

1 **Regenerability of a Ni catalyst in the in-line catalytic steam reforming** 2 **of biomass pyrolysis volatiles**

3 Aitor Arregi, Gartzen Lopez, Maider Amutio, Itsaso Barbarias, Laura Santamaria,
4 Javier Bilbao and Martin Olazar

5 Department of Chemical Engineering, University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU,
6 P.O. Box 644 - E48080 Bilbao (Spain). gartzen.lopez@ehu.eus

7

8 **Abstract**

9 A study has been carried out of the regenerability of a commercial Ni catalyst used in
10 the steam reforming of volatiles from biomass pyrolysis, determining the evolution of
11 the reaction indices in successive reaction-regeneration cycles. The causes of catalyst
12 deactivation (coke deposition and Ni sintering) have been ascertain characterizing the
13 deactivated and regenerated catalysts by TPO, TEM, TPR and XRD. Catalyst activity is
14 not fully recovered by coke combustion in the first cycles due to the irreversible
15 deactivation by Ni sintering, but the catalyst reaches a pseudo-stable state beyond the
16 fourth cycle, reproducing its behaviour in subsequent cycles.

17 **Keywords:** biomass; pyrolysis; reforming; hydrogen; deactivation; regeneration

18 **1. Introduction**

19 H₂ production from renewable sources is a pressing need for meeting the growing
20 demand for ammonia and methanol production in the chemical industry and oil refining,
21 as well as for its future use as a clean energy carrier [1]. Accordingly, the processes of
22 H₂ production from lignocellulosic biomass have received great attention in order to
23 partially replace the current processes based on non-renewable sources, such as natural
24 gas, oil derivates and coal [2].

25 Biomass pyrolysis is one of the most promising thermochemical routes for biomass
26 valorization, given that all pyrolysis products (bio-oil, gases and char) may be converted
27 into fuels and chemicals [3]. Recently, the production of H₂ from biomass has been
28 proposed through a two in-line reactor system, the former for biomass pyrolysis and the

29 latter for the reforming of nascent volatiles [4-8]. This strategy is as an alternative to
30 other biomass valorization routes, such as steam gasification [9-12] and bio-oil
31 reforming [13-18], and avoids the problems related to tar formation and bio-oil
32 handling, respectively [19]. Previous studies by the research group reported the good
33 performance of the conical spouted bed reactor (CSBR)-fluidized bed reactor (FBR)
34 system for pyrolysis and in-line reforming of the pyrolysis volatiles derived from
35 biomass [5,20,21], plastics [22-25] and biomass/plastic mixtures [26].

36 Although noble metals, such as Pt, Pd and Rh, have a higher activity for reforming
37 processes [27-30], Ni-based catalysts are the most common ones for the reforming of
38 oxygenated compounds [31-33] and hydrocarbons [34-36], whose use is motivated
39 mainly by its low cost and availability. Nevertheless, the deactivation of the catalyst due
40 to coking is more severe on Ni-based catalysts than on noble metal ones [37]. Ochoa et
41 al. [38] studied the deactivation of a Ni commercial catalyst in the pyrolysis and in-line
42 catalytic steam reforming of high density polyethylene (HDPE) and reported that Ni
43 sintering and coke deposition are the main deactivating causes. Furthermore,
44 deactivation is faster in the reforming of biomass pyrolysis volatiles than in the
45 reforming of plastic pyrolysis volatiles because phenolic oxygenates produce
46 amorphous coke, which encapsulates Ni active sites [37,39]. Consequently, the main
47 challenge in the reforming of biomass pyrolysis volatiles should focus the attenuation of
48 Ni catalyst deactivation and its regeneration. Although studies of coke deposition and its
49 characterization have been approached in the pyrolysis and in-line catalytic steam
50 reforming of biomass [40-42] and plastics [36,43], those involving catalyst regeneration
51 are rather scarce and deal exclusively with the reforming of hydrocarbons, such as
52 methane [44,45], and pure oxygenate compounds, such as ethanol [46-50], dimethyl
53 ether [51,52] or glycerol [53,54]. Li et al. [55] studied the steam reforming of biomass
54 tar on a Ni-Fe/Mg/Al catalyst, which shows better regenerability than that of Ni-Fe/ α -
55 Al_2O_3 . Montero et al. [49] regenerated a Ni/ La_2O_3 - $\alpha\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ by coke combustion at 550
56 °C for 2 h and performed successive ethanol reforming-regeneration cycles subsequent
57 to a catalyst equilibration step consisting in a slight deactivation of the catalyst by
58 partial Ni sintering.

59 Based on this background, this paper aims at regenerating a commercial Ni reforming
60 catalyst by coke combustion with air in order to ascertain its behaviour in successive
61 reforming-regeneration cycles. Thus, the evolution of conversion, product yields and

62 gas composition under reforming-regeneration cycles has been monitored. Moreover, in
63 order to explain the results obtained, the deactivated and regenerated catalysts have
64 been characterized by different techniques.

65 2. Experimental

66 2.1. Biomass and catalyst properties

67 The biomass used is forest pine wood waste (*pinus insignis*), whose main properties are
68 summarized in Table 1. The ultimate and proximate analyses have been determined in a
69 *LECO CHNS-932* elemental analyzer and *TGA Q5000IR* thermogravimetric analyzer,
70 respectively, and the higher heating value (HHV) has been measured in a *Parr 1356*
71 isoperibolic bomb calorimeter. The biomass has been crushed, ground and sieved to a
72 particle size between 1 and 2 mm. This particle size allows continuously feeding low
73 flow rates and providing the heat transfer required for the pyrolysis step.

74 **Table 1.** Properties of the pine wood sawdust.

Ultimate analysis (wt %)	
Carbon	49.33
Hydrogen	6.06
Nitrogen	0.04
Oxygen	44.57
Proximate analysis (wt %)	
Volatile matter	73.4
Fixed carbon	16.7
Ash	0.5
Moisture	9.4
HHV (MJ kg⁻¹)	19.8

75

76 A Ni reforming catalyst (NiO content 14 wt %), commercialized for CH₄ reforming has
77 been used. The catalyst (G90LDP, provided by *Süd Chemie*) has been crushed and
78 sieved to a particle size in the 0.4-0.8 mm range in order to obtain a suitable fluidization
79 regime. The superficial properties of the catalyst (determined by N₂ adsorption-
80 desorption in a *Micromeritics ASAP 2012* equipment) are as follows: BET surface area,
81 19 m² g⁻¹; pore volume, 0.04 cm³ g⁻¹, and; average pore diameter, 122 Å.

82 The coke content deposited on the deactivated catalyst has been determined at the end
83 of each reaction step by temperature programmed oxidation (TPO) in a thermobalance
84 *TA Instruments TGA Q5000* connected to a *Balzers Instruments Thermostar* mass
85 spectrometer in order to measure the concentration of CO₂ at the reactor outlet. In
86 addition, the nature of the coke deposited has been analyzed by transmission electron
87 microscopy (TEM) images (*Philips CM200*).

88 The catalyst regenerated at the end of each cycle has been analyzed by X-ray diffraction
89 (XRD) technique in a *Philips X'PERT PRO* diffractometer. The average Ni⁰ particle
90 size has been determined by applying the Debye-Scherrer approach at $2\theta = 52^\circ$,
91 corresponding to Ni⁰ (2 0 0) plane. Moreover, the different reducible metallic species of
92 the fresh and regenerated catalysts have been determined by temperature programmed
93 reduction (TPR) in a *Micromeritics AutoChem 2920*.

94 2.2. Reaction equipment

95 The reaction system has been described in previous studies [5,20] and consists of the
96 following elements: a conical spouted bed reactor (CSBR) for the steam pyrolysis and a
97 fluidized bed reactor (FBR) for the reforming step. Both reactors are located inside a
98 forced convection oven in order to maintain the box temperature at 300 °C and avoid the
99 condensation of heavy compounds in the pipes. The main dimensions of the CSBR are
100 as follows: height of the conical section, 73 mm, diameter of the cylindrical section,
101 60.3 mm, angle of the conical section, 30 °, diameter of the bed bottom, 12.5 mm, and
102 diameter of the gas inlet, 7.6 mm. Moreover, a gas preheater was located below the
103 CSBR, which consists of a stainless steel cylindrical shell, filled with stainless steel
104 pipes in order to increase the surface area for heat transfer and heat the gases to the
105 reaction temperature. The gas preheater and CSBR are located inside an oven consisting
106 of a stainless steel shell with the walls filled with ceramic fibre. The oven is 52 cm long,
107 with 1250 W power, and provides the heat required to reach the reaction temperature
108 and preheat the gaseous stream to the reaction temperature. The char formed has been
109 continuously removed by means of a lateral outlet pipe to avoid its accumulation in the
110 bed. This separation has been achieved based on the different trajectories described by
111 char particles in the CSBR [56,57].

112 The FBR is a cylindrical steel reactor, with a length of 440 mm and an internal diameter
113 of 38.1 mm. It is located inside an oven consisting of a stainless steel shell with the
114 walls filled with ceramic fibre, which is 305 mm long and 550 W power. This oven
115 provides the heat required to maintain the reaction temperature, which is controlled by
116 means of a thermocouple placed inside the catalyst bed.

117 The pilot plant is provided with systems for feeding solid, water and gas. The system for
118 feeding the biomass into the pyrolysis reactor consists of a dosage cylinder with 20 mm
119 in internal diameter, provided with 40 cm stroke piston, which pushes the solid towards
120 the top of the feeding system. By ascending the piston, the biomass falls into the reactor
121 through a tube, which is cooled with tap water. A very small flow rate of an inert gas
122 (N₂) is fed to ease the solid flow into the reactor and avoid the condensation of pyrolysis
123 volatiles and steam in the dispenser. Moreover, the water required for generating the
124 steam for the reforming step and for the fluidization of both reactors (spouted and
125 fluidized beds) has been driven by a high pressure pump *Gilson 307*. Moreover, the
126 product separation system consists of a gas-solid separation system provided with a
127 cyclone and a filter, and a gas-liquid separation system consisting of a condenser and a
128 coalescence filter.

129 The on-line analysis of the volatiles from the reforming step has been carried out by
130 means of a GC *Agilent 6890* provided with a HP-Pona column and a flame ionization
131 detector (FID). The sample has been injected into the gas chromatograph through a line
132 thermostated at 280 °C. Furthermore, the non-condensable gases have been analyzed
133 on-line in a micro GC *Varian 4900*, once the water and non-reacted liquid products
134 have been removed by condensation.

135 2.3. Experimental conditions

136 The pyrolysis step has been carried out at 500 °C, which is the suitable temperature in
137 order to maximize bio-oil production [58]. The biomass and water have been fed into
138 the CSBR in a continuous regime by feeding 0.75 g min⁻¹ and 3 mL min⁻¹, respectively,
139 which corresponds to a steam/biomass ratio (S/B) of 4. In order to guarantee a vigorous
140 movement of the bed and avoid its defluidization, 50 g of sand have been used with a
141 particle diameter in the 0.30-0.35 mm range. Under these pyrolysis conditions, 75.3 wt
142 % of bio-oil, 7.3 wt % of gases and 17.3 wt % of char are produced in the CSBR [5],

143 with their detailed composition being shown in Table 2. The char has been recovered
 144 from the CSBR by a lateral outlet, and may be used for the production of adsorbents
 145 [59,60], catalyst support [61,62], fertilizers [63] or soil amender [64]. Therefore, the
 146 bio-oil and the gases were the volatiles fed into the reforming step together with the
 147 steam required.

148 **Table 2.** Yields of biomass pyrolysis products (wt %) at 500 °C.

Compound	Yield (wt %)
Gas	7.33
CO	3.38
CO ₂	3.27
Hydrocarbons (C ₁ -C ₄)	0.68
Bio-oil	75.33
Acids	2.73
Aldehydes	1.93
Alcohols	2.00
Ketones	6.37
Phenols	16.49
Furans	3.32
Saccharides	4.46
Water	25.36
Char	17.34

149

150 The reforming step has been carried out under the following operating conditions: 600
 151 °C; space time, 20 g_{cat} min g_{volatiles}⁻¹; S/B ratio, 4. It should be noted that, using this
 152 space time, operation is under kinetic regime and the deactivation is fast, which eases
 153 the comparison of the deactivation in successive reaction-regeneration cycles. In order
 154 to obtain a suitable fluidization of the bed, 25 g of a mixture of catalyst and sand has
 155 been used, with their particle sizes ranging being 0.4-0.8 mm and 0.30-0.35 mm,
 156 respectively. These experimental conditions were selected according to the results
 157 obtained in previous studies dealing with the analysis of the influence of operating
 158 conditions [5,20]. Once conversion decreased considerably, the reaction was stopped
 159 and a sample of the deactivated catalyst was taken for analysis.

160 After each reaction step, coke combustion has been performed in situ in the reforming
 161 reactor, with temperature and air concentration ramp being as follows: i) 600 °C for 90

162 min, with air (in N₂) concentration increasing every 15 min from 10 to 100 vol % in
163 order to avoid hot spots causing Ni sintering, and; ii) temperature increasing from 600
164 to 700 °C in 60 min, and maintained this temperature for another 60 min. As coke was
165 being removed, the concentration of CO₂ has been monitored at the reactor outlet, and a
166 sample of the catalyst has been taken after the coke combustion step.

167 Once the combustion of coke has been finished, the catalyst has been reduced again at
168 710 °C with a stream of 10 vol % of H₂ in N₂. At this point, another sample of the
169 reduced catalyst has been analyzed. This process was repeated for six consecutive
170 reforming-regeneration cycles.

171 2.4. Reaction indices

172 The process results have been quantified according to the following reaction indices:
173 conversion, yields of C containing compounds, and H₂ yield and production. The
174 reforming conversion has been calculated as the ratio between the C units in the gaseous
175 product stream (F_{gas}) and those contained in the pyrolysis volatiles fed into the
176 reforming step ($F_{\text{volatiles}}$), without considering the C contained in the char, which was
177 continuously removed from the CSBR.

$$178 \quad X(\%) = \frac{F_{\text{gas}}}{F_{\text{volatiles}}} 100 \quad (1)$$

179 The yield of each C containing compound in the product stream of the reforming step
180 has been calculated based on the volatiles derived from biomass pyrolysis:

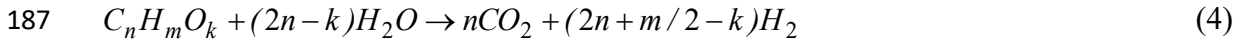
$$181 \quad Y_i(\%) = \frac{F_i}{F_{\text{volatiles}}} 100 \quad (2)$$

182 where F_i is the molar flow rate of C in each product i .

183 H₂ yield is given as a percentage of the maximum allowable by stoichiometry:

$$184 \quad Y_{H_2}(\%) = \frac{F_{H_2}}{F_{H_2}^0} 100 \quad (3)$$

185 where F_{H_2} and $F_{H_2}^0$ are the actual molar flow rate of H_2 and the maximum
 186 corresponding to stoichiometry (following eq. (4)), respectively.



188 H_2 production has been defined by mass unit of the biomass in the feed:

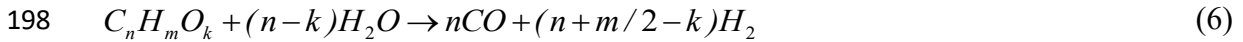
$$189 \quad P_{H_2} (\text{wt } \%) = \frac{m_{H_2}}{m_0} 100 \quad (5)$$

190 where m_{H_2} is the mass flow rate of the H_2 produced and m_0 is the mass flow rate of the
 191 biomass fed into the CSBR, respectively.

192 3. Results

193 3.1. Recovery of catalyst activity

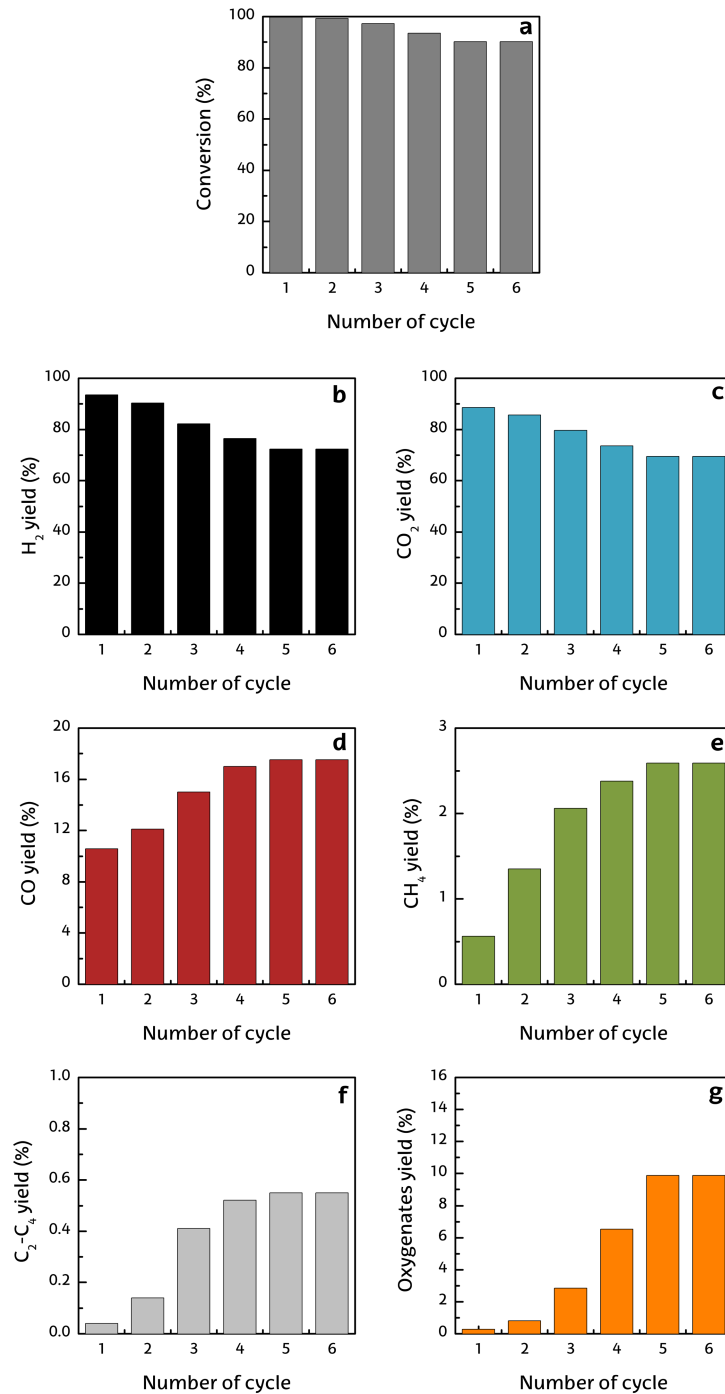
194 In order to explain the product distribution obtained in the reforming step, the following
 195 reactions have been considered: steam reforming of oxygenated compounds (eq. (6)),
 196 CH_4 (eq. (7)) and C_2 - C_4 hydrocarbons (eq. (8)), water gas shift (WGS) reaction (eq. (9))
 197 and cracking of oxygenated compounds (eq. (10)).



203 First, the product distribution obtained at zero time on stream in different reforming-
 204 regeneration cycles has been analyzed. Figure 1 displays the conversion (graph a) and
 205 yields of H_2 (graph b), CO_2 (graph c), CO (graph d), CH_4 (graph e), C_2 - C_4 hydrocarbons
 206 (graph f) and non-reacted oxygenates (graph g), at zero time on stream for the
 207 successive reaction-regeneration steps. As observed, the catalyst recovers only partially
 208 its reforming activity after the regeneration step. Although initial conversion is almost

209 full in the first and second cycles, it decreases slightly from the second to the fifth cycle,
210 obtaining a value of 90.1 % in the last cycle (Figure 1a). It should be pointed out that
211 the irreversible loss of catalyst activity attenuates progressively and is negligible in the
212 fifth and sixth cycles. The cause of this irreversible deactivation is the sintering of Ni
213 crystallites (as proven afterwards), whose effect on product distribution at zero time on
214 stream is similar to that aforementioned for conversion.

215 As observed, H₂ and CO₂ yields decrease from 93.5 to 72.4 % (Figure 1b) and from
216 88.6 to 69.5 % (Figure 1c), respectively, from the first to the sixth cycle, with a
217 progressively less pronounced trend in subsequent reaction-regeneration cycles.
218 Consequently, H₂ production (eq (5)) decreases from 11.2 to 7.8 % from the first to the
219 sixth cycle. On the other hand, CO, CH₄ and C₂-C₄ hydrocarbon yields (Figures 1d, 1e
220 and 1f, respectively) increase with reforming-regeneration cycles, from 10.6 to 17.5 %,
221 0.6 to 2.6 % and 0 to 0.6 %, respectively. This increase in by-product yields as catalyst
222 deactivation progresses is due to the attenuation in the reaction rates of CH₄ and C₂-C₄
223 hydrocarbon reforming and CO conversion by WGS reaction. Moreover, the yield of
224 non-converted oxygenates (Figure 1g) also increases from 0.3 to 9.9 %, whose
225 decomposition reactions also contribute to the formation of by-products enhanced by
226 catalyst deactivation [65-68]. It is noteworthy that the difference in the results is
227 progressively smaller as more successive reaction-regeneration cycles are carried out,
228 with this difference being insignificant when the results for the fifth and sixth reactions
229 are compared.

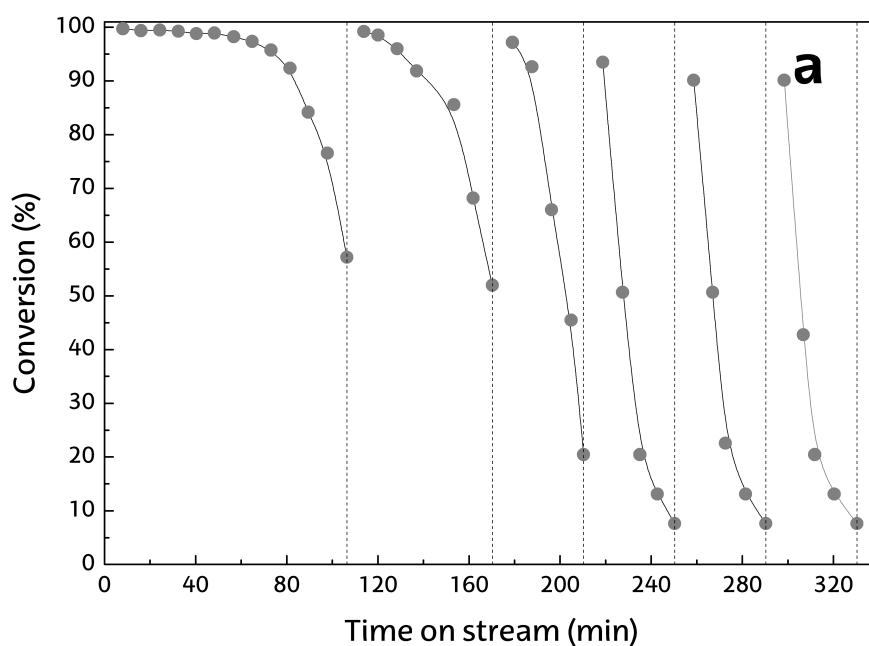


230

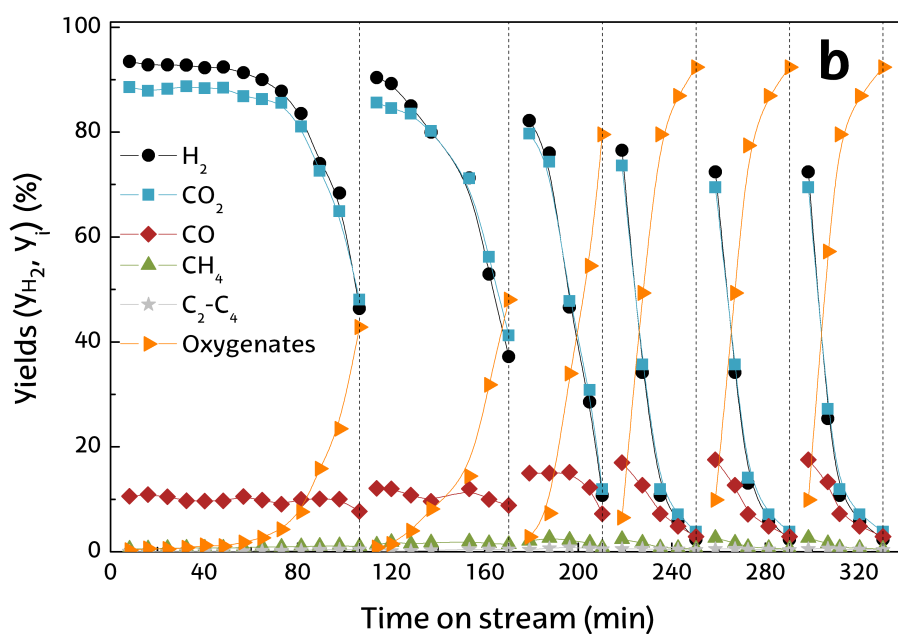
231 **Figure 1.** Values at zero time on stream for the conversion (a) and yields of H₂ (b),
 232 CO₂ (c), CO (d), CH₄ (e), C₂-C₄ hydrocarbons (f), and non-converted
 233 oxygenates (g) for six consecutive reaction-regeneration cycles.

234 In order to evaluate the effect irreversible deactivation has on catalyst deactivation, the
 235 evolution with time on stream of conversion and products yields throughout consecutive
 236 reaction-regeneration cycles is shown in Figure 2. It should be noted that the total
 237 duration of the cycle has a significant decreasing trend until the 3rd cycle, which is

238 explained by the decay in catalyst activity as the number of cycles is increased.
239 Nevertheless, subsequent to the 3rd cycle the total duration is maintained at around 40
240 min on stream. As observed, the conversion (Figure 2a) and the yields of H₂, CO₂ and
241 CO (Figures 2b) decrease with time on stream due to the catalyst deactivation for
242 reforming and WGS reactions. Moreover, following the trend mentioned above for the
243 deterioration of catalyst activity (Figure 1), the decrease in the initial cycles is faster as
244 the number of cycles is increased, and similar in the last cycles. This trend is
245 characteristic of deactivation mechanisms by coke deposition, which is enhanced by the
246 following causes: i) sintering of Ni crystallites, which favor coke deposition [69,70],
247 and; ii) the higher concentration of oxygenates in the reaction medium, in particular the
248 phenolic compounds derived from the pyrolysis of biomass lignin, which are the main
249 coke precursors [71,72]. Furthermore, the yield of on-converted oxygenates increases
250 with time on stream, as observed in Figure 2b, due to the attenuation of oxygenate
251 reforming and WGS reaction.



252

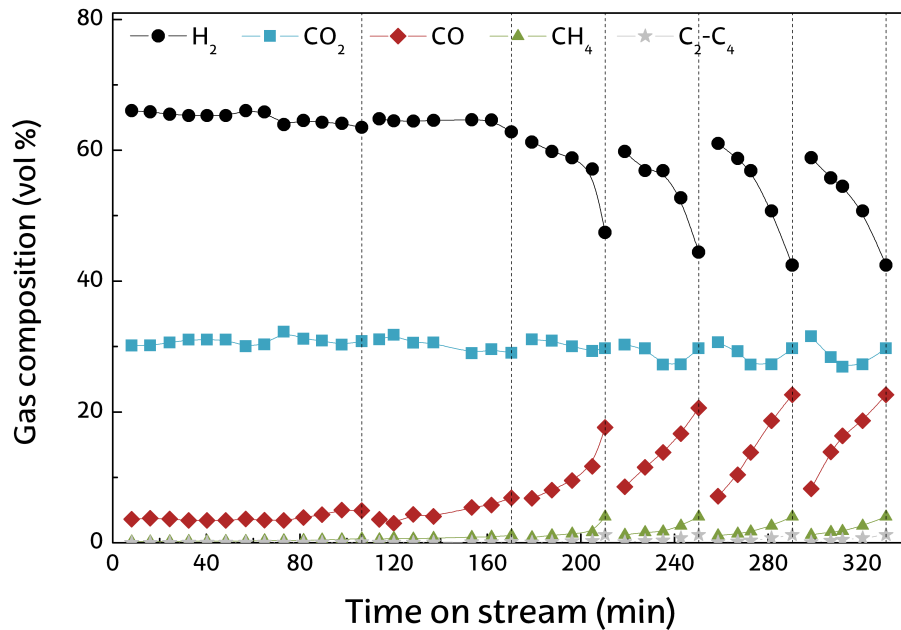


253

254 **Figure 2.** Evolution of conversion (a) and product yields (b) with time on stream for 6
 255 consecutive reaction-regeneration cycles.

256 Figure 3 shows the evolution of gaseous product composition with time on stream. The
 257 concentration of H_2 at zero time on stream decreases as the number of reaction-
 258 regeneration cycles is increased, whereas the concentration of CO , CH_4 and C_2-C_4

259 hydrocarbons increases, given that catalyst activity for reforming and WGS reactions
260 decreases due to Ni sintering. Moreover, the rate of decrease in H₂ concentration and the
261 rate of increase in CO, CH₄ and C₂-C₄ concentrations with time on stream in each cycle
262 is higher as the number of cycles is increased. These results are qualitatively similar to
263 those obtained in the literature in the reforming of bio-oil [73-75].



264

265 **Figure 3.** Evolution of the gaseous product composition with time on stream for 6
266 consecutive reforming-regeneration cycles.

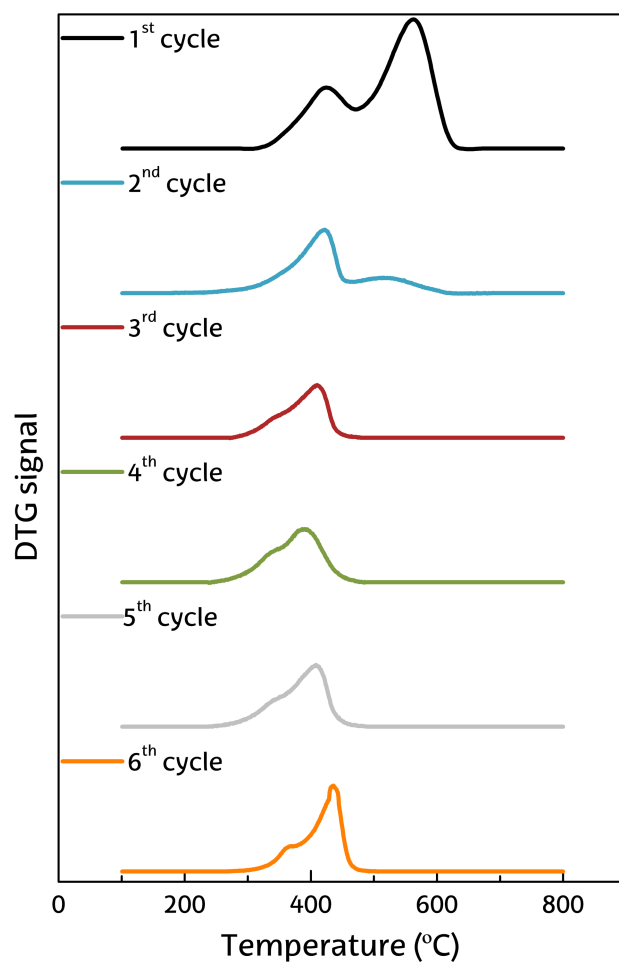
267 3.2. Deactivated catalyst characterization

268 The fast catalyst deactivation in each reaction step is attributable to coke deposition.
269 Consequently, the deactivated catalysts have been analyzed by TPO in order to study
270 the content and nature of the coke deposited. Moreover, the TEM analysis has allowed
271 determining the type of coke and the evolution of Ni crystallites size.

272 The TPO profiles for the catalysts deactivated after each reaction cycle have been
273 plotted in Figure 4. The TPO profile of the catalyst deactivated in the first reaction
274 shows two well-differentiated peaks, with their maxima being at 430 °C and 560 °C.
275 Based on the literature about the analysis of the coke formed in the reforming of bio-oil
276 and pure oxygenates, these peaks correspond to the combustion of two coke fractions: i)

277 an amorphous coke (coke I) encapsulating Ni metallic sites, which burns at low
278 temperatures and, and; ii) a more structured coke (coke II) detached from Ni metallic
279 sites, which burns at higher temperatures. It should also be pointed out that the
280 structured coke increases with time on stream, given that it presumably comes from the
281 evolution of encapsulating coke towards more graphitized structures. Thus, the high
282 peak obtained for coke II in the first cycle is mainly attributable to the high duration of
283 the reaction (106 min), whereas in the second cycle this peak is significantly lower due
284 to the lower duration (64 min) of the reaction. From the third to the sixth cycle, the
285 duration of the reactions is short (around 40 min in all the reactions), and so the
286 structured coke is not evolved and the deposited coke is exclusively amorphous. Table 3
287 shows the coke content in the deactivated catalyst for different reforming-regeneration
288 cycles and, as observed, coke content is mainly related to the duration of each reaction.
289 It should be pointed out that coke content is similar from the third to the sixth cycle.

290 The TEM images of the deactivated catalysts (Figure 5) show the presence of non-
291 structured coke, but no carbon filaments are observed. This absence of carbon filaments
292 is characteristic of the coke deposited in the reforming of bio-oil [68,76], as opposed to
293 the reforming of CH₄ and hydrocarbons and volatiles from plastic pyrolysis, in which
294 the presence of structured coke is considerable [25,36,43,77].

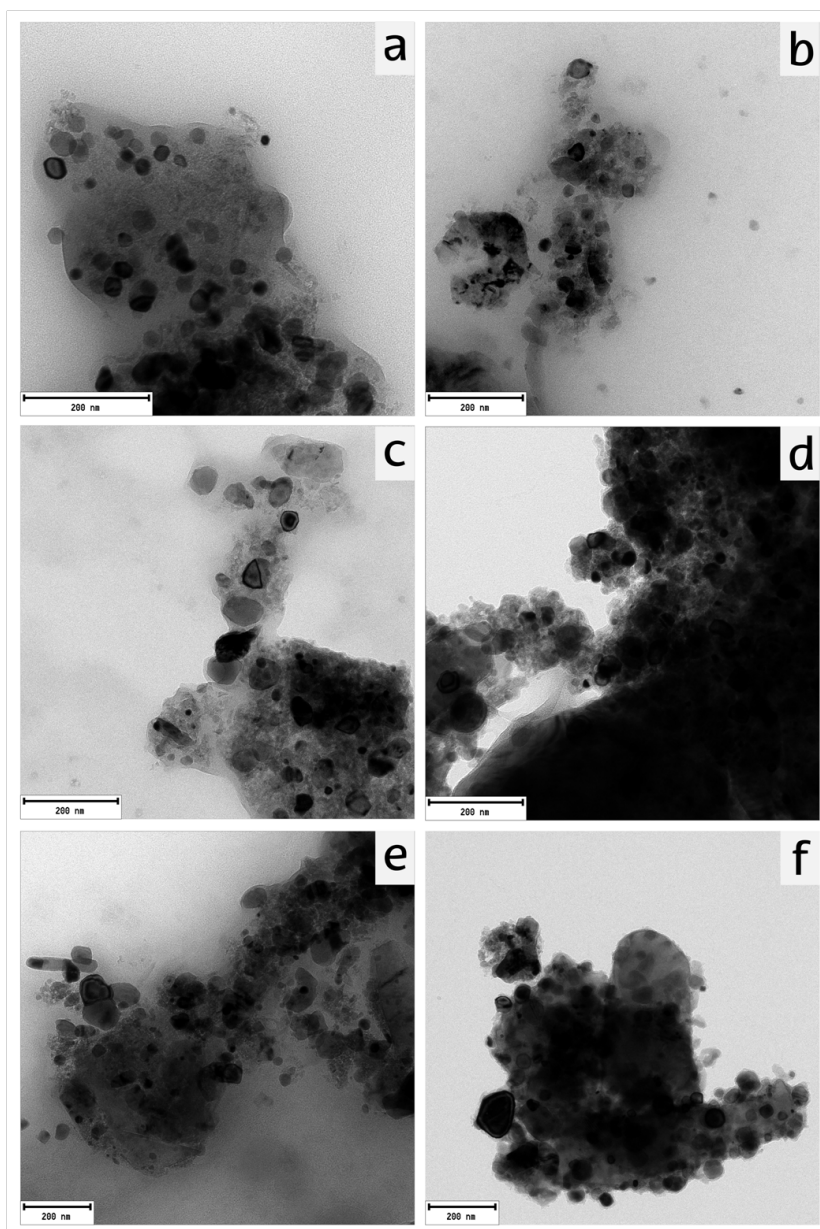


295

296 **Figure 4.** TPO profiles of the catalysts deactivated for 6 consecutive reaction-
 297 regeneration cycles.

298 **Table 3.** Coke content (wt %) of the catalysts deactivated for 6 consecutive
 299 reforming- regeneration cycles.

Cycle	C _C , wt %
1	9.9
2	3.8
3	2.3
4	3.0
5	2.9
6	2.9



301

302 **Figure 5.** TEM images of the catalysts deactivated in successive reaction-regeneration
303 cycles, corresponding to the 1st (a), 2nd (b), 3rd (c), 4th (d), 5th (e) and 6th (f)
304 reactions.

305 3.3. Regenerated catalyst characterization

306 The sintering of Ni sites is presumably the cause of irreversible deactivation in
307 successive reaction-regeneration cycles. The TEM images in Figure 5 reveal an increase
308 in Ni crystallite size in the deactivated catalysts. This increase has been quantified by X-
309 ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of the catalysts regenerated in successive reaction-

310 regeneration cycles. Table 4 shows the Ni crystallite sizes calculated applying the
 311 equation by Debye-Scherrer. As observed, the size increases considerably as the number
 312 of reforming-regeneration cycles is higher, which is evidence of Ni sintering.
 313 Nevertheless, the reaction temperature (600 °C) is barely above the Tamman
 314 temperature, [78] and therefore Ni sintering probably occurs during the reduction (prior
 315 to the reforming reaction) and regeneration steps carried out at 700 °C. Table 4 also
 316 shows that the increase in the average Ni crystallite size is progressively lower as more
 317 successive reaction-regeneration cycles are conducted, with the trend being a value of
 318 55 nm after the fourth and fifth cycles. This result is in line with the trend of irreversible
 319 deactivation (Figure 2), which attenuates progressively as the number of successive
 320 reaction-regeneration cycles is increased.

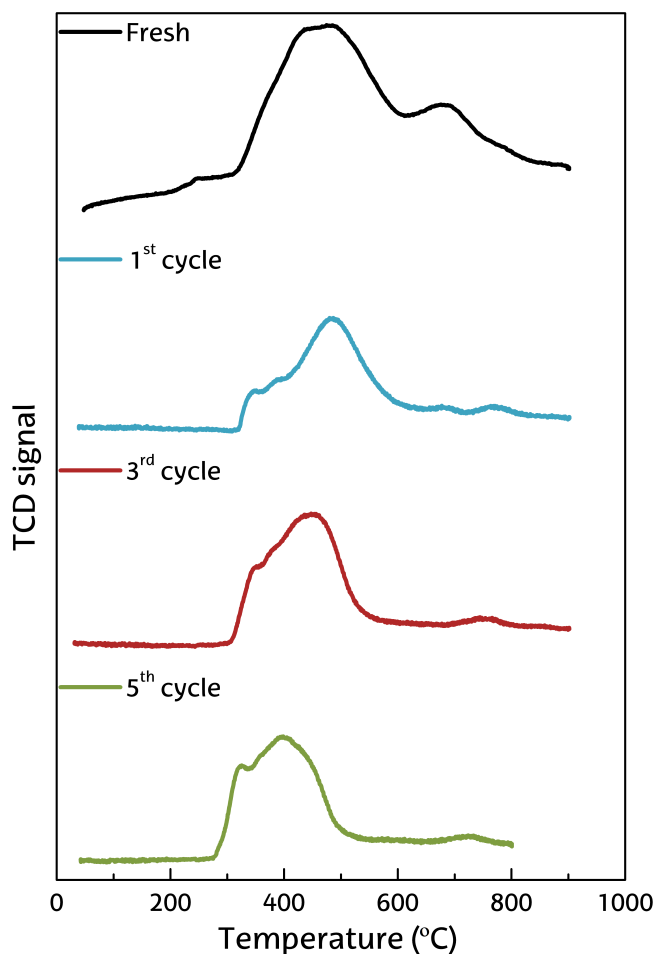
321 **Table 4.** Evolution of average Ni crystallite size for 6 consecutive reaction-
 322 regeneration cycles.

Cycle	Crystallite size, nm
Fresh	25
1	40
2	48
3	50
4	55
5	55

323

324 The regenerated catalysts have also been characterized by temperature programmed
 325 reduction (TPR). The TPR profiles in Figure 6 correspond to the fresh catalyst, and
 326 those regenerated after the first, third and fifth cycles. The fresh catalyst shows a very
 327 wide main peak, with the maximum being at around 450-470 °C, attributed to the
 328 reduction of NiO species with different interaction degree with α -Al₂O₃ support, and
 329 another peak at 680 °C, which corresponds to the reduction of NiAl₂O₄ spinel [79,80]. It
 330 is evident that the reducibility of Ni species is lower once the coke has been burnt in the
 331 first cycle. Moreover, a lower temperature is required to reduce these species as the
 332 number of cycles is increased. This trend is explained by the lower dispersion of Ni

333 particles due to the higher Ni crystallite size, thereby decreasing the intensity of the
334 metal-support interaction and easing its reduction [81]. Furthermore, it is also observed
335 that the peak corresponding to the NiAl_2O_4 spinel has almost disappeared in the first
336 regeneration step, which is evidence that the regeneration temperature is not enough for
337 the reconstruction of the spinel (reaction of NiO species with $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ support).



338

339 **Figure 6.** TPR profiles for the fresh catalyst and catalysts regenerated in consecutive
340 reaction-regeneration cycles.

341 The aforementioned results concerning the analyses of the catalysts deactivated and
342 regenerated in successive reaction-regeneration cycles allow establishing that Ni
343 sintering is the cause of irreversible deactivation, presumably during the regeneration
344 step carried out by coke combustion at a maximum temperature of 700 °C. Zhao and Lu
345 [50] carried out ethanol reforming and they also reported that Ni species are sintered in

346 the regeneration step due to the heat produced in the combustion of the coke, leading to
347 a sudden increase in catalyst surface. This irreversible deactivation is a drawback for
348 use of this catalyst in industry. Nevertheless, the results obtained in this work have
349 proven that Ni sintering progressively attenuates in the successive cycles and the
350 catalyst reaches a stable structure with reproducible results after the fourth regeneration
351 step. Different strategies for attenuating Ni sintering may also be suitable as an
352 alternative for catalyst stabilization, such as coke combustion at lower temperature. Ni
353 sintering also attenuates with a previous equilibration step of the catalyst consisting in a
354 high temperature treatment in order to increase the presence of Ni in the NiAl_2O_4 spinel
355 phase. However, these treatments do not guarantee the reproducibility of the results in
356 reaction-regeneration cycles, or they may cause a decrease in catalyst activity.

357 **4. Conclusions**

358 The commercial catalyst used in the reforming of biomass pyrolysis volatiles is active
359 and selective for H_2 production. However, consecutive reaction-regeneration cycles
360 show that it is only partially regenerated by coke combustion. Thus, conversion and H_2
361 yield at zero time on stream decrease from the first to the sixth cycle, from 99.7 to 90.1
362 % and from 93.5 to 72.4 %, respectively. Due to this irreversible deactivation, the
363 deactivation in each reaction step is faster as the number of successive cycles is
364 increased.

365 The analysis of deactivated and regenerated catalysts allows establishing that sintering
366 of Ni species is the cause of irreversible deactivation, which presumably occurs in the
367 regeneration step. Ni crystallite size increases as the number of reforming-regeneration
368 cycles is higher, thereby decreasing dispersion and catalyst activity for reforming and
369 WGS reactions. The increase in Ni crystallite size leads to the formation of exclusively
370 amorphous coke, without the presence of filamentous carbon.

371 Consequently, the results obtained throughout six consecutive reforming-regeneration
372 cycles reveal catalyst activity decay occurs presumably in the regeneration step
373 (performed at 700 °C). Nevertheless, the phenomenon of Ni sintering attenuates in
374 successive regeneration steps, in which the catalyst reaches a pseudo-stable state.
375 Accordingly, conversion and product yields attain a stable evolution with time on

376 stream (reproducible results) beyond the fourth cycle, which is a relevant fact for use of
377 this catalyst in industry.

378 **Acknowledgement**

379 This work has been carried out with the financial support from the Ministry of Economy
380 and Competitiveness of the Spanish Government (CTQ2016-75535-R (AEI/FEDER,
381 UE) and CTQ-2015-69436-R (MINECO/FEDER, UE)) and the Basque Government
382 (IT748-13). Aitor Arregi and Itsaso Barbarias thank the University of the Basque
383 Country for their postgraduate grants (UPV/EHU 2017 and 2016, respectively).

384 **References**

385 [1] W. Nabgan, T.A. Tuan Abdullah, R. Mat, B. Nabgan, Y. Gambo, M. Ibrahim, A.
386 Ahmad, A.A. Jalil, S. Triwahyono, I. Saeh, *Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev.* 79
387 (2017) 347-357.

388 [2] J. Feroso, F. Rubiera, D. Chen, *Energy Environ. Sci.* 5 (2012) 6358-6367.

389 [3] R. Parajuli, T. Dalgaard, U. Jørgensen, A.P.S. Adamsen, M.T. Knudsen, M.
390 Birkved, M. Gylling, J.K. Schjørring, *Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev.* 43 (2015)
391 244-263.

392 [4] L. Wang, D. Li, M. Koike, S. Koso, Y. Nakagawa, Y. Xu, K. Tomishige, *Appl Catal*
393 *A* 392 (2011) 248-255.

394 [5] A. Arregi, G. Lopez, M. Amutio, I. Barbarias, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, *RSC Adv.* 6
395 (2016) 25975-25985.

396 [6] F. Chen, C. Wu, L. Dong, A. Vassallo, P.T. Williams, J. Huang, *Appl. Catal. B* 183
397 (2016) 168-175.

398 [7] L. Dong, C. Wu, H. Ling, J. Shi, P.T. Williams, J. Huang, *Fuel* 188 (2017) 610-620.

399 [8] X. Zhao, J. Ren, J. Cao, F. Wei, C. Zhu, X. Fan, Y. Zhao, X. Wei, *Energy Fuels* 31
400 (2017) 4054-4060.

401 [9] P. Iovane, A. Donatelli, A. Molino, *Biomass Bioenergy* 56 (2013) 423-431.

- 402 [10] A. Erkiaga, G. Lopez, M. Amutio, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, *Fuel Process. Technol.* 116
403 (2013) 292-299.
- 404 [11] T. Ogi, M. Nakanishi, Y. Fukuda, K. Matsumoto, *Fuel* 104 (2013) 28-35.
- 405 [12] A. Di Carlo, D. Borello, M. Sisinni, E. Savuto, P. Venturini, E. Bocci, K.
406 Kuramoto, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 40 (2015) 9088-9095.
- 407 [13] L. Garcia, R. French, S. Czernik, E. Chornet, *Appl Catal A* 201 (2000) 225-239.
- 408 [14] Z. Wang, Y. Pan, T. Dong, X. Zhu, T. Kan, L. Yuan, Y. Torimoto, M. Sadakata, Q.
409 Li, *Appl Catal A* 320 (2007) 24-34.
- 410 [15] A. Remiro, B. Valle, A.T. Aguayo, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, *Energy Fuels* 27
411 (2013) 7549-7559.
- 412 [16] F. Seyedeyn-Azad, J. Abedi, S. Sampouri, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 53 (2014) 17937-
413 17944.
- 414 [17] H. Xie, Q. Yu, Z. Zuo, Z. Han, X. Yao, Q. Qin, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 41 (2016)
415 2345-2353.
- 416 [18] F. Bimbela, J. Ábrego, R. Puerta, L. García, J. Arauzo, *Appl. Catal. B* 209 (2017)
417 346-357.
- 418 [19] A. Arregi, M. Amutio, G. Lopez, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, *Energy Convers. Manage.*
419 165 (2018) 696-719.
- 420 [20] A. Arregi, G. Lopez, M. Amutio, M. Artetxe, I. Barbarias, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar,
421 *Fuel* 216 (2018) 233-244.
- 422 [21] L. Santamaria, G. Lopez, A. Arregi, M. Amutio, M. Artetxe, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar,
423 *Appl. Catal. B* 229 (2018) 105-113.
- 424 [22] I. Barbarias, G. Lopez, J. Alvarez, M. Artetxe, A. Arregi, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar,
425 *Chem. Eng. J.* 296 (2016) 191-198.

- 426 [23] I. Barbarias, G. Lopez, M. Artetxe, A. Arregi, L. Santamaria, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar,
427 J. Anal. Appl. Pyrolysis 122 (2016) 502-510.
- 428 [24] I. Barbarias, G. Lopez, M. Amutio, M. Artetxe, J. Alvarez, A. Arregi, J. Bilbao, M.
429 Olazar, Appl. Catal. A 527 (2016) 152-160.
- 430 [25] I. Barbarias, G. Lopez, M. Artetxe, A. Arregi, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, Energy
431 Convers. Manage. 156 (2018) 575-584.
- 432 [26] A. Arregi, M. Amutio, G. Lopez, M. Artetxe, J. Alvarez, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar,
433 Energy Convers. Manage. 136 (2017) 192-201.
- 434 [27] C. Rioche, S. Kulkarni, F.C. Meunier, J.P. Breen, R. Burch, Appl. Catal. B 61
435 (2005) 130-139.
- 436 [28] Y. Park, T. Namioka, S. Sakamoto, T. Min, S. Roh, K. Yoshikawa, Fuel Process.
437 Technol. 91 (2010) 951-957.
- 438 [29] A.C. Basagiannis, X.E. Verykios, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 32 (2007) 3343-3355.
- 439 [30] T. Namioka, A. Saito, Y. Inoue, Y. Park, T. Min, S. Roh, K. Yoshikawa, Appl.
440 Energy 88 (2011) 2019-2026.
- 441 [31] M. Koike, C. Ishikawa, D. Li, L. Wang, Y. Nakagawa, K. Tomishige, Fuel 103
442 (2013) 122-129.
- 443 [32] C. Wu, L. Dong, J. Onwudili, P.T. Williams, J. Huang, ACS Sustainable Chem.
444 Eng. 1 (2013) 1083-1091.
- 445 [33] X. Xiao, J. Cao, X. Meng, D.D. Le, L. Li, Y. Ogawa, K. Sato, T. Takarada, Fuel
446 103 (2013) 135-140.
- 447 [34] A. Donatelli, P. Iovane, A. Molino, Fuel 89 (2010) 2721-2728.
- 448 [35] S. Luo, Y. Zhou, C. Yi, Energy 44 (2012) 391-395.
- 449 [36] J.C. Acomb, C. Wu, P.T. Williams, Appl. Catal. B 147 (2014) 571-584.

- 450 [37] J. Chen, J. Sun, Y. Wang, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 56 (2017) 4627-4637.
- 451 [38] A. Ochoa, I. Barbarias, M. Artetxe, A.G. Gayubo, M. Olazar, J. Bilbao, P. Castaño,
452 *Appl. Catal. B* 209 (2017) 554-565.
- 453 [39] M. Markevich, S. Czernik, E. Chornet, D. Montané, *Energy Fuels* 13 (1999)
454 1160-1166.
- 455 [40] C.E. Efika, C. Wu, P.T. Williams, *J. Anal. Appl. Pyrolysis.* 95 (2012) 87-94.
- 456 [41] M.A. Nahil, X. Wang, C. Wu, H. Yang, H. Chen, P.T. Williams, *RSC Adv.* 3
457 (2013) 5583-5590.
- 458 [42] Q.M.K. Waheed, P.T. Williams, *Energy Fuels* 27 (2013) 6695-6704.
- 459 [43] C. Wu, P.T. Williams, *Appl. Catal. B* 96 (2010) 198-207.
- 460 [44] Z. Abdelsadek, M. Sehailia, D. Halliche, V.M. Gonzalez-Delacruz, J.P. Holgado,
461 K. Bachari, A. Caballero, O. Cherifi, *J. CO₂ Util.* 14 (2016) 98-105.
- 462 [45] B. Rego de Vasconcelos, D. Pham Minh, P. Sharrock, A. Nzihou, *Catal. Today*
463 (2017), <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2017.05.092>
- 464 [46] E.B. Pereira, N. Homs, S. Martí, J.L.G. Fierro, P. Ramírez de la Piscina, *J. Catal.*
465 257 (2008) 206-214.
- 466 [47] L. Bednarczuk, P. Ramírez de la Piscina, N. Homs, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 40
467 (2015) 5256-5263.
- 468 [48] L. Bednarczuk, P. Ramírez de la Piscina, N. Homs, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 41
469 (2016) 19509-19517.
- 470 [49] C. Montero, A. Remiro, A. Arandia, P.L. Benito, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, *Fuel*
471 *Process. Technol.* 152 (2016) 215-222.
- 472 [50] X. Zhao, G. Lu, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 41 (2016) 13993-14002.

- 473 [51] L. Oar-Arteta, A.T. Aguayo, A. Remiro, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, *Ind. Eng. Chem.*
474 *Res.* 54 (2015) 11285-11294.
- 475 [52] L. Oar-Arteta, A. Remiro, J. Vicente, A.T. Aguayo, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, *Fuel*
476 *Process. Technol.* 126 (2014) 145-154.
- 477 [53] E.A. Sanchez, R.A. Comelli, *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* 37 (2012) 14740-14746.
- 478 [54] L.F. Bobadilla, A. Penkova, A. Álvarez, M.I. Domínguez, F. Romero-Sarria, M.A.
479 Centeno, J.A. Odriozola, *Appl. Catal. A* 492 (2015) 38-47.
- 480 [55] D. Li, M. Koike, L. Wang, Y. Nakagawa, Y. Xu, K. Tomishige, *ChemSusChem* 7
481 (2014) 510-522.
- 482 [56] G. Lopez, M. Olazar, M. Amutio, R. Aguado, J. Bilbao, *Energy Fuels* 23 (2009)
483 5423-5431.
- 484 [57] M. Amutio, G. Lopez, R. Aguado, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, *Energy Fuels* 26 (2012)
485 1353-1362.
- 486 [58] M. Amutio, G. Lopez, M. Artetxe, G. Elordi, M. Olazar, J. Bilbao, *Resour.*
487 *Conserv. Recycling.* 59 (2012) 23-31.
- 488 [59] J. Alvarez, G. Lopez, M. Amutio, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, *Bioresour. Technol.* 170
489 (2014) 132-137.
- 490 [60] H. Bamdad, K. Hawboldt, S. MacQuarrie, *Renewable Sustainable Energy Rev.* 81
491 (2018) 1705-1720.
- 492 [61] P. Lu, Q. Huang, Y. Chi, J. Yan, *J. Anal. Appl. Pyrolysis* 127 (2017) 47-56.
- 493 [62] M. Hu, M. Laghari, B. Cui, B. Xiao, B. Zhang, D. Guo, *Energy* 145 (2018) 228-
494 237.
- 495 [63] M. Uchimiya, S. Hiradate, M.J. Antal, *ACS Sustainable Chem. Eng.* 3 (2015)
496 1642-1649.

- 497 [64] C.R. Smith, E.M. Buzan, J.W. Lee, ACS Sustainable Chem. Eng. 1 (2013) 118-
498 126.
- 499 [65] S. Czernik, R. French, C. Feik, E. Chornet, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 41 (2002) 4209-
500 4215.
- 501 [66] J.A. Medrano, M. Oliva, J. Ruiz, L. García, J. Arauzo, Energy 36 (2011) 2215-
502 2224.
- 503 [67] S. Liu, M. Chen, L. Chu, Z. Yang, C. Zhu, J. Wang, M. Chen, Int. J. Hydrogen
504 Energy 38 (2013) 3948-3955.
- 505 [68] A. Remiro, B. Valle, A.T. Aguayo, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, Fuel Process. Technol.
506 115 (2013) 222-232.
- 507 [69] D. Chen, K.O. Christensen, E. Ochoa-Fernández, Z. Yu, B. Tøtdal, N. Latorre, A.
508 Monzón, A. Holmen, J. Catal. 229 (2005) 82-96.
- 509 [70] K.O. Christensen, D. Chen, R. Lødeng, A. Holmen, Appl. Catal. A 314 (2006) 9-
510 22.
- 511 [71] B. Valle, B. Aramburu, M. Olazar, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, Fuel 216 (2018) 463-
512 474.
- 513 [72] B. Valle, B. Aramburu, P.L. Benito, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, Fuel 216 (2018) 445-
514 455.
- 515 [73] S. Czernik, R. Evans, R. French, Catal. Today 129 (2007) 265-268.
- 516 [74] B. Valle, A. Remiro, A.T. Aguayo, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, Int. J. Hydrogen
517 Energy 38 (2013) 1307-1318.
- 518 [75] J. Remón, F. Broust, G. Volle, L. García, J. Arauzo, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 40
519 (2015) 5593-5608.
- 520 [76] A. Ochoa, B. Aramburu, M. Ibáñez, B. Valle, J. Bilbao, A.G. Gayubo, P. Castaño,
521 ChemSusChem 7 (2014) 2597-2608.

- 522 [77] I. Barbarias, M. Artetxe, G. Lopez, A. Arregi, J. Bilbao, M. Olazar, Fuel Process.
523 Technol. 171 (2018) 100-109.
- 524 [78] J.A. Moulijn, A.E. van Diepen, F. Kapteijn, in: Anonymous Handbook of
525 Heterogeneous Catalysis, Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, 2008.
- 526 [79] J.M. Rynkowski, T. Paryjczak, M. Lenik, Appl. Catal. A 106 (1993) 73-82.
- 527 [80] J.G. Seo, M.H. Youn, S. Park, I.K. Song, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy 33 (2008) 7427-
528 7434.
- 529 [81] R.M. Navarro, R. Guil-Lopez, A.A. Ismail, S.A. Al-Sayari, J.L.G. Fierro, Catal.
530 Today 242 (2015) 60-70.