



CO₂ reforming of CH₄ over Ni–Co/MSN for syngas production: Role of Co as a binder and optimization using RSM



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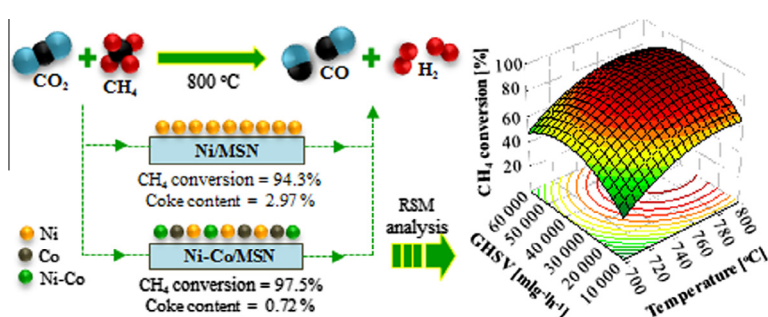
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HIGHLIGHTS

- The Co binder was added into Ni/MSN catalyst using consecutive in situ electrolysis.
- At similar metal content, the Ni–Co/MSN gave a higher activity compared to Ni/MSN.
- The formation of Ni–Co alloy reduced sintering and coke formation in the catalyst.
- The ANOVA analysis showed that temperature is the most significant variable in RSM.
- The optimum CH₄ conversion reached 97% at 768 °C and GHSV of 38,726 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

A bimetallic Ni–Co catalyst supported on MSN (Ni–Co/MSN) was prepared by consecutive in situ electrolysis method. XRD and XPS results revealed that the addition of Co as a binder induced the formation of NiCo₂O₄, a spinel-type solid solution. The results implied a *d*-electron transfer from Co to Ni, which increased the electron density of Ni in the Ni–Co/MSN. The formation of Ni–Co alloy in the Ni–Co/MSN helped in decreasing the Ni particle size, providing better metal dispersion, and established a stronger interaction between Ni and Co, as evidenced by TEM and H₂-TPR analyses. In comparison to the Ni/MSN, the Ni–Co/MSN exhibited higher activity up to 97.5% CH₄ conversion and stability for more than 30 h time on stream. The high performance of the Ni–Co/MSN was due to the synergistic effect between Ni and Co, small Ni particle size and better Ni dispersion. The enrichment of electron on Ni particles and high anti-sintering ability of the Ni–Co/MSN catalyst were responsible to maintain the stability of the catalyst. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) analysis indicated that reaction temperature was the prominent significant single variable that affected the CH₄ conversion, followed by interaction of temperature and CO₂/CH₄ ratio and quadratic interaction of GHSV. The optimum CH₄ conversion predicted from the response surface analysis is 97% at reaction temperature of 783 °C, CO₂:CH₄ ratio of 3, and GHSV of 38,726 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹.

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1. Introduction

In recent years, the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ has shown an increasing interest for syngas production and as chemical energy transmission system. This process produces unity ratio of syngas, which can be

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preferentially used for the production of Fischer–Tropsch liquid hydrocarbon and oxygenates. The most important advantage to be offered by CO₂ reforming of CH₄ is the utilization of harmful greenhouse gases (CO₂ and CH₄). This process will be a potential process for the production of syngas in the future along with steam reforming and partial oxidation of reforming process. However, commercialization of CO₂ reforming of CH₄ technology remains a great challenge as it suffers from severe catalyst deactivation through coke deposition and metal sintering. Because of its endothermic character, the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ requires a high reaction temperature. Thermodynamic data indicate that this reaction is not spontaneous at atmospheric pressure below 906 K [1] and, that side reactions, mainly CH₄ decomposition to produce coke, take place at a significant rate between 906 K and 973 K. This means that the reaction must be carried out at reaction temperature higher than 973 K.

Metals of groups 8, 9, and 10 (except osmium) are able to catalyze CO₂ reforming of CH₄ [2]. The noble metals such as Rh, Ru and Pt are expensive and of limited availability, so, in practice, they are not suitable for this process at industrial level. In spite of that rapid deactivation owing to carbon deposition and/or sintering of active metals at high temperatures is always observed, Ni-based catalysts have attracted considerable interest for their low costs and high activities. It has been proved that the presence of modifiers [3] can inhibit the coke formation and extend the lifetime of the catalyst. One of the most important options for enhancing activity and stability in CO₂ reforming of CH₄ is to use bimetallic catalysts.

Bimetallic catalyst system with respect to active surface elements can provide few advantages for CO₂ reforming of CH₄. Liu et al. [4] studied a series of catalyst modifiers including Ti, Mn and Zr incorporated into Ni-based catalysts and found that Ni–Zr bimetallic catalyst exhibited higher activity and better stability compared to the other two catalysts. It was attributed to strong anchoring effects of Zr⁴⁺ and partial activation of CO₂ by Zr⁴⁺. Besides those mentioned modifiers, Co has attracted recent interest as the second metal to be doped with Ni to form bimetallic catalysts. The high activity of Co-based catalysts is related to its ability in methane decomposition reaction [5]. Fan et al. reported that the catalytic performance of monometallic Ni and Co catalysts was improved through synergized effect of both components in bimetallic catalysts which showed better activity and regenerability [6]. Similar bimetallic catalyst system reported by Zhang et al. exhibited great tolerance to coke formation due to the synergistic effects, highly dispersed active metal and strong metal-support interactions [1].

In recent years, mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSN) have been well developed as effective materials in the field of adsorption [7], drug delivery [8] and catalysis [9,10]. Their high surface area (900–1100 m² g⁻¹) and the presence of uniform pore sized lined with silanol groups is helpful to disperse active metal particles and provide mild basicity, which is required in CO₂ reforming of CH₄. In this work, bimetallic Ni–Co supported on MSN (Ni–Co/MSN) was prepared using a consecutive in situ electrochemical method. As previous investigation has shown [10,11], the smaller particle size of the electrogenerated metal particles enhanced specific surface area and active sites available for the reaction. The aims of this study are as follows: (i) preparing Ni–Co/MSN as a bimetallic catalyst, (ii) evaluation of the effect of the bimetallic catalyst on the physicochemical properties of the catalysts and (iii) optimization of the activity of the catalysts in CO₂ reforming of CH₄ by response surface methodology (RSM).

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthesis of mesoporous silica nanoparticles (MSN)

MSN was prepared by co-condensation and sol-gel method as previously reported [7]. In brief, the cetyltrimethylammonium bro-

mid (CTAB, Merck), ethylene glycol (EG, Merck) and ammonium (NH₄OH, QRec) solution were dissolved in 700 mL of double distilled water with the following mole composition of CTAB:EG:NH₄OH:H₂O = 0.0032:0.2:0.2:0.1. After vigorous stirring for about 30 min at 50 °C, 1.2 mmol tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS, Merck) and 1 mmol 3-aminopropyl triethoxysilane (APTES, Merck) were added to the clear mixture to give a white suspension solution. This solution was then stirred for another 2 h at 80 °C, and the as-synthesized MSN was collected by centrifugation at 20,000 rpm. The as-synthesized MSN was dried at 110 °C and calcined at 550 °C for 3 h to form surfactant-free MSN. Complete removal of the surfactant was verified by means of infrared spectroscopy, which did not reveal the presence of any residual organic species.

2.2. Preparation of Ni–Co supported on MSN (Ni–Co/MSN)

In this study, the Ni–Co/MSN was prepared by consecutive in situ electrochemical method. Firstly, 2.5 wt.% of Co/MSN catalyst was prepared by adding 10 mL of DMF solution to a one-compartment glass cell fitted with a platinum (Pt) plate cathode (2 cm × 2 cm) and a cobalt (Co) plate anode (2 cm × 2 cm) containing TEAP, naphthalene and MSN. Naphthalene was used as a mediator in the system to produce radical anions, which then reduced the nickel cations to give smaller nickel nanoparticles [12]. Then, the electrolysis was conducted at a constant current of 480 mA cm⁻² and 0 °C under a N₂ atmosphere under continuous stirring. The time required for complete electrolysis of desired Co loading was calculated based on the Faraday's law, as shown in the following equation;

$$n = \left(\frac{It}{F} \right) \left(\frac{1}{z} \right) \quad (1)$$

where n is the number of moles of Co, I is the constant current of electrolysis (A), t is the total time the constant current was applied (s), F is Faraday's law constant (96,487 C mol⁻¹), and z is the valence number of ion of the substance (electron transferred per ion). For example, 569 s is the time required to produce 2.5 wt.% of Co in 1.5 g MSN. After electrolysis, the solvent was removed before being dried overnight at 110 °C and calcined for 3 h at 550 °C to give a dark blue colored Co/MSN. After that, consecutive addition of 2.5 wt.% of Ni was added to the Co/MSN using the same in situ electrochemical procedures to produce Ni–Co/MSN. As a reference, 5 wt.% of the monometallic Co/MSN and Ni/MSN were also prepared.

2.3. Characterization

The crystalline structure of the catalysts was determined with X-ray diffraction (XRD) recorded on powder diffractometer (Bruker Advance D8, 40 kV, 40 mA) using a Cu K α radiation source in the range of $2\theta = 1.5$ –80°. The crystallite size of NiO (d_{NiO}) was calculated by means of the Scherrer equation:

$$d_{\text{NiO}} = \frac{0.9\lambda}{B \cos \theta} \quad (2)$$

where λ is the X-ray wavelength corresponding to Cu K α radiation (0.15406 nm), B is the broadening (in radians) of the Ni (200) reflection and θ is the angle of diffraction corresponding to the peak broadening. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were used to determine the textural properties at liquid nitrogen temperatures using a Beckman Coulter SA 3100 Surface Area Analyzer. Prior to measurement, all of the catalysts were outgassed at 110 °C for 3 h before being subjected to N₂ adsorption at –196 °C. The morphology of the catalysts as well as semi-quantitative determination of percentage metal loaded were observed by field emission scanning

electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-ray spectrometer (FESEM–EDX) (JSM-6710 F). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out using a JEOL JEM-2100F microscope. The samples were ultrasonically dispersed in acetone and deposited on an amorphous, porous carbon grid. H₂-TPR experiments were carried out using Micromeritics Chemisorb 2720 Pulse Chemisorption in 10% H₂/Ar at 10 °C min⁻¹. H₂ chemisorption was measured to investigate the Ni dispersion and Ni surface area of the catalysts. Prior to the chemisorption, 30 mg of the catalyst was reduced with pure H₂ (20 mL min⁻¹) at 900 °C for 1 h. Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) measurements were carried out using Agilent Technologies Cary 640 FTIR Spectrometer. To identify the chemical functional groups present in the catalysts, the catalysts were finely ground and dispersed into KBr powder-pressed pellets with a ratio of 1 mg catalyst/100 mg KBr. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was used for surface analysis and metal oxidation state investigation using a Shimadzu Axis Ultra DLD spectrometer, using Al X-ray source. The charging effect was corrected by adjusting the C 1s peak to a position of 284.5 eV. The sample was pressed into disc and mounted on a sample rod in a pretreatment chamber. The spectra of Ni 2p and Co 2p were recorded and deconvoluted using Casa XPS software.

2.4. Catalytic testing

The catalytic CO₂ reforming of CH₄ was performed in a fixed-bed continuous flow reactor at 300–800 °C. Prior to the reaction, 0.2 g of the catalyst was charged into an ID 4 mm quartz tube, and then it was subjected to O₂ treatment (O₂ = 50 mL min⁻¹) at 850 °C for 1 h, followed by H₂ reduction (H₂ = 50 mL min⁻¹) at 850 °C for 3 h. Then, the reactor was cooling down to a reaction temperature under N₂ stream. CO₂ and CH₄ were mixed at a stoichiometric ratio of 1:1 and N₂ was added as the carrier gas. The reactants with space velocity around 15,000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹ was passed over the activated catalyst and the products were analyzed using online 6090N Agilent Gas Chromatograph equipped with Carboxen 1010 packed column and TCD detector. The CH₄ conversion was calculated according to the following terms:

$$X_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{[\text{CH}_4]_{\text{in}} - [\text{CH}_4]_{\text{out}}}{[\text{CH}_4]_{\text{in}}} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

where [CH₄]_{in} and [CH₄]_{out} are the molar concentration of CH₄ in the feed and effluent, respectively.

2.5. Experimental design and optimization

In this study, design of experiment (DOE) was used to study the effect of important process variables in the CO₂ reforming of CH₄. Response surface methodology (RSM), a combination of statistical and mathematical technique was used to obtain the optimum value of the process variables [13]. The main objective of RSM is to find an appropriate model for predicting and optimizing the responses. The optimum value of independent variables is determined by finding a point (maximum or minimum point) known as stationary point [14]. A standard RSM analysis coupled with central composite design (CCD) used to generate reasonable experimental runs as well as to analyze the interaction between the variables. The quadratic equation model is employed as represented by the equation below:

$$y = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_{ij} x_i x_j + \varepsilon \quad (4)$$

where y is the calculated response, β_0 is the intercept term, β_i , β_{ij} and β_{ii} are the measure of the effect of variable x_i , $x_i x_j$, and x_i^2 , respectively. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the generated

regression model was also carried out to ensure its statistical significance. The CCD suggested 2ⁿ factorial runs, 2ⁿ axial runs and n center runs (two replicates), with n as number of factors. The axial point was collected at $(\pm\alpha, 0, 0)$, $(0, \pm\alpha, 0)$, and $(0, 0, \pm\alpha)$ where α is the distance of the axial point from center to make the design rotatable. Value of α for CCD was fixed at 1 for the present study. Three process variables selected in this study are reaction temperature (700–800 °C), CH₄ to CO₂ ratio (5–1) and gas hourly space velocity, GHSV (20,000–60,000 mL g⁻¹ h⁻¹). The range and coded level of the process variables are listed in Table S1. These ranges were predicted based on the results of previous studies [15–17] and preliminary works that have been conducted. A total of 16 experiments were required accordingly to the CCD design. The sequence of experiment was randomized in order to minimize the effect of the uncontrolled factor. The response was monitored as a function of CH₄ conversion. Then, the results were analyzed using a regression analysis program coupled with ANOVA analysis at 10% significance level incorporated in Statsoft Statistica 8.0 software.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effect of the addition of Co binder on Ni/MSN catalyst

3.1.1. XRD analysis

Fig. 1 shows the XRD patterns for MSN, NiO, Co₃O₄, Ni/MSN, Co/MSN and Ni–Co/MSN. Low-angle XRD pattern (Fig. 1A) of MSN, Ni/MSN, Co/MSN and Ni–Co/MSN exhibited three distinct peaks at $2\theta = 2.35$, 4.05 and 4.75° , which can be assigned to (100), (110), and (200) reflections of a hexagonal mesoporous structure ($p6mm$) of the MSN [8]. The intensity of these peaks slightly decreased for Ni/MSN and Co/MSN, indicating a slight distortion of the ordered mesoporous structure after the modification. However, a significant decrease in intensity was observed for Ni–Co/MSN, demonstrating a greater distortion of the structure. Since the MSN is not crystalline at the atomic and molecule levels, no reflection was observed at higher angles. As shown in Fig. 1B, the NiO, Ni/MSN and Ni–Co/MSN exhibited four diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 37.3$, 43.2 , 63.1 , and 75.6° , corresponding to (111), (200),

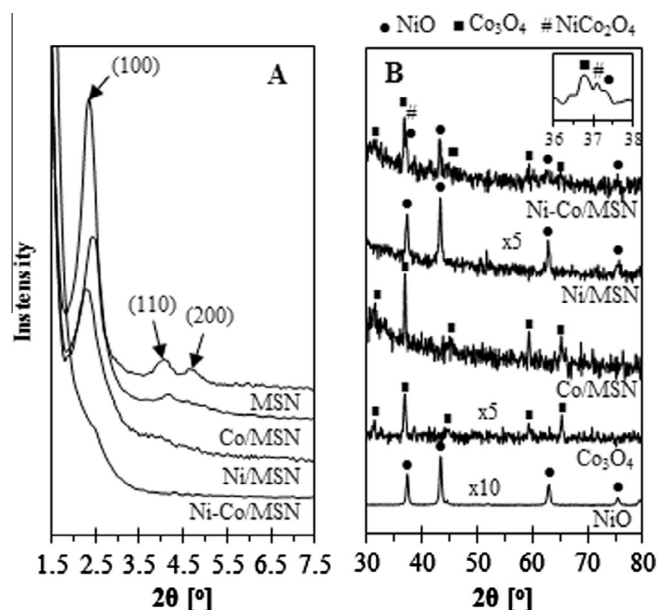


Fig. 1. (A) Low and (B) wide angle of XRD patterns for MSN, Co/MSN, Ni/MSN, Ni–Co/MSN, Co₃O₄ and NiO.

(220), and (311) planes of NiO, respectively (JCPDS 78-0643). The Co_3O_4 , Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN exhibited five peaks at $2\theta = 31.6$, 36.8 , 44.7 , 59.6 , and 75.6° , corresponding to (220), (311), (400), (422), and (620) planes of Co_3O_4 , respectively (JCPDS 42-1467). Besides, there is a new diffraction peak at $2\theta = 37.1^\circ$ was observed in the XRD pattern of Ni-Co/MSN, attributed to the characteristic peak of NiCo_2O_4 phase (JCPDS 73-1702). It appears that the simultaneous presence of Ni and Co oxide facilitates the formation of Ni-Co alloy [18]. Sengupta et al. reported that partial dissolution of the Ni oxide phase may possibly occur during the presence of Co oxide due to the similar lattice parameter of these metals [19]. The crystal size of NiO in the Ni/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN calculated using the Scherer equation is 5.62 and 3.87 nm, respectively.

3.1.2. Morphology and particle size

Fig. 2 shows FESEM and TEM images of the MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN. The FESEM image of MSN (Fig. 2A) demonstrated the formation of uniform spherical particles in the size of 40–60 nm. The Co/MSN catalyst retained the spherical morphology (Fig. 2B), with an increase in the surface roughness of catalyst, which is due to the deposition of Co crystallites. Consecutive addition of Ni in the Co/MSN catalyst showed the existence of new pyramidal particles in the Ni-Co/MSN (Fig. 2C). Further EDX-mapping analysis of the pyramidal particles (Fig. S1) elucidated the main composition of this structure is Ni and Co, which suggested that the Ni and Co particles are located closed to each other and possibly might formed an interaction. In the TEM image, MSN showed clusters of hexagonally-ordered silica nanoparticles overlapping each other and formed honeycomb-like structures (Fig. 2D). The ordering of the hexagonal silica decreased after the incorporation of Co and Ni-Co, since no clear long-range silica arrangement was found in those catalysts (Fig. 2E and F, respectively). This may be due to the desilication and structural rearrangement of the silica during the in situ electrochemical incorporation of the Co and/or Ni [20]. This observation is in agreement with the XRD results (Fig. 1A), which revealed that incorporation of the Co and/or Ni led to distortion in the hexagonal silica order. Insert Fig. 2E and F shows the particle size distribution of the metal particles in the

Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN. The Ni-Co/MSN presented a more homogeneous and smaller average particle size about 3.84 nm compared to the Co/MSN that has an average particle size of 5.68 nm. The smaller particle size of Ni in the Ni-Co/MSN catalyst is might due to the confinement of Ni particle in the Ni-Co solid solution. In fact, it was observed that the distribution of metal was more dispersed in the Ni-Co/MSN compared to the Co/MSN, which might serves a greater number of accessible active metal sites in the CO_2 reforming of CH_4 . The small metal particle and better metal dispersion will contribute to more edges and more metal-support structures [1], and leading to more active sites for the reaction to take place. Whereas, the bigger metal particle tend to agglomerate with each other, thus limiting the number of active site for the reactants accessibility.

3.1.3. N_2 adsorption–desorption analysis

The textural properties of the MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN were determined by N_2 adsorption–desorption analysis. The N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms and pore size distributions of the catalysts are illustrated in Fig. 3. According to the IUPAC classification, the isotherm of the catalysts exhibited typical Type IV adsorption steps at $P/P_0 = 0-0.1$, $0.3-0.4$, and $0.9-1.0$, which could be classified as a mesoporous material. Although the adsorption steps clearly remained for Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN, these catalysts showed a remarkable decrease in N_2 adsorption and pore volume compared to the MSN. This indicated that the rearrangement of silica order and pore fillings were occurred during the metal incorporation. In the pore size distributions, all the catalysts demonstrated a bimodal pore structure in the range of 3–20 nm and 20–80 nm. Compared to the MSN, the intensity of pore distribution in both ranges decreased with the addition of Co or/and Ni. This observation is correlated with the reduction in the quantity of adsorbed N_2 in Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN at $P/P_0 = 0-0.05$ and $0.9-1.0$, which indicates the reduction of micropores and interparticles void mesopores. In this study, MSN showed the highest surface area and pore volume about $894 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.979 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. The addition of Co or/and Ni to the MSN resulted in reduction of the surface area and pore volume to 509 and $316 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$,

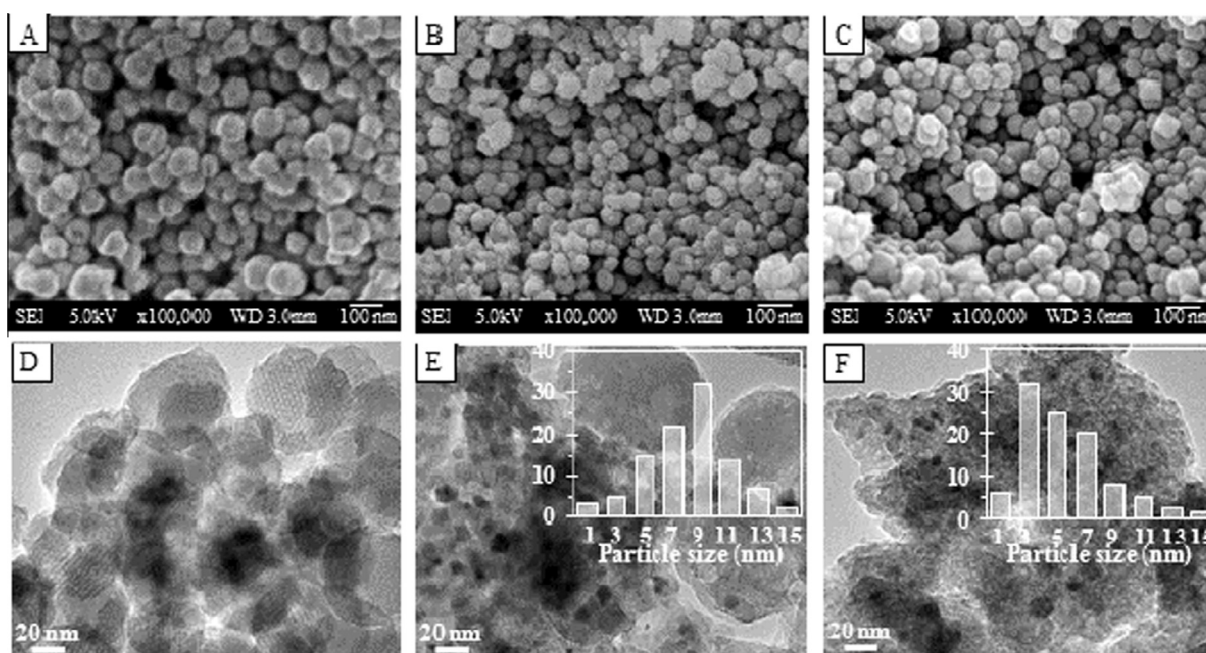


Fig. 2. (A–C) FESEM images of MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN. (D–F) TEM images of MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN. Insert figure (E) and (F) are the HR-TEM particle size distributions of Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN.

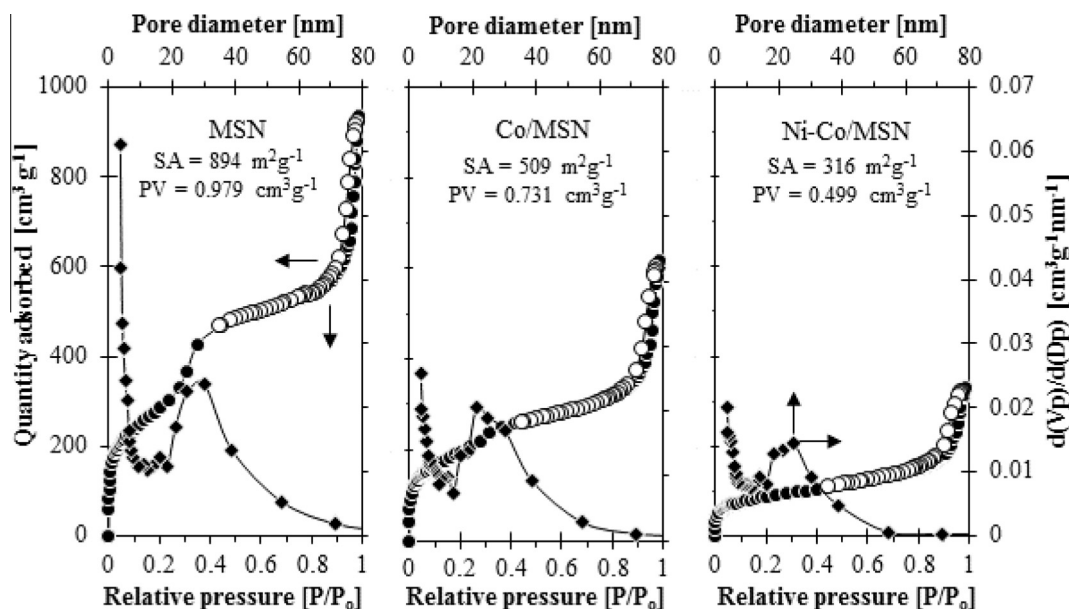


Fig. 3. N_2 adsorption–desorption isotherms and pore size distribution of MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN.

and 0.731 and 0.499 $cm^3 g^{-1}$, respectively. A decrease in surface area and pore volume with the addition of Co and Ni-Co was attributed to partial pore blockage and/or pore filling of the catalysts.

3.1.4. Reducibility study

TPR technique is used not only to characterize metal-support interactions but also to elucidate the role of additives as binders in the reduction and the influence of one or more phases on the reducibility of a specific compound in multi-component system. In our previous works [10,11], H_2 -TPR had been employed to measure the reducibility of Ni/MSN. The broad H_2 consumption area of the Ni/MSN started at 320 °C and continued to about 500 °C. The broad peak area apparently consisting of several overlapping reduction peaks and was deconvoluted into three peaks at 378, 410 and 491 °C, corresponding to the small Ni_2O_3 , small NiO and highly dispersed Ni^{2+} that strongly interacted with the MSN. In Fig. 4, the TPR profile of pure Co_3O_4 exhibited two broad peak centered at 382 and 465 °C, which can be assigned to the stepwise reduction of Co_3O_4 to metallic Co. The reduction peak at 382 °C apparently attributed to the reduction of Co_3O_4 (Co^{3+}) to CoO (Co^{2+}), and the higher reduction temperature at 465 °C was needed to reduce CoO to Co^0 [21]. In situ incorporation of the Co into MSN presented different reduction profiles with the pure Co_3O_4 , due to the emergence of a sharp peak at 559 °C. By analogy to previous study, the new peak observed at higher temperature can be attributed to the reduction of Co that strongly interacted with MSN support. Thus it can be inferred that very strong interactions exist between Co and MSN support compared to the Ni and MSN. The addition of Co binder to the Ni/MSN catalyst shifted the original reduction profiles of the Ni/MSN to a comparatively higher temperature. The formation of Ni-Co alloy is reflected by reduction at considerably higher temperature due to stronger interaction between the two metals [22]. This result suggested that the addition of Co binder in the Ni/MSN promotes a higher reducibility and stronger interaction, which could enhance the sintering resistant ability of the catalyst [18].

3.1.5. Spectroscopic study

Fig. 5 shows the FTIR results of all catalysts in the range of 400–1600 cm^{-1} . For MSN, three absorption peaks were observed

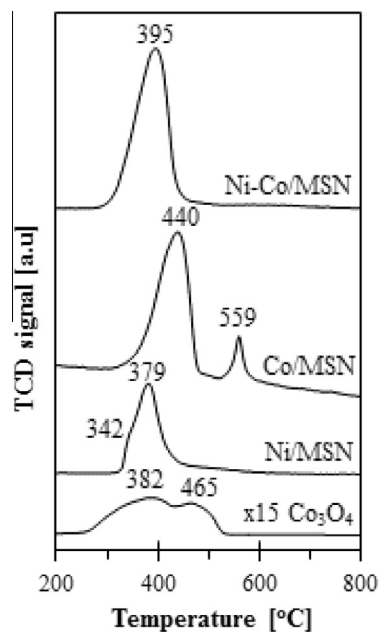


Fig. 4. H_2 -TPR profiles of Co_3O_4 , Ni/MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN.

at 1091, 790, and 460 cm^{-1} attributed to asymmetric stretching, bending vibration, and symmetric stretching of framework Si-O-Si, respectively [7]. The peak at 956 cm^{-1} is assigned to Si-OH stretching vibration of non-bridging oxygen [8]. Upon the introduction of Co into MSN, the intensity of these peaks decreased which suggesting partial replacement of the Si-O-Si and Si-OH with Co-O-Si. Besides, two sharp peaks at 576 and 666 cm^{-1} corresponding to Co-O vibrations appeared in the Co/MSN spectrum, indicated a successful incorporation of the Co in the catalyst. Further addition of Ni to the Co/MSN resulted in the disappearance of the Co-O vibration bands. This is probably due to the interaction between Ni and Co species in the Ni-Co/MSN. Previous study dealing with the interaction of NiO and Co_3O_4 suggested a strong possibility of the formation of Ni-Co alloy in a bimetallic system due to the closeness of lattice parameter [18].

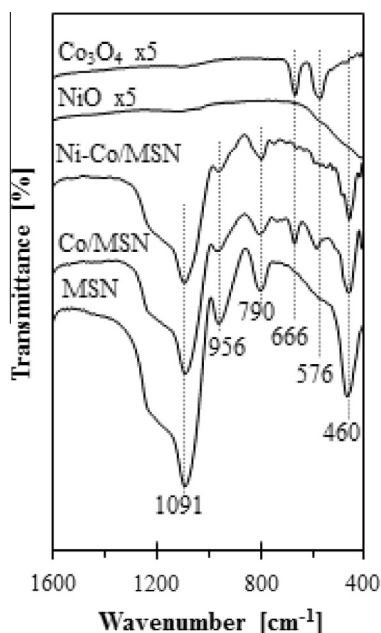


Fig. 5. IR-KBr spectra of MSN, Co/MSN, Ni-Co/MSN, NiO and Co₃O₄.

XPS analysis was carried out to obtain more insight into the surface composition and the oxidative state of metal in the catalysts. Fig. 6 shows the Ni 2p and Co 2p spectra of Ni/MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN. The Ni 2p spectra of Ni/MSN showed Ni 2p_{3/2} and Ni 2p_{1/2} peaks at 854.2 and 871.2 eV, respectively and the corresponding satellite peaks are observed at 859.2 and 877.9 eV, respectively [23]. In the case of Ni-Co/MSN, the peak of Ni 2p_{3/2} was shifted to lower binding energy at 853.2 eV. In the Ni 2p_{3/2} region, the spectra have been fitted by three deconvoluted peaks at 852.3, 853.4 and 855.1 eV, which can be assigned to metallic Ni, NiO (Ni²⁺) and Ni₂O₃ (Ni³⁺) species, respectively. Based on the deconvoluted peaks, the relative concentration of Ni²⁺ species in the Ni-Co/MSN increased with the decrease in the Ni³⁺ species and the changes in Ni-Co/MSN is higher compared to Ni/MSN.

The Co 2p spectra of Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN exhibited Co 2p_{3/2} and Co 2p_{1/2} peaks at 779.1 and 793.6 eV, respectively. Deconvolution of the Co 2p_{3/2} peaks of both catalysts revealed the presence of

metallic Co, CoO (Co²⁺) and Co₃O₄ (Co³⁺) at 778.2, 779.1 and 781.2 eV, respectively [24]. The binding energy of Co 2p_{3/2} in the Co/MSN was shifted from 779.1 eV to 781.3 eV in the Ni-Co/MSN, suggesting the domination of Co³⁺ in the latter catalyst.

The increase in the binding energy suggested the withdrawal of valence electron charge occurred through oxidation, resulting in higher oxidation state and vice versa. This result implied a *d*-electron transfer between Ni and Co in the Ni-Co/MSN, which resulted in the enrichment of electron on elemental Ni [25]. This result is in accordance with the XRD result, where an additional peak of NiCo₂O₄ was detected in the Ni-Co/MSN. Since the characteristic peaks of pure metal oxides were still present, only partial transformation of NiO and Co₃O₄ into Ni-Co alloy occurred.

3.1.6. Catalytic testing

The activity and stability results of Co/MSN, Ni/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN are shown in Fig. 7. Under the reaction conditions studied, Ni-Co/MSN exhibited a higher CH₄ conversion than that of Ni/MSN and Co/MSN. Previous study showed that Co-based catalyst has a lower intrinsic activity than Ni-based catalyst [19]. However, it is noteworthy that the addition of Co as a binder improved the catalytic performance of the Ni/MSN. It is widely accepted that the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ mechanism initiates with methane decomposition to produce CH_x fragments (with *x* between 0 and 3) on the catalyst's active sites [26], being this reaction as the rate limiting step of the overall process. Since CH₄ decomposition is a structure-sensitivity reaction, the particle size of the metal has been considered as the key factor to enhance the activity [27]. From the XRD and TEM analyses, it evidenced that the Ni particle size in Ni-Co/MSN was slightly reduced and the Ni dispersion was improved with respect to the Co/MSN. In fact, the small metal particle and better metal dispersion will contribute to more edges and more metal-support structures, and leading to more active sites. Furthermore, the Ni-Co alloy sites in the Ni-Co/MSN appeared to be responsible for a higher CH₄ conversion compared to the metallic Ni and Co sites in the Ni/MSN and Co/MSN, respectively. Previous studies reported that Ni and Co sites in the Ni-Co alloy are more readily accessible than those in bulk structures [1].

The importance of Ni-Co alloy formation in CO₂ reforming of CH₄ was also highlighted in the previous reports. The Ni-Co spinel is favorably formed when a sample containing Ni and Co was calcined at high temperature (>400 °C) [18]. Fakeeha et al. [28]

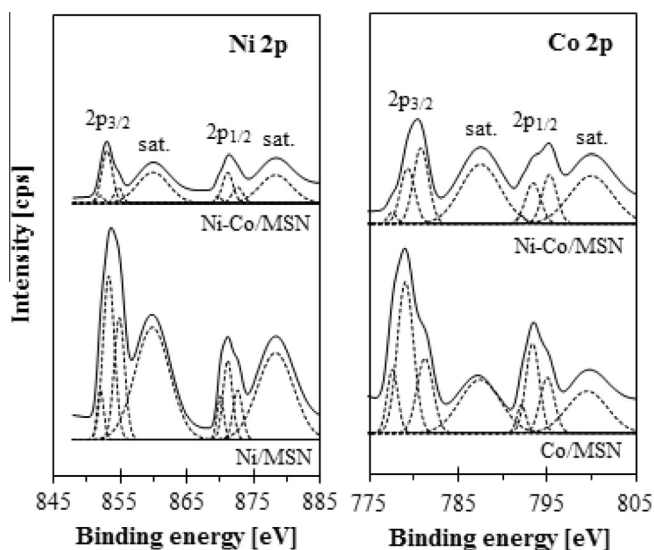


Fig. 6. XPS spectra of Ni 2p and Co 2p of Ni/MSN, Co/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN.

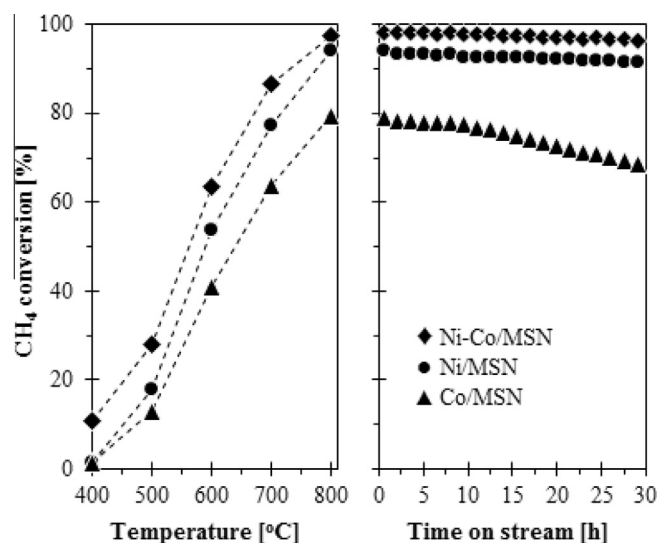
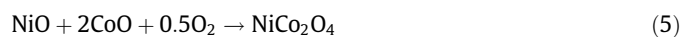


Fig. 7. Catalytic activity and stability of the Co/MSN, Ni/MSN and Ni-Co/MSN.

suggested that the formation of spinel species during the course of calcination has taken place as follows:



However, it can be seen that the effect of Ni–Co alloy formation towards catalytic performance is greatly influenced by the operating parameters. In order to understand the effect of calcination temperature towards Ni–Co/CeO₂, the catalyst was calcined at different temperature [18]. They reported that conversion of CH₄ and CO₂ decreased with the increased of calcination temperature from 700 and 900 °C. The formation of Ni–Co spinel is less at lower calcination temperature and it increases at higher calcination temperature with increasing particle size. In another study, Xu et al. [29] concluded that the catalytic activity of the bimetallic Ni/Co catalysts supported on commercial-Al₂O₃ doped with La₂O₃ is closely related to the Ni/Co ratio. The catalyst having Ni/Co ratio of 7/3 at the total metal loading of 10 wt.% exhibited the highest CH₄ and CO₂ conversions, while further increasing the amount of Co decreased the catalytic activity. This result is in accordance with the finding reported by Zhao et al. [30], which found that increasing the Co content lead to a higher intensity of diffraction peak related to the spinel phase, indicating an increased in degree of spinel crystallization and particle size. In contrast, Estephane et al. [31] reported that the bimetallic catalyst with higher Co content (1Ni2Co/ZSM5) had a higher activity in CO₂ reforming of CH₄ compared to lower (2Ni1Co/ZSM5) or balance (1Ni1Co/ZSM5) Co/Ni ratio at the similar metal loading of 7 wt.%. Therefore, it is believed that the optimum Ni/Co ratio for a bimetallic system is varied for a catalyst depending on the effect of other operating parameters such as calcination temperature and total metal loading.

The Ni/MSN and Ni–Co/MSN showed a stable CH₄ conversion in 30 h time on stream at 800 °C. Even though both catalysts showed stable activity, TGA analyses for spent catalysts indicated that carbon content detected for Ni/MSN was 23% higher than Ni–Co/MSN. This may due to the incorporation of Ni in the Ni–Co solid solution, which is beneficial in preventing the generation of carbon on the Ni surface. The occurrence of electron transfer from Co to Ni during the alloying process led to the enrichment of the electron density in Ni surface and also oxygen vacancy on the Co surface [32]. This phenomenon promoted a higher CO₂ adsorption and facilitated a greater CO₂ activation, which resulted in the enhancement of carbon elimination by the reaction of oxygen with carbon intermediate to yield CO [33]. Thus, a lower coke deposit was formed on the catalyst surface and the stability of the catalyst was increased.

In addition, the mutual interaction between Ni and Co which resulted from the formation of NiCo₂O₄ also enhanced the stability of Ni particle. The particle size of Ni in the Ni/MSN increased about 4.2 fold from 5.62 to 23.4 nm after the stability test. Whereas the Ni–Co/MSN showed better anti-sintering ability, since the Ni particle size only increased from 3.87 to 12.8 nm (which does not exceed more than 3.3 fold from the fresh catalyst). The H₂-TPR results indicated that this species was reduced at a higher temperature as compared to the Ni/MSN. Theoretically, the stronger interaction between Ni and Co in the Ni–Co alloy, lessen the tendency of sintering during the reaction to occur [18,22]. Therefore, it could be suggested that the formation of Ni–Co alloy strengthen the interaction between the Ni and Co and increased the anti-sintering ability of the Ni particles.

As reported by the previous study, the Co-based catalyst is prone to metal deactivation by oxidation [22]. However, in this case, the incorporation of Co as the binder in the Ni–Co/MSN had boosted the activity for a longer period. From the characterization and catalytic activity results, it can be inferred that synergism occurred between Ni and Co, where these elements have a mutual role to improve the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ activity. The presence of Co as the binder significantly reduced the sintering effect and coke

formation of the catalyst. Therefore, in the next section, the effect of process variables on Ni–Co/MSN in the CO₂ reforming of CH₄ was studied using DOE. A combination of statistical and mathematical techniques applied in RSM was used to obtain the optimum value of the process variables.

3.2. Optimization by RSM

The CCD was used to develop the correlation between the process variables, including reaction temperature, CO₂ to CH₄ ratio and GHSV (coded as A, B, and C, respectively) to the response, CH₄ conversion. The quadratic model for CH₄ conversion in terms of coded factors is presented in Eq. (6).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CH}_4 \text{ conversion } [\%] = & 82.42 + 7.912A + 6.16B - 2.65C \\ & - 14.1AB - 2.35AC - 0.83BC \\ & - 3.67A^2 - 6.09B^2 - 8.04C^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Table 1 shows the ANOVA for 2³ full CCD for CH₄ conversion. Based on 90% confidence level, the model was tested to be significant as the computed *F* value (3.06) was higher than the theoretical *F*_{0.1,9,6} value (2.96). This result gave an indication that the model was adequate for predicting the conversion of CH₄ within the range of variables studied. The positive sign in front of the model terms indicates synergistic effect while the negative sign shows antagonistic effect [34]. In order to determine the significant terms in the model for further analysis, the value of calculated probability (*p*-value) must be less than 0.100. In this study, A, AB, and C² were significant model terms while B, C, B², A², AC, and BC were found to be insignificant to CH₄ conversion. However, the insignificant terms were not eliminated in the model Eq. (4) in order to obtain a hierarchy model. Based on the ANOVA analysis for single variable, the most prominent significant single term that affected the conversion of CH₄ was reaction temperature (A) as indicated by the relatively large value of *F*-test value (5.65). An added advantage of using the DOE approach is that the interaction between process variables could be studied systematically and efficiently [17,35]. Hence, based on the data shown in Table 1, the interaction of temperature and CO₂/CH₄ ratio and quadratic interaction of GHSV were found to significantly affect the conversion of CH₄.

Fig. 8 shows the *t*-distribution values in a Pareto chart and the corresponding *p*-values of the variables in Eq. (4). The *p*-value serves as a tool to check the significance of each coefficient. The corresponding coefficient with a smaller *p*-value or a *t*-value with a greater magnitude donates more significance into the model. For a model to be reliable, the response should be predicted with an acceptable accuracy and compared with the experimental data. Through the ANOVA analysis, it was found that the value of correlation coefficient, *R*² was 0.8439. According to Haaland, the empirical model is adequate to explain most of the variability in the essay reading, which should be at least 0.75 or greater [36]. Response surfaces and contour plots are generally used to evaluate relationships between the variables and to predict the results under given conditions. The plots of the response surface and contour of CH₄ conversion were drawn as a function of two significant factors at a time, holding all other factors at the zero level using Eq. (6) and are presented in Fig. 9. The interactions between the corresponding variables were insignificant when the contour of the response was circular [15]. On the contrary, interactions between the relevant variables were significant when the contour of the response surfaces was elliptical. Notably, all contour plots in Fig. 9 were elliptical, indicating significant interaction effects between the variables studied.

Fig. 9A illustrates CO₂:CH₄ ratio and GHSV effects on CH₄ conversion. The CH₄ conversion showed a volcano-shaped trend with respect to the GHSV. An increase in the GHSV increased the CH₄

Table 1
Analysis of variance (ANOVA) for 2^3 center composite design (CCD) for CH_4 conversion.

Response	Factor	Sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean square	F-test	p-value	
CH_4 conversion [%]	Model	4175	9	463.97	3.06		
	A	855.78	1	855.78	5.650	0.054	
	B	124.78	1	124.78	0.824	0.399	
	C	517.15	1	517.15	3.418	0.114	
	A^2	343.80	1	343.80	2.272	0.182	
	B^2	95.79	1	95.79	0.633	0.457	
	C^2	598.31	1	598.31	3.954	0.094	
	AB	1590.48	1	1590.48	10.51	0.018	
	AC	44.18	1	44.18	0.292	0.608	
	BC	5.45	1	5.45	0.036	0.856	
	Error		907.81	6			
	Total SS		5082.81	15			

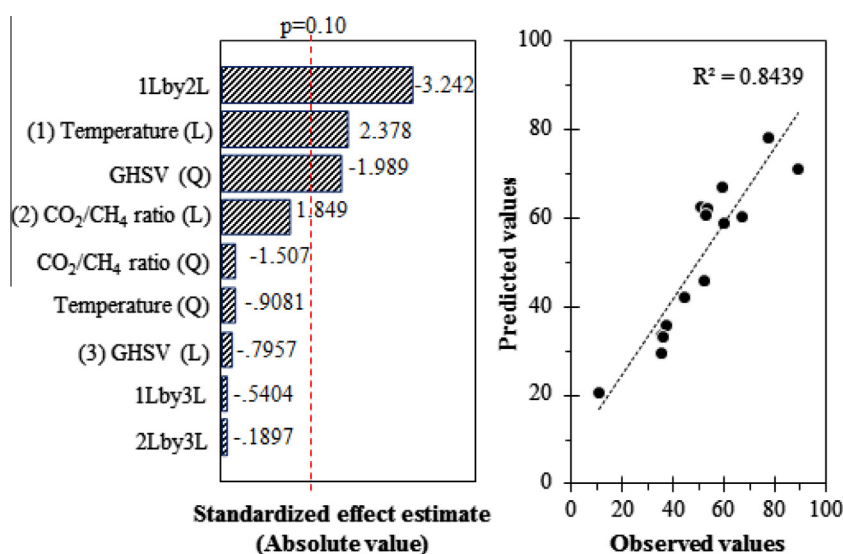


Fig. 8. (A) Pareto chart and (B) predicted vs observed value plot of the model.

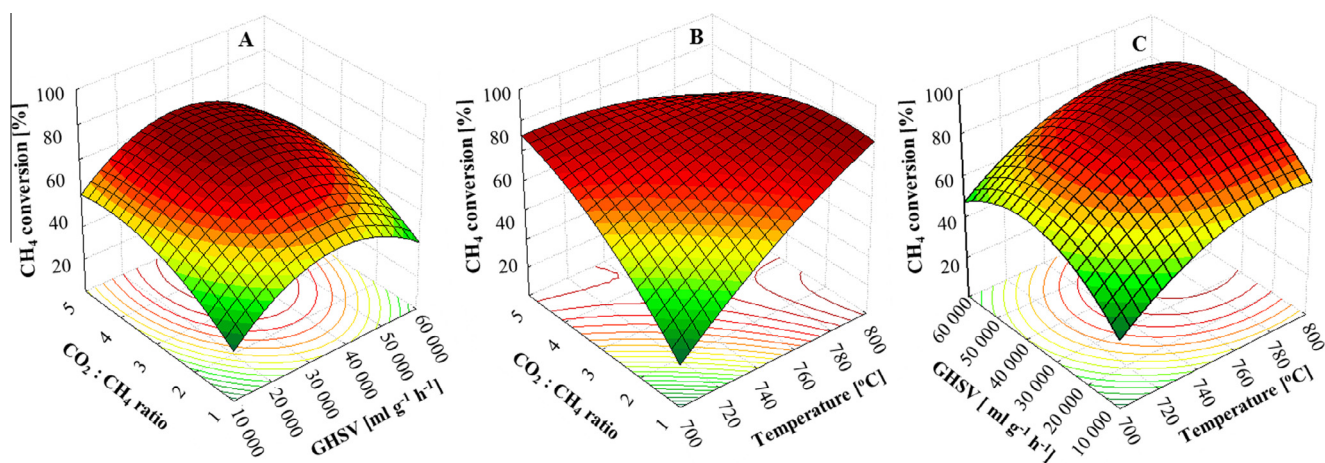


Fig. 9. Response surface plot of the combined (A) $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio and GHSV, (B) $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio and reaction temperature, and (C) GHSV and reaction temperature.

conversion. Once the CH_4 conversion reached its highest level, a further increase in the value of the GHSV decreased the CH_4 conversion. The effect of GHSV or residence time in the present study was similar to the result reported in the literature which indicated that the increase in GHSV value decreased the conversion of CH_4 . This may be due to the shorter contact time for the reactants to interact with the catalyst, thus reducing its catalytic activity [37].

A similar effect of $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio was also observed in Fig. 9B, which demonstrated the effect of $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio and reaction temperature on CH_4 conversion. The CH_4 conversion increased gradually with the increasing of $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio from 1 to 5. This observation indicated that the CO_2 can act as an active oxidant and has a positive effect on the CH_4 conversion [38]. This result could be explained through the disproportionation reaction by

the Le Chatelier's principal which expected that the surpass CO_2 could enhance the amount of CH_4 being converted to CO and H_2 , thus resulting in the increase of CH_4 conversion [39].

From the analysis of the response surface plot, the reaction temperature exhibited the most significant influence on the response surface in comparison to the GHSV and $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio, as could be seen in Fig. 9B and C, respectively. This can be explained by a larger t-value for the reaction temperature as compared to the other variables. The CH_4 conversion was considerably improved at higher reaction temperature due to the endothermic nature of the CO_2 reforming of CH_4 reaction [40]. The optimum CH_4 conversion predicted from the response surface analysis is 97% at reaction temperature of $783\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio of 3, and GHSV of $38,726\text{ mL g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$. An additional experiment was carried out to validate the optimization results obtained by response surface analysis. The CH_4 conversion of experiment at optimum conditions is 96.3% and the difference between the predicted and observed values is 0.7%.

4. Conclusions

In this study, Ni–Co/MSN was successfully prepared by consecutive in situ electrolysis. XRD and TEM analyses demonstrated that the Ni–Co/MSN has smaller and better dispersion of metal particles with respect to the Ni/MSN and Co/MSN. The addition of Co as the binder in Ni–Co/MSN favored the formation of NiCo_2O_4 solid solution, as proven by XRD and XPS analyses. H_2 -TPR results indicated that the formation of Ni–Co alloy increased the reduction temperature, suggesting stronger interaction between Ni and Co in the catalyst. The Ni–Co/MSN catalyst demonstrated excellent performance for CO_2 reforming of CH_4 . The synergy effect between Ni and Co in the NiCo_2O_4 not only provided high activity, but also a better carbon tolerant and anti-metal sintering ability, with a stable performance for more than 30 h time on stream. The interaction between process variables was studied using CCD by applying 2^3 factorial points with one response parameter (CH_4 conversion). The Pareto chart and ANOVA analysis indicated that the reaction temperature was the most important single variable in CO_2 reforming of CH_4 . The optimum CH_4 conversion predicted from the response surface analysis is 97% at an operating reaction temperature of $783\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio of 3, and GHSV of $38,726\text{ mL g}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2016.03.041>.

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