



# Hydrogen production via steam reforming of different fuels: thermodynamic comparison

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## ABSTRACT

Hydrogen, a sustainable energy source, has potential to address climate change. However, traditional steam reforming processes produce CO<sub>2</sub>. Alternative fuels like bio-alcohols, biogas, and LPG are being adopted for steam reforming processes. This study presents a thermodynamic comparative examination of steam reforming processes employing different fuels, including methane, methanol, ethanol, propane, glycerol, and biogas. The analysis focuses on the hydrogen yield, environmental impact, and energy requirements of these processes and a comparison with experimental results. The analyses were conducted using AspenPlus® software, minimizing the Gibbs free energy under specified conditions (T = 25–1000 °C, n = 1–10, P = 1–40 bar). Among the fuels examined, methanol, biogas, and methane exhibited the highest hydrogen yields, reaching maximum values of 96.10 %, 95.86 %, and 95.26 % respectively at 600 °C, 1 bar, and a water-to-fuel ratio of 10. Ethanol, glycerol, and propane achieved yields of 89.66 %, 86.55 %, and 84.03 % respectively at 700 °C and the same pressure and water-to-fuel ratio.

## 1. Introduction

Hydrogen is emerging as an ideal sustainable energy carrier, offering a more environmentally friendly option for energy consumption. No carbon emissions and little release of other harmful gases result from its use in fuel cells or combustion plants [1,2]. Hydrogen is a promising energy source for long-term sustainable development because of its higher mass energy density compared to other fuels, high energy conversion efficiency, emission-free production via water electrolysis, various storage forms (such as gaseous, liquid, or metal hydrides), simplicity of conversion into other energy forms, and wide availability [3,4]. Despite the benefits highlighted, there are still certain difficulties associated with its manufacture, storage, and distribution [5,6].

Producing hydrogen from naturally occurring substances incurs a substantial energy cost, making it an acknowledged energy carrier [1]. Currently, almost all hydrogen is produced by fossil fuels, which account for about 6 % and 2 % of global natural gas and coal consumption, respectively [7]. Natural gas reforming generates nearly 95 % of H<sub>2</sub>, with significant CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, 8 Kg CO<sub>2</sub>/Kg H<sub>2</sub>, and a minimum energy demand of 62 kJ/mol H<sub>2</sub> [8,9]. Therefore, it has been viewed as a highly essential strategy in recent years to develop hydrogen generation technologies using alternative and renewable energy sources [10].

The escalating costs of fossil fuels, driven by their finite reserves, alongside the rising concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere resulting from their utilization, have sparked an increasing interest in utilizing biomass for sustainable energy and chemical production [11]. Since they are carbon neutral, biomass-derived alcohols (methanol, ethanol, glycerol) are interesting sources of hydrogen [12]. The product distribution can be affected by the quantity and the arrangement of hydroxyl groups present in the starting alcohol [11,13]. Bio-methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) is usually produced via the thermochemical route of biorefinery processes from carbon-based material such as biomass, solid waste, coal, or carbon dioxide. In these processes, the gasification of carbonaceous feedstocks generate biogas, which is subsequently purified and pre-processed before being utilized in the synthesis of methanol [14]. In recent years, bioethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH) has become the most widely used biofuel worldwide, primarily sourced from agricultural raw materials like corn or sugar cane. However, the development of upcoming biorefinery technologies focused on waste-derived it is anticipated that the upcoming generation of biorefinery technologies, focusing on utilizing waste-derived feedstocks, will soon be able to reduce the need for bioethanol from food [10,14]. Glycerol (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) emerges as a viable option among various renewable feedstocks due to its notable characteristics. It boasts a relatively high hydrogen content, it is nontoxic, and can be safely stored and handled [11]. Approximately 10 % (w/w) of glycerol is

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Abbreviation			
SRM	Methane Steam Reforming	$T$	Temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
SR	Steam Reforming	$n_{\text{stoic}}$	Stoichiometric value of water-to-fuel ratio for overall steam reforming reaction
WGS	Water-Gas Shift	$X_{\text{eq}}$	Equilibrium conversion of fuel
DRM	Dry Methane Reforming	$F_{\text{fuel,in}}$	Molar flow rates of the fuel at reactor inlet (Kmol/h)
POx	Partial Oxidation	$F_{\text{fuel,out}}$	Molar flow rates of the fuel at reactor outlet (Kmol/h)
ATR	Autothermal reforming	$Y_{\text{H}_2}$	Hydrogen yield
SE-SRM	Sorbent Enhanced Methane Steam Reforming	$F_{\text{H}_2,\text{out}}$	Molar flow rates of hydrogen at reactor outlet (Kmol/h)
CL-SRM	Chemical Looping Methane Steam Reforming	$S_{\text{H}_2}$	Hydrogen selectivity
SRMe	Methanol Steam Reforming	$F_{\text{H}_2\text{O,in}}$	Molar flow rates of steam at reactor inlet (Kmol/h)
SRE	Ethanol Steam Reforming	$F_{\text{H}_2\text{O,out}}$	Molar flow rates of steam at reactor outlet (Kmol/h)
SRG	Glycerol Steam Reforming	$\nu_{\text{H}_2}$	Stoichiometric coefficient of hydrogen in the overall steam reforming reaction
LPG	Liquid Petroleum Gas	$Q_{\text{R}}$	Duty at reactor (Kcal/h)
SRP	Propane Steam Reforming	$Q_{\text{HE}}$	Duty at heat exchanger (Kcal/h)
SRB	Biogas Steam Reforming	$Q$	Total duty (Kcal/h)
rWGS	Reverse Water-Gas Shift	$T_{\text{R}}$	Temperature at reactor ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
M	Mixer	$T_{\text{IN}}$	Temperature at reactor inlet ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
HE	Heat Exchanger	$m_{\text{CO}_2,\text{flue gases}}$	Mass flow rates of $\text{CO}_2$ in flue gases (Kg/h)
R	Reactor	$m_{\text{CO}_2,\text{R}}$	Mass flow rates of $\text{CO}_2$ at reactor outlet (Kg/h)
<b>Symbols</b>		$n_{\text{H}_2}$	Molar flow rate of $\text{H}_2$ (Kmol/h)
$n$	Water-to-fuel ratio	$m_{\text{CO}_2}$	Total mass flow rates of $\text{CO}_2$ (Kg/h)
$P$	Pressure (bar)	$T_{\Delta G^{\circ}=0}$	Temperature at which $\Delta G^{\circ} = 0$ (K)

obtained as a by-product during the conversion of vegetable oil into biodiesel through the transesterification reaction. The market value of pure glycerol currently ranges from \$0.27 to \$0.41 per pound, while crude glycerol with an 80 % purity fetches around \$0.04–0.09 per pound. This price disparity underscores the impact of glycerol oversupply in the market. Therefore, a significant issue in the biodiesel sector is the use of crude glycerol for value-added products. The contaminants in raw glycerol make it very difficult to transform it into a product with value. To avoid market saturation and boost revenues from the manufacture of biodiesel, it is crucial to purify crude glycerol or discover a technique to valorise it [15,16]. Pure glycerol finds applications in various industries, including personal care products, food, oral care, tobacco, and polyurethane manufacturing [17].

As already mentioned, natural gas is the preferred feedstock for producing hydrogen since it is readily available and favourable prices. Compared to feedstocks with higher hydrocarbon content such as liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) or naphtha, sweetening of the feedstock as well as the deactivation of the catalyst are less relevant and easier to address. However, depending on local availability and pricing, hydrocarbons with higher carbon atoms content than natural gas are adopted in many regions because they are cleaner and contain a higher percentage of hydrogen by weight [18]. LPG primarily consists of propane ( $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8$ ) and butane ( $\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}$ ), although their volume percentages can vary based on different standards and climates in different countries. For instance, although LPG produced in Korea often contains 65 %–90 % butane, LPG manufactured in Canada typically has 92.5 %–100 % propane [19]. Among the various sources of hydrogen, such as hydrocarbons and alcohols, propane is of special interest. This is primarily due to its unique ability to undergo liquefaction at ordinary temperatures and approximately 9 bar pressure. Consequently, propane offers advantages in terms of effortless storage, transportation, and convenient access, thanks to the existing infrastructure for liquefied petroleum gas [20].

The scientific community has displayed significant interest in advancing biogas as an alternative solution to replace fossil fuels in the transition towards a hydrogen-based economy. Biogas, acknowledged as an eco-friendly and renewable gaseous fuel, holds great promise for direct conversion into syngas through the reforming process [21]. This renewable fuel is produced via the anaerobic digestion of organic matter

like liquid manure, sewage sludge, and the organic component present in household and industrial waste. The biogas composition is dependent on the waste source utilized. Typical composition ranges are:  $\text{CH}_4$  (60–70 vol%) and  $\text{CO}_2$  (30–40 vol%), with small fractions of other compounds such as  $\text{N}_2$  (0–2 vol%),  $\text{CO}$  (<0.5 %),  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (0.005–2 %),  $\text{O}_2$  (0–5 %),  $\text{NH}_3$  (<1 %) [21,22].

As described earlier, steam reforming for hydrogen production requires complex reaction mechanisms for each fuel. Consequently, it results in the production of various by-products, which have implications for the purity of the final hydrogen output and the overall costs involved. Furthermore, the yield of hydrogen is influenced by multiple process variables, including pressure, temperature, and the water-to-fuel ratio. Furthermore, steam reforming is an energy-intensive reaction that necessitates a substantial amount of heat, often generated through the combustion of auxiliary streams. This supplementary energy consumption contributes to the overall  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions associated with the process. This aspect related to the energy demand is fundamental to the development of hydrogen production processes from alternative feedstocks and is not usually considered in the literature.

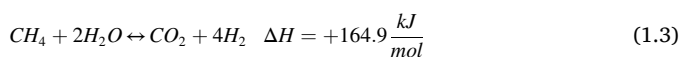
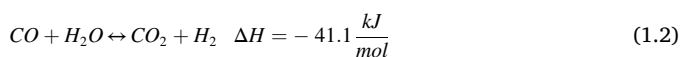
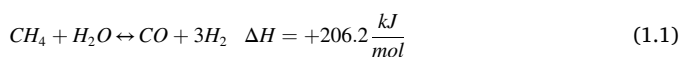
Therefore, the present work aims to collect and compare thermodynamic data of the main alternative fuels for hydrogen production from steam reforming in order to evaluate  $\text{H}_2$  yield, selectivity to  $\text{H}_2$ , overall  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions, and the energy demand as a function of the kind of fuel and the process variables. This data could serve as a foundation for further examination of fuel-specific reactor and catalyst configurations, which would enable the enhancement of streamlined procedures and may serve as a reference point for comparing outcomes in all studies on the advancement of alternative fuel reforming of interest. In general, the thermodynamic behaviour of these alternative fuels in the steam reforming process are examined, as well as their potential as sustainable options for hydrogen production.

The following sub-sections report a summary of the current knowledge about thermodynamic, process, and catalytic aspects of methane (Section 1.1), methanol (Section 1.2), ethanol (Section 1.3), glycerol (Section 1.4), propane (Section 1.5) and biogas (Section 1.6) steam reforming. Thermodynamic analysis of steam reforming of different fuels was performed, focusing on the comparison of hydrogen yield and energy demand at different operating conditions (pressure, temperature,

and H<sub>2</sub>O/fuel ratio). Therefore, the equilibrium composition and hydrogen yield were calculated using the principle of minimizing Gibbs free energy for the following variable ranges: pressure 1–40 bar, temperature 25–1000 °C and water-to-fuel ratio 1–10. In addition, global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and heat required for each fuel were evaluated under typical operating conditions. The methodology is reported in Section 2, while the equilibrium composition, hydrogen yield and selectivity are reported in Section 3.1. Section 3.2 shows a comparison of the hydrogen yield normalising the water-to-fuel ratio with respect to the number of carbon atoms. In addition, a comparison between thermodynamic and experimental results (data from literature in supplementary materials) is reported in the text. The energy demand and CO<sub>2</sub> footprint are reported in Section 3.3.

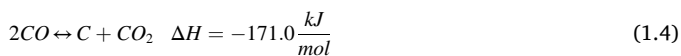
### 1.1. Methane steam reforming

SRM, or natural gas steam reforming, is a well-established technology and currently is the most widely used hydrogen production method [23]. By utilizing methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and steam, the endothermic steam reforming (SR) reaction (1.1) allows the production of H<sub>2</sub> and carbon monoxide (CO). Through the exothermic water-gas shift (WGS) reaction (1.2), the CO can be converted further, resulting in the generation of extra hydrogen and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). When these reactions are combined, they form an overall reaction (1.3) that effectively converts methane into carbon dioxide and hydrogen [24].



At 1 bar and below 600 °C, the main reforming reaction (1.1) is highly endothermic and not spontaneous ( $\Delta G > 0$ ). Additionally, the methane molecule requires a high temperature to accomplish high conversion during SRM, has a high C–H bond dissociation energy of 435 kJ/mol, and is relatively stable [25]. This means that the reforming reaction is an energetically demanding process, mandating the provision of an adequate level of external heat and specially designed equipment to carry out the reaction at high temperature and pressure, leading to difficulties in mass and heat transfer [26]. Simultaneously, according to the Le Chatelier's principle, it is advisable to maintain low pressure during the process. The reforming reactions, (1.1) and (1.3), are usually occur within an elevated temperature range of 700–1000 °C, under pressure of 20–35 atm [27,28].

To attain significant conversion and selectivity to hydrogen, the steam reforming reaction necessitates the employment of catalysts. Conventional and commercial SRM typically catalysts consist of nickel on oxide supports, which are usually aluminium or magnesium. Among them, Ni/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is most commonly used due to its favourable cost-efficiency and elevated activity. Nonetheless, these catalysts often encounter challenges associated with carbon deposition resulting from the Boudouard reaction (1.4) and methane decomposition (1.5), as well as the sintering of Ni particles [24,28].



Designing enhanced Ni catalysts has received significant attention from the scientific community. In particular, the research is focusing on the modification of promoter, new support materials, and self-supporting of these catalysts. Furthermore, non-Ni-based catalysts such as noble metal (e.g., Ru, Rh) have emerged as viable alternatives,

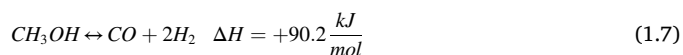
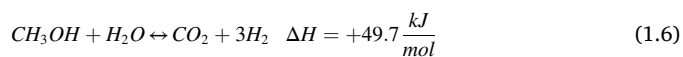
offering high activity and stability in steam reforming. However, the utilization of noble metals is restricted due to their high cost and limited availability, posing challenges for widespread industrial implementation [26,29].

Carbon monoxide levels in the gas mixture resulting from the reforming reaction are typically 5 % or more. To enhance the hydrogen yield and to reduce the content of CO, the produced gas mixture is directed into a water gas shift reactor, where the temperature is kept as low as 200–400 °C [27]. The resultant gas mixture contains primarily 70–75 % hydrogen, with minor amounts of CO (7–10 %), CO<sub>2</sub> (6–14 %) and methane (2–6 %) [23,30].

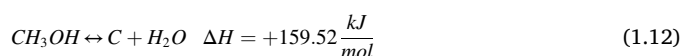
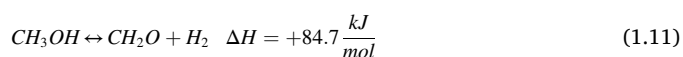
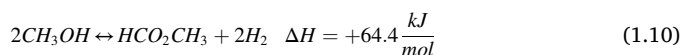
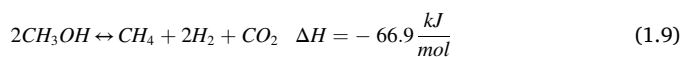
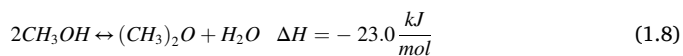
Current research focuses on developing a highly efficient SRM process and lowering the necessary reaction temperature. In addition, numerous cutting-edge technologies have emerged to enhance steam reforming efficiency while minimizing overall energy consumption. This include dry reforming with carbon dioxide (DRM) [31], partial oxidation (POx), autothermal reforming (ATR), low temperature SMR [32], sorbent enhanced SRM (SE-SRM) [33], chemical looping process (CL-SMR) [34], photocatalytic SRM [35], thermo-photo hybrid SRM [36], plasma SRM [37], and electro-catalytic SRM.

### 1.2. Methanol steam reforming

Methanol stands out among the alternative fuels due to its highest hydrogen-to-carbon atomic ratio. Containing only one carbon atom, methanol readily reacts with steam at lower temperatures through a process called methanol steam reforming (SRMe) (1.6). This enables the conversion of methanol into a high-purity hydrogen stream while minimizing the formation of carbon [10,38]. The typical operating conditions of the methanol steam reforming are: 1 bar, 250–300 °C, H<sub>2</sub>O/Methanol = 1–3. The total reaction network is as follows:



The most relevant side reactions are methanol decomposition (1.7) and the WGS reaction (1.2) [39]. The decomposition rate of methanol is much lower compared to steam reforming. However, at low water-to-methanol ratio, side reactions are more likely to occur, leading to the production of methane, methyl formate (HCO<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>3</sub>), dimethyl ether ((CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>O), etc. and other by-products (1.8–1.12) [13].



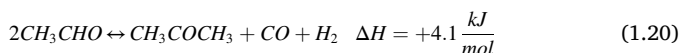
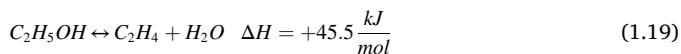
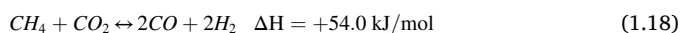
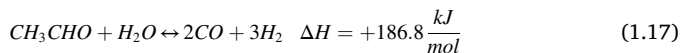
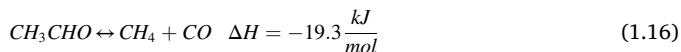
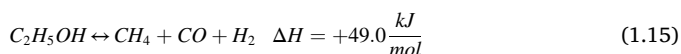
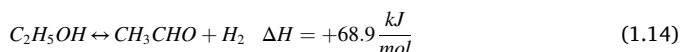
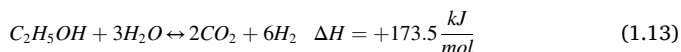
The resulting gas typically contains around 75 % H<sub>2</sub>, 25 % CO<sub>2</sub>, and 1 % CO [40,41]. Enhancing various components of the SRMe system, including reactors, catalysts, and separation membranes, is crucial for optimizing the efficient production of hydrogen [40]. The separation of hydrogen from the product mixture plays a significant role in overall costs. Membrane reactors offer higher efficiency compared to conventional reactors by combining the reaction and separation of hydrogen and other by-products in a single unit, eliminating the need for additional processing steps. Thus, membrane reactors are cost-efficient due

to the bypassing of the WGS reaction [13]. However, packed bed reactors are more commonly used in practical applications due to design challenges and the higher production costs associated with membrane reactors.

The efficiency of SRMe process relies heavily on the catalyst employed. Copper-based catalysts and group VIII metal-based catalysts, including Ni, Pt, Pd, Ru, and Rh, are commonly employed in this process. These catalysts are typically supported on oxide materials with a large surface area, such as  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  [40]. Copper-based catalysts offer high activity and selectivity, but they can experience catalytic deactivation due to factors like thermal sintering, coke deposits, and changes in oxidation state [42]. The catalytic performance is affected by both metal component and support material. Promoters, such as acidic oxides or alkali metals, can eliminate undesired compounds formed during the reaction [13].

### 1.3. Ethanol steam reforming

During the process of steam reforming of ethanol (SRE) process, the primary reactions result in the production of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  (1.13). Additionally, various carbonaceous by-products such as  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CO}$ , acetaldehyde ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}$ ), and ethylene ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4$ ), are formed. Side reactions, including ethanol dehydrogenation (1.14) and ethanol decomposition (1.15), as well as the WGS (1.2) to form  $\text{H}_2$  [10]:



Dehydrogenation (1.14) is a crucial step in  $\text{H}_2$  production and is enhanced by high temperature. Acetaldehyde steam reforming (1.17) and WGS (1.2) reactions proceed sequentially. Ethanol decomposition (1.15), SRM (1.1) and methane dry reforming (1.18), are also advantageous at high temperature [43]. Several side reactions take place, including dehydration of ethanol (1.18), decomposition of acetaldehyde (1.16), acetone formation (1.20) and coke formations (methane decomposition (1.5), Boudouard reaction (1.4), polymerization of ethylene (1.21)) [44]. An appropriate range of operating conditions for SRE are: 1 bar, 250–800 °C,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{Ethanol} = 3\text{--}5$  [45].

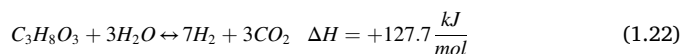
SRE commonly employs Co-based and Ni-based catalysts due to their cost-effectiveness and strong ability to break to C–C bonds. These catalysts are usually spread inside a matrix like  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZrO}_2$ ,  $\text{MgO}$  and others. However, they do have some drawbacks, such as deactivation caused by carbon deposits and the formation of methane as a byproduct. To mitigate these issues in ESR, two approaches have been suggested: incorporating a second element and utilizing alternative catalytic supports. For example, introducing basic oxides ( $\text{MgO}$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CaO}$ ) in the catalytic support (e.g. alumina), helps neutralizing its acidity, inhibiting

ethanol dehydration. On the other hand, the utilization of a redox-active promoter ( $\text{CeO}_2$ ) directly aids in the coke oxidation. Introducing a secondary metal into the Ni-based catalyst, such as Au, Cu, Fe, or Co, can lead to the formation of different structures that exhibit enhanced resistance to carbon deposition due to the reduced diffusion of carbon atoms in metal nanoparticles [44].

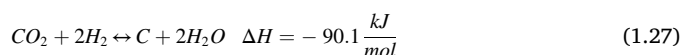
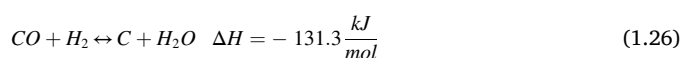
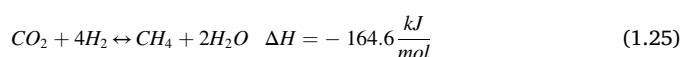
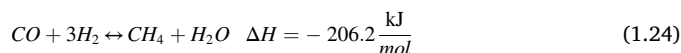
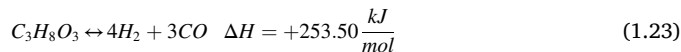
To enhance overall energy efficiency, various reactor configurations and structured catalysts have been employed to improve heat and mass transfer. A combined system of reaction and separation was found to be effective to increase both hydrogen purity and equilibrium conversion. Extensive research has been conducted both on membrane reactors and  $\text{CO}_2$  sorption enhancement by SRE using a  $\text{CO}_2$  absorbent for in situ  $\text{CO}_2$  separation [44].

### 1.4. Glycerol steam reforming

On of the many applications for glycerol is its usage as a source of hydrogen via the steam reforming process. The overall reaction for the steam reforming of glycerol (SRG) (1.22) is shown in the following equation [17]:



As for the other fuels, the WGS reaction (1.2) takes place and leads to the production of extra hydrogen. According to several studies [10,17,46–48] there are secondary reactions such as the decomposition of glycerol (1.23) and  $\text{CO}$  methanation (1.24) and  $\text{CO}_2$  methanation (1.25). Methanation may take place at low temperatures, with part of the hydrogen produced reversibly mixing with the oxygenated molecules in the system to form methane. At high temperature, coke formation may occur due to the Boudouard reaction (1.4), methane decomposition (1.5), and hydrogenation of  $\text{CO}$  (1.26) and  $\text{CO}_2$  (1.27).



Given that the ratio of the hydrogen to glycerol molecules is 7:1, producing hydrogen from glycerol may be appealing. According to the literature, the best results are achieved at temperature between 525 and 725 °C. The commonly used pressure is around 1 atm. Even at higher temperatures, the  $\text{H}_2$  yield increases more slowly at ratios above 9. The required volume of water shouldn't be excessive due to the high costs involved with evaporation, so the optimal amount of steam depends on the adopted catalyst and the operating conditions, especially temperature and pressure [46–48].

As mentioned above, the complex reaction network of SRG causes the production of unwanted by-products. In order to ensure the sustainable use of glycerol, there is a high demand for efficient catalysts that can selectively produce  $\text{H}_2$  production at low reaction temperatures [49]. Palladium (Pd), ruthenium (Ru), iridium (Ir), rhodium (Rh) and platinum (Pt) display high catalytic performance and excellent physicochemical features. However, their limited availability and high price make them uneconomical. Nickel (Ni), cobalt (Co) and copper (Cu), among other transition metals, provide affordable alternatives and are widely available. The development of innovative catalysts using the combination of several metals has been the focus of recent research to

**Table 1**

Summary of the operating temperature, water-to-fuel ratio (n), pressure, and main catalysts used in commercial applications for the different fuel investigated for steam reforming process.

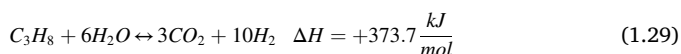
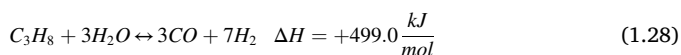
Fuel	$T_R$ , °C	n	P, bar	Catalysts	Ref
<b>Methane</b>	700–1200	3–6	20–35	Ni/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[27,28]
<b>Biogas</b>	800–900	0.5–2.5	1–7	Ni/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[21]
				Ni/SiC	
				Ni/ZrO <sub>2</sub>	
<b>Propane</b>	800–900	3	20	Ni/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[18,61]
				Rh/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	
				Ru/CeO <sub>2</sub> -ZrO <sub>2</sub>	
<b>Methanol</b>	250–400	1–3	1	Cu/ZnO/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[39,42]
<b>Ethanol</b>	250–800	3–5	1	Ni/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[44,45]
				Co/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	
<b>Glycerol</b>	500–900	3–10	1	Ni/Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	[47,64]
				Ni/SiO <sub>2</sub> -Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	

obtain improved product selectivity and superior catalytic activity: due to enhanced metal dispersion, a bimetallic Ni/noble metal catalyst increases carbon resistance and has good catalytic activity; Ni with other transition metals, namely Cu, Fe and Co leads to different catalytic performances based on their individual nature. Due to its large specific surface area and thermal stability, alumina is used as the primary catalytic support. However, it is vulnerable to deactivation brought on by catalyst sintering and carbon adsorption. The addition of alkali elements can improve the stability of catalysts and somewhat lessen their acidity. Additionally, this basic nature encourages the water dissociation, methane reforming, and water-gas shift reaction [16,50].

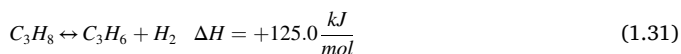
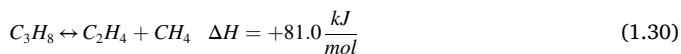
In addition to conventional steam reforming of glycerol, sorption-assisted steam reforming [51,52], chemical looping reforming [53], aqueous phase reforming [54], supercritical steam reforming [55], and photocatalytic reforming [56] has also been investigated.

### 1.5. Propane steam reforming

The simultaneous occurrence of propane steam reforming (SRP) (1.28) and the WGS (1.2) is reported as the overall SRP (1.29) [57]:



By-products such as methane and ethylene may also be produced under reaction conditions via the propane decomposition reactions (1.30), CO or CO<sub>2</sub> methanation (1.24, 1.25) [58].



Efficient H<sub>2</sub> production in SRP research has primarily focused on the development of catalyst. Nickel-based catalysts have been extensively studied for efficient H<sub>2</sub> production due to their low cost, however they face issues such as particle sintering, and carbon deposition caused by

the decomposition of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (1.21, 1.5) and/or the Boudouard reaction (1.4). Current research focuses on developing novel catalyst formulations capable of selectively converting C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> to H<sub>2</sub> while resisting coke formation and particle agglomeration. By adjusting catalyst synthesis parameters such as preparation procedure, pH, temperature, and ageing time, the size of Ni nanoparticles can be controlled, and carbon deposition can be avoided by enhancing Ni-based catalysts with alkali metals or lanthanides [58]. Alkali metal oxides such as K<sub>2</sub>O and CaO have demonstrated improved resistance to coking by enhancing carbon gasification, but at the expense of catalytic activity. Addition of small amounts of molybdenum or tungsten (0.5 wt% MoO<sub>3</sub> or WO<sub>3</sub>) can enhance coking resistance without sacrificing catalytic activity. Lanthanides, on the other hand, show promise as promoters since they may prevent the formation of coke without losing catalytic activity [59,60]. Conversely, partial or complete substitution of Ni with noble metals (Rh, Pt, Ru, Rh) has resulted in catalytic materials with excellent properties and improved catalyst durability, but higher costs [58,61].

In the SRP industrial practice, propane or LPG may be fed first to a pre-reformer, operating at 450–500 °C, in which all hydrocarbon

**Table 2**

Chemical species considered in the equilibrium system for each fuel.

Fuel	Species	Ref.
<b>Methane</b>	CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O, C	[1]
<b>Biogas</b>	CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O, C	[63]
<b>Propane</b>	Propane, ethylene, propylene, CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O and C	[19]
<b>Methanol</b>	Methanol, methyl formate, dimethyl ether, formaldehyde, CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O and C	[13]
<b>Ethanol</b>	Ethanol, acetaldehyde, ethylene, acetone, ethane, acetic acid, CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O and C	[44, 71]
<b>Glycerol</b>	Glycerol, acetaldehyde, ethylene, ethanol, methanol, ethane, propylene, acetone, acrolein, formaldehyde, allyl alcohol, propionaldehyde, acetic acid, CH <sub>4</sub> , CO <sub>2</sub> , CO, H <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> O and C	[71]

**Table 3**

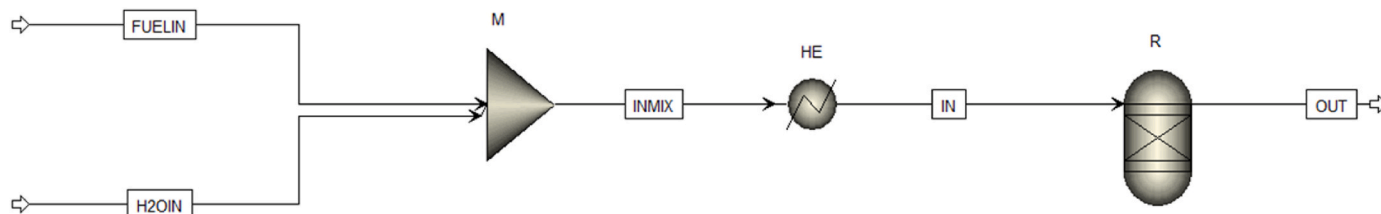
Overall steam reforming reactions and stoichiometric water-to-fuel ratio ( $n_{stoic}$ ).

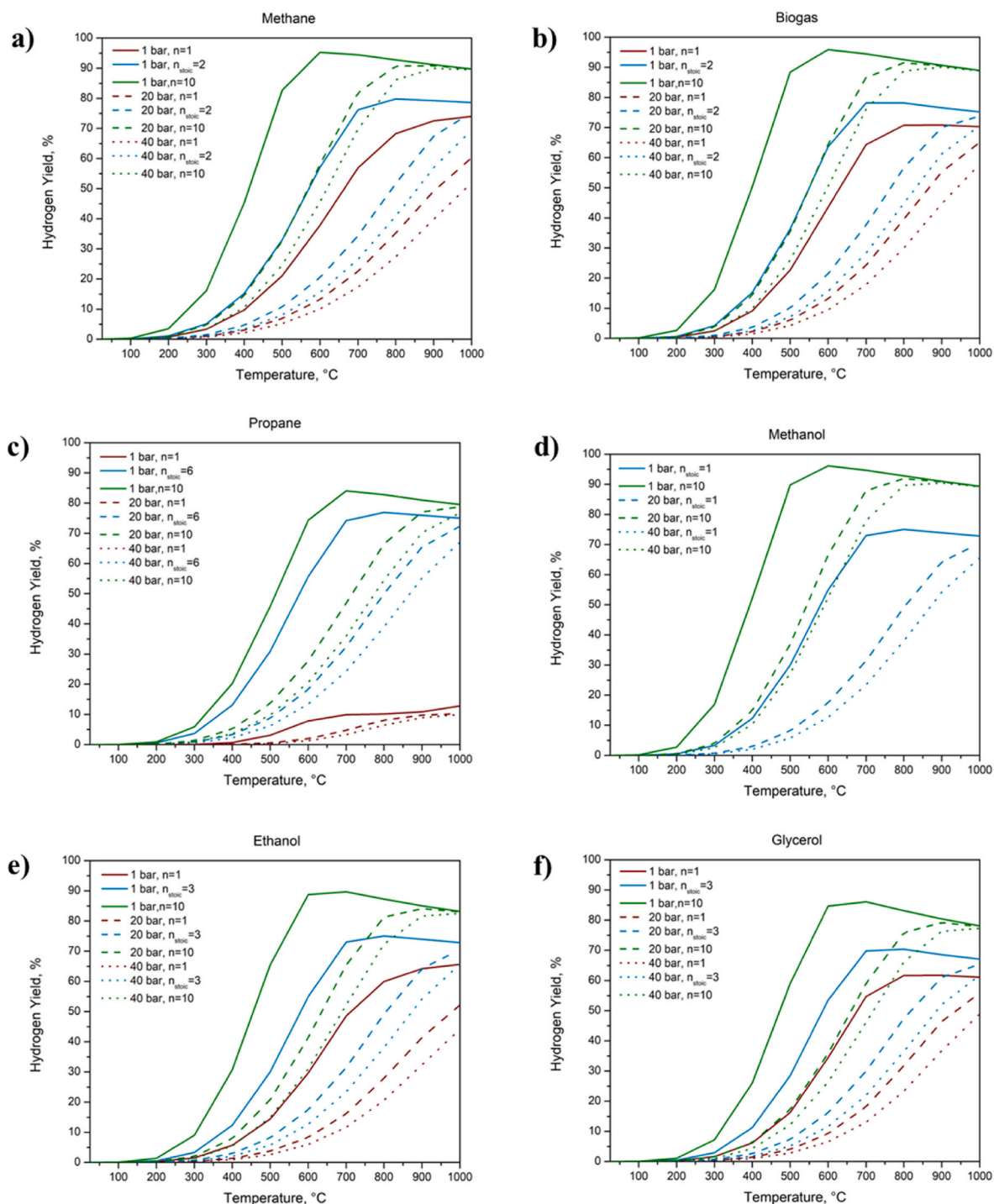
Fuel	Global steam reforming reaction	$n_{stoic}$
<b>Methane</b>	CH <sub>4</sub> + 2H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ CO <sub>2</sub> + 4H <sub>2</sub>	2
<b>Biogas</b>	CH <sub>4</sub> + 2H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ CO <sub>2</sub> + 4H <sub>2</sub>	2
<b>Propane</b>	C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> + 6H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ 3CO <sub>2</sub> + 10H <sub>2</sub>	6
<b>Methanol</b>	CH <sub>3</sub> OH + H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ CO <sub>2</sub> + 3H <sub>2</sub>	1
<b>Ethanol</b>	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub> OH + 3H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ 2CO <sub>2</sub> + 6H <sub>2</sub>	3
<b>Glycerol</b>	C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> O <sub>3</sub> + 3H <sub>2</sub> O ⇌ 3CO <sub>2</sub> + 7H <sub>2</sub>	3

**Table 4**

Operating conditions for the calculation of the heat duty required at reactor,  $Q_R$ , and at heat exchanger,  $Q_{HE}$ .

Fuel	$T_{IN}$ , °C	$T_R$ , °C	n	P, bar
<b>Methane</b>	250	600–1200	3	20
<b>Biogas</b>	250	600–1200	2.5	7
<b>Propane</b>	250	600–1200	3	20
<b>Methanol</b>	125	250–600	3	1
<b>Ethanol</b>	170	350–800	3	1
<b>Glycerol</b>	300	500–1000	7	1

**Fig. 1.** Process Flowsheet implemented in AspenPlus®.



**Fig. 2.** Hydrogen yield as a function of temperature parametric in the pressure (1 bar solid, 20 bar dashed, 40 bar dotted lines) and in the water-to-fuel feed ratio ( $n = 1$  red,  $n = n_{stoic}$  blue and  $n = 10$  green lines) for the steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol and f) glycerol. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

heavier than methane are completely converted to C1 components; than a methane-rich gas which is introduced to steam reformer operating at higher temperature (850–900 °C) [18].

### 1.6. Biogas steam reforming

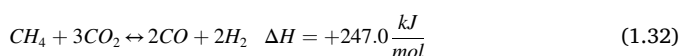
While the establishment of commercial usage for dry methane reforming (DRM) alone remains pending, the industrial application of combined dry and steam reforming techniques has been in practice for several years. Several examples of this include the CALCOR process

(Caloric GmbH) and the SPARG process (Haldor Topse), both of which are based on the DRM reaction. There are two commercial technologies that alter the  $H_2/CO$  ratio, operate under milder conditions, and combine SRM or POx with DRM [62]. By combining steam and dry reforming of methane, commonly referred to as steam biogas reforming (SMB) or bi-reforming, an efficient method for producing syngas is achieved, while also reducing net  $CO_2$  emissions compared to the steam reforming process. However, for the bi-reforming process to occur in the presence of significant amounts of  $O_2$ , it must be removed from the biogas [63].

**Table 5**  
Maximum hydrogen yield and corresponding operating conditions.

P, bar	n	Methane		Biogas		Propane		Methanol		Ethanol		Glycerol	
		T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %	T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %	T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %	T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %	T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %	T, °C	Y <sub>H<sub>2</sub></sub> , %
1	1	1000	73.97	900	70.80	1000	12.78	800	75.04	1000	65.65	900	61.71
	Stoic	800	79.76	700	78.16	800	76.86	–	–	800	75.04	800	70.31
	10	600	95.26	600	95.85	700	84.03	600	96.10	700	89.66	700	86.05
20	1	1000	60.24	1000	65.08	1000	10.21	1000	70.47	1000	52.19	1000	55.87
	Stoic	1000	75.31	1000	73.83	1000	72.36	–	–	1000	70.47	1000	65.41
	10	900	90.83	800	91.47	1000	78.76	800	91.92	900	84.08	900	79.18
40	1	1000	51.99	1000	57.81	1000	9.92	1000	65.67	1000	44.17	1000	48.88
	Stoic	1000	69.46	1000	70.57	1000	67.13	–	–	1000	65.67	1000	61.75
	10	900	89.97	900	90.05	1000	76.79	900	90.46	1000	82.49	1000	77.26

According to the literature [21,22,63], the main reactions involved in the biogas reforming are methane dry reforming (1.32), SRM (1.1) and WGS (1.2). Thus, both CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O play the role of oxidants. The coexistence of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O influences the WGS equilibrium [22]. Under reforming conditions, coke formation may occur due to methane decomposition (1.5) and Boudouard reaction (1.4).



The biogas reforming process typically occurs within temperatures of 800–850 °C and pressure of 1–7 bar. The CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> ratio and CH<sub>4</sub> to H<sub>2</sub>O ratio generally fall between 1–3 and 0.5–1.5, respectively. The conversion of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> is generally over 61 % and 33 %, respectively [21]. Therefore, the main challenges entail achieving higher reactant conversion and catalyst deactivation. Mainly, Ni-based catalysts with various supports such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, SiC, and ZrO<sub>2</sub> are used, but these conventional catalysts tend to deactivate due to coke formation and metal sintering. Nevertheless, the formation of coke can be significantly minimised by using precious metal-based catalysts or Ni-based materials doped with rare earths (e.g. Ru, Rh and Ni–Ce) [21,63].

Table 1 summarizes the commercial operating conditions and the main catalysts for steam reforming process for each fuel investigated.

## 2. Modelling and simulation methodology

### 2.1. Thermodynamic analysis

The Gibbs free energy minimisation technique was applied to obtain the equilibrium compositions for each gas species within each reacting system, using steam reforming of methane, biogas, propane, methanol, ethanol, and glycerol. The equilibrium gas composition of each reacting system can be calculated by minimizing the total Gibbs free energy using a non-stoichiometric approach, where it is not necessary to specify a set of reactions taking place in the system. The total Gibbs free energy of a system ( $G^t$ ) is composed by the sum of the total moles of each component ( $n_i$ ) in the system multiplied by the component chemical potential ( $\mu_i$ ):

$$G^t = \sum_{i=1}^N n_i \mu_i \quad (2.1)$$

Under equilibrium conditions, the total Gibbs energy of the system decreases until it reaches a minimum, where its differential is zero. Consequently, the equilibrium state of any reaction system can be obtained using the Gibbs free energy minimisation function [65–69]. The equilibrium calculations were performed with AspenPlus® using Gibbs energy minimisation with the RGIBBS reactor model [19]. In RGIBBS, phase equilibrium and chemical equilibrium were chosen as calculation options. The property method chosen for the model, Peng–Robinson, is commonly used for thermodynamic analysis of polar and non-polar mixtures and for hydrocarbons and light gases [70]. As shown in Fig. 1, the fuel and water streams were mixed in a mixer unit (M) upstream of the reactor and fed into a heat exchanger (HE) to bring the

reactant mixture to reactor (R) operating conditions.

The procedure for minimizing the Gibbs free energy takes into account all possible reactions within the thermodynamic reaction system in which the species in equilibrium must be defined. The equilibrium system consists of the following gas species CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O and C for each fuel. In addition, other species have been added to the equilibrium system based on reaction pathways found in the literature, which are summarised in Table 2.

For each fuel, the effect of temperature, pressure and water-to-fuel ratio was investigated. Particularly, the temperature was varied between 25 °C and 1000 °C, the pressure in the range of 1–40 bar, and the water-to-fuel ratio (denoted as  $n$ ) in the range of 1–10. In particular, the water-to-fuel ratio has been set as of 1, the stoichiometric value ( $n_{\text{stoic}}$ ) for the total steam reforming (reported in Table 3) and 10. In the case of biogas, the CH<sub>4</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> fed ratio was kept unchanged and equal to 3/1, while  $n$  (H<sub>2</sub>O/CH<sub>4</sub>) was varied in the range 1–10.

### 2.2. Hydrogen yield, fuel conversion and selectivity

The defined criteria for evaluate the steam reforming system effectiveness include the equilibrium conversions of the various fuel,  $X_{\text{eq}}$ , the hydrogen yield,  $Y_{\text{H}_2}$ , and the selectivity to product,  $S_i$ , were defined as follows:

$$X_{\text{eq}} = \frac{F_{\text{fuel,in}} - F_{\text{fuel,out}}}{F_{\text{fuel,in}}} \cdot 100 \quad (2.2)$$

$$Y_{\text{H}_2} = \frac{F_{\text{H}_2,\text{out}}}{\nu_{\text{H}_2} \cdot F_{\text{fuel,in}}} \cdot 100 \quad (2.3)$$

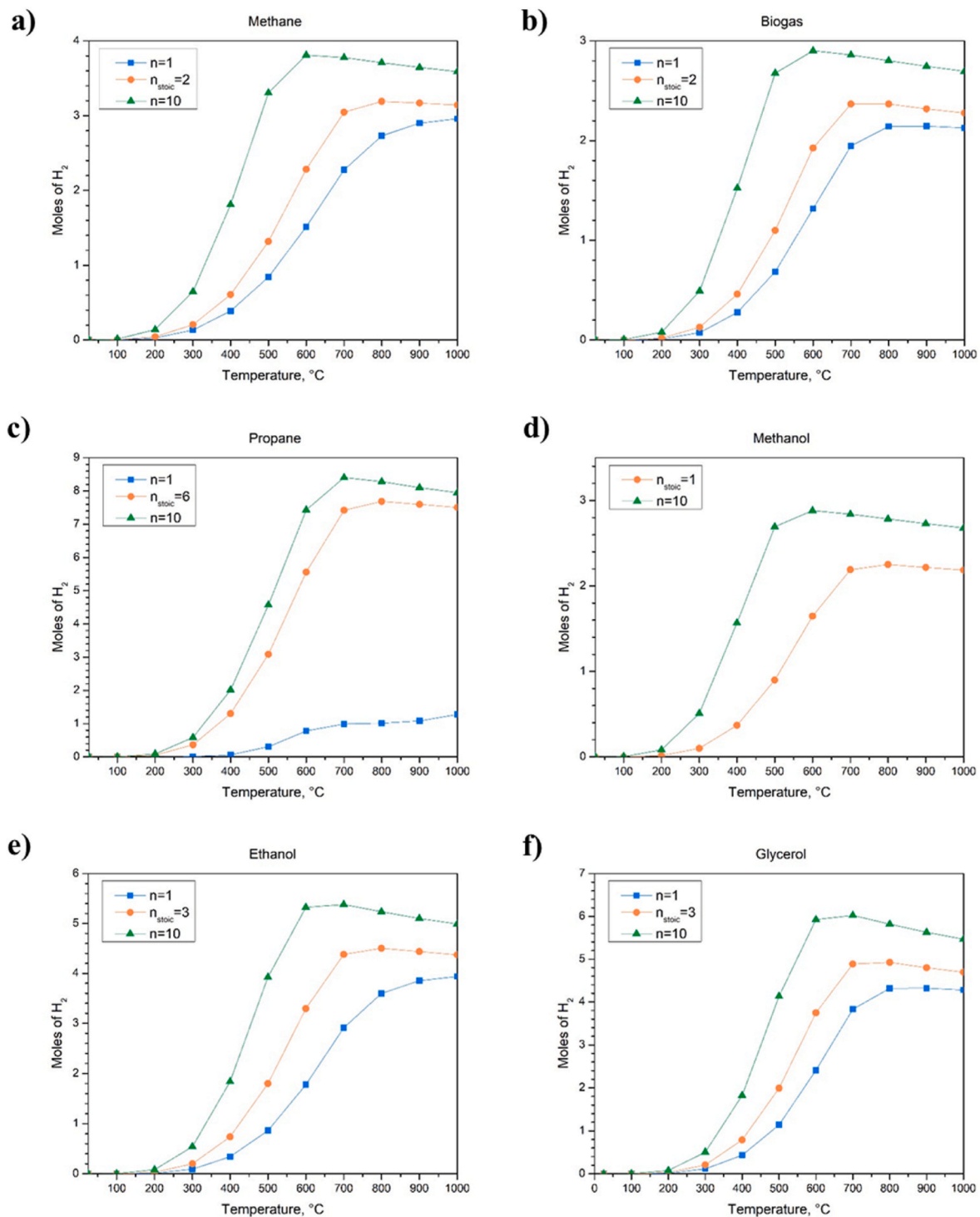
$$S_i = \frac{F_{i,\text{out}}}{\sum_j F_{j,\text{out}}} \cdot 100 \quad (2.4)$$

Where  $F_{\text{fuel,in}}$  and  $F_{\text{fuel,out}}$  are the inlet and outlet molar flow rates, respectively,  $F_{\text{H}_2,\text{out}}$  is outlet hydrogen molar flow rate and,  $F_{j,\text{out}}$  are the molar flow rates of the product leaving the reactor excluding unconverted fuel and steam.  $\nu_{\text{H}_2}$  is the stoichiometric coefficient of hydrogen in the overall steam reforming reaction of the fuel (Table 3).

In addition, a comparison of the hydrogen yields of the different fuels was made at equal water-to-C ratio (Equation (2.5)). In particular, the water-to-C ratio was set to 3, the typical water-to-methane ratio in commercial SRMs. As demonstrated in Eq. (2.6), for each fuel ( $C_xH_yO_z$ ) the hydrogen yield was calculated for a water-to-fuel ratio of  $x \cdot 3$ , so that a comparison of the yield for the same water-to-C atom ratio could be made. The results are reported in Section 3.2.

$$\frac{\text{H}_2\text{O}}{\text{C}} = 3 \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{\text{H}_2\text{O}}{x \cdot C_xH_yO_z} = 3 \quad (2.6)$$



**Fig. 3.** Moles of hydrogen as a function of temperature at different water-to-fuel ( $n$ ) ratio at  $P = 1$  bar for steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol, and f) glycerol.

### 2.3. Energy demand and $CO_2$ footprint

The heat duty required at reactor,  $Q_R$ , and at heat exchanger,  $Q_{HE}$ , was estimated by varying the reactor operating temperature,  $T_R$  and setting the pressure,  $P$ , and inlet temperature,  $T_{IN}$ , based on literature (Table 1). The fixed value of  $P$  and  $T_{IN}$  and the range of  $T_R$  are reported in Table 4.

Through the energy balance at the reactor,  $CO_2$  emissions per moles of hydrogen produced ( $m_{CO_2}/n_{H_2}$ ) associated to the combustion flue

gases was calculated, assuming that the auxiliary stream were consisted of methane and air in stoichiometric conditions. In Sections 3.2 and 3.3, the results of the heat analysis are presented.

## 3. Results and discussions

### 3.1. Equilibrium product composition, hydrogen yield and selectivity

The simulation analysed the varying pressures, temperatures, and

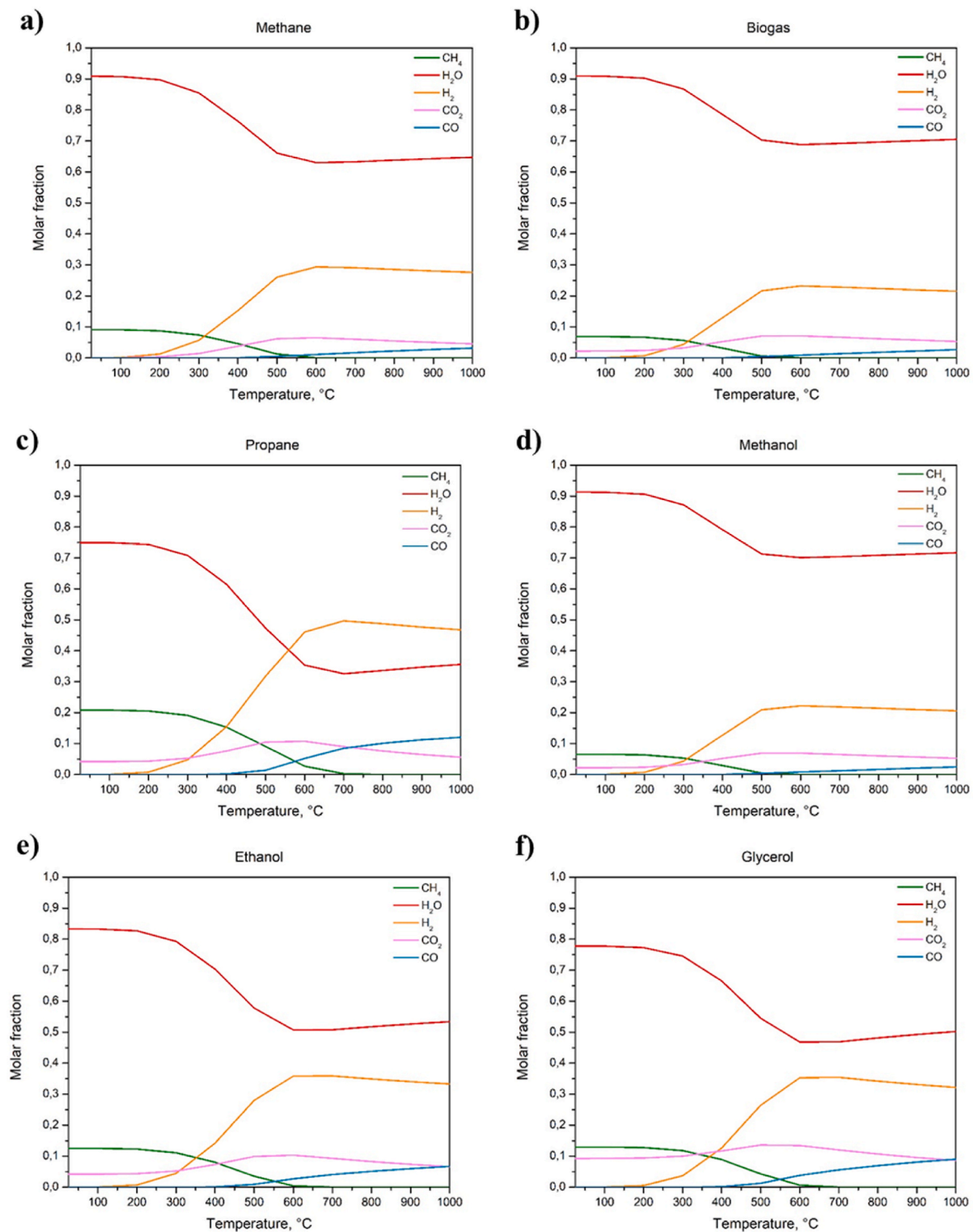
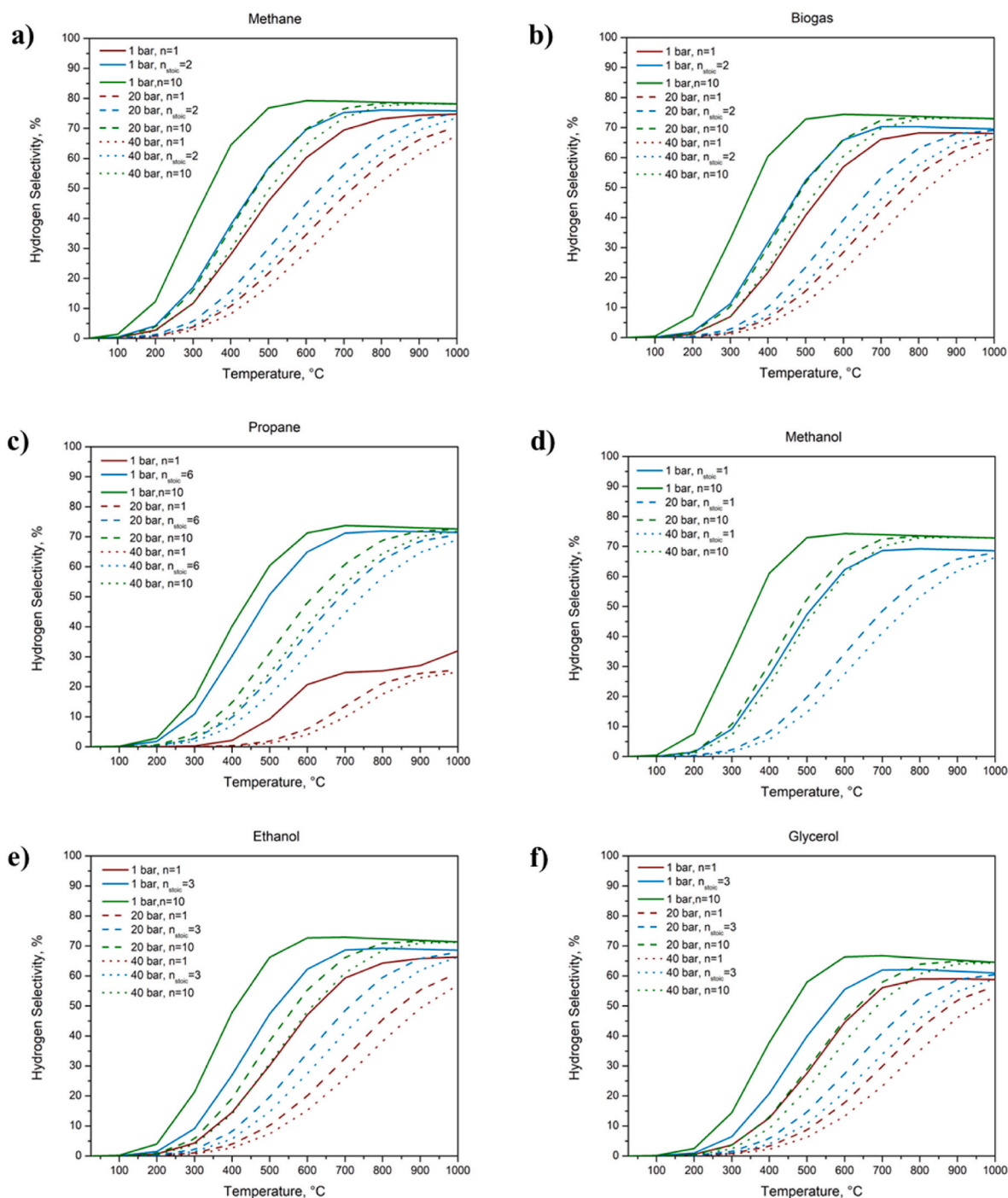


Fig. 4. Molar fraction vs temperature at  $P = 1$  bar and water-to-fuel ratio ( $n$ ) equal to for steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol and f) glycerol.

water-to-fuel ratios to determine the equilibrium composition of hydrogen and other resulting products. The thermodynamic analysis considered all possible reactions in the system consisting of the gases listed in Table 2. However, it was found that only  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were present in the system under the selected operating conditions. From the perspective of thermodynamics, methane is the most stable hydrocarbon for the Francis diagram [65], so the main reaction is the SRM. In addition, the conversion of all the investigated fuels in the

temperature, pressure, and water-to-fuel ratio ranges investigated was always above 99.99 %, so that complete conversion can be assumed.

Fig. 2 illustrates the relationship between hydrogen yield,  $Y_{\text{H}_2}$ , and temperature, parametric in the pressure and in the water-fuel ratio. The hydrogen yield declines as the pressure rises, but it increases as the temperature rises, holding the water-fuel ratio constant (as denoted by the same line colour in Fig. 2). This outcome is expected because the steam reforming reaction proceeds with increasing number of moles and

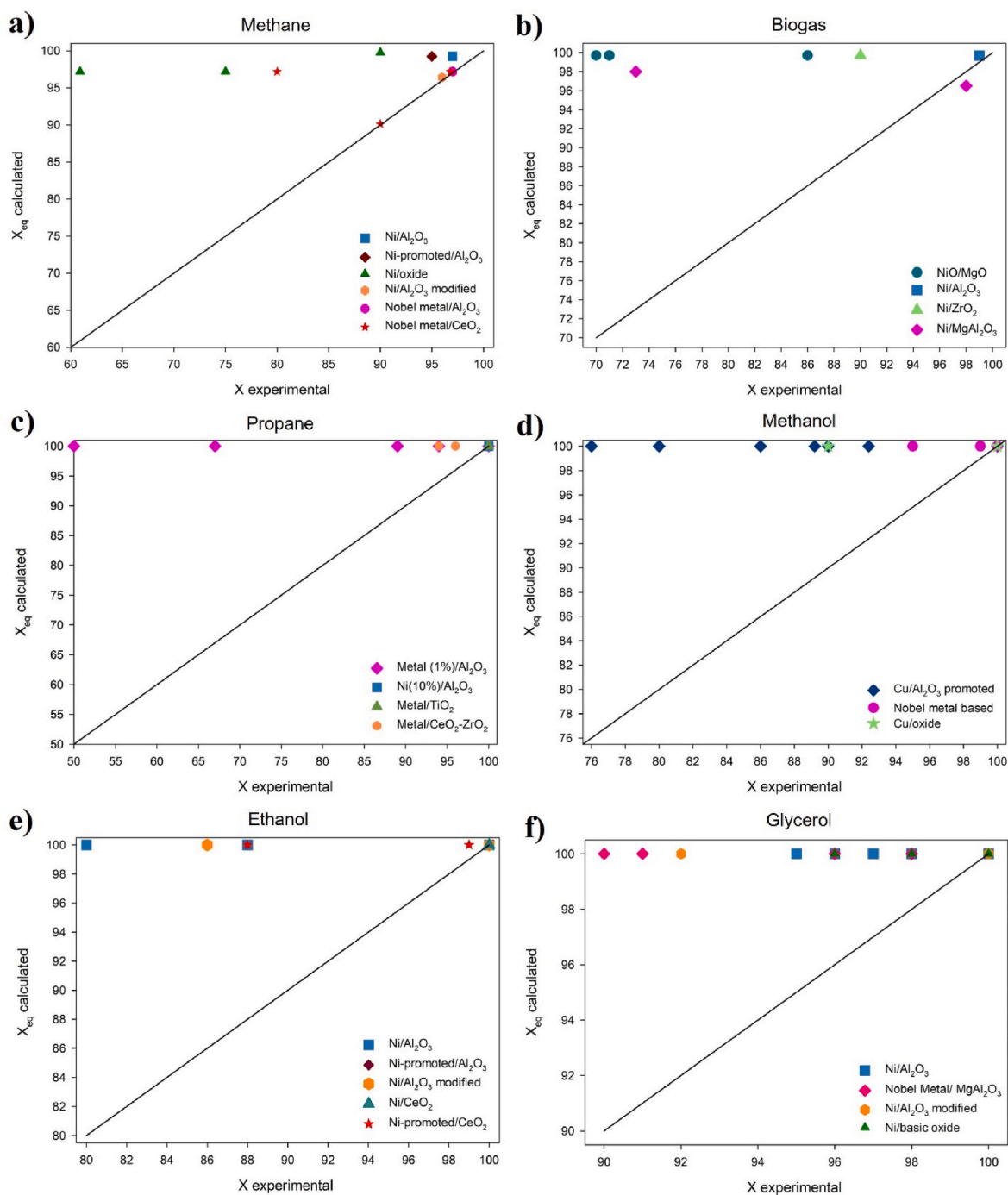


**Fig. 5.** Selectivity to Hydrogen as a function of temperature parametric in the pressure (1 bar solid, 20 bar dashed, 40 bar dotted lines) and in the water-to-fuel feed ratio ( $n = 1$  red,  $n = n_{\text{stoic}}$  blue and  $n = 10$  green lines) for steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol and f) glycerol. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

is an endothermic reaction that is favoured at temperature higher than  $T_{\Delta G^{\circ}=0}$ . If the water-to-fuel ratio is increased at the same pressure (same lines type in Fig. 2), the fuel is completely consumed, as it is the limiting reactant, and the yield increases. Thus, an excess of water promotes thermodynamic equilibrium, increases the total number of moles produced and promotes gasification. With  $n > 10$ , on the other hand, the reactor would have to be considerably enlarged, resulting in greater heat per mole of reacting mixture.

This confirms that at low pressure and high water-to-fuel ratio, the maximum yield given in Table 5 is achieved at lower temperatures and under thermodynamically favourable conditions. For example, Table 5

shows that at fixed pressure of 1 bar, for methane the maximum hydrogen yield occurs at 1000 °C for  $n = 1$ , whereas for  $n = 10$  at 600 °C. This behaviour is visible for all the other fuels, in particular the maximum hydrogen yield goes from 900 °C to 600 °C for biogas, from 1000 °C to 700 °C for propane, from 800 °C to 600 °C for methanol, from 1000 °C to 700 °C for ethanol, and from 900 °C to 700 °C for glycerol increasing  $n$  from 1 to 10 at 1 bar. The same trend is visible by setting  $n$  and decreasing pressure. For example, the temperature at which the maximum hydrogen yield is achieved is reduced from 900 °C to 600 °C for methane, biogas, and methanol, and from 1000 °C to 700 °C for propane, ethanol, and glycerol, by reducing the pressure from 40 to 1



**Fig. 6.** Parity plot for equilibrium and experimental (Table S2) conversion for steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol and f) glycerol.

bar for  $n = 10$ .

The graph depicted in Fig. 2 demonstrates a non-linear pattern in the relationship between temperature and hydrogen yield. Initially, the yield increases until it reaches a maximum value, after which it declines. This trend is particularly observable at high water-to-fuel ratios and low pressure, i.e. at the most thermodynamically favourable conditions. However, it also present for the stoichiometric condition. This behaviour can be easily understood by looking at the moles of hydrogen produced at equilibrium conditions as well as the equilibrium gas composition.

In Fig. 3, the molar amount of hydrogen produced at 1 bar is shown, parametric in  $n$ . As expected, a reduction of hydrogen yield is observed as a result of the reduction of produced hydrogen at high temperature

and at the highest water-to-fuel ratio ( $n = 10$ , green line). Fig. 4 shows the molar fractions of the product stream at  $P = 1$  bar and  $n = 10$  as an example of the equilibrium composition. The other data relative to the equilibrium composition at pressure of 1, 20 and 40 bar and at water-to-fuel ratio of 1, the stoichiometric value for the total steam reforming  $n_{stoic}$  (Table 3), and 10 are given in Table S1 for methane, biogas, propane, methanol, ethanol, and glycerol, respectively.

Fig. 4 shows that at high temperature the molar fractions of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$  decrease, while those of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CO}$  increase, indicating the occurrence of the rWGS reaction, according to Refs. [19,38,49,67,72]. rWGS is an endothermic reaction unaffected by pressure variations. It takes place at high temperatures and is favoured by a high water-to-fuel

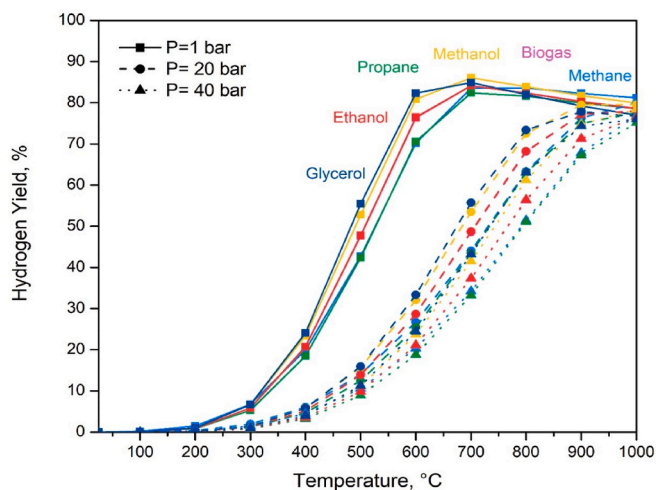


Fig. 7. Hydrogen yield vs temperature parametric in pressure (solid, dashed, dotted lines) for water-to-C ratio equals to 3.

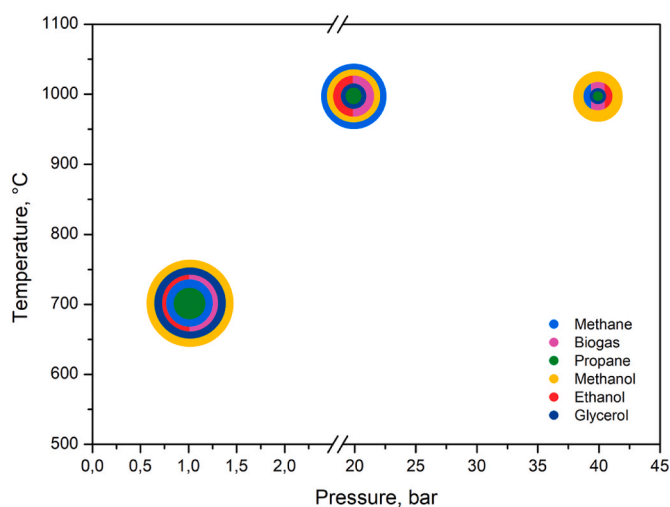


Fig. 8. Diagram of maximum hydrogen yield achieved by methane, biogas, propane, methanol, ethanol, and glycerol at 700 °C and 1 bar, 1000 °C and 20 bar, 1000 °C and 40 bar for fixed water-to-C ratio equals to 3.

ratio, since the  $H_2/CO_2$  ratio is greater. Steam reforming processes aim to produce syngas; however, methane is a common product that competes with  $H_2$ . According to data presented in Table S1, exhibits stability at lower temperatures, but its concentration sharply decreases as temperature rises. The molar fraction of methane decreases with increasing temperature and water-to-fuel ratio, while higher pressure favours the formation of  $CH_4$ . This trend is due to the SRM reaction, which produces CO or  $CO_2$  and  $H_2$ , as given in equations (1.1) and (1.3). At high water-to-fuel ratios ( $n = 10$ ) and high temperatures ( $>700$  °C), methane is consumed by these reactions, while at lower temperatures methane formation is due to the methanation reaction (1.24) and (1.25). CO and  $CO_2$ , classified as impurities, do not compete with  $H_2$ . The molar fraction of CO increases with temperature but decreases with higher values of  $n$  and pressure.  $CO_2$  shows a maximum at a fuel-specific temperature. This behaviour can be attributed to rWGS.

The selectivity to  $H_2$  is shown in Fig. 5. As mentioned above, steam reforming reactions are generally favoured at high temperature, low pressures, and a high water-to-fuel ratio. In fact, selectivity increases with temperature for any value of pressure and  $n$ . As  $n$  increases (curves at the same pressure with the same shape) and pressure decreases

(curves at fixed  $n$  with the same colour), selectivity increases. The selectivity to  $H_2$  and CO (Figure S2) increases at higher temperature, while the selectivity to  $CO_2$  (Figure S1) decreases. At high temperatures ( $>600$  °C), rWGS is favoured, leading to an increase in selectivity to CO and a decrease in selectivity to  $CO_2$ . SR is favoured at high temperature and, consequently, the  $CH_4$  selectivity in the product stream is lower (Figure S3), reaching a zero value for all fuels except propane (Figure S3c) for  $n = 1$ . In these conditions, for  $n$  much lower than the stoichiometric fuel ratio ( $n_{stoic} = 6$ ), complete methane conversion cannot be achieved.

Parity plots of equilibrium vs experimental conversion are shown in Fig. 6. The experimental data from the literature are reported in Table S2 [[20,61,64,73–118]. As previously stated, all fuels demonstrate a unitary equilibrium conversion, except for methane and biogas. The majority of the analysed catalysts achieve a conversion close to the equilibrium, as indicated by the overlap on the bisector in Fig. 6. Notably, the superposition of experimental and equilibrium values occurs in presence of Ni/ $Al_2O_3$ , modified or promoted, and Rh, Ru, Pt supported by  $Al_2O_3$  for methane [73,78–81], for biogas [82,87], propane [58,61] and ethanol [98,101,102,106,118], Cu/ $CeO_2$  and Cu/ $ZnO-Al_2O_3$  for methanol [89,92] and the Ni-based catalysts for glycerol [116].

### 3.2. Comparison of hydrogen yields for different fuels

A comparison of the different fuels studied is shown in Table 5. Methane, biogas and methanol reach their maximum hydrogen yield at a temperature of about 600 °C, while propane, ethanol and glycerol at 700 °C. It suggests that higher temperatures are required for fuels with a higher number of C atoms. Under the maximum yield conditions, methanol achieves a hydrogen yield of 96.10 %, followed by biogas and methane with a yield of about 95.00 %, and then ethanol, glycerol, and propane with 89.66 %, 86.55 % and 84.03 %, respectively.

Taking into account the different number of carbon atoms in the fuels studied, Fig. 7 shows the hydrogen yield at a water-to-C ratio of 3, i.e. at the industrial operating conditions of the SRM. According to Section 2.2, the normalised feed ratio is 3 for methane, biogas, and methanol, 9 for propane and glycerol, and 6 for ethanol. Table S3 presents the hydrogen yield at varying pressure and temperature within the investigated ranges for a fixed water-to-C ratio.

As shown in Fig. 7, all fuels reach their maximum hydrogen yield at a pressure of 1 bar (solid line) at a temperature of 700 °C, which is about 86 % for methanol, 85 % for glycerol, 84 % for methane, biogas and ethanol, and 83 % for propane. In these conditions, the ranking of the fuels formulated in terms of hydrogen yields is as follows:

Methanol > Glycerol > Biogas ~ Ethanol > Methane > Propane (@ 700 °C and 1 bar)

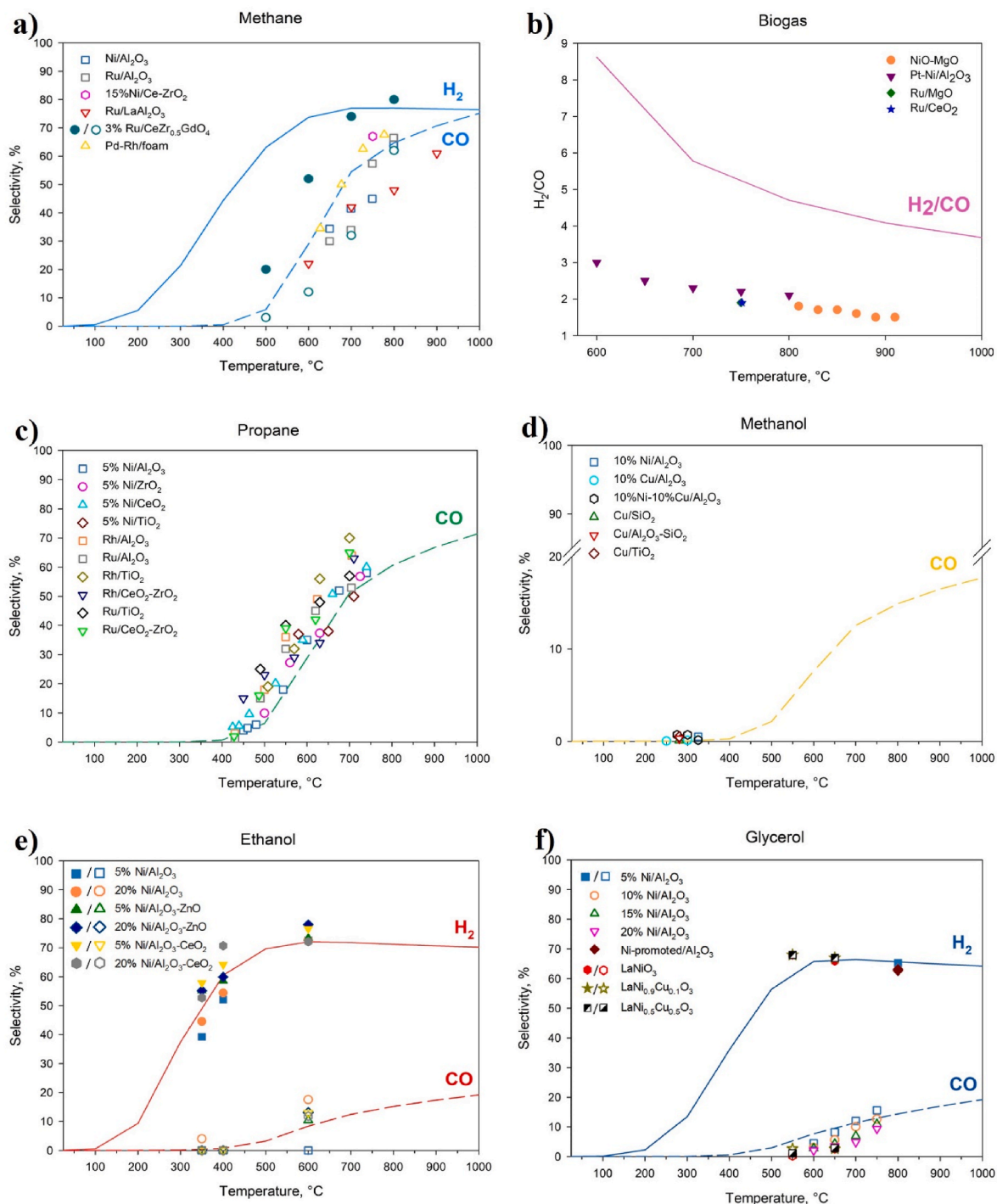
At maximum temperature analysed (1000 °C), the ranking is completely different. Glycerol (blue solid curve) is the fuel most affected by the increase in temperature, in fact it shows the greatest decrease in yield. In these conditions, the ranking of the fuels formulated in terms of hydrogen yields is as follows:

Methane > Methanol > Biogas ~ Ethanol ~ Propane > Glycerol (@ 1000 °C and 1 bar)

With increasing pressure, the maximum hydrogen yield is reached at a temperature of 1000 °C for both 20 and 40 bar, except for glycerol, which reaches its maximum yield at 900 °C for 20 bar. At 20 bar (dashed line), almost all fuels achieve a hydrogen yield in the range of 76–80 %, according to the hierarchy given below:

Methane > Methanol > Biogas ~ Ethanol > Glycerol ~ Propane (@ 20 bar and 1000 °C)

At a pressure of 40 bar (dotted line), the yield achieved in the following order is in the range of 75–78 %, which is lower than at lower pressures, being thermodynamically unfavourable conditions. In this conditions, the ranking of the fuels formulated in terms of hydrogen yields is as follows:



**Fig. 9.** Comparison between equilibrium results (lines) and experimental data (symbols) for the selectivity to hydrogen and CO as temperature function (water-to-C = 3, P = 1 bar) for steam reforming of: a) methane, b) biogas, c) propane, d) methanol, e) ethanol and f) glycerol.

Methanol > Methane ~ Biogas ~ Ethanol > Glycerol > Propane (@ 40 bar and 1000 °C)

As the pressure increases, its effect pressure is less marked.

The maximum hydrogen yields obtained under the temperature and pressure conditions studied, setting the water-to-C ratio at 3, are shown in Fig. 8. In particular, the bubble sizes are parametric in the yield as to observe the fuel hierarchy for given operating conditions.

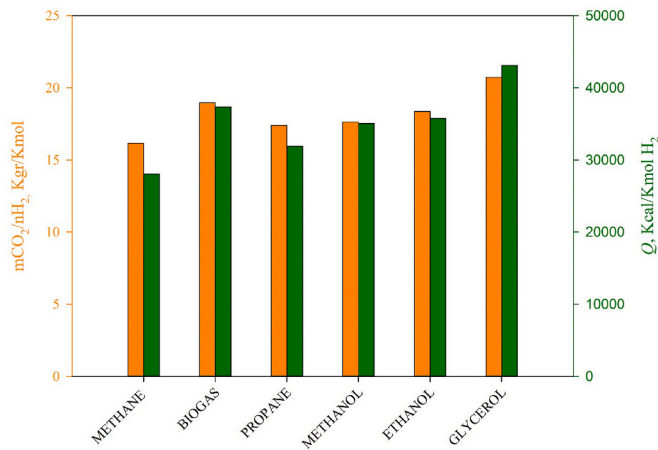
Fig. 9 illustrates the selectivity to hydrogen and/or to carbon monoxide when the water-to-C ratio is fixed at 3, as compared to experimental data in the presence of various catalysts proposed in the literature (Table S4) [61,77,84,113,118–129]. In particular, for each

fuel the selectivity is plotted against temperature at fixed pressure of 1 bar and with water-to-fuel ratio  $n$  of 3 for methane (Fig. 9a), 3 for biogas (Fig. 9b), for propane (Fig. 9c), 3 for methanol (Fig. 9d), 6 for ethanol (Fig. 9e), and 9 for glycerol (Fig. 9f). The provided experimental data from literature can be found in Table S4 of the Supplementary Materials including catalyst, operating conditions, temperature, and selectivity. In Fig. 9, filled symbols correspond to selectivity to  $H_2$ , while blanks represent selectivity to CO. Furthermore, due to the limited availability of  $S_{H_2}$  and  $S_{CO}$  data, the  $H_2/CO$  molar ratio for biogas was provided. Notably, for methane and propane (Fig. 9a,c), the definition of selectivity is as follows [61]:

**Table 6**

Heat duty required at reactor,  $Q_R$ , and at heat exchanger,  $Q_{HE}$  (and their sum  $Q$ ),  $CO_2$  mass flow produced during reactions,  $m_{CO_2,R}$ , and  $CO_2$  emitted with the flue gases,  $m_{CO_2,flue\ gases}$  (and their sum  $m_{CO_2}$ ), at process operating conditions at which the maximum hydrogen yield is achieved for fixed water-to-C ratio ( $P = 1$  bar, water-to-C = 3,  $T_R = 700$  °C).

Fuel	n	$T_{IN}$ , °C	$Q_R$ , Kcal/h	$Q_{HE}$ , Kcal/h	$Q$ , Kcal/h	$m_{CO_2,R}$ , Kg/h	$m_{CO_2,flue\ gases}$ , Kg/h	$m_{CO_2}$ , Kg/h	$n_{H_2}$ , Kmol/h
Methane	3	250	67411.99	40652.86	108064.85	18.77	28.14	46.91	3.34
Biogas	3	250	56093.24	40657.90	96751.14	24.18	23.41	47.59	2.55
Propane	9	250	166283.80	120414.91	286698.71	62.07	69.41	131.48	8.24
Methanol	3	120	45222.51	45849.42	91071.93	26.39	18.88	45.27	2.58
Ethanol	6	150	99800.17	85753.88	185554.04	48.69	41.66	90.34	5.05
Glycerol	9	300	99133.19	147183.76	246316.95	86.74	41.38	128.11	5.94



**Fig. 10.** Global duty demand,  $Q$ , and  $m_{CO_2}/n_{H_2}$  for at maximum hydrogen yield operating conditions (700 °C, 1 bar) for water-to-C ratio equals to 3.

$$S_{CO} = \frac{F_{CO}}{F_{CO} + F_{CO_2} + F_{CH_4}} \cdot 100 \quad (3.1)$$

As can be seen from Fig. 9, the thermodynamic study leads to results which are achieved by most of the catalysts analysed. This overlap validates the thermodynamic study as a good starting point for the

**Table 7**

Summary of the normal operating conditions in terms of pressure, water-to-fuel ratio and inlet temperature  $T_{IN}$ , heat duty required at reactor,  $Q_R$ , and at heat exchanger,  $Q_{HE}$ ,  $CO_2$  mass flow produced during reactions,  $m_{CO_2,R}$ ,  $CO_2$  emitted with the flue gases,  $m_{CO_2,flue\ gases}$ , produced moles of hydrogen  $n_{H_2}$  and amount of carbon dioxide globally emitted per mole of hydrogen produced  $m_{CO_2}/n_{H_2}$ .

Fuel	P, bar	n	$T_{IN}$ , °C	$T_R$ , °C	$Q_{HE}$ , Kcal/h	$Q_R$ , Kcal/h	$m_{CO_2,R}$ , Kg/h	$m_{CO_2,flue\ gases}$ , Kg/h	$n_{H_2}$ , Kmol/h	$m_{CO_2}/n_{H_2}$ , Kg/Kmol
Methane	20	3	250	600	40069.6	27460.3	10.50	11.46	1.069	20.52
				800		60901.4	14.66	24.42	2.53	15.83
				1000		85457.2	10.92	35.66	3.19	14.57
				1200		97451.3	8.29	40.67	3.18	15.37
Biogas	7	2.5	250	600	34101.4	42277.1	24.85	17.64	2.14	19.85
				800		60120.0	18.20	25.04	2.43	17.76
				1000		69949.7	13.44	29.195	2.33	18.27
				1200		79641.6	10.54	33.24	2.26	19.30
Propane	20	3	250	600	42743.51	26085.29	27.94	10.89	0.98	39.56
				800		82977.27	18.42	34.63	3.05	17.39
				1000		150825.84	4.80	62.95	5.53	12.25
				1200		187208.02	1.02	78.14	6.56	12.07
Methanol	1	3	120	300	45849.4	<0	13.18	-	0.199	-
				400		1779.01	18.47	11.46	0.701	42.67
				500		17343.11	26.23	31.91	1.58	36.72
				600		35368.21	29.46	35.66	2.42	26.85
Ethanol	1	3	150	400	49350.0	2148.68	29.62	0.897	0.738	41.34
				600		54260.66	37.60	22.65	3.29	18.29
				800		97474.31	23.22	40.68	4.50	14.19
				900		105302.95	19.25	43.95	4.43	14.25
Glycerol	1	7	300	500	120712.1	22378.4	84.83	9.34	3.33	28.22
				700		92909.6	78.54	38.78	5.73	20.46
				900		122740.6	60.06	51.23	5.36	20.74
				1000		137020.4	53.35	57.19	5.21	21.20

design of reactor configurations, development of catalysts, economic analysis, etc. Nobel metal-based catalysts, such as Ru/ $Al_2O_3$  and Pd-Rh/foam [121], lead to about equilibrium CO selectivity for methane steam reforming (Fig. 9a), while only few data are available in literature for biogas in the feed ratio analysed  $CH_4/CO_2/H_2O = 1/0.33/3$ , so different feed ratios are shown in Fig. 9b as an example [84,122,123]. In the case of propane (Fig. 9c), all catalysts (Ni- or Nobel metal-based, supported by  $Al_2O_3$ ,  $CeO_2$ ,  $TiO_2$  or mixtures) developed by Ramantani et al. [61] and Kokka et al. [124] achieve the maximum CO selectivity. The temperature range investigated in the literature for steam reforming methanol is around 200–300 °C. In this range, the CO selectivity is less than 2 % in good agreement with thermodynamics for different catalysts (Fig. 9d) [126,127]. The selectivity to hydrogen and to CO are close to that predicted by thermodynamics for ethanol steam reforming in the presence of Ni-based catalysts, with overlapping results from Ni/ $Al_2O_3$ -modified [118]. For temperatures above 600 °C, the selectivities calculated by thermodynamics are achieved using the 10 % Ni/ $Al_2O_3$  catalyst in the context of glycerol (Fig. 9d) [113].

### 3.3. Energy demand and $CO_2$ emission

Under the operating conditions resulting in maximum hydrogen yield in the analysed case of fixed water-to-C ratio ( $T_R = 700$  °C,  $P = 1$  bar), the following contributions were estimated: (i) the thermal power  $Q_R$  required by the reactor; (ii) thermal power required by the heat exchanger to pre-heat the streams to  $T_{IN}$ ,  $Q_{HE}$ ; (iii) the  $CO_2$  mass flow rate generated during the reactions  $m_{CO_2,R}$ , and (iv) the  $CO_2$  emitted with

the flue gases produced by an auxiliary stream of methane and stoichiometric air supplied to the burner,  $m_{CO_2, flue\ gases}$ . Results are reported in Table 6.

Propane has the highest total heat demand and leads to the largest total amount of  $CO_2$  produce, while methanol has the lowest. However, propane also leads to the highest hydrogen production under these conditions. Normalising these results to the amount of hydrogen produced under these conditions (Fig. 10) shows that the largest  $CO_2$  emissions per unit of hydrogen are due to biogas and glycerol. A successful trade-off between hydrogen produced, heat required, and  $CO_2$  emissions is given by methane and methanol.

The maximum hydrogen yield operating conditions ( $P = 1$  bar,  $water-to-C = 3$ ,  $T_R = 700$  °C) operationally do not correspond to the industrial operating conditions of the process, reported instead in Table 4. Therefore, Table 7 shows the heat and  $CO_2$  emissions under the operating conditions of the steam reforming process under typical industrial conditions. The heat required for the heat exchanger,  $Q_{HE}$ , is highly dependent on the inlet temperature,  $T_{IN}$ , and the total flow rate fed. Indeed,  $Q_{HE}$  in the case of glycerol is an order of magnitude higher than the other fuels because  $T_{IN} = 300$  °C must be reached in order to have glycerol into the gas phase and the total flow rate (8 kmol/h) is higher than the other fuels. In the case of methanol, at 300 °C, from a thermodynamic point of view the WGS reaction (exothermic) is favoured, so the total heat is negative. This implies that the catalyst should be highly selective so that the desired reaction (SR) could take place [42]. As the temperature and heat required to sustain the reaction increase, the  $CO_2$  emissions associated with the combustion of the auxiliary current in the burners increase. Both under normal operating conditions and under the conditions of maximum hydrogen yield (Table 5), glycerol leads to the highest carbon dioxide emissions, both in the reactor output and in the exhaust gases, which are, however, comparable to those of other fuels when normalised with respect to produced hydrogen.  $CO_2$  emissions per unit hydrogen show a non-monotonic trend (Table 7) with increasing temperature; after reaching the minimum value, the increase is related to rWGS.

#### 4. Conclusions

Today, hydrogen is mainly produced by steam reforming (SR) methane, but attempts are being made to integrate environmentally friendly fuels such as bio-alcohols, biogas, and LPG into the traditional steam reforming process. In this scenario, we propose a thermodynamic study of the steam reforming process of different fuels. The analysis was carried out using Gibbs free energy minimisation method, investigating the effect of operating conditions (temperature, pressure and water-to-fuel ratio) on the performance of SR, and the energy demand and  $CO_2$  emissions under typical operating conditions.

Fuel conversion is always complete, but the yield of hydrogen varies depending on operative conditions. The hydrogen yield decreases with pressure, while it shows a non-monotonic trend with temperature, due to the consumption of hydrogen by the rWGS reaction. At a fixed water-to-carbon ratio of 3, atmospheric pressure, and 700 °C, the fuels reach their maximum yields between 83 % and 86 %, with methanol showing the highest value. Increasing pressure leads to higher yields at higher temperature, with methane reaching its maximum at 20 bar and methanol at 40 bar, both at 1000 °C. The analysis also considered heat duty and  $CO_2$  emissions. Biogas and methanol have the highest heat demand and  $CO_2$  emissions per mole of hydrogen produced, while propane and glycerol have the lowest values, respectively.

Overall, the thermodynamic analysis allows a better understanding of different fuels performances in terms of hydrogen yield, energy demand, and  $CO_2$  emissions. This result can drive future research and decision-making in fuel conversion processes, enabling the identification of fuels with higher efficiency and lower environmental impact and represent a useful benchmark for experimental and industrial results.

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#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2023.11.215>.

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