1 2	Efficient plasma-catalysis coupling for CH <sub>4</sub> and CO <sub>2</sub> transformation in a fluidized bed reactor: comparison with a fixed bed reactor
3 4	Nassim Bouchoul, Houcine Touati, Elodie Fourré, Jean-Marc Clacens, Catherine Batiot- Dupeyrat*
5 6	IC2MP, ENSIP, Université de Poitiers - UMR CNRS 7285 1 rue Marcel Doré, TSA 41105, 86073 Poitiers cedex 9 (France)
7	*E-mail : catherine.batiot.dupeyrat@univ-poitiers.fr
8	
9	Abstract
10	The transformation of methane and carbon dioxide by coupling plasma and catalysis was
11	investigated using a fluidized bed reactor and the results, in terms of reactant conversion and
12	yields in products, were compared with those obtained in a fixed bed reactor. A series of
13	alumina, including a commercial sample and various meso-macro materials synthesized in the
14	laboratory, was tested in this study. Their surface areas varied from 260 to $312 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ depending
15	on their calcination temperature. A correlation between reactant conversion and surface area of

alumina was highlighted for the plasma-fluidized bed, the best conversions being reached with 16

the alumina presenting the highest surface area. CH<sub>4</sub> conversion increased from 8.5 to 12.1 % 17

for S=260 and 312 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> respectively and the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion from 3.4 to 6.2 % for a deposited 18 19 power of 4W, in an excess of CO<sub>2</sub>. This correlation was not corroborated for the fixed bed

20 reactor. It proves that an efficient coupling of plasma and catalysis can be expected as soon as

solid particle are moving in the gas flow, enhancing the plasma-surface interaction. 21

22

15

#### 23 **Keywords**

CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>, Non-thermal plasma, fluidized bed, plasma - catalyst interaction, alumina 24

#### 25 **1 Introduction**

26 The need to develop renewable energy sources in order to reduce greenhouse gas emission is a major contemporary concern, leading to a continuous increase of research activities. To this 27 end, methane and carbon dioxide, the two main constituent of biogas, are particularly studied 28 since the reaction between them (dry reforming) lead to the formation of syngas ( $H_2 + CO$ ), an 29 important raw material in liquid fuel processes such as Fischer-Tropsch synthesis and methanol 30 synthesis. However, the reaction presents two serious problems: it is very endothermic, 31 requiring temperatures above 700°C and the catalysts deactivate rapidly due to carbon 32 deposition [1]. Consequently, new methods of activation are still needed to perform the reaction 33 in conditions reaching today's economic and environmental constraints. 34

Non-thermal plasma (NTP) has been the subject of a large array of publications showing that 35 atmospheric pressure and low-temperature plasmas offer an interesting alternative to 36 37 conventional catalytic thermal processes in the dry reforming reaction [2-6]. Different types of NTP were investigated, the most common being microwave [7], gliding arc discharges [8, 9] 38 39 and Dielectric Barrier Discharges (DBDs) [10]. DBD reactors present the advantages of operating at atmospheric pressure with a simple design suitable for upscaling. The strong 40 electric field generated by the application of a high voltage (several kV) between two electrodes 41 42 (one of which being protected by a dielectric material) leads to the formation of highly energetic electrons. These electrons collide with surrounding gas molecules, creating reactive species 43 such as ions, excited species and radicals. 44

Many reactions occur under non-thermal plasma, leading to valuable products such as hydrocarbons [6] or oxygenates [11] but a poor selectivity towards the targeted products is often referenced. A way to promote the efficiency of the process is to combine plasma with catalysis [12]. However, some antagonist effects were reported. If the interaction between the gas discharge and the surface of the catalyst may lead, in some cases, to significant improvement

when compared to pure plasma system [13], in other cases, lower performances were described. 50 51 For example, the presence of a reduced Ni/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst [14] or a zeolite A [15] in the plasma discharge decreased CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversion. It was suggested that the insertion of a solid in 52 the plasma zone modifies significantly the propagation of the discharge. A shift of the discharge 53 mode from filamentary to a combination of surface discharges, in addition to spatially limited 54 micro-discharges at the contact point of the catalyst pellets were observed [16]. Moreover, the 55 presence of conductive Ni sites decreased the electric field strength and consequently the 56 electron density, reducing reactants conversion [17]. 57

Looking at the catalyst grain size effect, the highest reaction conversions were reached when using the smallest grain size, which was partly attributed to a maximum number of contact points [18, 19]. The main conclusion deriving from the studies combining non-thermal plasma and catalysis would suggest that the volume of gas in the plasma zone is too low to efficiently perform the reactants activation.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the combination of plasma and catalysis in a fluidized 63 bed, considering that the contact between the external surface of grains and plasma discharge 64 can be improved when compared to a fixed bed reactor. Fluidized bed plasmas have been used 65 for pre-treatment of catalysts, under reduced pressure [20] and at atmospheric pressure [21-23] 66 for catalyst surface modification. Wang et al. [24] reported the dry reforming of methane in an 67 atmospheric pressure plasma fluidized bed with Ni/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The authors investigated the reaction 68 at temperatures varying from 648 to 798 K and showed a clear positive effect of the plasma 69 fluidized bed compared to plasma packed bed. Currently, more insight on the understanding of 70 plasma - catalysis interactions in a fluidized bed is needed and particularly on the influence of 71 the materials textural properties on CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> reactivities. For that purpose, the study of a 72 series of alumina materials possessing surface areas from 65 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> to 312 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> was achieved 73 in this work. Alumina was chosen due to its low dielectric constant (9-30), favorable to plasma 74

-catalysis coupling [25]. Indeed, we show in a previous paper that CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversions
can be correlated with the dielectric constant of the material, the lower the dielectric constant,
the higher the conversions for both CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> [26].

The goals defined here are to determine the influence of 1- the type of reactor (fixed bed versus
fluidized bed) and 2- the textural and structural properties of alumina on the CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>
reactivities.

- 81
- 82 **2** Experimental part
- 83

# 84 2.1 Experimental setup

The reaction was performed at room temperature and atmospheric pressure under a mixture of helium, methane and carbon dioxide at a total flow rate of 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup> using a  $CO_2/CH_4$  ratio of 2, with a constant concentration in He: 75%. All the experiments were performed twice with a good accuracy of the measurements within an error of 5%.

## 89 The two plasma reactors are described below:

- 90 1) Fixed bed plasma: a coaxial dielectric barrier discharges (DBD) reactor (figure 1a). The
  91 non-thermal plasma reactor (dielectric barrier discharge) consists in an alumina tube
  92 (ID: 4mm; ED: 6mm), a stainless steel electrode centered inside the reactor (1.0mm)
  93 and a copper electrode wrapped around the alumina tube (10 cm long). It corresponds
  94 to a volume of plasma equal to 1.2 cm<sup>3</sup>.
- 2) Fluidized bed reactor (figure 1b): A fritted glass (2 mm) was inserted in a quartz tube to
  support the sieved catalyst and favor the fluidization of the catalyst. The reactor
  possesses an inner diameter of 9 mm and the inner electrode was 3.8 mm in diameter.
  The external electrode length was chosen in order to obtain the same plasma volume
  (1.2 cm<sup>3</sup>) as for the fixed bed reactor, so the length of the outer electrode was 2.2 cm.

100 The gas flow, sent from the bottom, was fixed at 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The catalyst grains 101 remained static on the fritted glass (figure 1b: without plasma). A point to be highlighted 102 is that, the minimum gas flow to reach fluidization is 300mL/min, corresponding to an 103 experimental minimum fluidization velocity of 0.23m.s<sup>-1</sup>. The theoretical minimum 104 fluidization velocity was also calculated by the Ergun's equation [27] and the simplified 105 formula for Reynolds number proposed by Wen and Yu [28]. A value of Um = 0.29 106 m.s<sup>-1</sup> was obtained, not too far from the experimental value.

107 As soon as the plasma discharge is generated into the reactor, at a low flow of 40 mL.min<sup>-1</sup>, it is remarkable to observe that fluidization occurs, which can be explained 108 by the presence of electrostatic charges under plasma. The particles move into the 109 reactor with up/down and left/ right movements. (figure 1b: with plasma). Similar 110 observation was reported by Currier et al. using a radio-frequency generator at low 111 112 pressure (100-500 mTorr) [29]. The authors showed a much higher particle density (SiO<sub>2</sub>) in the plasma fluidized bed compared to the experiment without plasma at the 113 same gas-flow rate. They explained that it could result from the interaction of the highly 114 charged particles and the electric and magnetic fields and also to a significant change in 115 the physical properties of the fluidizing agent. 116

A sinusoidal supply of power was applied across the electrodes (TG1010A Aim-TTi, Thurlby Thandar Instruments Brand). The discharge power, calculated from the Lissajous figures, was fixed at 4 W, keeping the frequency constant at 800 Hz while the voltage was adjusted to keep the deposited power constant. The electrical signals were monitored with high voltage probes (PMK, model PHV4-2757) connected to an oscilloscope (waveRunner 62 Xi, Lecroy). A low power was chosen in order to avoid a thermal effect, which could be caused by joule effect. In that case, the reaction in the reactor remained close to room temperature.

124

#### 125 **2.2 Gamma alumina**

126 A commercial  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> provided by Alfa Aesar was tested. The mesoporous alumina was prepared according to the following procedure, inspired by Z-Y. Yuan et al. [30]: 20.5 g of 127 cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTMABr) (purity > 96 %, Sigma-Aldrich) were dissolved 128 in 93.93 g of deionized water. The suspension was stirred at 40 °C for about 1 h, before the 129 addition, under stirring, of 24.12 g of aluminium isopropoxide (Sigma-Aldrich). The resulting 130 sol was further matured under stirring for 3 h. It was then autoclaved under static conditions in 131 a polypropylene bottle at 80°C for 24h. The bottle was cooled to room temperature and the 132 suspension was filtered. The obtained paste was washed 3 times with 200 mL of water. The 133 134 washed paste was dried at 100 °C overnight. The solids were calcined at three different temperatures: 400, 600 and 800 °C in order to vary the surface area as shown in table 1. 135

The solids were characterized before and after plasma treatments. Surface areas were measured according to the BET procedure. The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms were determined with a Micromeritics Flowsorb II 2300 appartus at -196°C. Thermogravimetric analysis were performed with a TA Intruments SDT-Q600 analyzer under a 100 mL/min flow of air up to 900°C.

141

# 142 2.3 Gas phase analysis and calculation

143 The gas phase was analyzed on-line by gas chromatography equipped with FID (oxygenated 144 products) and TCD detectors (hydrogen, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, methane). The 145 reaction was performed during one hour.

146 All the experiments were performed three times after cleaning the inner electrode and changing

147 the catalyst (when used), a margin error of  $\pm 3$  % was calculated.

148 The conversion, selectivity, yields and energy efficiency were defined as:

149 Conversion (%) of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> =  $100 \times$  mole of CH<sub>4</sub> (or CO<sub>2</sub>) converted/ mole of CH<sub>4</sub> (or

150 
$$CO_2$$
) in the feed (1)

- 151 The selectivity was calculated based on carbon atoms:
- 152 Selectivity to  $C_nH_y$  (%) = 100 × n × mole of  $C_nH_y$  / (mole of CH<sub>4</sub> converted + mole of CO<sub>2</sub>
- 153 converted) (2)
- 154 Selectivity to CO (%) =  $100 \times \text{mole of CO} / (\text{mole of CH}_4 + \text{mole of CO}_2)$  converted
- 155 Yield in H<sub>2</sub> (%) =  $100 \times \text{mole of H}_2 / 2 \text{ x}$  (mole of CH<sub>4</sub>) introduced (3)
- 156 Carbon Balance: CB (%) =  $100 \times (\text{mole of CO} + \sum n \times \text{mole of } C_nH_y) / (\text{mole of CH}_4)$
- 157 converted + mole of  $CO_2$  converted)
- 158 Energy Efficiency: EE (mmol  $kJ^{-1}$ ) = total mol of CH<sub>4</sub> + CO<sub>2</sub> converted (mmol min<sup>-1</sup>) / input

160

#### 161 **3 Results and discussion**

# 162 **3.1 Influence of the geometry of the reactor on the plasma discharge**

163 The geometry of the two reactors (fixed and fluidized bed) differs strongly since a larger gap is 164 required to obtain a fluidized bed and a quartz tube was used as dielectric material to visualize 165 the catalyst in motion. The first experiments were performed in presence of quartz wool in the 166 plasma zone, without catalyst. A constant flow rate of 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup> was kept through all the 167 experimentations with the same gas composition: He/CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>: 75/17/8%. The deposited 168 power was fixed at 4W.

The influence of the reactor geometry on the reactant conversion is a known effect, described by different authors. It is admitted in the literature that, at constant input power, the larger the electrode gap distance, the weaker the electric field strength [31], a lower reactant conversion being thus expected. However, for the two reactors defined in this study, the results in terms of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversions, reported in fig. 2, show that methane conversions are similar, closed

(4)

to 9%, while CO<sub>2</sub> conversion in the fixed bed is slightly higher than in the fluidized bed reactor. 174 175 Such behavior is a consequence of two concomitant effects. First, the gap distance reduction, which increases the plasma energy. The second effect results from the electrode length 176 177 modification. When the electrode length is increased, the plasma energy lost as heat increases. Indeed, Nozaki et al. [32] showed that 60% of input power was dissipated as heat to the 178 dielectric barrier due to the formation of surface discharge in a DBD reactor fed with methane. 179 180 For this study, those two effects are counteracting each other, leading to similar methane conversion despite the different gap distances. The higher conversion of CO<sub>2</sub> is followed by a 181 higher yield of CO, while the formation of hydrocarbons is not favored, due to a CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub> ratio 182 183 higher than unity. Under these experimental conditions, it appears that the residence time, identical and close to 1.1 s for both reactors, is the key parameter on which depends the 184 conversions and this independently of the reactor geometry. The effect of residence time was 185 186 reported in different studies, at atmospheric pressure, increasing the residence time leads to an increase of reactants conversions [33, 34], while in low pressure system, Uner and Thimsen 187 [35] showed little effect of residence time for CO2 transformation due to fast reaction rate 188 (approximately 1000 times shorter than in atmospheric pressure DBD). The higher CO<sub>2</sub> 189 conversion in the fixed reactor could be due to the presence of alumina as dielectric material. 190 191 Mora et al. [36] described a better performance for  $CO_2$  hydrogenation with alumina instead of quartz. This effect was attributed to the higher relative dielectric permittivity coefficient of 192 alumina compared to quartz. Additionally, in the dry reforming of methane, higher yield in CO 193 and higher energy efficiency were obtained by Khoja et al. [37] in an alumina reactor compared 194 to a quartz one, which is in agreement with this study. 195

In presence of a catalyst, the experimental conditions were significantly different for the two reactors. About one gram of alumina powder was necessary to fill completely the plasma zone of the fixed bed while 150 mg of material were required for the fluidized bed.

Lissajous figures of the discharge for the fixed and fluidized bed reactors packed with alumina 199 200 pellets ( $\gamma Al_2O_3$  calcined at 400°C), for the same deposited power (P=4W±5%)) are plotted in Fig. 3. In the fluidized bed reactor, the catalyst does not occupy the entire plasma zone, it is 201 202 thus expected that filamentary microdischarges dominate while, for the fixed bed reactor, the complete packing of the reactor with alumina pellets results in the combination of filamentary 203 and surface discharges. The breakdown of gas is expected to be lower in the presence of alumina 204 205 powder and the electric field should be more intense at the contact points between pellets [14]. 206 As a result, the applied voltage differs strongly between the two reactors to keep a constant power of 4 W. It is ~ 10 kV<sub>pk-pk</sub> for the fixed bed and ~ 30 kV<sub>pk-pk</sub> for the fluidized bed at 207 constant frequency, 800Hz (Table 2). 208

209

#### 210 **3.2 Influence of the surface area of alumina**

211 3.2.1 Chemical and physical properties of alumina

The alumina material was calcined at different temperatures from 400 to 800°C to vary the specific surface area and porous volume. The values obtained are gathered in Table 1. Prior to the reaction, all the solids were sieved in the range:  $355-650 \mu m$  to eliminate the impact of the grain size on the reactivity, as shown in previous studies [19].

The total equivalent capacitance of the DBD (C\_cell) and the effective capacitance (C\_eff), corresponding to the capacitances in the plasma-off period and plasma-on period respectively, were determined from the Lissajous figures with the different alumina materials (Table 2). The value of C\_cell is slightly higher for the fixed bed reactor compared to the fluidized bed, whatever the  $Al_2O_3$  material. The reactor capacitances were approximately the same with or without material in the discharge zone, so the differences observed in C\_cell values depend mainly on the reactor geometry, the packing with alumina having no significant impact on C\_cell. The effective capacitances are strongly higher for the fixed bed than for the fluidizedbed, which can be explained by the expansion of the discharge across the gap [38].

Conversions of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> are plotted as a function of the surface areas of alumina in figure 225 4. The data were collected after 30 minutes on stream since no significant modification of 226 reactants transformation was observed within one hour under plasma. A different trend, 227 occurring between the two reactors, was noticed. As soon as the surface area of alumina 228 increases, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversion decrease in the fixed bed reactor, while a significant 229 increase for both CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversion is observed in the fluidized bed reactor. It is the first 230 time, to our knowledge, that the influence of a material surface area is evidenced in the plasma-231 232 catalysis coupling. The results show undoubtedly that the combination of plasma and catalysis in a fluidized bed reactor can be efficient for methane and carbon dioxide conversion. Despite 233 predominant gas phase reactions, these results highlight the importance of the surface reactivity 234 of the material. No improvement is observed comparing the commercial  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (S= 65 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-</sup> 235 <sup>1</sup>) to the material prepared in the laboratory ( $S = 260 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ). Differences in the synthesis 236 procedure, which would induce different surface properties in terms of number of surface -OH 237 groups per surface unit, would explain this result. 238

239 It is expected that in the fixed bed reactor, the reaction proceeds mainly at the contact point of the catalyst where the electric field is stronger but in a very limited reactional volume. 240 Consequently, the porosity of the oxide is rapidly blocked by the deposition of heavy products 241 such as C3 aldehydes and C5 ketones, detected after reaction by pyrolysis coupled with mass 242 spectrometry. In a fixed bed reactor, the decrease of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversions using porous 243 materials such as zeolite was reported by Jiang et al. [39]. Inversely, in the fluidized bed reactor, 244 the reaction can proceed on the overall surface of the moving catalyst grains in the plasma zone, 245 thus favoring CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversions. This results in an increase of the analyzed products: 246 CO,  $H_2$  and hydrocarbons (mainly  $C_2H_6$ ) as shown in figure 5. 247

A mechanism can be proposed for plasma- $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> assisted reaction according to the results we obtained and based on the published paper of N.N. Gadzhieva [40] and Liu et al. [41], and is presented in figure 6. This reaction cannot be dissociated from reaction in homogeneous phase. The dissociative adsorption of CH<sub>4</sub> at the surface of alumina is expected to proceed under plasma, which depends on the concentration of surface OH groups. Since Alumina is a material with a strong dipolar character, it contains numerous OH groups and becomes easily charged [35]. Reactions at the surface of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> could be written according to Eqs. (6) - (9):

255 
$$M^{+}[OH]^{-}... [HO]^{-}M^{+} \rightarrow M^{+} + H_{2}O + O^{2-} + \Box + M^{+}$$
 (6)

256  $CH_4 \rightarrow CH_3^{\bullet} + H^{\bullet}$  in gas phase (under plasma discharge) (7)

$$257 \qquad O^{2-} + \Box + CH_3 \rightarrow O-CH_3 \tag{8}$$

$$258 \quad \text{O-CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{CO}_{\text{ads}} + 3/2 \text{ H}_2 \tag{9}$$

259 With  $\Box$  being an active site

The energy Efficiency (EE) is the highest using the fluidized bed reactor with the alumina possessing the highest surface area (Fig. 7). The trend of the energy efficiency is similar to the reactant conversions one, which is coherent since the reactions were performed at the same specific input energy (6 kJ  $L^{-1}$ ) and both CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> conversions were favored using a fluidized bed reactor. The energy efficiencies were 0.07 and 0.14 mmol kJ<sup>-1</sup> for the fixed bed and fluidized bed, respectively.

266

3.2.2 Structural and textural characterization of alumina materials before and after reactionunder plasma

TGA analysis of the  $Al_2O_3$  materials were performed after one hour of reaction under plasma for both reactors (Fig. 8). A continuous weight loss proceeds from low temperatures (T<100°C) to 600°C. It comes from the desorption of products, which were condensed into the porosity of alumina during the reaction under plasma. The yellowish color of the plasma treated samples

confirms the presence of organic compounds at the surface of alumina, except for the 273 commercial Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (surface area 65 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) after treatment in the fixed bed reactor. Moreover 274 the presence of carbon deposit by methane cracking under plasma cannot be excluded, it would 275 276 be removed at the highest temperature. The total weight loss is particularly significant (closed to 20%) for the alumina with the highest surface areas (301 and 312 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) with the fluidized 277 bed. It is in accordance with the carbon balance (Fig. 5d), which is the lowest for alumina with 278 the highest surface area. The adsorption of heavy compounds at the surface of alumina would 279 depend on the accessible surface. Indeed, it is expected that these products, formed in the 280 plasma gas phase, are deposited in the porosity of alumina. However this effect depends on the 281 catalyst pore size. According to Bogaerts et al. [42, 43], from a modeling investigation, plasma 282 can only penetrate in pores larger than 50 nm and the alumina synthesized in this study possess 283 pores from 4 to 8 nm (Table 1). Considering that their calculations were based on a glow mode, 284 285 which differs strongly from the DBD plasma used in the present work, it would explain our results. In fact, when comparing the two reactors, no significant differences in terms of weight 286 loss are observed for the alumina yAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-600 and yAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-800 while significant differences are 287 obtained for yAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-400 and particularly for the commercial yAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. If we consider that the 288 surface reaction proceeds only at contact point of grains in the fixed bed reactor, the low weight 289 loss is due to the low accessible surface for products deposition. Contrarily, as soon as the 290 291 alumina particles are fluidized, the product condensation proceeds on the entire accessible surface and possibly into the porosity of the commercial alumina which is significantly larger 292 than the porosity of alumina synthesized in the laboratory. 293

The measurement of surface area after reaction (Table 1) reveals a significant loss for the mesomacro alumina materials synthesized in the laboratory, which is more intense for the fluidized bed than for the fixed bed. The exposition of the entire surface area of the material in the fluidized bed reactor, while localized at the contact point in the fixed bed reactor, would explain these observations. Note that the value of pore size after reaction do not take into account organic compounds adsorbed during reaction, since the measurements require a thermal treatment under reduce pressure, leading to products elimination.

301

### 302 4. Conclusion

The transformation of a mixture of methane and carbon dioxide under plasma discharge in thepresence of alumina was investigated in fluidized and static bed reactors.

305 Methane and carbon dioxide conversions depend on the surface area, a significant increase being obtained with alumina of large surface area in the fluidized bed reactor. CH<sub>4</sub> conversion 306 increases from 8.5 to 12.1 % for S=260 and 312 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively and the CO<sub>2</sub> conversion 307 from 3.4 to 6.2 % for a deposited power of 4 W, in an excess of CO<sub>2</sub>. An opposite trend is 308 obtained between fluidized and fixed bed reactors. This effect is to the limited accessible 309 310 catalyst surface in the fixed bed, at the contact point of grains, were the electric field is the most intense. In the fluidized bed, the overall grain surface is involved in the plasma-catalytic 311 reaction and higher conversions to products such as CO and ethane are obtained. Reactions at 312 313 the surface of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> under plasma discharge are proposed. Condensation of organic products into the porosity of alumina was evidenced whatever the surface area of alumina. The 314 315 deposition of organic products is favored in the alumina of largest porosity (23 nm), in fluidized mode. The stacking of grains in the fixed bed mode limits this effect. 316

To conclude the use of a plasma fluidized bed might be considered as an attractive process to enhance performances of plasma-catalysis coupling. It opens new routes for the investigation of a wide variety of reactions thermodynamically unfavorable.

320

### 321 Acknowledgements

- The authors grateful acknowledge the ANR for the financial support of the PRC program VALCO2PLAS and the financial support from the European Union (ERDF) and "Région Nouvelle Aquitaine".
- 325
- 326

# 327 **References**

- 328 [1] E. Ruckenstein, H.Y. Wang, J. Catal. 205 (2002) 289-293
- 329 [2] M. Usman, W.M.A. Wan Daud, H. F. Abbas, Renew. Sust. Energy Rev. 45 (2015) 710-
- 330 744
- 331 [3] A.J. Zhang, A.M. Zhu, J. Guo, Y. Xu, C. Shi, Chem. Eng. J. 156 (2010) 601–606
- 332 [4] M. Kraus, W. Egli, K. Haffner, B. Eliasson, U. Kogelschatz, A. Wokaun, Phys. Chem.
- 333 Chem. Phys. 4 (2002) 668–675
- [5] X. Tao, M. Bai, X. Li, H. Long, S. Shang, Y. Yin, X. Dai, Prog. Energy Combust. Sci.
  37 (2011) 113–124
- 336 [6] B. Wang B, G. Xu (2003) J Nat Gas Chem 12 (2003) 178–182
- [7] B. Fidalgo, J.A. Menéndez, Fuel processing technology, 95 (2012) 55-61
- 338 [8] X. Tu, J.C. Whitehead, Int. J. Hydrogen Energy, 39 (2014) 9658-9669
- [9] N. Rueangjitt, T. Sreethawong, S. Chavadej, H. Sekiguchic, Chem. Eng. J. 155 (2009)
  874-880
- [10] M. Kraus, B. Eliasson, U. Kogelschatz, A. Wokaun, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 3 (2001)
  294-300
- 343 [11] B. Eliasson W. Egli, U. Kogelschatz Pure Appl Chem 66(6) (1994) 1275–1286
- 344 [12] H. Puliyalil, D.L. Jurkovic, V.D. Dasireddy, B. Likozar, RSC Adv. 8 (2018) 27481-
- 345 27508
- 346 [13] E.C. Neyts, K. Ostrikov, M. K. Sunkara, A. Bogaerts, Chem. Rev. 115 (2015) 13408-
- 347 13446

- [14] X. Tu, H.J. Gallon, M. V. Twigg, P. A. Gorry, J.C. Whitehead, J.Phys. D: Appl. Phys. 44
  (2011) 274007-274017
- 350 [15] T. Jiang, Y. Li, C.J. Liu, G.H. Xu, B. Eliasson, B. Xue, Catal. Today, 72 (2002) 229-235
- 351 [16] H.J. Gallon, X. Tu, J.C. Whitehead, Plasma Process and Polymer, 9 (2012) 90-97
- 352 [17] X. Tu, H.J. Gallon, M. V. Twigg, P. A. Gorry, J.C. Whitehead, J.Phys. D: Appl. Phys. 44
- 353 (2011) 274007-274017
- [18] P. Kasinathan, S. Park, W.C. Choi, Y.K. Hwang, J.S. Chang, Y.K. Park, Plasma Chem.
- 355 Plasma process. 34 (2014) 1317-1330
- 356 [19] N. Bouchoul, J.M. Tatibouët, E. Fourré, C. Batiot-Dupeyrat, Plasma Chem. and Plasma
- 357 Process., 39 (2019) 713-727
- 358 [20] R. Bartolomeu, M. Foix, A. Fernandes, M. Tatoulian, M.F. Ribeiro, C. Henriques, P. da
- 359 Costa, Catal. Today, 176 (2011) 234-238
- 360 [21] G. Hee Kim, S. D. Kim, S. H. Park, Chem. Eng. Process. 48 (2009) 1135-1139
- [22] G. Chen, S. Chen, M. Zhou, W. Feng, W. Gu, S. Yang, J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys. 39 (2006)
  5211-5215
- 363 [23] G. Chen, S. Chen, W. Feng, W. Chen, S. Yang, Appl. Surf. Sci. 254 (2008) 3915-3920
- 364 [24] Q. Wang, Y. Cheng, Y. Jin, Catal. Today, 148 (2009) 275-282
- 365 [25] W. Wang, H.H. Kim, K. Van Laer, A. Bogaerts, Chem. Eng. J. 334 (2018) 2467-2479
- 366 [26] N. Bouchoul, E. Fourré, A. Duarte, N. Tanchoux, C. Louste, C. Batiot-Dupeyrat, Catal.
- 367 Today, in press 2020, doi.org/10.1016/j.cattod.2020.06.058
- 368 [27] S. Ergun, Chem. Engrg. Progress, 48, No. 2, (1952) 89–94
- 369 [28] Wen, C. Y. and Yu, Y. H., Chem. Engrg. Progress Symp. Series, Vol. 62 (1966) 100–111
- 370 [29] R.P. Currier, M. Trkula, H.R. Snyder, The plasma fluidized bed, a report,
- 371 DOI:10.2172/758321
- 372 [30] Z-Y. Yuan, T-Z. Ren, A. Vantomme, B-L. Su, Chem. Mater 16 (2004) 5096-5106

- 373 [31] N. Rueangjitt, T. Sreethawong, S. Chavadej, H. Sekiguchi, Plasma Chem. Plasma
- 374 Process (2011) 31, 517-534
- 375 [32] Nozaki T, Miyazaki Y, Unno Yand Okazaki K. (2001) Journal of Physics D: Applied
- **376** Physics 34, 3383-90
- 377 [33] V. Goujard, J.M. Tatibouët, C. Batiot-Dupeyrat, Appl. Catal. A : Gen, 353 (2009) 228-
- 378 235
- 379 [34] J. Sentek, K. Krawczyk, M. Mlotek, M. Kalczwska, T. Kroker, T. Kolb, A. Schenk, K.H.
- 380 Gericke, K. S. Szalowski, Appl. Catal. B: Env. 94 (2010) 19-26
- 381 [35] N.B. Uner, E. Thimsem, Aiche J. 2020,;66e16948
- 382 [36] E.Y. Mora, A. Sarmiento, E. Vera, J. Phys.: Conf. series 687 (2016) 012020
- [37] A. H. Khoja, M. Tahir, N. A. S. Amin, Energy Conv. And Management, 144 (2017) 262274
- 385 [38] S. Jo, D. H. Lee, W. S. Kang, Y.H. Song, Physics of plasmas, 20 (2013)123507
- 386 [39] Y. Jiang, Y. Li, C.J. Liu, G.H. Xu, B. Eliasson, B. Xue, Catal Today 72 (2002) 229–235
- 387 [40] N.N. Gadzhieva, High Energy Chemistry, 37 (2003) 38-43
- 388 [41] C. Liu, A. Marafee, R. Mallinson, L. Lobban, Appl. Catal. A: gen 164 (1997) 21-33
- 389 [42] Y.R. Zhang, K.Van Laer, E. C. Neyts, A. Bogaerts, Appl. Catal. B: Env 185 (2016) 56-
- 390 67
- 391 [43] Q.Z. Zhang, A. Bogaerts, Plasma Sources Sci. Technol. 27 (2018) 35009-35019

**Table 1:** Properties of the gamma alumina: surface area and pore volume before and after reaction under plasma (1 hour, grain size: 355-650  $\mu$ m, P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75%)

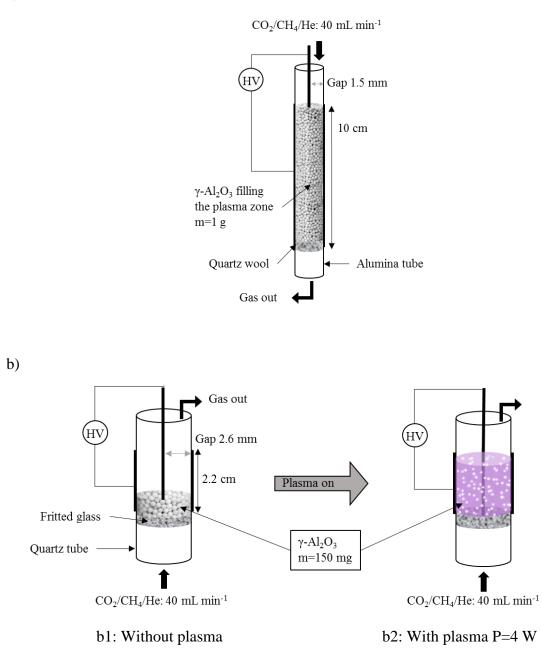
	S BET $(m^2 g^{-1})$			Pore size (Å)		
Oxide	Before - plasma	After plasma		Before	After plasma	
Oxide		Fixed	Fluidized	plasma	Fixed	Fluidized
		bed	bed		bed	bed
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -AA	65	64	64	230	230	230
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -400	312	305	298	64	64	64
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -600	301	282	275	76	75	76
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -800	260	183	165	41	42	41

**Table 2**: Characteristics of the discharge for the two plasma reactors: fixed and fluidized bed at a constant deposited power: P=4 W, grain size:  $355-650 \mu m$ , total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75%

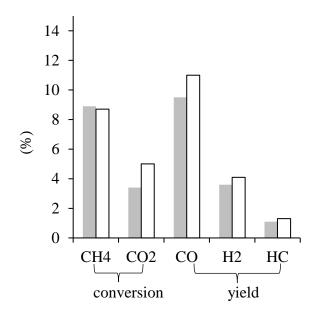
	U peak-peak (kV)		C_cell (pF)		C_eff (pF)	
Catalyst bed	Fixed	Fluidized	Fixed	Fluidized	Fixed	Fluidized
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -AA	10.4	30.5	1.3	0.9	32.9	3.9
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -400	10.2	30.8	1.2	0.8	33.7	3.7
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -600	10.2	30.6	1.4	1.0	32.7	4.1
γAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> -800	10.5	30.4	1.6	0.9	31.2	3.8

Figure 1: Reactor scheme a) Fixed bed reactor, b) fluidized bed reactor

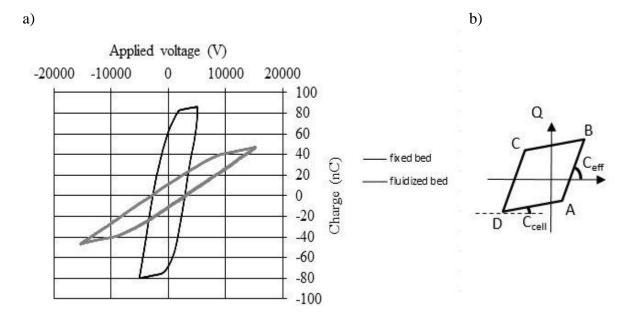
a)



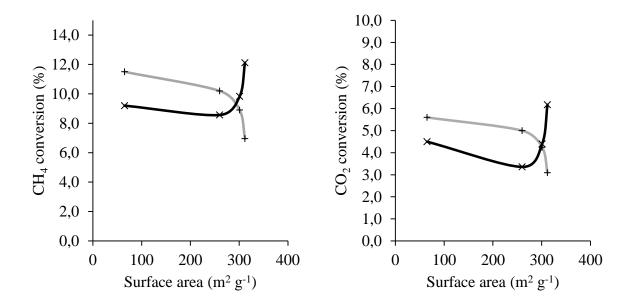
**Figure 2**: CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> conversion, yield into CO, H<sub>2</sub> and hydrocarbons (mainly C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>): influence of reactor geometry. P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75% (data after 30 minutes on stream)  $\blacksquare$  fluidized bed,  $\square$  fixed bed



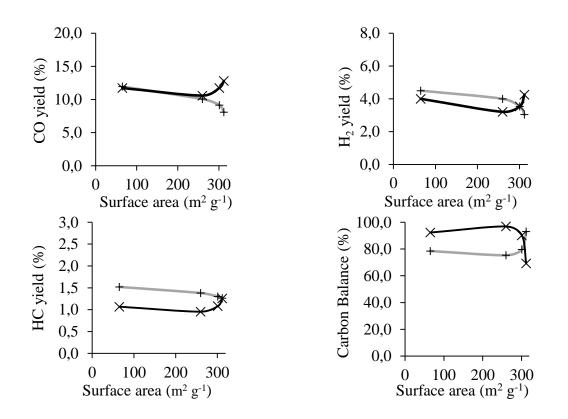
**Figure 3**: a) Lissajous figures of the  $CO_2/CH_4$  DBD with alumina pellets for the fixed bed and fluidized bed reactor at a constant discharge power of 4 W (total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>,  $CO_2/CH_4=2$ , He: 75%), b) typical Lissajous figures, determination of C\_cell and C\_eff



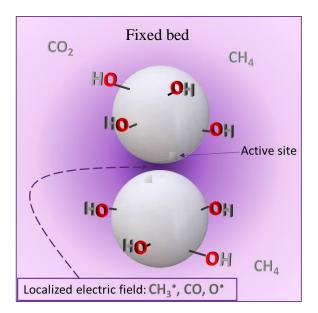
**Figure 4**: CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> conversion over gamma alumina: influence of surface area and reactor geometry. Grain size: 355-650  $\mu$ m, P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75% (data after 30 minutes on stream)  $\rightarrow$  fluidized bed,  $\rightarrow$  fixed bed

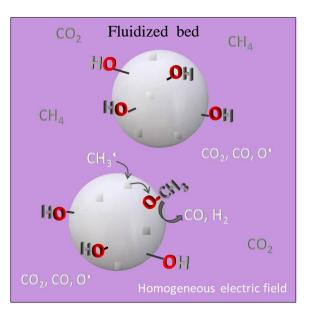


**Figure 5**: CO, H<sub>2</sub>, hydrocarbon yield and carbon balance over gamma alumina: influence of surface area and reactor geometry. Grain size: 355-650  $\mu$ m, P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75%, (data after 30 minutes on stream)  $\rightarrow$  fluidized bed, + fixed bed

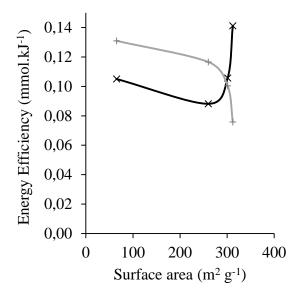


**Figure 6:** Schematic illustration of plasma discharge and reaction at the surface of  $\gamma$ -Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in fixed bed and fluidized bed reactor (not to scale)





**Figure 7**: Effect of surface area of gamma alumina on Energy Efficiency for the two reactors geometry. Grain size: 355-650  $\mu$ m, P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75%, (data after 30 minutes on stream)  $\rightarrow$  fluidized bed,  $\rightarrow$  fixed bed



**Figure 8:** TGA analysis of alumina calcined at different temperatures, after reaction under plasma (60 minutes), grain size: 355-650  $\mu$ m, P=4 W, total flow: 40 mL min<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>4</sub>=2, He: 75%, — fixed bed reactor, — fluidized bed reactor

