

Remarkably stable and efficient Ni and Ni-Co catalysts for CO2 methanation

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Title: Remarkably stable and efficient Ni and Ni-Co catalysts for CO2 methanation

Author Names:

Bachar Alrafei ^a, Isabelle Polaert ^a, Alain Ledoux ^a, Federico Azzolina-Jury ^b

^a Normandie University, INSA Rouen, LSPC, Laboratoire de Sécurité des Procédés Chimiques, EA 4704 - INSA Rouen, Avenue de l'Université – Saint-Étienne-du-Rouvray cedex 76801 France

^b Normandie University, ENSICAEN, UNICAEN, LCS, Laboratoire Catalyse & Spectrochimie, 14000 Caen, France

Corresponding Author:

Isabelle Polaert

INSA Rouen, LSPC, Laboratoire de Sécurité des Procédés Chimiques, EA 4704 - INSA Rouen, Avenue de l'Université – Saint-Étienne-du-Rouvray cedex 76801 France.

mail address: isabelle.polaert@insa-rouen.fr

1 Abstract

CO₂ methanation is one of the most promising ways to store energy based on the power-to-gas 2 concept. In this study, efficient nickel (Ni) and nickel-cobalt (Ni-Co), supported on alumina 3 4 catalysts with different amounts of Ni and Co were prepared, characterized and used for CO₂ 5 methanation under the atmospheric pressure. The catalysts were prepared in the form of extrudates for catalytic tests. The effect of Ni content and the influence of Co on Ni catalysts 6 were studied in a packed bed methanation reactor at laboratory scale. An optimal Ni-Co content 7 was identified based on CO₂ and H₂ conversion and CH₄ selectivity and yield. The addition of Co 8 improved the reducibility of Ni species and Ni particles' dispersion over the support. Therefore, 9 the presence of Co enhanced the catalyst activity and selectivity towards CH₄. Moreover, it was 10 observed that low reaction temperatures (lower than 350 °C) can be used when lowering the Ni 11 content (i.e. 10% wt.). This major fact is favourable to the reduction of the overall process energy 12 consumption and to the decrease of the catalysts' deactivation at high temperature (>400 °C), 13 such as the active phase sintering. Finally, the Ni and Ni-Co catalysts prepared in this work for 14 CO₂ methanation presented a remarkably high stability over 200 h of continuous reaction. 15

16 Keywords: Methanation, Ni-Co catalyst, Green process, CO₂ valorisation, Power-to-gas.

17 **1 Introduction**

18

One of the most serious issues in the climate debates and the countries' agreements is focused on 19 the continuous increase in CO_2 emissions. The CO_2 concentration in our atmosphere has already 20 reached 408 ppm in 2018 [1]. CO₂ is the most abundant greenhouse effect gas emitted by the 21 humans activities, representing more than 77% of the greenhouse gas emissions. It contributes to 22 the global warming and climate change [2,3]. Other consequences, such as sea-level rise, 23 resulting from the thermal expansion or melting of glaciers and polar ice caps, and changes in 24 agriculture, water and human health have been reported as well [4]. On this matter, several 25 agreements have been made, for example the Paris Agreement in 2015 at the International 26 Conference on Climate, COP21. Despite the fact that some countries have reneged this 27 commitment, CO₂ emissions control remains a key point for the future and objectives set in those 28 agreements are still needed to be targeted. The main objective is the reduction of earth's 29

temperature and CO₂ emissions through the promotion of renewable energy sources. European
commission has prospected a target of 20% renewable energy by 2020 in its "Energy Roadmap
21" [5]. Recent agreements are pushing the countries for the use of renewable energies alongside
the fossil energies, which would be substituted by the renewables at mid-term.

The renewable energy resources, such as wind, solar, hydrothermal and hydraulic energy are 34 converted to electricity, because the transport of energy is the easiest in this form. However, one 35 36 of the main problems of renewable energy sources is the difficulty of storing the energy produced. Indeed, solar panels or wind turbines allow an intermittent generation of electricity, 37 because of its dependency on the weather; thus, this production cannot fulfil the load demand of 38 the electric energy. One of the major challenges in the coming years is to find large capacities and 39 long term solution to store the surplus electricity. The current storage technologies, including 40 41 pumped-storage hydroelectricity (PSH)-the most massive storage technology available-can store only limited amounts of energy over short period of time [6]. 42

43 In this context, hydrogen can be obtained by the electrolysis of water, which can store large quantities of electrical energy in form of hydrogen and oxygen. These two molecules can be used 44 directly or as intermediates in the chemical reactions to either reproduce energy or synthesize 45 chemical products. However, low molecular weight of hydrogen gives it a relatively low 46 volumetric energy density compared to other fuels, and induces necessary large storage capacities 47 at high pressures. In addition, its explosive properties entail drastic safety management. Besides, 48 hydrogen cannot be injected directly into the natural gas grid, because its concentration usually 49 overcomes the grid technical specifications [7]. 50

51 CO₂ methanation uses the hydrogen produced by water electrolysis and CO₂ for further 52 production of methane. The methanation reaction, known as Sabatier reaction, can be written as 53 follows:

$$CO_2 + 4H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O \qquad \Delta H_{298 \text{ K}} = -164 \text{ kJ/mol}, \ \Delta G^0 = -113 \text{ kJ/mol} \tag{1}$$

54 Carbon monoxide can be a product in the methanation by reverse water gas shift reaction [8]:

$$CO_2 + H_2 \leftrightarrow CO + H_2O$$
 $\Delta H_{298 \text{ K}} = 41 \text{ kJ/mol}, \Delta G^0 = 28.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (2)

The Sabatier reaction leads to an improvement in energy density; the energy density of methane 55 is 40 MJ/m³, while that of hydrogen is just 12.7 MJ/m³. In terms of greenhouse gas emissions, 56 57 methane is the major constituent of natural gas, and is the world's third-most-consumed source of energy. It is the cleanest gas among fuels currently being used. In addition, unlike hydrogen, 58 59 methane has its own distribution infrastructure, which makes it a convenient fuel for modern economies [8]. The existing gas networks provide high storage capacity and possibility to 60 61 transport methane easily and safely. Methane can then be used for heating, industries or mobility 62 uses.

The development of an industrial CO₂ methanation process is still limited despite the discovery of 63 the reaction since more than a century [9]. However, some industrial applications of CO₂ 64 methanation already exist, but they are still poorly developed. Many of those processes date back 65 to the '60s and '80s. In these processes, two types of reactors are mainly used: fluidized bed and 66 packed bed reactors. Packed bed reactors are mostly used in industry, because of the ease of 67 setting up and low cost of maintenance. The heat management is mandatory for this sort of 68 reactor. Poor heat transfer could easily be the cause of hot spots generation within the catalytic 69 70 bed and of catalyst thermal degradation, particularly in the case of exothermic reactions like CO_2 methanation. To manage the thermal issues using packed bed reactors, CO_2 methanation processes usually involve multiple reactors in series separated by heat exchangers. Table 1 shows some of those processes with their operating conditions [8,10,11].

Table 1 : 1				
Process / Company	Reactor type	Number of beds	Pressure (bar)	Temperature (°C)
TREMP/Haldor Topsøe (Denmark, Germany)	Fixed bed	3	30	300-700
Hicom/British Gas Corp (UK)	Fixed bed	4	25-70	230-640
RMP/Ralph M. Parsons Co (US)	Fixed bed	4–6	1-70	315-780
SuperMeth, ConoMeth/Conoco (US)	Fixed bed	4	80	-
Hygas/Institute of Gas Technology (US)	Fixed bed	2	70	280-480
Lurgi, Sasol/Lurgi GmbH (US)	Fixed bed	2	18	450
ICI, Koppers/Imperial Chemical industries (UK)	Fixed bed	3	-	400–700
Comflux/Thysengas GmbH (Germany)	Fluidized bed	1	20-60	400-500
Bi-Gas/Bituminous Coal Res. Inc (US)	Fluidized bed	1	86	-

74

75

Some recent projects [12,13], such as the Audi e-gas project and the one developed at University

of Corsica are in operation since 2013. Other projects are being developed, such as Jupiter 1000,

the first French experience in power-to-gas technology at megawatt (MW) level [14].

CO₂ methanation is a volume-reducing and exothermic reaction. As a consequence, it is thermodynamically favoured at low temperature (Van't Hoff) and high pressure (Le Chatellier). CO₂ methanation mechanism implies firstly, the CO₂ dissociation into CO, which has been proposed as reaction intermediate during the last decades. CO is then dissociated into C (and O) atoms on the metallic active sites to be further hydrogenated into methane by combination with the dissociated H₂. The rate-limiting step of the CO₂ methanation reaction is the dissociation of the adsorbed CO into C and O atoms on the metallic sites. The overall reaction rate is slow and 86 considerable attention needs to be paid to develop more efficient catalysts for achieving high 87 reaction rates. However, an efficient catalyst should be able to ensure a good catalytic activity, 88 selectivity, stability and also it should be capable of being recovered and regenerated after use by 89 keeping its initial properties.

In the last decades, CO₂ methanation has been extensively investigated on the use of different 90 metals (Ni, Co, Fe, Cu, Ru, Rh, Ir, Pd, Pt) and supports (TiO₂, SiO₂, SiO₂-Al₂O₃, Al₂O₃, 91 92 MgAl₂O₄, MgO, ZrO₂, CeO₂, C, MSN, MCM-41, SBA-15, HY, USY)[15–19]. Group VIIIB metals, such as Rh, Ru, Ni, Co were found to be very active [3,20]. Noble metals present high 93 activity and stability under low temperature [21-23]. They are more resistive to catalyst 94 deactivation (coking and sintering) than other used metals. However, their industrial utilization is 95 avoided because of their high price and low availability. Cobalt (Co) based catalysts were tested 96 97 on methanation, but they were found to be not very selective towards methane [24]. Most of the studies have come to terms on the use of nickel metal because it is one of the best active metals 98 for the CO₂ methanation, available at a lower price compared to other metals [19]. These 99 100 properties make its industrial utilization possible. Ni catalysts are active only at high temperature (300–450 °C). At low temperature (lower than 300 °C), the interaction between Ni and CO leads 101 102 to the formation of subcarbonyls and methanation is inhibited [25]. The activity of a Ni catalyst 103 depends on various parameters, such as support type, preparation method of the catalyst, Ni loading and the presence of a second metal. 104

105 The nature of the support greatly influences the morphology, dispersion and reducibility of the 106 active phase (metal), and consequently the final properties of the catalyst. Several types of 107 materials can be used as catalytic supports for CO_2 methanation, such as alumina, silica, zeolites,

etc.[19,26]. Alumina is the widely preferred support because of its low price, thermal stability 108 109 and relatively high surface area.

Table 2 synthetizes some methanation results from the literature, obtained with various Ni-based 110

111 catalysts supported on oxides. Metal loading is presented as wt%.

1	1	2

Table 2 : CO ₂ conversion (X_{CO_2}), CH4 selectivity (S_{CH_4}) and yield (Y_{CH_4})							
Catalyst	T (°C)	<i>X_{co₂}</i> (mol%)	<i>S_{CH4}</i> (mol%)	$\begin{array}{c} Y_{CH_4} \\ (\mathrm{mol}\%) \end{array}$			
0%Ni/CeO ₂ [27]	340	91	100	91			
0%Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ [28]	350	80	100	80			
0%Ni/Y ₂ O ₃ [29]	300	80	100	80			
3%Ni/CaO-Al ₂ O ₃ [30]	400	81	99	80			

		(110170)	(110170)	(110170)
10%Ni/CeO ₂ [27]	340	91	100	91
20%Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ [28]	350	80	100	80
10%Ni/Y ₂ O ₃ [29]	300	80	100	80
23%Ni/CaO-Al ₂ O ₃ [30]	400	81	99	80
15%Ni/ZrO ₂ [31]	300	60	100	60
15 %Ni- Ce _{0.72} Zr _{0.28} O ₂ [32]	350	90	98	88
14%NiUSY [33]	450	65	94	62
60%NiO/SiO ₂ [34]	350	86	95	81
15%Ni/TiO ₂ [35]	340	80	96	77
10%Ni / Al ₂ O ₃ [36]	400	60	95	57
10%Ni3%Co/ Al ₂ O ₃ [36]	400	70	96	68
10%Ni/OMA(ordered mesoporous alumina) [36]	400	70	95	66
10%Ni3%Co/OMA(ordered mesoporous alumina) [36]	400	78	99	77
14%NiUSY [37]	400	25	61	15
CeNiUSY [38]	400	55	86	47

113

Despite their high activity, Ni catalysts are very sensitive to coke deposition or metal sintering 114 115 because of high temperature reaction. An interesting solution to catalyst deactivation, that has been widely studied in the last years, is the addition of a second metal. Among these additional 116 metals, Co was found to be interesting, because it has shown to improve the metallic Ni 117

dispersion and to increase the catalyst stability and resistance to deactivation [39–41]. Moreover,
the price of cobalt is relatively lower than other metals used as second metal in methanation
catalysts such as noble metals and cerium.

121 CO_2 methanation still needs to be improved in terms of process efficiency, reactor design and 122 catalyst design. Therefore, our main objective is to contribute to the catalyst design improvement 123 through the development of an efficient Ni or Ni-Co based catalyst with high stability and 124 resistance to deactivation for further utilization in the industrial application. The use of the 125 efficient catalysts, prepared in this work, will allow performing the CO_2 methanation reaction at 126 relatively low temperatures and lowering the overall process energy consumption.

In this work, efficient Ni and Ni-Co supported alumina catalysts were prepared. Ni content was varied from 5 to 25% wt. and Co from 3 to 10% wt. The catalysts were characterized and tested in a CO₂ methanation reactor under atmospheric pressure. The optimized Ni-Co formulation was given. Finally, the remarkable stability of the efficient Ni based catalysts was proven through CO₂ methanation catalytic long duration tests (over 200 h).

132 **2 Experimental**

133 2.1 Catalysts preparation and characterization

134

Ni/Al₂O₃ and Ni-Co/Al₂O₃ catalysts were prepared by an original method developed by Azzolina-Jury [42]. The first step is the preparation of alumina extrudates. γ -alumina was prepared by calcination of boehmite powders (Sasol DISPAL 23N4-80) at 600°C for 4 h. Then a binder was added to alumina and the extrusion of the mixture was performed. The extrudates were calcined at 600°C for 4 h. Alumina extrudates of 3 mm diameter and 5 mm length were impregnated with an aqueous solution of Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (Acros Organics), or co-impregnated
with both Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O and Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O (Acros Organics) at 80 °C under partial vacuum.
Catalyst samples were calcined for 4 h at 450 °C. Table 3 lists the prepared catalysts with their
metal loading.

144

Table 3: List of Ni and Ni-Co catalysts						
Catalyst	Ni (% wt.)	Co (% wt.)				
5Ni	5%	0%				
10Ni	10%	0%				
15Ni	15%	0%				
20Ni	20%	0%				
25Ni	25%	0%				
15Co	0%	15%				
10Ni,10Co	10%	10%				
15Ni,5Co	15%	5%				
20Ni,3Co	20%	3%				
20Ni,5Co	20%	5%				
20Ni,8Co	20%	8%				
20Ni,10Co	20%	10%				

145

The surface area and porosity of the catalysts were estimated by nitrogen adsorption in a N₂ 146 sorption analyser (Micromeritics ASAP 2020) at -196 °C. Before adsorption, samples were 147 outgassed at 200 °C. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed using PANalytical X'Pert Pro 148 diffractometer, equipped with a Cu-Ka radiation source to examine the crystallinity of the 149 catalysts and to estimate the metal particle size. Temperature programmed reduction (H₂-TPR) 150 was carried out in Micromeritics AutoChem II, equipped with a thermal conductivity detector 151 (TCD), for evaluating the reducibility of the catalysts and for identifying Ni and Co states. TPR 152 was performed under flow of 5% v/v H₂ in Ar from room temperature to 1000 °C. FTIR (Fourier 153

Transformation Infra-Red) measurements were performed using a Nicolet FTIR spectrometer. 154 Catalyst powders were pressed into self-supported wafers (15-20 mg) and placed inside the IR 155 cell under partial vacuum (10⁻⁶ Torr). Wafers were activated at 400 °C for 4 h and then reduced 156 157 twice under 100 Torr H₂ for 30 minutes. Two molecule probes were used: CO and pyridine. The adsorption of CO on the wafer surfaces was carried out at room temperature, while the adsorption 158 159 of pyridine was performed at 150 °C to guarantee a good diffusion of the molecule. CO adsorption provided information about Ni dispersion on the support surface. Several CO-metal 160 species can be formed from the interaction between CO and the metal (Ni or Ni-Co), which are 161 used to identify whether the metal is highly, moderately or poorly dispersed. The adsorption of 162 pyridine was used to evaluate the acidity (Lewis in this case) of the catalysts. All characterization 163 results will be developed and discussed in detail in a forthcoming paper. However, the useful 164 results for the catalytic activity interpretation are presented in Section 3. 165

Prior to the catalytic tests, all catalysts were sieved (1000 μ m–1400 μ m). An analysis by laser granulometry (Malvern Mastersizer 3000) was carried out on five of our catalysts to precisely measure the mean diameter of the particles. For each catalyst, the measurement was repeated for five times, and the volume mean diameter D[4,3] (Brouckere Mean Diameter) [43] is presented in Table 4. The values confirm that all the tested catalysts have a similar diameter around 1350 μ m.

1	7	1
1	7	2

Table 4 : Volume mean diameter						
Catalyst	D (µm)	Standard deviation (µm)				
10Ni	1152	72				
20Ni	1302	127				
10Ni,10Co	1332	46				
15Ni,5Co	1434	46				

20Ni,8Co 1404 107

173

174 **2.2** CO₂ methanation set-up

175

177

176 2.2.1 Experimental set-up

The methanation catalytic tests were performed under atmospheric pressure using the laboratory 178 scale set-up shown in Figure 1. The reactor consists of a tubular stainless steel tube of 4 mm of 179 inner diameter and 20 mm length. It was filled with 0.92 g of catalyst. Glass wool was introduced 180 on both sides of the catalytic bed to ensure good gas dispersion and to maintain the catalytic bed 181 at the centre of the tube. This reactor was inserted in a tubular furnace (Eraly). A K-type 182 thermocouple T1 was inserted at the centre of the catalyst bed to measure the temperature during 183 the reduction and methanation reaction. A second thermocouple T2, placed at the wall of the 184 185 furnace, was used to regulate its temperature.

CO₂, N₂, and H₂ bottles were provided by Linde. The reactants' flow rates were controlled by 186 187 three mass flowmeters. Gas mixtures were introduced into the reactor through a "mixer" 188 consisting of a bed of inert particles. At the reactor outlet, a cold trap made from water ice $(0 \,^{\circ}C)$ allowed to remove the main part of water vapour from the outgoing gas stream. The by-pass 189 between V4 and V5 was used for GC calibration. During methanation runs, V4 was closed, V5 190 was open, and the feed gas went through the reactor. The outgoing mass flowrate was then 191 measured by a Coriolis flowmeter (Bronkhorst ML120). Piezoresistive pressure transducers 192 (Keller PR-23 and Corame PTX-5072) were used to measure the operating pressure at two 193 194 different places of the process.



197 198

196

Figure 1: CO₂ methanation set-up at the atmospheric pressure

199 The outgoing gas was analysed using an on-line gas chromatograph from Perkin Elmer (Clarus 590). It is equipped with three columns, a methanizer and two detectors. Two Hayesep columns 200 were used to separate CO₂, H₂/N₂, CO and CH₄, and a MolSieve column was used to quantify H₂ 201 and N₂. TCD was used to measure H₂ and N₂ concentrations and Flame ionization detector (FID) 202 was used to quantify CO₂, CO and CH₄ concentrations. FID detector was equipped with a 203 204 methanizer consisting of a bed of catalyst that reduces CO and CO₂ to methane, which can be further detected by FID detector. TCD and FID temperatures were maintained at 150 °C and 400 205 °C, respectively. The calibration of peak areas was done using already known gas compositions. 206 Coriolis flowmeter gives an accurate value of mass flow rate of the outgoing gas and coupled to 207 the results of the GC, it leads to the composition of the output gas. CO2 or H2 conversion, 208

209 methane selectivity from H_2 or CO_2 conversion and methane yield from H_2 or CO_2 conversion 210 were estimated using Equations (3)–(5):

$$X_{i} = 100 \times \frac{\dot{n}_{i}^{0} - \dot{n}_{i}}{\dot{n}_{i}^{0}},$$
(3)

$$S_{CH_4} = 100 \times \frac{\dot{n}_{CH_4}}{\dot{n}_i^0 \times X_{CO_2}} \text{ or } S_{CH_4} = 100 \times 4 \times \frac{\dot{n}_{CH_4}}{\dot{n}_i^0 \times X_{H_2}},$$
(4)

$$Y_{CH_4} = 100 \times \frac{\dot{n}_{CH_4}}{\dot{n}_{CO_2}^0} \text{ or } Y_{CH_4} = 100 \times 4 \times \frac{\dot{n}_{CH_4}}{\dot{n}_{H_2}^0},$$
(5)

211

where i CO₂ or H₂; $\dot{n_1}$ and \dot{n}_i^0 are the molar flowrate of i at the outlet and at inlet of the reactor respectively.

The catalytic activity and stability of the catalyst were evaluated by following CO_2 and H_2 conversion. The methane selectivity and yield were calculated with respect to CO_2 or H_2 , according to Equations (4) and (5). The overall material balance was checked for each analysis. It was within \pm 5% mol. It was noticed that no other product was detected and that CO_2 and H_2 conversions were identical, within experimental error \pm 5%.

219

221

220 2.2.2 Experimental procedure and operating conditions

For each experiment, 0.92 g of sieved catalyst particles (1350 μ m of mean diameter) was loaded into the reactor and then the reactor was vibrated, packed and assembled. The height of catalyst bed was measured and it was 10 cm for all experiments. A leak test was accomplished to ensure the sealing of the set-up and to avoid any hydrogen leak. Then, the catalyst was reduced under a continuous flow of 5% v/v H₂ in N₂ at the total flow rate of 200 mL/min STP (Standard

Temperature and Pressure conditions) and at 400 °C under atmospheric pressure. The 227 composition of the inlet gas mixture was first estimated by gas chromatography (GC) analysis 228 229 using the bypass before being introduced into the reactor. The methanation reaction was 230 conducted at several temperatures under atmospheric pressure. For each temperature, GC analyses were conducted every ten minutes until steady state was well established. Thereon, three 231 samples were taken each 10 minutes, analysed and the mean values calculated as results. After 232 the analysis, the temperature of the furnace was adjusted to the next value to obtain a new 233 operating point. The temperature was increased from 100 °C to 400 °C, followed by a decrease 234 from 400 °C to 100 °C to detect the possible hysteresis phenomena. The feed gas mixture 235 containing CO₂ and H₂ was passed continuously through the catalyst bed with a total flow rate of 236 200 mL/min STP and a molar composition $CO_2:H_2:N_2 = 1:4:5$. The $CO_2:H_2$ ratio = 1:4 has been 237 chosen considering the results of Goa et al.(2012)[44], and Sahebdelfar et al.(2015)[45] who 238 found that a ratio equal to 1:4 is the optimum for CO₂ conversion and methane selectivity and that 239 a ratio equal or lower than ¹/₄ avoids carbon deposition [44]. The feed has been diluted with N₂ to 240 ensure good hydrodynamic conditions in the catalytic bed such as a non-laminar flow and a 241 sufficiently efficient external transfer and by the time, to avoid an excessive temperature increase 242 in the catalytic bed due to the exothermicity of the reaction. 243

- **Results and discussion** 3 244
- 245

3.1 Preliminary results and discussions 246

247

Concerning the CO₂ methanation, some preliminary results are worthwhile to be given: 248

a) No conversion (CO₂ or H₂) has been observed below 150 °C, irrespective of the catalyst being 249 used. The reaction is not occurring. Catalytic results are then presented from 150°C. 250





256

In Figure 2a, conversion is reported for a 20% wt. Ni catalyst and the thermodynamic equilibrium 257 of the reaction, which was obtained by simulation using Aspen Plus. The reaction starts around 258 200 °C and hydrogen (or CO₂) conversion increases with the increase in the furnace temperature 259 and the reaction temperature. The shape of the conversion curve indicates a sharp acceleration of 260 261 the reaction rate around 250 °C, which corresponds to the transition from the extinct state to a lighted state of the bed. When the bed is extinct, methanation occurs progressively all along the 262 catalytic bed; but when the bed is lighted, the main part of the reaction occurs in a small zone of 263 264 the catalytic bed, where the temperature is much higher than the furnace one (+40°C), because of the reaction exothermicity. This state leads to high conversions (around 80-90%). When the 265 266 furnace temperature is increased above 350 °C, the CO₂ conversion decreases (Figure 2a) because 267 of the thermodynamic equilibrium limitation (dotted line). The difference of temperature between the centre of the bed and the furnace temperature, called DeltaT, is presented in Figure 2b. A 268

maximum of DeltaT can be observed when the furnace temperature approaches 280 °C. The 269 shape of this curve clearly indicates that, for each steady state, the temperature is not 270 271 homogeneous all along the catalytic bed and a temperature gradient is verified. The temperature 272 all along the bed passes by a maximum value, but the position of this value depends on the 273 operating conditions. The position of this peak is directly linked to the activity of the catalyst. 274 The more active it is, the highest this peak is and positioned close to the inlet of the bed. That is the reason why the DeltaT curve, measured at the centre of the bed, also passes through a 275 maximum when increasing the furnace temperature. It is also important to note that the measured 276 277 DeltaT does not obviously include the real maximum. In fact, this curve is always very sharp and the real maximum value is probably missed, but it gives an order of magnitude. 278

c) Because hysteresis is an indication of the existence of multiple steady states and has already been reported in fixed bed reactors for similar reactions [46,47], we first investigated this phenomenon in our system. As shown in Figure 2, no hysteresis was observed when conducting the experiments with an increasing or a decreasing temperature. The conversions and the DeltaT curves were rigorously the same. These curves also prove the good reproducibility of the experiments and whether any deactivation occurs, at least after one run going back and forth.

d) The GC analysis detects by-products that can be formed during the methanation, such as CO, and C1-C4 hydrocarbons. For all of our GC measurements made, while studying and comparing methanation products for different Ni and Ni-Co catalysts, no C1-C4 hydrocarbon by-products were detected. Only methane was detected and then quantified. CO was detected but in extremely low quantities (<1/1000)—smaller than the standard deviation of the method. Hence, the selectivity of CH₄ is 100% with all catalysts, and its yield is equal to the conversion of CO₂ or H₂.

- 293 The catalytic activity as a function of furnace temperature of various Ni/Al₂O₃ catalysts with Ni
- content varying from 5 to 25% wt. is shown in Figure 3.
- 295

292

296



298
299Figure 3: Effect of Ni content on H2 conversion. Gas Hourly Space Velocity (GHSV) = 9554 h⁻¹ (=13043 mL STP/g_{cat} h),
 $H_2/CO_2=4/1$

300

301 CO_2 conversion increases with temperature for all catalysts. The temperature ignition of the 302 reactor is observed to happen between 200 and 250 °C. At this temperature, the conversion 303 dramatically increases to reach a maximum of about 90% for all the catalysts, with Ni content 304 higher than 5%. Afterwards, the conversion starts decreasing with increasing temperature. As 305 explained above, the reaction takes place essentially on a limited zone of the catalyst bed and the

rest of the bed is used to establish the equilibrium. This is proved by the superposition of conversion curves on the equilibrium curve at the highest temperature for all the catalysts. For the high temperatures of the furnace, the thermodynamic equilibrium is reached at the outlet of the reactor. It is known that the methanation reaction is accompanied with CO production via reverse water-gas shift reaction (Equation 2). The methanation of CO can then occur, according to the following the reaction (Equation 6):

$$CO + 3H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_4 + H_2O \qquad \Delta H_{298 \text{ K}} = -206.1 \text{ kJ/mol}, \ \Delta G^0 = -141.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
(6)

312

The produced CO, formed in the first part of the catalytic bed, is converted in the rest of the bed into methane, and this is why the selectivity of methane is always 100%.

The catalytic activity increases with Ni loading between 5 and 20% wt., as expected (Figure 3). The more Ni is incorporated, the more catalytic sites are usually available for the reaction. Nevertheless, the catalyst with 25 % wt. Ni loading shows an activity very similar to that of the catalyst with 20% wt. Ni. This indicates that there is no benefit in using a Ni catalyst with higher Ni loading than 20%. This trend can easily be explained by our characterization results presented in Table 5, that summarizes the textural properties of our Ni catalysts and their percentage of reduced Ni.

322	Table 5: The properties of Ni catalysts						
	Catalyst	BET surface area	Pore volume ^a	Crystallite size ^b	Reduced Ni at 500		
	Cataryst	(m^2/g)	(cm^{3}/g)	(nm)	°C° (%)		
	5Ni	166	0.40	nd	nd		
	10Ni	153	0.36	6	1.8		
	15Ni	144	0.32	8	2.0		
	20Ni	141	0.30	10	6.2		
	25Ni	141	0.29	10	4.4		

323 ^a BJH desorption pore volume.

^bNiO (220) crystallite diameter calculated using Scherrer equation [48] from X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns.

325 ^c percentage of reduced Ni at 500 °C calculated from TPR profiles.

- 326 nd = non detectable
- 327

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis confirmed the presence of Ni on γ -alumina. The peaks of 328 Ni were identified and they became, as expected, sharper as the metal loading increased. The 329 surface areas were estimated between 166 and 140 m²/g and decreased when increasing the Ni 330 content. For instance, a decrease in the surface area of 15% was observed, when the Ni amount 331 was varied from 5% to 25% wt. The porous volume was also affected and decreased by 25%, 332 from 0.4 cm³/g to 0.3 cm³/g. This fact can be explained by the increase of the Ni amount within 333 alumina pores [28,49]. The average size of NiO particles were estimated using the Scherrer 334 equation. NiO particle size increases with Ni loading from 6 to 10 nm. For 5 % wt. Ni, NiO 335 particle size cannot be estimated, because NiO is highly dispersed and is not detectable by XRD 336 analysis. Ni active particles are more available with the increasing Ni content, but they are less 337 338 dispersed over the support. Thus, Ni particle size is increased. This fact is verified through FTIR CO adsorption. Table 6 presents the percentage of moderately and highly dispersed Ni on 339 prepared Ni catalysts, calculated from FTIR CO adsorption characterization. This percentage 340 decreases from 43.8% to 37.7%, when increasing Ni loading from 5% to 25%. These results 341 correspond to the sum of the two adsorption states of CO [50] on reduced Ni, in the region 342 between 2030 and 2070 cm⁻¹. Both adsorption states are linear-the first corresponds to mono-343 344 carbonyls and the second to multi-carbonyls. The results of CO adsorption are consistent with those reported in the literature [28] and prove that the Ni dispersion decreases with its increased 345 loading. 346

347

Table 6: Ni dispersion by FTIR CO adsorptionModerately and Highly dispersed Ni

Configurations Catalysts	CO Ni	co	CO Ni	со
5Ni		43.8%		
10Ni		41.4%		
15Ni		36.9%		
20Ni		34.3%		
25Ni		37.7%		

348

349 Concerning the reducibility of the species, the percentages of reduced Ni at 500 °C, given in Table 5, were calculated from H₂-TPR profiles. It increases up to 6.2% for 20% wt. Ni, then 350 351 decreases to 4.4% for 25% wt. Ni catalyst. This shows that the reducibility of Ni catalyst increases with the Ni loading from 5% wt. Ni to 20% wt. Ni, but decreases hereafter. In fact, the 352 species that may be present on the surface of the prepared catalysts are NiO and NiAl₂O₄. To 353 reduce NiAl₂O₄ species, a very high temperature (over 800 °C) is required, while the reduction of 354 oxides usually begins at 300 °C. NiO may either be weakly or strongly bonded to the support. For 355 example, if the particles are hemispherical, 25% of the NiO phase will be in contact with the 356 alumina support surface. Such intimate contact between the two phases would result in a strong 357 interaction and the NiO species' reducibility could be difficult [51]. Indeed, a relation between 358 the results of particle size to those of TPR could be established in this way. The increase in the 359 NiO particle size, between 5Ni and 20Ni (Table 5), results in the formation of weakly bonded 360 NiO to alumina support, and thus the reducibility of the catalysts is increased. 361

362 DeltaT for several Ni catalysts is presented in Figure 4.



363 364

Figure 4: Temperature increase from the inlet to the centre of the bed for several Ni contents

365

DeltaT curves show evidence of the exothermicity of the methanation reaction. Because of the 366 thermal resistances, when the reaction does not occur or is very slow, DeltaT can be negative; but 367 it reaches a maximum of 34 °C with the 15Ni catalyst, when the regulated furnace temperature is 368 369 290 °C. The catalysts with 20% wt. and 25% wt. Ni show similar DeltaT profiles, in accordance with their similar activity. 5Ni and 10Ni catalysts have lower delta T values. The furnace 370 temperature, for which DeltaT is maximum, is not the same for all the catalysts; and the more the 371 catalyst is active, the lower the temperature is. So, this maximum value shifts to the right, towards 372 high furnace temperatures, as the Ni content decreases. This means that with less Ni, it is 373 necessary to raise the temperature of the oven to carry out the methanation reaction and to obtain 374

a significant conversion of CO₂. The maximum values, showed in Figure 4, do not necessarily fit 375 the maximum temperature in the whole bed. The highest temperature is reached in the narrow 376 zone, where most of the reactions take place. This hot zone becomes larger when the catalyst is 377 378 less loaded with Ni. When the temperature of the furnace is increased, the conversion peak, and 379 therefore the hot zone are moved towards the reactor inlet. The K-type thermocouple, placed at the centre of the bed, will detect the increase and decrease in temperatures, because it will be 380 crossed by the hot zone during the variation in the furnace temperature. 381

Finally, increasing the Ni content in the catalysts offers numerous and reducible active sites, that 382 are less dispersed and accessible. The global activity of the catalysts, showed in Figure 3, is the 383 result of all these combined effects showing that 20% is close to the optimum value for Ni 384 content. The exothermicity is moderate in our conditions and the maximum value of DeltaT (and 385 386 its position on Figure 4) is an indication of the catalysts' activity.

3.3 Effect of Co content on CO₂ conversion 387

388

The effect of Co addition on methanation reaction was investigated based on H₂ and CO₂ 389 conversion and CH₄ selectivity. The synthetized catalysts of Table 3 were tested in the CO₂ 390 methanation pilot at several reaction temperatures under atmospheric pressure with a molar ratio 391 392 $H_2/CO_2 = 4/1.$

The catalytic effect of Co on CO₂ methanation was firstly evaluated by performing a test with a 393 394 catalyst containing Co only (15Co), supported on gamma-alumina. In Figure 5, the results are 395 compared with those obtained with 15Ni and with a third catalyst containing 15% wt. Ni, 5% wt. Co (15Ni,5Co). 396

398

399



It was found that Co is an active catalyst for CO_2 methanation reaction, because CO_2 and H_2 are partially converted into methane. The methane selectivity was found to be 100%, when Co alone was used as in the case of 15Ni (Ni alone). Co was less active than Ni. No catalytic activity enhancement was observed while using a catalyst containing 15Ni, 5Co.

Figure 6a shows CO₂ conversion for 20% wt. Ni catalysts, with and without Co. The conversion for all the five catalysts is nearly the same and no differences in the catalysts' activity were observed. DeltaT curves (Figure 6b) are also very similar for 20Ni without Co, and with 3%, 5%, 8% and 10% Co indicate that adding Co to a 20Ni catalyst is not worthwhile in terms of activity. Otherwise, the catalyst with 10Ni, 10Co behaves differently and shows a higher activity than the one containing 10% wt. Ni at low temperature (Figure 4c and 4d). At 300 °C, conversion with 10Ni catalyst is around 47%, but is increased to 75% when adding 10% Co to the catalyst. DeltaT maximum is also shifted towards the lower furnace temperatures. This indicates that for low Ni
content, Co addition improves the conversion, but that is not the case with higher Ni loadings.
The catalyst 10Ni,10Co offers good performances allowing less Ni usage and obtaining slightly
lower conversion than 20Ni, which is still an interesting finding.



20Ni	140	0.30	6	71.5
20Ni,5Co	134	0.30	13	63.1
20Ni,10Co	132	0.28	28	52.2
15Ni	144	0.32	2	66.6
15Ni,5Co	143	0.32	nm	145
10Ni	153	0.36	2	49.9
10Ni,10 Co	141	0.32	31	48.5
15Co	137	0.32	23	9.5

427 ^a BJH desorption pore volume.

428 ^b percentage of reduced Ni/Co at 500 °C calculated from TPR profiles.

429 nm = not measured

430

BET surface and pore volume are not much affected by Co addition, despite the fact that it 431 overcharges this catalyst with metals. But the percentage of reduced species at 500 °C is strongly 432 increased when Co is added as shown for 20%Ni-Co and 10%Ni-Co catalysts. Thus, Co addition 433 increases the reducibility of the Ni catalyst, which has a positive effect on activity. The CO 434 adsorption of catalysts is also influenced by Co addition. For high Ni content (20%wt.), the 435 436 adsorbed CO decreases with the Co content. Ni dispersion is not favoured by the Co introduction, because the total amount of metal (Co + Ni) is high. However, for intermediate Ni content (15% 437 wt.), Ni dispersion was remarkably improved by Co introduction. No differences in terms of Ni 438 dispersion were observed after lowering the Ni content (10% wt.) and increasing the Co amount 439 (10% wt.). The Co introduction improves Ni reducibility in all cases. Nevertheless, the Co 440 introduction favours Ni dispersion, when the catalyst is not overcharged with both metals. For 441 442 high Ni loaded catalysts, the benefits of Co addition, through a better reducibility, are counterbalanced by the overcharge of the catalyst and a worse dispersion of the active species. 443 These results are in good agreement with the recent studies of Liu et al. [36] and Xu et al. [52], 444 who also found a promotion effect of Co on Ni catalysts. 445

447 3.4 Deactivation-Stability

448

The stability of the catalysts is a very important point that has to be examined when designing 449 new catalytic processes. Considering the above results, it was decided to perform long catalytic 450 451 methanation tests over 200 h with 0.09 g of 10Ni, 10Ni, 10Co, and 20Ni catalysts at 350 °C. The catalysts were first reduced under a continuous flow of 5% v/v H₂ in N₂ at the total flow rate of 452 453 200 mL/min STP and at 400 °C under atmospheric pressure. Relatively low reaction temperature (350 °C) was chosen, because it already allowed a very high conversion of CO₂ into methane 454 (85% for 10Ni catalyst in Figure 6c) for 0.92 g of catalyst, despite choosing the low temperature. 455 We also decided to divide the catalyst weight by 10 to run it with high methanation rates all along 456 the bed, which is now only one centimetre long. The objective was to limit the lifetime test and 457 458 see whether deactivation occurs. Figure 7 shows CO₂ conversion and CH₄ and CO selectivity during the 200 h of reaction. 459



462 Figure 7.Stability test on 10Ni, 10Ni,10Co, and 20Ni catalysts: (a) CO₂ conversion, (b) CH₄ and CO selectivity (T= 350 °C, Catalyst mass= 0.09g)

464

465 As shown in Figure 7, the initial conversions obtained with 10Ni; 10Ni,10Co and 20Ni catalysts are 32%, 61.5% and 77% respectively. These conversions are observed with 0.09 g of catalyst 466 only. CO is now detected and quantified so methane selectivity is not 100% anymore (Figure 7 467 (b)). CO is the only by-product that is detected using the three catalysts. In this configuration, the 468 469 catalytic bed is not long enough to fully convert CO₂ and transform CO in methane, according to 470 Equation (6), but this configuration is very helpful to follow the course of the reaction with time. Figure 7 shows that 10Ni and 10Ni,10Co catalysts exhibit an activation phase, for which CO₂ 471 conversion and methane selectivity keep on increasing, whereas CO selectivity decreases. The 472 more active the catalyst is, the faster the activation phase is and this latter is even not visible for 473 20Ni catalyst. 20Ni catalyst maintains a CO₂ conversion of 77% and a CH₄ selectivity equal to 474 98% during all the 200 h of stability test. For 10Ni catalyst, during the first eighty hours, CO₂ 475 476 conversion increases from 32% to 56% and then stabilizes. Methane selectivity also stabilizes at around 95%. During the following 120 h, the catalyst activity and selectivity are maintained and 477 no deactivation is observed. For 10Ni,10Co catalyst, CO2 conversion stabilizes at 67 % and CH4 478 selectivity at 97% after 20 h of reaction until the end of the long-term test. The three tested 479 catalysts show high stability during 200 h of reaction. This result is remarkable and, with the 480 exception of Liu et al. (2012) [59] who reported the good stability of a 15%Ni on alumina 481 catalyst doped with 2%CeO₂ over 120h, such long-term experiments without deactivation are 482 rarely reported in the literature. 483

Concerning the activation phase, an additional reduction of the NiO particles probably occurs at the beginning of the run. The preliminary reduction of the catalyst, done before methanation, is perhaps not long enough to fully reduce all the NiO particles, especially the ones which are not well dispersed. Due to the heat of reaction, the bed temperature reaches at least 390°C for the
10Ni catalyst. This value is comparable to the reduction's one of 400°C, leading to additional
reduction.

The methane production rates in mol.h⁻¹.gNi⁻¹ have also been calculated for our 10Ni; 10Ni,10Co 490 and 20Ni catalysts and are compared to the reported values from the literature (Table 8). Our 491 10Ni catalyst shows a high methane production rate, better than most of the other catalysts 492 493 containing 10% wt of Ni and comparable to the 10% Ni/CeO₂ tested by Tada et al.[53]. Our Ni on alumina support gives comparable results to the one supported on CeO₂ with the main 494 advantage of a lower price and availability. Our 20Ni catalyst also exhibits good performances; at 495 325 °C, methane production rate is only 2.71 times less than the one presented in Garbarino et al. 496 [57]. However, these authors reported results obtained at 400 °C with a 5:1 H₂:CO₂ ratio, 497 498 representing much favourable conditions for the reaction. The 10Ni,10Co catalyst also shows a 499 higher efficiency than other Ni-Co catalysts reported in the literature, even higher than those. supported on ordered mesoporous Alumina [52] or doped with cerium [59] which is more 500 501 expensive than cobalt. Finally, even some more active Ni catalysts can be found in the literature [54–56]. They all use more expensive supports than alumina—sometimes structured—that create 502 503 additional costs to the process.

504	14 Table 8 : Comparison of methane production rate for various Ni catalysts on alumina									
	Author	Catalyst	Methane production rate	ı GSHV		Т	H ₂ / CO ₂	m _{cata}	<i>Xco</i> ₂	S _{CH4}
			(mol.h ⁻¹ .g Ni ⁻¹)	(mL.g _{cat} ⁻ ¹ .h ⁻¹)	(h -1)	(°C)		(g)		
	10Ni (this study)	10%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	3.2	133000		350	4	0.09	56	95
	Tada et al. [53]	10%Ni/ CeO2	3.32		10000	350	4	0.3	90	100
	Zhou et al. [27]	10%Ni/ CeO2	0.9	22000		340	4.6	0.1	91.1	100
	Xu et al. [52]	10%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃ -	0.85	15000		400	4	0.1	68	97.5

	OMA								
Rahmani et al. [28]	10%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	0.58	9000		350	3.5	-	70	91
Le et al. [57]	10%Ni/ CeO ₂	0.27	60000		220	50	0.1	100	100
Liu et al. [36]	10%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	0.16	10000		350	4	0.1	25	94
20Ni (this study)	20%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	2.2	120000		325	4	0.92	90	100
Garbarino et al.[58]	20%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	5.97		55000	400	5	-	80	78
Zhou et al.[54]	6.17% Ni/TiO	24.27		60000	350	4	0.05	73.2	96
Aziz et al. [55]	² 5%Ni/ MSN	11.75	50000		300	4	0.2	64.1	99.9
Aldana et al.[56]	5%Ni/S iO ₂	3.89	22000		400	4	0.15	35	88.3
10Ni,10Co (this study)	10%Ni/ Al ₂ O ₃	3.25	133000		350	4	0.09	61.5	95
Xu et al.[52]	8%Ni2 %Co/ OMA	1.22	15000		400	4	0.1	80	97.5
Liu et al.[59]	15%Ni 2%CeO 2/Al ₂ O ₃	0.71	10000		350	4	0.1	85	94
Liu et al.[36]	10%Ni 3%Co/ Al ₂ O ₃	0.49	10000		350	4	0.1	78	99

505

506 Finally, it is obvious that a global costs balance including the metals and support prices and the lifetime of the catalyst, as well as mass and energy balances and heat losses calculations would 507 508 lead to a more precise analysis. However, considering our results, the Ni and Ni-Co catalysts 509 prepared in this study are likely to represent an improvement for further developments of methanation processes: they combine a very good efficiency with a remarkable stability at low 510 temperature of 350°C. Stability ensures savings on catalysts costs. High methane production rates 511 per gram of Ni are reached at a lower level of temperature than the classical one, which is 512 favourable to energy savings. Moreover, cobalt can be used to dope low content Ni catalysts 513

(10%wt Ni as an example): it improves the catalyst activity by improving Ni reducibility and
dispersion and its excellent stability has also been demonstrated.

516

517 4 Conclusion

518

Ni and Ni-Co/y-Al₂O₃ catalysts with optimum amounts of Ni and Co toward methanation 519 were prepared and characterized by several techniques. They were tested for CO₂ methanation 520 under atmospheric pressure. The experimental results showed that these catalysts were very 521 522 active even at low temperature (300-350 °C) for the CO₂ and H₂ conversion. The selectivity in 523 CH₄ was 100% as long as the catalytic bed was long enough to allow CO methanation and equilibrium at the outlet of the reactor. The conversion and CH₄ selectivity were strongly affected 524 by Ni metal content. The addition of Co improved the reducibility of Ni species and metal 525 dispersion. The positive effect of Co addition was only observed with catalysts having low Ni 526 527 loading (below 10% in weight). From our results, the Co doped catalyst (10Ni,10Co) is more 528 active than the 10Ni at low temperature. It could be operated at 300°C and give comparable CO₂ conversion and methane yields to 10Ni at 350°C, which from a process point of view, should 529 reduce the energy consumption. Long life-test experiments at 350 °C with the 10Ni; 10Ni,10Co 530 and 20Ni catalysts already showed a higher CO₂ hydrogenation rate and a higher methane 531 production rate when compared with other similar catalysts in literature and presented a 532 remarkably good stability over 200 h run. The very good stability of our novel catalysts tested 533 534 over 200 h, and their high activity compared to other catalysts in the literature make them good candidates for developing greener methanation processes. 535

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