future Hydrogen Society.* The Electrochemical Society Interface, 2015. **24**(2): p. 45-49.
- 6. Gil, M.V., K.R. Rout, and D. Chen, *Production of high pressure pure H2 by pressure swing sorption enhanced steam reforming (PS-SESR) of byproducts in biorefinery.* Applied Energy, 2018. **222**: p. 595-607.
- 7. Fang, W., et al., *Highly loaded well dispersed stable Ni species in NiXMg2AlOY nanocomposites:*Application to hydrogen production from bioethanol. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2015.
  166–167: p. 485-496.
- 8. Md Zin, R., et al., *Hydrogen from ethanol reforming with aqueous fraction of pine pyrolysis oil with and without chemical looping.* Bioresource Technology, 2015. **176**: p. 257-266.

- 9. Cai, W., P.R.d.l. Piscina, and N. Homs, *Hydrogen production from the steam reforming of bio-butanol over novel supported Co-based bimetallic catalysts.* Bioresource Technology, 2012. **107**: p. 482-486.
- 10. Cortright, R.D., R.R. Davda, and J.A. Dumesic, *Hydrogen from catalytic reforming of biomass-derived hydrocarbons in liquid water*. Nature, 2002. **418**(6901): p. 964-967.
- 11. Mattos, L.V., et al., *Production of Hydrogen from Ethanol: Review of Reaction Mechanism and Catalyst Deactivation.* Chemical Reviews, 2012. **112**(7): p. 4094-4123.
- 12. Tippawan, P. and A. Arpornwichanop, *Energy and exergy analysis of an ethanol reforming process for solid oxide fuel cell applications.* Bioresource Technology, 2014. **157**: p. 231-239.
- 13. Chen, L., et al., *Carbon monoxide-free hydrogen production via low-temperature steam reforming of ethanol over iron-promoted Rh catalyst.* Journal of Catalysis, 2010. **276**(2): p. 197-200.
- 14. Auprêtre, F., C. Descorme, and D. Duprez, *Bio-ethanol catalytic steam reforming over supported metal catalysts*. Catalysis Communications, 2002. **3**(6): p. 263-267.
- 15. Sehested, J., Four challenges for nickel steam-reforming catalysts. Catalysis Today, 2006. **111**(1–2): p. 103-110.
- 16. Luo, X., et al., *Development of nano NixMgyO solid solutions with outstanding anti-carbon deposition capability for the steam reforming of methanol.* Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2016. **194**: p. 84-97.
- 17. Wurzler, G.T., et al., Steam reforming of ethanol for hydrogen production over MgO—supported Ni-based catalysts. Applied Catalysis A: General, 2016. **518**: p. 115-128.
- 18. Contreras, J.L., et al., *Catalysts for H2 production using the ethanol steam reforming (a review).* International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2014. **39**(33): p. 18835-18853.
- 19. Lima da Silva, A., C.d.F. Malfatti, and I.L. Müller, *Thermodynamic analysis of ethanol steam reforming using Gibbs energy minimization method: A detailed study of the conditions of carbon deposition.* International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2009. **34**(10): p. 4321-4330.
- 20. Gradisher, L., B. Dutcher, and M. Fan, *Catalytic hydrogen production from fossil fuels via the water gas shift reaction.* Applied Energy, 2015. **139**(Supplement C): p. 335-349.
- 21. Maciel, C.G., et al., *Hydrogen production and purification from the water–gas shift reaction on CuO/CeO2–TiO2 catalysts*. Applied Energy, 2013. **112**(Supplement C): p. 52-59.
- 22. Rioche, C., et al., Steam reforming of model compounds and fast pyrolysis bio-oil on supported noble metal catalysts. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2005. **61**(1–2): p. 130-139.
- 23. Palma, V., et al., *CeO2-supported Pt/Ni catalyst for the renewable and clean H2 production via ethanol steam reforming*. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2014. **145**: p. 73-84.
- 24. Yu, M., et al., Carbon dioxide reforming of methane over promoted NixMg1-xO (1 1 1) platelet catalyst derived from solvothermal synthesis. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2014. **148–149**: p. 177-190.
- 25. Kim, S.S., et al., Effect of Ce/Ti ratio on the catalytic activity and stability of Ni/CeO2—TiO2 catalyst for dry reforming of methane. Chemical Engineering Journal, 2015. **280**: p. 433-440.
- 26. Xu, W., et al., Steam Reforming of Ethanol on Ni/CeO2: Reaction Pathway and Interaction between Ni and the CeO2 Support. ACS Catalysis, 2013. **3**(5): p. 975-984.
- 27. Carrasco, J., et al., In Situ and Theoretical Studies for the Dissociation of Water on an Active Ni/CeO2 Catalyst: Importance of Strong Metal—Support Interactions for the Cleavage of O—H Bonds. Angewandte Chemie International Edition, 2015. **54**(13): p. 3917-3921.

- 28. Perez-Hernandez, R., et al., *Nano-dimensional CeO2 nanorods for high Ni loading catalysts: H2 production by autothermal steam reforming of methanol reaction.* Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics, 2013. **15**(30): p. 12702-12708.
- 29. Barrett, E.P., L.G. Joyner, and P.P. Halenda, *The Determination of Pore Volume and Area Distributions in Porous Substances. I. Computations from Nitrogen Isotherms.* Journal of the American Chemical Society, 1951. **73**(1): p. 373-380.
- 30. Kwak, B.S., et al., *Hydrogen-rich gas production from ethanol steam reforming over Ni/Ga/Mg/Zeolite Y catalysts at mild temperature.* Applied Energy, 2011. **88**(12): p. 4366-4375.
- 31. Chen, P., et al., *Development of coking-resistant Ni-based catalyst for partial oxidation and CO2-reforming of methane to syngas.* Applied Catalysis A: General, 1998. **166**(2): p. 343-350.
- 32. Liang, C., et al., *Template preparation of nanoscale CexFe1-xO2 solid solutions and their catalytic properties for ethanol steam reforming.* Journal of Materials Chemistry, 2009. **19**(10): p. 1417-1424.
- 33. Guo, Y., et al., Effect of support's basic properties on hydrogen production in aqueous-phase reforming of glycerol and correlation between WGS and APR. Applied Energy, 2012. **92**(Supplement C): p. 218-223.
- 34. Wang, Y.-H., H.-M. Liu, and B.-Q. Xu, *Durable Ni/MgO catalysts for CO2 reforming of methane:* Activity and metal–support interaction. Journal of Molecular Catalysis A: Chemical, 2009. **299**(1–2): p. 44-52.
- 35. Li, D., X. Li, and J. Gong, *Catalytic Reforming of Oxygenates: State of the Art and Future Prospects.* Chemical Reviews, 2016. **116**(19): p. 11529-11653.
- 36. Zhou, K., et al., *Enhanced catalytic activity of ceria nanorods from well-defined reactive crystal planes.* Journal of Catalysis, 2005. **229**(1): p. 206-212.
- 37. Bernal, S., et al., *Reducibility of ceria–lanthana mixed oxides under temperature programmed hydrogen and inert gas flow conditions*. Journal of Alloys and Compounds, 1997. **250**(1–2): p. 449-454.
- 38. Pillai, U.R. and S. Deevi, *Copper-zinc oxide and ceria promoted copper-zinc oxide as highly active catalysts for low temperature oxidation of carbon monoxide*. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2006. **65**(1–2): p. 110-117.
- 39. Furusawa, T. and A. Tsutsumi, *Comparison of Co/MgO and Ni/MgO catalysts for the steam reforming of naphthalene as a model compound of tar derived from biomass gasification.* Applied Catalysis A: General, 2005. **278**(2): p. 207-212.
- 40. Parmaliana, A., et al., *Temperature-programmed reduction study of NiO-MgO interactions in magnesia-supported Ni catalysts and NiO-MgO physical mixture.* Journal of the Chemical Society, Faraday Transactions, 1990. **86**(14): p. 2663-2669.
- 41. Tang, S., J. Lin, and K.L. Tan, *Partial oxidation of methane to syngas over Ni/MgO, Ni/CaO and Ni/CeO2*. Catalysis Letters, 1998. **51**(3): p. 169-175.
- 42. Kugai, J., et al., Effects of nanocrystalline CeO2 supports on the properties and performance of Ni–Rh bimetallic catalyst for oxidative steam reforming of ethanol. Journal of Catalysis, 2006. **238**(2): p. 430-440.
- 43. Hu, Y.H. and E. Ruckenstein, *Temperature-Programmed Desorption of CO Adsorbed on NiO/MgO.* Journal of Catalysis, 1996. **163**(2): p. 306-311.
- 44. Monteiro, R.S., et al., *Characterization of Pd-CeO2 interaction on alumina support and hydrogenation of 1,3-butadiene*. Applied Catalysis A: General, 1995. **131**(1): p. 89-106.
- 45. Zhu, H., et al., *Pd/CeO2–TiO2* catalyst for *CO* oxidation at low temperature: a TPR study with H2 and CO as reducing agents. Journal of Catalysis, 2004. **225**(2): p. 267-277.

- 46. Kang, S., B. Sub Kwak, and M. Kang, Synthesis of Ni-alkaline earth metals particles encapsulated by porous SiO2 (NiMO@SiO2) and their catalytic performances on ethanol steam reforming. Ceramics International, 2014. **40**(9, Part A): p. 14197-14206.
- 47. Bartholomew, C.H., *Mechanisms of catalyst deactivation.* Applied Catalysis A: General, 2001. **212**(1–2): p. 17-60.
- 48. Zhang, S., et al., *An active and coke-resistant dry reforming catalyst comprising nickel*—tungsten *alloy nanoparticles*. Catalysis Communications, 2015. **69**: p. 123-128.
- 49. Ciftci, A., et al., *Nanostructured ceria supported Pt and Au catalysts for the reactions of ethanol and formic acid.* Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2013. **130–131**: p. 325-335.
- 50. Di Michele, A., et al., *Steam reforming of ethanol over Ni/MgAl2O4 catalysts*. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy, 2019. **44**(2): p. 952-964.
- 51. Zhao, L., et al., *Ni-Co alloy catalyst from LaNi1–xCoxO3 perovskite supported on zirconia for steam reforming of ethanol.* Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 2016. **187**: p. 19-29.
- 52. Liu, F., et al., Nano bimetallic alloy of Ni–Co obtained from LaCoxNi1–xO3 and its catalytic performance for steam reforming of ethanol. RSC Advances, 2015. **5**(22): p. 16837-16846.
- 53. Montero, C., et al., *Reproducible performance of a Ni/La2O3–αAl2O3 catalyst in ethanol steam reforming under reaction–regeneration cycles.* Fuel Processing Technology, 2016. **152**: p. 215-222.
- 54. Sun, J., et al., High yield hydrogen production from low CO selectivity ethanol steam reforming over modified Ni/Y2O3 catalysts at low temperature for fuel cell application. Journal of Power Sources, 2008. **184**(2): p. 385-391.
- 55. Esteban-Díez, G., et al., Effect of operating conditions on the sorption enhanced steam reforming of blends of acetic acid and acetone as bio-oil model compounds. Applied Energy, 2016. 177(Supplement C): p. 579-590.
- 56. Tsaneva, V.N., et al., Assessment of the structural evolution of carbons from microwave plasma natural gas reforming and biomass pyrolysis using Raman spectroscopy. Carbon, 2014. **80**: p. 617-628.
- 57. Robertson, J., *Diamond-like amorphous carbon.* Materials Science and Engineering: R: Reports, 2002. **37**(4–6): p. 129-281.
- 58. Estrade-Szwarckopf, H., XPS photoemission in carbonaceous materials: A "defect" peak beside the graphitic asymmetric peak. Carbon, 2004. **42**(8–9): p. 1713-1721.
- 59. Montero, C., et al., Monitoring NiO and coke evolution during the deactivation of a Ni/La2O3-  $\alpha$ Al2O3 catalyst in ethanol steam reforming in a fluidized bed. Journal of Catalysis, 2015. **331**: p. 181-192.
- 60. Hiroshi Onishi, C.E., Tetsuya Aruga, Yasuhiro Iwasawa, *Adsorption of Na atoms and oxygen-containing molecules on MgO(100) and (111) surfaces*. Surface Science, 1987. **191**(3): p. 479-491.
- 61. Laosiripojana, N., S. Assabumrungrat, and S. Charojrochkul, *Steam reforming of ethanol with co-fed oxygen and hydrogen over Ni on high surface area ceria support*. Applied Catalysis A: General, 2007. **327**(2): p. 180-188.
- 62. Xing, T., et al., *Disorder in ball-milled graphite revealed by Raman spectroscopy.* Carbon, 2013. **57**: p. 515-519.
- 63. Men, Y., et al., Steam reforming of methanol over Cu/CeO2/γ-Al2O3 catalysts in a microchannel reactor. Applied Catalysis A: General, 2004. **277**(1–2): p. 83-90.

# Tables

**Table 1** Primary and side reactions of steam reforming of ethanol.

No.	Reaction name	Reaction equation
R1	Steam reforming of ethanol	$C_2H_5OH + 3H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 6H_2$
R2	Decomposition of ethanol	$C_2H_5OH \rightarrow CH_4 + CO + H_2$
R3	Ethanol dehydrogenation to acetaldehyde	$C_2H_5OH \rightarrow C_2H_4O + H_2$
R4	Ethanol dehydration to ethylene	$C_2H_5OH \rightarrow C_2H_4 + H_2O$
R5	Steam reforming of acetaldehyde	$C_2H_4O + 3H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 5H_2$
R6	Decomposition of acetaldehyde	$C_2H_4O \rightarrow CO + CH_4$
R7	Steam reforming of ethylene	$C_2H_4 + 4H_2O \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 6H_2$
R8	Decomposition of ethylene	$C_2H_4 \rightarrow C + CH_4$
R9	Water-gas shift reaction	$CO + H_2O \rightleftharpoons CO_2 + H_2$
R10	Steam reforming of methane	$CH_4 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons CO + 3H_2$
R11	CO disproportionation reaction	$2CO \rightleftharpoons CO_2 + C \text{ (coke)}$
R12	Decomposition of methane	$CH_4 \rightleftharpoons 2H_2 + C$ (coke)
R13	Carbon gasification by steam	$C + H_2O \rightleftharpoons CO + H_2$

**Table 2** Elemental analysis results of fresh catalysts.

	Theoretical element mass composition		Measured element mass composition <sup>a</sup>	
Catalyst name	Ni	Promoter	Ni	Promoter
		element (Ce)		element (Ce)
$Ni_xMg_yO$	10%	N/A	8.4%	N/A
Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O-Ce	10%	3%	8.3%	2.3%

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Measured by using ICP-AES.

 Table 3 Structural characteristics of both fresh and spent catalysts.

catalysts	Surface	area	Pore	volume	Micropore	Pore size (nm)	
catalysts	$(m^2/g)$		(cm <sup>3</sup> /g)		volume (cm³/g)	Pore Size (IIIII)	
Fresh Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O	56		0.28		0.0059	20	
Used Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O	138		0.47		0.0090	14	
Fresh Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O-Ce	52		0.29		0.0045	22	
Used Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O-Ce	37		0.12		0.0024	13	

**Table 4** Comparison of catalytic performance of different catalysts.

Catalyst	T(℃)	S/C	GHSV (h <sup>-1</sup> )	Y <sub>H2</sub> (mol/mol <sub>ethanol</sub> )
Pt/CeO <sub>2</sub> (rod) [49]	550	5.0	30,000	4.52
Ni/MgAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> [50]	625	3.0	2,700	3.87
$LaNi_{1-x}Co_xO_3/ZrO_2$ [51]	650	1.5	264,000	3.60
LaNiO₃ [52]	700	1.5	120,000	3.90
$Ni/La_2O_3-\alpha Al_2O_3$ [53]	700	3.0	1,000	3.24
$Ni/Y_2O_3[54]$	650	4.2	10,000	5.25
Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O-Ce (This study)	700	3.0	200,000	4.82

 Table 5 Raman spectra and key features of different catalysts after peak deconvolution.

Catalysts	Peak label <sup>a</sup>	Peak position (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	FWHM (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	L <sub>a</sub> (nm)
Ni Ma O	D (65%)	1329	115	2.7
Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O	G (35%)	1596	67	
Ni <sub>x</sub> Mg <sub>v</sub> O-Ce	D (70%)	1334	51	2.1
M <sub>X</sub> Mg <sub>y</sub> O-Ce	G (30%)	1599	39	2.1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The values in parentheses represent the percentage area of each peak after deconvolution.