1	Mesoporous NanocrystallineTiO2 Supported Metal (Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Zn, and Sn) Catalysts:
2	Effect of Metal-Support Interactions on Steam Reforming of Methanol
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Abstract

31 Mesoporous TiO₂supported Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Sn and Zn catalysts (M-TiO₂) were synthesized 32 using facile one-step synthesis method and were characterized using BET, XRD, TGA-DSC, 33 TEM, SEM-EDX, ICP-OES, and H₂-TPR studies. The catalysts were further tested for steam 34 reforming of methanol (SRM)to investigate their comparative catalytic performance. Depending 35 on the nature of the metal component, the catalysts exhibited surface area, pore sizes, and TiO_2 36 crystallite sizes in the range of 99-309 m^2/g , 2.63-4.69 nm and 6.8-17.2 nm, respectively.N₂physorption, TGA-DSC and XRD analysis demonstrated that the presence of metal in the TiO_2 37 38 matrix stabilized the mesoporous structure by hindering the crystal growth during heat treatment 39 and thereby preventing the collapse of porous structure. Furthermore, the characterization of 5-20%Zn-TiO₂ catalysts indicated that there exist an optimum Zn loading to obtain highest surface 40 area which was found to be 15% in the present study giving a high surface area of $\sim 258 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. 41 42 This was consistent with theSRM studies where the activity increasedup to 15% and then 43 decreased significantly with further increase in Zn loading to 20%. The results of the SRM 44 studies coupled with extensive TPR analysis of different $M-TiO_2$ catalysts suggest that the specific metal-support interactions play a crucial role in controlling its performance on H₂ 45 production. The SRM activity order for different metals incorporated in mesoporous TiO₂ was 46 47 observed to be:Pd> Ni > Zn > Co >> Cu >> Sn. The Zn-TiO₂ catalyst showed the lowest CO selectivity among the different catalysts studied. 48 Keywords: Mesoporous TiO₂; Porous Structure Stabilization; Metal-support Interactions; Cu, 49

50 Co, Ni, Pd, Sn, Zn-TiO₂; TPR; Hydrogen Production; Steam Reforming.

52 1. Introduction

53 The increasing global energy demand and environmental crisis due to incessant use of fossil fuels has stimulated research for a clean and efficient source of energy for both mobile and 54 55 stationary applications in the form of fuel cells[1, 2]. Proton exchange (also called polymer electrolyte) membrane fuel cells (PEMFC) which mainly use hydrogen (H₂) as fuel are 56 57 considered to be the most promising among different types of fuel cells [3-5]. Therefore, H_2 is likely to play a crucial role in the energy portfolio of future in the form of H₂ economy. Although 58 hydrogen is potentially an ideal energy carrier, it is extremely difficult to store and transport. The 59 60 effective exploitation of H₂ as an energy carrier will need a massive development in storage, transportation and distribution infrastructure. Thus, the production of hydrogen *insitu* using an 61 62 on-board steam reformer for fuel cells in various transportation applications is a subject of great 63 interest in the scientific community[6].Not only it can eliminate the hydrogen storage and transportation safety concerns but allows the use of present gasoline distribution infrastructure for 64 supply of reforming feed-stocks such as methanol and ethanol. However, in order for on-board 65 H_2 production to be a reality, development of economical, effective and efficient steam 66 67 reforming catalysts is one of the important challenges that still need to be addressed.

The nature of support material and its physical state strongly influence the activity and selectivity ofsteam reforming reactions. A wide range of support materials have been investigated for steam reforming reactions including Al₂O₃, ZrO₂, CeO₂, Y₂O₃, La₂O₃, ZnO, TiO₂ and MgO[7-9].A careful review of the literature shows that, although TiO₂ has been used extensively in photo-catalysis for photo-degradation of various pollutants and is well known for its unique metal-support interactions showing excellent catalytic properties [10-12], limited comprehensivestudies have been reported forTiO₂supportedmetal catalysts in hydrogen 75 production via steam reforming reactions [13-17]. More specifically, the influence of metal-76 support interactions on steam reforming activity and selectivityhas not been studied in detail.Pinzari et al. [13]synthesized Zn/TiO₂ catalysts using impregnation methodthat yielded 77 surface area in the range of ~15-80 m²/g depending on Zn loading. The highest activity was 78 79 obtained with 5%Zn at 400 °C.Nichele et al. [14] investigated the Ni/TiO₂ catalysts prepared by 80 two routes involving impregnation of Ti(OH)₄ and TiO₂. Both, the preparation method and calcination temperature strongly influenced the catalyst properties (surface area 2-82 m^2/g)and 81 82 subsequent ethanol steam reforming activity due to their pivotal role in establishing the strong-83 metal-support-interactions (SMSI). In theirmost recent studies[15], they compared the 84 performance of Ni, Co and Cu metals supported on TiO₂ for ethanol steam reforming.Ni/TiO₂ showed significantly higher activity compared to Co/TiO₂ and Cu/TiO₂. The highest activity of 85 86 Ni was attributed to its ability of C-C bond cleavage. The tendency of Ni deactivation due to 87 coke formation was shown to be significantly controlled by tuning the interactions between Ni 88 and TiO_2 via catalyst preparation. Thus, in addition to the nature of support material, the catalyst 89 preparation method [18, 19] and type of the active metal component [20-22] can have profound 90 influence on steam reforming performance of catalysts.

In order to have a better understanding of the metal-support interactions, we have synthesized metal nanoparticles supported onhigh surface area mesoporous TiO₂ catalysts using facile one-step procedure developed in our laboratory.Six metal components - Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Sn and Zn, reported to be active for steam reforming reactions, were incorporated in mesoporous TiO₂ to obtain different M-TiO₂ catalysts. These catalysts were extensively characterized by different techniques including temperature programmed reduction (TPR) studies and tested for steam reforming of methanol (SRM) to understand the comparative role of different metals and their interactions with TiO₂ on reaction activity and selectivity. To the best of our knowledge, no
such systematic studies have been reported using one-step synthesis of high surface area
mesoporous TiO₂supported Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Sn and Zn catalysts.

101 **2. Experimental**

102 **2.1. Materials and Methods**

Titanium (IV) isopropoxide, 98+% (TIPR) and ammonium hydroxide, reagent ACS were 103 104 obtained from Acros Organics, New Jersey, USA. Hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide 105 minimum, 99% (CTAB), Cu (II) nitrate hydrate, 98% ACS reagent, cobalt (II) chloride 106 hexahydrate, zinc nitrate hexahydrate 98%, tin chloride dehydrate 98%, and palladium nitrate hydratewere procured from Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA. Nickel nitrate, hydroflouricacid, 107 ethanol anhydrous and acetone, ACS reagent were purchased from Fischer Scientific, New 108 109 Jersey, USA. All materials used were analytical grade and used without further purification. The 110 water used at all stages of the experiments was purified using a Mill-Q Advantage A10 with Elix 111 5 system obtained from Millipore Corporation (Bedford, MA, USA).

112 **2.2. Experimental Procedure**

Mesoporous TiO₂ containing metal particles, M-TiO₂,(M: Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Sn, and Zn) were 113 synthesized using the reactants molar ratio of 1 TIPR: 0.52 CTAB: 282 H₂O: 26.21 ethanol. 114 115 Several preliminary experiments were carried out to finalize most favorable synthesis parameters 116 and procedure reported in this study. The quantities of the metal precursors used were 117 determined to obtain 10wt% loading for different M-TiO₂catalysts and 5-20wt% loading for Zn-118 TiO_2 . While the % metal loading refers to the wt% loading, TiO_2 denotes the mesoporous TiO_2 in 119 rest of this article. In a typical synthesis, a measured quantity of CTAB was added to a water-120 ethanol solution with 4/1 (water/ethanol) volumetric ratios and stirred for 30 min to get a clear

121 solution. In another beaker, a solution of metal salt in ethanol was prepared. After stirring for 30 122 min, this solution was mixed with CTAB solution and stirred again. To the resulting solution, a 123 measured quantity of TIPR was added slowly and drop-wise with continuous vigorous stirring. 124 The stirring was continued for another 30 min after TIPR addition. Then NH₄OH was added 125 drop-wise to adjust the pH of solution to ~10. The resulting mixture was stirred for 24 h at room 126 temperature. The precipitate was washed with water until the pH of filtrate reached close to 7. 127 The precipitate was then washed with ethanol and filtered. The filtered material was air dried for 128 24 h followed by oven drying at 110 °C for 24 h. Finally, the dried material was calcined at 350 129 °C for 5 h with a heating and cooling rate of 2 °C/min to remove the traces of templating 130 material and to obtain crystalline TiO₂.

131 **2.3. Catalyst Characterization**

The catalysts were extensively characterized to study their physical and chemical properties using different techniques including N₂physisorption, small and wide angle X-ray diffraction (XRD), thermo-gravimetric and differential scanning calorimetric analysis (TGA-DSC), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX), inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES), and temperature programmed reduction (TPR).

TGA–DSC of the different catalyst samples under air flow (100 ml/min) was carried out using SDT Q600 V20.4 Build14 system (TA instruments, New Castle, DE, USA). The asprepared catalyst sample was placed in an alumina crucible and heated under air at 10 °C/min from ambient to desired temperature.N₂ adsorption-desorption technique was used to determine Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area, pore size and pore volume of the catalysts samples. The N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms were measured at liquid nitrogen temperature of -196.14 ¹⁴⁴ °C using Quantachrome NOVA 2200e instrument (Quantachrome Instruments, Boynton Beach, ¹⁴⁵ FL, USA).Samples were thoroughly degassed at 150 °C for several hours before the adsorption ¹⁴⁶ measurements. The total pore volume was derived based on the amount of N_2 adsorbed at a ¹⁴⁷ relative pressure close to one.Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method was applied to the ¹⁴⁸ desorption branch of N_2 isotherms to determine the pore size distribution (PSD) and average pore ¹⁴⁹ diameters [23].

Powder XRD patterns of the catalyst samples were obtained using D8 DISCOVER X-ray diffractometer from Bruker (Bruker Optics, Inc., Billerica, MA) equipped with a PSD detector using Cu K α radiations generated at 40 mA and 40 kV at 0.014°/s scan speed.Scherrer's formula (**Eq.(1**)) was used to determine the sizes of TiO₂ and metal crystallites from full-width-halfmaximum of respective XRD peaks.

155
$$\tau = \frac{0.9\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos \theta} \tag{1}$$

156 The actual elemental composition of the calcined catalysts was determined by an ICP-OES 157 (Agilent 710-ES) technique. A mixture of 2 ml hydrofluoric acid (51%) and 3 ml nitric acid (68%) was used to dissolve the 75 mg catalyst sample at 80 °C.Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) 158 159 measurements were recorded on KBr pellets with Shimadzu IR Prestige-21 Fourier transform 160 infrared (FTIR) 8300 spectrometer equipped with mercury-cadmium-telluride (MCT) detector.Zeiss Libra 120 ([©]Carl Zeiss NTS GmbH, Oberkochen, Germany) instrument operating 161 162 at 120 kVwas used to obtain the high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) 163 images of the catalyst samples. For the analysis, the catalyst sample particles were dispersed in 164 ethanol with the help of ultrasonication and then dropped onto a holey-carbon-coated copper 165 microgrid.Elemental mapping showing the dispersion of different metals in the M-TiO₂ catalysts was carried out on Zeiss EVO LS10 SEM equipped with OXFORD INCA X-act detector. For 166

the analysis,powdered samples were mounted on aluminum stubs with the help of two sided carbon tape. H₂-TPR experiments were performed on AutoChem II 2920 Chemical Analyzer equipped with thermal conductivity detector (TCD) from Micromeritics Instrument Corp. (Norcross, GA, USA).Prior to TPR analysis, the catalyst were degassed at 200 °C for 30 min in Argon (Ar) stream. The TPR profiles were recorded in the flow of 10%H₂/Ar gas mixture at 50 ml/min, and the temperature was raised up to 900 °C with a heating rate of 10 °C/min.

173 **2.4. Catalysts Testing**

174 Methanol steam reforming experiments to examine the performance of different 175 TiO₂supported catalysts were carried out in a tubular stainless steel packed bed reactor (6.22 mm 176 internal diameter) in the range of 150-350 °C. A catalyst and sand (white quartz, 50-70 mesh) 177 mixture (2:1 volume ratio) was packed into the reactor with quartz wool placed at both ends. The 178 calcined catalyst was first reduced *ex-situ* in a tubular furnace for 2 h and then *in-situ* in the 179 reactor for 1 h using 4% H₂/Arat 350 °C.A methanol/water mixture was fed to the reactor using 180 aHPLC pump via a vaporizer set at 350 °C. The reactor outlet stream was passed through a 181 condenser to separate unreacted reactants from the non-condensable product gases. While the reaction temperature was varied in the range of 150–350 °C, gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) 182 and methanol to water mole ratio were kept constant at 2838 h⁻¹ and 3:1, respectively, for all the 183 184 experiments. The reaction products and collected condensate were analyzed by Agilent 7890B 185 gas chromatography system. The gaseous products were separated using RestekShinCarbon (2 m 186 x 2 mm x 1/8") packed column and analyzed on thermal conductivity detector (TCD) using 187 Argon as a carrier gas. Condensate mixture carried using He gas was separated on Agilent DB-1 (60 m x 250 µm x 1 µm)capillary column and analyzed on flame ionization detector (FID). 188 189 While the conversion of methanol isobtained using methanol material balance based on feed and

190 condensate (Eq.(2)), the productselectivities are determined by hydrogen (Eq.(3)) and carbon
191 (Eq.(4)) balance among the different non-condensable products.

192
$$X_{Methanol} = \frac{CH_3OH \, moles \, converted}{CH_3OH \, moles \, fed} \times 100\%$$
 (2)

193
$$S_{H_2} = \frac{H_2 \text{ moles in product}}{H_2 \text{ moles in product} + 2 \times CH_4 \text{ moles in product}} \times 100\%$$
(3)

194
$$S_{CO/CO2/CH4} = \frac{CO/CO2/CH4 \text{ moles in product}}{(CO_2 + CO + CH4) \text{ moles in product}} \times 100\%$$
(4)

195 **3. Results and Discussion**

3.1. Thermal and Calorimetric Analysis of M-TiO₂Samples

197 Fig. 1a shows the representative TGA-DSC profiles of TiO_2 and $10\%Co-TiO_2$ recorded in 198 air.TGA profiles for both the samples showed two weight loss stages. The first one is located 199 below 200 °C and is associated with an endothermic peak centered at ~85 °C. This weight loss is 200 attributed to the removal of adsorbed water on the surface of TiO₂. The second weight loss 201 observed in the range of 200 to 400 °C coincided with an exothermic peak between 220-300 °C 202 in the DSC profile and is due to the exothermic decomposition of CTAB which was used as the 203 templating agent.In addition,10%Co-TiO₂ sample showed a second small exothermic peak at 204 about 300 °C that is ascribed to the decomposition of metal precursor (in this case, CoCl₂) 205 [24]. The exothermic peaks of the DSC profilescentered at ~450 °Cand ~510 °C, both associated with insignificant weight loss, observed for TiO₂ and 10%Co-TiO₂, respectively, are 206 207 attributed to the phase change of TiO_2 from amorphous to crystalline state [25]. It can be further noticed that the crystallization temperature of TiO₂increased from ~450 to ~500 °C upon addition 208 of cobalt. 209



The TGA-DSC profiles of different $Zn-TiO_2$ catalysts with 5-20% Zn loading are shown **Fig. 1b**. The general behavior of the profiles is similar to that described in **Fig. 1a**. However, two conspicuous features were observed in **Fig. 1b**; first, aconsistent decrease in the intensity of

exothermic peak in the range of 240-340 °C and second, a shift in the crystallization temperature to higher values with increase in the Zn loading. The Zn-TiO₂ sample with 5% loading has a crystallization temperature of~500 °C, which increased to ~560 °C with 20% loading. The decreased peak intensity at higher Zn loading indicates the presence of lower CTAB in the asprepared samples due to its replacement by Zn. The consistent delay in the crystallization temperature of TiO₂ with increase in Zn loading will be discussed in more detail in the subsequent sections (3.2 and 3.3).

242 **3.2. X-ray Diffraction Analyses of Different M-TiO₂ Catalysts**

Fig.2 presents the XRD patterns of different calcined M-TiO₂ samples. TiO₂ exists in three different crystalline phases:rutile (tetragonal), anatase (tetragonal), and brookite (orthorhombic).



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Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction patterns for different M-TiO₂ catalyst samples.

The XRD pattern of TiO₂ clearly shows well-resolved, sharp peaks at 25°, 38°, 48°, 55°, 63° corresponding to the (101), (004), (200), (105), and (211) diffraction planes, respectively, of 258 anatase structural phase (JCPDS# 21-1272). However, addition of a metal led to a decrease in 259 intensity of these peaks, indicating a lower degree of crystallinity. This decrease in crystallinity appeared to strongly dependon the type of metal incorporated in TiO_2 . For example, while the 260 261 addition of Cu showed no significant change in intensities, the presence of Ni yielded very low 262 intensity broad peaks corresponding to the anatase phase. The XRD spectrum of 10%Cu-TiO₂ exhibits two peaks at 2-theta 35.5° and 38.7°, ascribed to the CuO crystal phase, assigned to 263 (002) and (111) planes (JCPDS# 80-1917), respectively. The XRD spectrum of 10%Pd-264 TiO₂showed peaks at 2-theta values of 33.6° and 42° assigned to (002) and (110) crystalline 265 planes, respectively, oftetragonal PdO(JCPDS# 75-584). 266





Fig. 3. X-ray diffraction patterns for Zn-TiO₂ catalysts with 5-20%Zn loading.

The XRD patterns of 10%Co-TiO₂, 10%Zn-TiO₂, 10%Ni-TiO₂, and 10%Sn-TiO₂ samples showed no peaks that can be attributed to the metal or metal oxides. This could be due to one or more reasons which include the non-crystalline nature of particles, highly uniform dispersion, preferential orientation of particles and very small sizes making themX-rayamorphous. **Fig.3** shows the XRD spectra of Zn-TiO₂ catalyst samples illustrating the crystallization behavior of TiO₂with Zn loading varying from 5-20%. As observed with other metals, the addition of Zn to TiO₂ matrix resulted in decreased peak intensities, owing to the lower crystallinity of TiO₂. It clearly indicates that the presence of metal atoms hinder or delays the TiO₂ crystallization process, which was corroborated by the TGA-DSC studies.

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288 The rate of crystallization during heat treatment depends on the rate of atomic diffusivity of 289 titanium ions. However, the presence of metal atoms could be acting as an impurity or adatoms 290 decreasing the mobility of Ti ions resulting in decreased diffusivity and subsequent decreased 291 crystallization [26, 27]. The sizes of TiO_2 , CuO and PdOcrystallites determined using Scherrer equation are shown in **Table 1**. The decreased sizes of TiO₂ crystals upon metal loading further 292 293 confirmed the lower crystallinity. For instance, the average TiO_2 crystallites size of ~17.2 nm decreased by more than 50% to ~4-9.8 nm upon metal addition. The extent of decreased 294 295 crystallinity was also observed to be dependent on the metal type and loading.

3.3. N₂-Physisorption Analysis to Study Textural Properties of M-TiO₂

The N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms for TiO_2 and different M-TiO₂samples with 10% metal loading are depicted in **Fig.4(A)**. All isotherms resembled the Type IV isotherm,a typical characteristic for mesoporous materials, based on IUPAC classification[28].



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Fig. 4. (A) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms, and (B) BJH pore size distribution for different M-TiO₂ catalyst samples.

311 The hysteresis loop associated with isotherms is attributed to the capillary condensation 312 which also confirms the presence of mesoporous structure. While TiO₂ isotherm showed a H2 313 type hysteresis loopcorresponding to the inkbottle shaped pores, the shape of the hysteresis loop changed from H2 to H4 upon incorporation of metal particles, indicating a significant change in 314 315 the textural properties. The H4 type hysteresis loops generally correspond to the slit-like pores.Asharp rise in N₂ uptake at relative pressure above 0.95 is due to the N₂ condensation 316 ininter-particle pores. Figure 4(b) depicts the BJH pore size distribution of different M-TiO₂ 317 318 catalysts indicating reasonably narrow distribution in the range of 3 to 4 nm. Table 1 319 summarizes the BET surface areas, pore sizes, and pore volumes of the different M-TiO₂catalyst samples investigated in this study. TiO₂ showed a high surface area of 146.6 m^2/g , pore size of 320 4.7 nm and pore volume of $0.17 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$. However, depending on the type of metal incorporated in 321 TiO₂, the surface area, pore diameter, and pore volume varied significantly in the range of 99.7-322 309.8 m²/g, 2.53-4.93nm, and 0.08-2.03cm³/g, respectively, indicating a strong influence of the 323 metal ions on TiO₂ textural properties.For instance, while the incorporation of Pd in 324 325 addition TiO₂significantlydecreased the surface area by about 32%, the of Coremarkably increased it by about 111% to $309.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. 326

327 The increase in surface area of $M-TiO_2$ samples with the addition of metalsis similar to that 328 reported by Youn et al. [29] who observed that the addition of small quantity of metal ions 329 promoted the textural stability of mesoporous ZrO₂ resulting in an increased surface area. 330 However, the underlying reasons were not discussed in detail. We believe that the effect of metal 331 incorporation on the textural properties of mesoporous TiO_2 is linked to the influence of metal 332 ions on the crystallization behavior of TiO₂that was also observed in the TGA-DSC and XRD 333 studiesdescribed in previous sections. Crystallization of mesoporousTiO₂ upon calcination leads to the loss of the mesoporous structure due to the increased crystallite sizes, thus decreasing the 334 335 surface area[27]. The degree of decreased surface area depends upon the degree of 336 crystallization. Thus, the higher surface area of $M-TiO_2$ compared to TiO_2 can be attributed to relatively lower extent of crystallization upon metal addition. However, this effect was not 337 338 observed in 10%Pd-TiO₂ sample, where the specific surface area decreased uponaddition of 339 Pdcompared to TiO₂ itself. The observed contradictory influence of Pd compared to other metals on M-TiO₂ surface area can be explained on the basis of its crystal sizes. The significantly larger 340 341 Pd crystal sizes of about 49.4 nm (Table 1) could be responsible for the collapse of TiO₂ 342 mesoporous structure leading to a reduction in surface area.

The textural properties of Zn-TiO₂ catalyst samples with different metal loadings of 5-20% are also presented in **Table 1**. An interesting behavior was observed in surface area variation when the Zn loading was increased from 0 to 20%. The surface area increased from ~146 to ~257.5 m²/g with the increase in Zn loading from 0 to 15%. However, further increase in Zn loading to 20% resulted in a drastic reduction in surface area to 140.1 m²/g.The first trend in surface area variation can be explained on the basis of delay in crystallization of TiO₂due to the presence of Zn atoms, as discussed above and evident in TGA-DSC results (**Fig. 1b**). The Zn atoms hinder the crystallization of TiO_2 avoiding the collapse of mesoporous structure up to 15% loading. However, when the Zn loading is increased to 20%, Zn atoms could be interfering with the formation of mesoporous structure itself. Thus, the observed lower surface area for 20%Zn-TiO₂ compared to TiO₂can be attributed to the lack of mesoporous structure.

354 3.4. Chemical Composition Analysis using ICP-OES

The metal loadings in M-TiO₂ samples, determined using ICP-OES analysis, are shown in **Table 1**. Themetal loadingsvaried in the range of 10.6 to 13.9% except for samples of 10% Sn-TiO₂ and 10% Pd-TiO₂. For Sn and Pd catalysts, the loading was found to be considerably lower (5.26 and 5.32%) than the intended loading of 10%. While, the higher loading of metal can be attributed to the more loss of titania particles or precursor, the lower metal loading in some cases could be due to the loss of metal particles or precursors during the catalysts preparation.

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362 **3.5. FTIR Analysis**



Fig 5. FTIR spectra of as-prepared and calcined samples of: (a) TiO₂ and (b) 10%Zn-TiO₂.

A doublet band centered at ~2920 cm⁻¹ and ~2854 cm⁻¹ observed in both as-prepared samples and a broad high intensity band at about 1470 cm⁻¹ in 10%Zn-TiO₂ sample (this band seems to be overlapped in wide band between 1520-1720 cm⁻¹ for TiO₂ sample) corresponds to the symmetric -CH and asymmetric -CH₂ vibrations of the organic template, CTAB, that disappeared upon calcination confirming its complete removal by combustion[30]. The strong band in the range of 900-400 cm⁻¹ is associated with vibration modes of Ti-O in TiO₂[31].While, the broad adsorption bands in the range of $3800 - 3000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ are assigned to the stretching vibrations of -OH from physisorbed water molecules, the adsorption band around ~1630 cm⁻¹ is ascribed to the -OH bending vibrations arising from coordinated water on support surface [32]. The adsorption bands $\sim 2350 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ correspond to atmospheric CO₂.

395 3.6. Microscopic Analysis of M-TiO₂ catalysts

396 Fig. 6 shows therepresentative TEM images of the calcined TiO_2 and M-TiO₂samples. 397 Fig.6(a-c) clearly show that both TiO_2 and M-TiO₂ have disordered but highly mesoporous 398 structure indicating that the porous structure is intact after incorporation of 10% metal in one-399 step synthesisprocedure. The sizes of the pores ranged between 2.5 nm to 5 nm confirming the 400 results of N₂-physisorption studies. The dark spots in the high contrast TEM image shown in Fig.6d indicate the uniform distribution of the cobalt particles in TiO₂ matrix. The SEM images 401 402 of different calcined M-TiO₂ catalysts with metal mapping acquired using EDX analysis are 403 shown in Fig.7. The sizes of the bulk catalyst particles varied in the range of 2-40 µm. The significant differences in the dispersion of different metals in TiO₂ support are clearly 404 evident from visual inspections. The highest dispersion was observed for 10%Co-TiO₂ which 405 was followed by 10%Pd-TiO₂. While Ni-TiO₂ and Sn-TiO₂ showed similar but relatively 406 407 moderate dispersion, the least dispersion was noticed in Zn-TiO₂ and Cu-TiO₂ samples. The 408 clarification of these observations is further bolstered by TPR results discussed in the following 409 section.



Fig. 6: TEM images of (a) TiO₂ (b) 10% Sn-TiO₂ (c) 10% Zn-TiO₂ and (d) 10% Co-TiO₂.



418 Fig. 7. SEM images with EDX elemental mapping for (a) 10% Cu-TiO₂ (b) 10% Co-TiO₂ (c) 419 10% Ni-TiO₂ (d) 10% Pd-TiO₂ (e) 10% Sn-TiO₂ and (f) 10% Zn-TiO₂

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422 **3.7. Effect of Metal-Support Interactionon Reduction Behavior of M-TiO₂Catalysts**

423 TiO_2 is known to interact with supported metal components affecting the catalyst's 424 properties and subsequently its catalytic performance. Therefore, H₂-TPRstudiesof M-TiO₂ 425 catalysts can provide information on the interactions between the metal and TiO₂ support[33], which can be correlated to its catalytic activity for methanol steam reforming reactions. **Fig.8** shows a series of TPR profiles for different M-TiO₂ catalyst samples carried out under identical operating conditions, illustrating the reduction behavior of incorporated metal oxides. The TPR profile of TiO₂(**Fig. 8a**) showed a broad low intensity peak in the temperature range of 410-630°C, indicating the reduction of surface TiO₂ molecules. Other researchers have also foundsimilar TiO₂reduction behavior, with the observed reduction temperature varied between 400 and 720 °C [34-37].



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Fig. 8. TPR profiles of different M-TiO₂ catalyst samples.

The TPR profile of 10%Pd-TiO₂shown in **Fig. 8b**exhibited an interesting reduction behavior. The consumption of H₂ started at 50 °C and yieldedanintense peak centered at 73 °Cthat corresponds to reduction of PdO on the surface to $Pd^{0}[38, 39]$.With further increase in temperature, four more peaks were observed:a sharp negative peak (81-108 °C), a wide positive peak (105-225 °C), a wide negative peak (225-383 °C) and a low intensity positive peak (383-460 °C). The positive peak centered at about 160 °C corresponds to the reduction of PdO particles located inside the porous structure which are more dispersed due to the comparatively 442 stronger interactions with TiO_2 support [10, 40, 41]. Both PdO reduction peaks were followed by 443 negative peaks which can be attributed to the release of H₂ from the decomposition of the palladium hydride (PdH). The observedPdH decomposition at about 85 °C is in good agreement 444 445 with earlier reports [40, 42]; however, the peak observed at higher temperature of about 300 °C was not reported before. We believe that Pd⁰ formed at both stages of reduction undergoes the 446 hydride formation which subsequently decomposed with increase in temperature resultingin 447 negative peaks. Finally, the peak centered at 420 °C is assigned to the reduction of TiO₂ surface 448 molecules. The observed decrease in the reduction temperature of TiO₂ from 530 °C to 420 °C in 449 450 the presence of Pd is attributed to the interactions between Pd and TiO₂ which have also been 451 observed for other noble metals [36, 43]. Shen et al.[38]suggested that the dissociation of hydrogen on the Pd particles and its successive spillover to TiO₂ leads to its lower temperature of 452 453 reduction. These moderate to higher levels of interactions between Pdand TiO₂ surface could be 454 responsible for the observed uniform dispersion of Pd in TiO₂ as shown in EDX studies 455 (Fig.7d). The TPR profile of 10% Cu-TiO₂(Fig. 8c) showed two overlapping peaksof high 456 intensity in the temperature range of 60-250 °C. They were followed by a wide and very low intensity peak spanned between 260 to 380 °C. Similar reduction behavior with coinciding peaks 457 458 was also observed by other researchers [44, 45]. These peaks indicated the co-existence of three 459 types of copper species in the calcined 10%Cu-TiO₂ sample. While the first two peaks centered at 153°Cand 175 °Cwere attributed to the reduction of bulk CuO species with comparatively 460 461 insignificant but varying degree of interactions, the third peak suggested the reduction of bulk crystalline copper oxide that has moderate interactions with TiO_2 support [46-48]. The TPR profile 462 also showed a very low intensity peak in the temperature range of 400-500 °C that can be 463 464 attributed to the reduction of surface TiO₂.Larsson et al. observed a significant decrease in the

reduction temperature of TiO_2 in the presence of CuO, suggesting an interaction between CuO and $TiO_2[49, 50]$. Thus, the observation of very low peak intensity with a small shift in reduction temperature could be due to insignificant interactions between CuO and TiO_2 in the present study. This is consistent with the EDX mapping of Cu shown in **Fig.7a** where copper was seen to be poorly dispersed compared to the other metals.

The TPR profile of 10%Co-TiO₂ contained a broad area of H₂ consumption which started at 470 471 320 °C and continued to about 900 °C. The broad peak area apparently consisting of several 472 overlapping reduction peaks can be de-convoluted into three peaks with first centered at 460 °C, second at 535 °C and last one at 720 °C. The overlapping behavior of first and second peak was 473 474 in good agreement with other studies which were assigned to the stepwise reduction of Co_3O_4 to metallic Co (Co³⁺ ===> Co²⁺ ===> Co⁰) [51-53]. By analogy to previous studies, the major peak 475 476 observed at 720 °C can be attributed to the reduction of cobalt titanate (CoTiO₃)[54, 477 55].However, it should be noted that although the behavior of the reduction was consistent with 478 some of the earlier studies, the reduction peak positions in the present study are observed at 479 comparatively higher temperature [56-59]. While Jalama et al. [57] observed the three analogous peaks at 344, 373 and 545 °C, Riva et al. found them in the range of 300 to 720 °C [56]. Thus, 480 based on the TPR data and high dispersion of Co in the TiO₂ matrixobserved in EDX analysis 481 (Fig.7b) it can be inferred that very strong interactions exist between cobalt and TiO₂ support in 482 the 10%Co-TiO₂ catalyst synthesized in this study using one-step method. 483

In contrast to the high temperature reduction behavior of Co-TiO₂, complete reduction of 10%Ni-TiO₂catalyst sample was achieved by 600 °C. The main sharp peak at 400°C was followed by a low intensity wide shoulder peak centered at ~530 °C. While the first peak can be assigned to the reduction of NiO particles having moderate interaction with the TiO₂ surface, the 488 second peak is attributed to the reduction of NiO having moderate-to-stronger interactions with 489 TiO₂[14, 60].In general, the reduction of bulk NiOparticles in the absence of interactions with 490 the support occurs in the temperature range of $280-300^{\circ}C[61, 62]$. The nonexistence of this peak 491 indicates that the present 10%Ni-TiO₂catalyst prepared by one-pot synthesis method does not 492 contain such bulk NiO particles. Furthermore, H_2 consumption peaks for the reduction of NiTiO₃, which are generally observed above 600 °C are not present suggesting the absence of 493 494 very strong NiO-TiO₂interactions[60, 63]. Yan et al. [60] claimed that both these bulk NiO and 495 NiTiO₃ are catalytically inactive and interestingly they are not present in our 10%Ni-TiO₂ 496 catalyst. The observed moderate interactions between Ni and TiO₂ were also evident in the 497 reasonable dispersion of Ni shown in Fig.7c of EDX studies.

498 The H₂ consumption profile as a function of temperature for 10%Zn-TiO₂ catalyst sample is 499 presented in **Fig.8f**. The TPR profile shows one clearsymmetric peak at about430°C and two 500 overlapping peaks centered at about 650 °C and 750 °C. It is interesting to note that a significant 501 portion of ZnO in TiO_2 was reduced well below the generally reported bulk ZnOreduction 502 temperature of about 650 °C [64, 65]. This clearly indicates the existence of the strong-metal support interactions between Zn and TiO₂ promoting the reduction of ZnO. The presence of 503 504 reduction peak at 750 °C can be attributed to the very strong metal-support interaction leading to 505 the formation of Zn-titanate spinel structures. Finally, the TPR profile for 10%Sn-TiO₂(Fig. 8g) 506 shows three distinct overlapping reduction peaks in the temperature range of 150-800°C. Nava et 507 al.[66] and Corradini et al.[67] also reported similar three stage reduction behavior for 508 Sn/TiO₂.The H₂ consumption peak at 320 °C is assigned to the reduction of SnO₂ species which 509 are strongly interacting with the TiO₂ surface. The two other peaks centered at 500 °C and 650 °C are attributed to the two step reduction of bulk SnO_2 to metallic $Sn(Sn^{4+}==>Sn^{2+}==>Sn^0)$ 510

511 [68]. As the reported temperature for bulk SnO_2 reduction is generally above 750 °C [69], the 512 observed lower reduction temperature of bulk SnO_2 in the present study shows the existence of 513 varied degree of interactions between the Snparticles and TiO₂.

514 **3.8. Performance test of M-TiO₂ for SRM**

515 To gain further insights in to the metal-support interactions, the comparative performance of 516 different metal componentsincluding Cu, Co, Ni, Pd, Zn and Sn incorporated in mesoporous 517 TiO_2 support was investigated for H₂ production.Fig. 9illustrates the catalytic behavior of each 518 catalyst for SRM showing the effect of reaction temperature on methanol conversion and 519 selectivity towards different products, namely, H₂, CO, CO₂ and CH₄. One common trend observed was the increase in methanol conversion with increase in reaction temperature for all 520 catalysts showing a strong influence of temperature on the catalysts' activity. For example, for 521 522 10% Pd-TiO₂ catalyst, methanol conversion increased from 8% to about 98 % with increase in 523 temperature from 150 °C to 350 °C. This can obviously beattributed to the endothermic nature of steam reforming reaction (Eq.(5)). 524

525	CH₃OH	+ H ₂ O	\leftarrow CO ₂ + 3H ₂	$\Delta H^\circ = 90.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$	(5)
	0	-	-		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

526	CH₃OH	↔ CO	+ 3H ₂	$\Delta H^{\circ} = 49.5 kJ/mol$	(6)
	013011				(*

527

 $CO + H_2O \iff CO_2 + H_2 \qquad \Delta H^\circ = -41.1 \, kJ/mol \tag{7}$

 $CO + 3H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_4 + H_2O \qquad \Delta H^\circ = -206 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (8)

530



531

532

selectivity (d) CO selectivity (e) CO_2 selectivity for different M-TiO₂ catalysts

The conspicuous outcome of these results (**Fig. 9**) is the remarkable differences in the SRM activity and selectivity among the different metal componentsincorporated in TiO₂. The methanol conversion vs temperature profiles in **Fig. 9a**reveal that whilePd/TiO₂ catalyst is the most active, Sn/TiO₂is least active for SRM reaction establishing an overall activity trendofPd> Ni > Zn > Co >> Cu >> Sn. This activity sequence of M-TiO₂can be linked to the 539 specific interactions observed between the metal component and the TiO_2 support (TPR section, 540 above). The ease of PdO reduction and moderate to stronger interactions between Pd and TiO_2 541 resulting in higher dispersioncould be responsible for its observed highest activity. In contrast, 542 very strong metal-support interactions observed in 10%Co-TiO₂led to high dispersion of 543 Co, the consequential high temperature reduction could be responsible for its lower SRM activity. For both Ni and Zn where the specific metal-support interactions led to lower reduction 544 545 temperature compared to their bulk counterparts, reasonable SRM activity next to Pd was observed. For example, at 350 °C, 10%Ni-TiO₂ and 10%Zn-TiO₂yielded about 86% and 82% 546 547 methanol conversion, respectively. The significantly lower activity of 10% Cu-TiO₂ catalyst could 548 be ascribed to the absence of noticeable metal-support interactions resulting in lower dispersion 549 and sintering. In contrast, in our very recent study [70], Cu-MCM-41 showed excellent activity and 550 selectivity for SRM. Given the inert nature of silica support reducing or eliminating the possible 551 metal-support interactions, the outstanding performance of Cu-MCM-41 was attributed to highly 552 uniform dispersion of Cu in very high surface area MCM-41 support. The results for Ni-TiO₂ and 553 Cu-TiO₂catalysts in this studyare similar to that observed for ethanol steam reforming activity of Ni/γ -Al₂O₃ and Cu/ γ -Al₂O₃ catalysts reported by Aupretre et al. [71]. However, in their studies, 554 555 Zn/γ -Al₂O₃ showed significantly lower activity compared to Ni/ γ -Al₂O₃. The higher SRM 556 activity of Zn-TiO₂which was comparable to that of Ni-TiO₂in the present studysupportsour 557 hypothesisthat thespecific interactions between Zn and TiO₂observed in TPR analysis are 558 responsible for its promising SRM activity. Interestingly, even though moderate level of 559 interactions were observed between Sn and TiO₂ resulting in a portion of SnO₂reduction at lower 560 temperature, it showed an insignificant activity for SRM reaction with just 10% conversion at 561 350 °C. These results further suggest that for favorable steam reforming activity, there need to

562 exist optimum interactions between support and metal components which are again563 characteristics of the particular metal-support system.

564 While methanol conversion varied significantly for different M-TiO₂ catalysts, all of 565 themshowed more than 90% H₂ selectivity exceptforSn-TiO₂, where the selectivity dropped to 566 less than 50% due to excessive methanation reaction (Eq.(8)) as shown in Fig. 9. It was observed 567 that although both Ni-TiO₂ and Pd-TiO₂ exhibited very good activity for decomposition reaction 568 leading to higher methanol conversions (Eq.(6)), the activity for water-gas-shift reaction (Eq.(7)) 569 was almost insignificant resulting in very high (>80% for Ni and >70% for Pd at 350) CO 570 selectivities over the range of reaction temperature shown in **Fig. 9d**. The selectivity of CO was 571 also observed to depend on the relative activity for the water-gas-shift reaction (Eq. (7)) and methanation reaction(Eq.(8)). Although methanation reaction does help in decreasing CO 572 573 selectivity, one mole CH₄ formation results in loss of 3 moles of product H₂.For 574 example, comparatively lower CO selectivity observed for Co-TiO₂, Cu-TiO₂and Sn-TiO₂were 575 attributed to the formation of methane at the expense of decreased H_2 selectivity. On the other 576 hand, $Zn-TiO_2$ showed the best performance among the studied catalysts both in terms of desired higher activity for water-gas-shift and lower activity formethanation reaction. Based on 577 578 the important criterion of lower CO selectivity, the different metals followed the order: $Zn-TiO_2 <$ 579 Sn-TiO₂< Co-TiO₂< Cu-TiO₂< Pd-TiO₂< Ni-TiO₂.

As Zn-TiO₂ catalyst exhibited lowest CO selectivity among different metals studied, Zn loading was varied from 5-20% to investigate further the effect of Zn loading on SRM activity and selectivity. The results of these SRM studies are presented in **Fig. 10.** It was interesting to note that the SRM activity increased with increase in loading up to 15% and then decreased with further increase in Zn loading. For example, at 300 °C reaction temperature, the conversion increased from 28% to 66% with increase in Zn loading from 5% to 10%. It remained almost
constant at 15% loading giving slightly higher conversion of ~68%. However, further increase in
Zn loading to 20% drastically decreased methanol conversion to only about 19%.

588





Fig. 10.The effect of reaction temperature on methanol conversion and product selectivity for (a)
5%Zn-TiO₂ (b) 10%Zn-TiO₂ (c) 15%Zn-TiO₂ and (d) 20%Zn-TiO₂ catalysts.

This behavior is consistent with observed variations in surface area of Zn-TiO₂ catalyst with changes in Zn loading (**Table 1**). The surface area of Zn-TiO₂ catalyst was also observed to increase with increase in Zn loading from 5 to 15% and then decreased drastically at 20% Zn loading. Thus, the observed change in the SRM activity with Zn loading can be attributed to its influence on the catalyst surface area. The observed methanol conversion and CO selectivity values indicate that the 15%Zn-TiO₂ is the most favorable catalyst among the different catalysts investigated in the present investigation. 600 A simple one-step procedure was used to synthesize different mesoporous M-TiO₂ (M: Cu, Co, 601 Ni, Pd, Sn, and Zn) catalysts for investigating specific metal-TiO₂ interactions and their 602 influence on SRM activity and selectivity. Synthesized M-TiO₂ catalysts showed significantly high surface areas in the range of 99-309 m^2/g depending on the type of incorporated metal 603 species. TGA-DSCand XRD studies revealed that incorporation of metal ions significantly 604 605 delayed the TiO₂ crystallization which can be attributed to the decreased mobility of Ti ions caused by metal atoms acting as impurity or adatoms. This delayed crystallization led to the 606 607 formation of M-TiO₂ catalysts with significantly higher surface areas compared to TiO₂itself. 608 Both the type of metal and loading significantly influenced the textural properties of prepared catalysts. The results from SRM studies indicated the remarkable differences in catalytic 609 610 performances of different M-TiO₂ catalystsdue to specific metal-support interactions controlling 611 the reducibility and dispersion of metal particles in TiO₂ matrix. While the SRM activity for different M-TiO₂ catalysts followed the sequence of Pd-TiO₂> Ni-TiO₂> Zn-TiO₂> Co-TiO₂>>> 612 613 $Cu-TiO_2 >> Sn-TiO_2$, the lower CO selectivity was observed in the order of $Zn-TiO_2 < Sn-TiO_2 <$ Co-TiO₂< Cu-TiO₂< Pd-TiO₂< Ni-TiO₂. Furthermore, the SRM activity of Zn-TiO₂ catalysts was 614 615 observed to increase with increase in Zn loading from 5 to 15% and then decreased with further increase in Zn loading to 20%. The observed optima for Zn-TiO₂ catalyst with variation in Zn 616 loading was attributed to its substantial influence on the textural properties. Among the different 617 618 catalysts investigated in the present study, 15%Zn-TiO₂ showed best SRM performance with 619 88% methanol conversion, ~100% H₂ selectivity and 1.3% CO selectivity at 350 °C reaction 620 temperature.

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Catalyst	Surface	Pore	Pore	Actual Metal	TiO ₂ Crystal	Metal
	Area	Size	Volume	Loading (wt %)	Size (nm)	Crystal Size
	(m^2/g)	(nm)	$(\mathrm{cm}^3/\mathrm{g})$	ICP-OES		(nm)
TiO ₂	146.6	3.59	0.172	0	17.18	-
10Cu-TiO ₂	285.6	3.28	0.190	10.6	9.84	20.9
10Ni-TiO ₂	309.8	3.32	0.203	13.9	-	-
10Co-TiO ₂	215.1	3.30	0.142	13.3	4.03	-
10Sn-TiO ₂	164.3	3.29	0.134	5.26	7.52	-
10Pd-TiO ₂	99.7	3.32	0.081	5.32	8.78	49.4
10Zn-TiO ₂	250.2	3.31	0.158	12.52	6.79	-
5Zn-TiO2	178.8	3.31	0.132	5.2	7.29	-
15Zn-TiO2	257.5	3.29	0.175	15.14	-	-
20Zn-TiO2	140.1	3.30	0.113	17.18	-	-

Table 1: Textural properties, actual metal loading and crystallite sizes of different M-TiO₂
catalyst samples

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