



18 reaction at 623 K and atmospheric pressure. The best performance was observed for the catalysts  
19 with low tin contents. It was found that Sn promoted oxidation reactions and inhibited  
20 methanation. Furthermore, the presence of Sn improved the stability of the catalysts when  
21 operating at harsher conditions of temperature and glycerol concentration. A promoter effect of  
22 Sn hindering platinum sintering and the formation of coke precursors is proposed as the origin of  
23 the observed behaviour.

## 24 **1. Introduction**

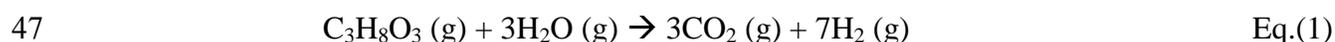
25 Fossil fuels are the world's main energy source, but supplies are diminishing while the  
26 consumers' demand is progressively growing. In this scenario, there is a need to develop clean  
27 and suitable energy alternatives to satisfy the global requirements. Herein, next-generation  
28 biofuels, such as biodiesel, have become the most considered substitutes for conventional fossil  
29 fuels due to technical, economic, and environmental sustainability.

30 Biodiesel is comprised of mono-alkyl esters of long-chain fatty acids, which are derived  
31 from vegetable oils or animal fats [1-3]. In the biodiesel synthesis process an important amount  
32 of glycerol, ca. 10 wt.%, is obtained as by-product. Although glycerol is used as raw material in  
33 chemical industry, for instance in food, pharmaceutical, cosmetic, and tobacco industries, the  
34 supply of glycerol is larger than the demand due to the increasing biodiesel production. This over  
35 stock of glycerol obligates scientific researchers to develop processes which transform it into  
36 valuable products and, in this way, to improve the economic viability of the biodiesel production  
37 [4,5].

38 With this perspective, the conversion of glycerol to hydrogen via steam reforming (GSR:  
39 glycerol steam reforming) is an interesting alternative [6]. This reaction is very attractive since

40 glycerol reforming can be performed using well-known technologies, conducted at atmospheric  
41 pressure, at relatively low temperatures due to the reactivity of the alcohol, and using  
42 conventional fixed-bed reactors [7]. The use of low temperatures during reforming is very  
43 interesting because it allows direct coupling (in one reactor) with Fischer-Tropsch (FT) reactions  
44 [8] or water-gas shift (WGS) [9]. However, glycerol steam reforming involves complex reactions  
45 affecting the hydrogen selectivity and producing high carbon formation rates [10,11].

46 The glycerol steam reforming reaction can be represented as follows:



48 Thus, it is the combination of two reactions, glycerol decomposition ( $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8\text{O}_3 (\text{g}) \rightarrow 3\text{CO}$   
49  $(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2$ ) and water-gas shift ( $\text{CO} (\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O} (\text{g}) \leftrightarrow \text{CO}_2 (\text{g}) + \text{H}_2 (\text{g})$ ).

50 Many metal catalysts have been reported for the GSR, among which Ru, Rh, Ir, Pd, Pt,  
51 Co and mainly Ni are the most representative ones, being the Pt-based catalysts among the most  
52 effective for its efficient C-C, O-H and C-H bond cleavages with high activity and selectivity  
53 levels [12-14]. The use of bimetallic formulations has been considered as a strategy to enhance  
54 the catalytic performance of Pt based catalysts. It is well-established that the second metal may  
55 influence the first one through electronic interactions and/or by modifying the morphology of the  
56 active sites. Among the metallic promoters, Sn is one of the most preferable options. Sn addition  
57 as promoter of catalytic activity and selectivity has been extensively studied in reactions such as  
58 hydrogenations in the field of fine chemistry, alkane dehydrogenation and methane reforming. In  
59 all the cases it has been observed that Sn addition improves significantly the catalyst activity,  
60 selectivity and/or stability [15, 16].

61           The nature of the support influences the catalytic performance of the catalysts in steam  
62 reforming reactions. Catalysts with Pt supported on Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, ZrO<sub>2</sub>, CeO<sub>2</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub>, MgO/ZrO<sub>2</sub> and  
63 carbon have been studied, and it was found that the oxide-supported systems are deactivated  
64 during the reaction, while carbon-supported catalysts showed a stable conversion of glycerol to  
65 synthesis gas for at least 30 hours [6]. High levels of unsaturated hydrocarbons such as ethylene  
66 were found in the gas stream of the catalyst suffering a more rapid deactivation. These  
67 unsaturated compounds, formed by dehydration reactions on the substrate, are precursors in the  
68 formation of coke, and may explain the observed deactivation [17]. Due to its relatively inert  
69 chemical nature, carbon does not catalyse such dehydration reactions and, therefore, it exhibits  
70 an excellent performance in the reforming of aqueous glycerol solutions. Furthermore, this  
71 material has excellent stability under hydrothermal conditions (moderate temperatures and high  
72 concentrations of water) [6,18].

73           In this paper, a series of Pt-Sn/C catalysts with different Sn contents were evaluated in the  
74 glycerol steam reforming reaction, in order to determine the effect of tin content on the activity,  
75 selectivity and stability of carbon-supported Pt catalysts.

76

## 77 **2. Material and methods**

### 78 ***2.1. Catalysts preparation***

79           A commercial activated carbon (RGC-30) with a high BET surface area (1598 m<sup>2</sup>/g) was  
80 used as support. The monometallic catalyst, Pt/C, was prepared by impregnating the dry support  
81 (383 K, overnight) with an acetone solution (10 mL per gram of support) of H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O  
82 (Sigma-Aldrich 99.5%) with the appropriate concentration to obtain a Pt loading of 5 wt.%.

83 After stirring for 12 h, the excess of solvent was slowly evaporated at 313 K under vacuum in a  
84 rotary evaporator. Then, the sample was dried at 383 K until complete removal of the solvent.

85 Bimetallic PtSn catalysts were prepared by sequential impregnation. Tin addition to the  
86 dried Pt/C sample was carried out using the proper amount of SnCl<sub>2</sub> (99%, Sigma-Aldrich)  
87 dissolved in acetone (10 mL of solution per gram of solid) to obtain Pt:Sn atomic ratios of 50:1,  
88 10:1, 1:1, 1:5. After stirring for 12 h, the solvent was removed under vacuum at 313 K. In this  
89 way five catalysts were prepared, which were labelled as Pt/C, Pt-Sn/C (50:1), Pt-Sn/C (10:1),  
90 Pt-Sn/C (1:1) and Pt-Sn/C (5:1).

91

## 92 ***2.2 Catalysts characterization***

93 The Pt content of Pt/C and Pt-Sn/C catalysts was determined by burning off the catalysts  
94 in air at 1073 K and analysing the residue (dissolved in aqua regia) by ICP-OES (Perkin Elmer,  
95 Optima 4300 DV). Temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) with H<sub>2</sub> measurements were  
96 carried out on the fresh (dried) catalysts in a U-shaped quartz cell using a 5% H<sub>2</sub>/He gas flow of  
97 50 mL/min, with a heating rate of 10 K·min<sup>-1</sup>. Before the TPR run, the catalyst were pre-treated  
98 with flowing He (50 mL/min) at 423 K for 1 h. Hydrogen consumption was followed by on-line  
99 mass spectrometry (Pfeiffer, OmniStar GSD 301). X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)  
100 analyses were performed with a VG-Microtech Multilab 3000 spectrometer equipped with a  
101 hemispherical electron analyser and a Mg-K<sub>α</sub> ( $h = 1253.6$  eV;  $1$  eV =  $1.6302 \cdot 10^{-19}$  J) 300 W X-  
102 ray source. The powder samples were pressed into small Inox cylinders. Before recording the  
103 spectra, the samples were maintained in the analysis chamber until a residual pressure of ca.  $5 \times$   
104  $10^{-7}$  N·m<sup>-2</sup> was reached. The spectra were collected at pass energy of 50 eV. The intensities were

105 estimated by calculating the integral of each peak, after subtracting the S-shaped background,  
106 and by fitting the experimental curve to a combination of Lorentzian (30%) and Gaussian (70%)  
107 lines. The binding energy (BE) of the C 1 s peak of the support at 284.6 eV was taken as an  
108 internal standard. The accuracy of the BE values is  $\pm 0.2$  eV. Samples were reduced “*ex-situ*” in  
109 flowing H<sub>2</sub> for 2 h at 523 K and conserved in octane before the analysis. Conventional TEM  
110 analysis was carried out with a JOEL model JEM-210 electron microscope working at 200 kV  
111 and equipped with a INCA Energy TEM 100 analytical system and a SIS MegaView II camera.  
112 Samples for analysis were suspended in methanol and placed on copper grids with a holey-  
113 carbon film support. Catalysts were analysed before (samples reduced at 523 K, 2h) and after  
114 being used in the glycerol steam reforming reaction.

115

### 116 **2.3 Catalytic tests**

117 The catalytic behaviour of the prepared catalysts in the glycerol steam reforming reaction  
118 was evaluated under mild and harder reaction conditions in a fixed bed reactor (Microactivity  
119 Reference). Prior to the activity test, catalysts were *in-situ* reduced under 50mL/min of H<sub>2</sub> at  
120 523 K during 2 h. Then, the H<sub>2</sub> stream was changed to He, and the temperature was risen up to  
121 that of the reaction test, 623 or 673 K. The reaction was carried out at atmospheric pressure, with  
122 a feeding (0.05 mL/min) containing 10 or 30% w/w glycerol in water. This 10% w/w glycerol  
123 feed composition is similar to that of the glycerol residue obtained from the biodiesel production  
124 process after alcohol removal and acid neutralization of the glycerol fraction. Activity tests were  
125 performed using 0.200 g of catalyst diluted with SiC, to avoid thermal effects. The composition  
126 of the gas stream exiting the reactor was determined by gas chromatography (Agilent

127 Technologies), with two columns (Carboxen-1000 and Porapak-Q) and two detectors (FID and  
128 TCD).

129 The catalytic performance was evaluated in terms of conversion into gaseous products  
130 (based on a carbon balance between the inlet and the outlet of the reactor), selectivity to main  
131 reaction products (where “i” is CO<sub>2</sub>, CO and CH<sub>4</sub>) and also hydrogen yield, which were defined  
132 as:

$$133 \quad \% \text{ Conversion} = \frac{\text{C in the gas products}}{\text{C fed into reactor}} \cdot 100$$

$$134 \quad \% \text{ “i” selectivity} = \frac{\text{“i” produced experimentally}}{\text{C atoms in the gas products}} \cdot 100$$

$$135 \quad \% \text{ H}_2 \text{ Yield} = \frac{\text{H}_2 \text{ produced experimentally}}{\text{H}_2 \text{ calculated according to Eq (1)}} \cdot 100$$

136

### 137 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 138 ***3.1 Chemical analysis***

139 Table 1 presents the results of ICP analysis of the Pt content of the different catalysts. It  
140 can be seen that the actual metal loading is very close to the nominal one in all cases, this  
141 evidencing the efficiency of the impregnation method. Unfortunately, the analysis method used  
142 did not allow for the determination of the Sn content due to the volatility of the SnCl<sub>4</sub> formed  
143 during the digestion process. Thus, these values were estimated by XPS analysis.

144

### 145 **3.2 X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS)**

146           The binding energies of the Pt 4f<sub>7/2</sub> and Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> levels for the catalysts reduced in flowing  
147 hydrogen at 523 K for 2 h are reported in Table 1. XPS results show that Pt is completely  
148 reduced in all the catalysts, as the spectra show only one peak centred at 71.3 eV, which is  
149 assigned to metallic Pt. It is noteworthy to mention that a small shift to lower binding energies  
150 can be observed in the PtSn/C catalysts compared to the monometallic Pt/C catalyst. This shift  
151 may indicate the formation of Pt-Sn alloy phases, as the differences in electronegativity of Pt and  
152 Sn could lead to charge transfer from the less-electronegative Sn to the more-electronegative Pt  
153 [19,20]. In fact, the analysis of the Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> level indicates the presence of two contributions  
154 (Table 1). The first one, centred at a binding energy around 486.2-486.4 eV, is assigned to  
155 oxidized tin species, Sn(II, IV), and the second one, at around 485.2 eV, corresponds to metallic  
156 tin (Sn(0)) [21]. Thus, the presence of metallic tin in the catalysts reduced at 523 K opens up the  
157 possibility for the existence of Pt-Sn alloy phases after this treatment, although this cannot be  
158 readily assessed by XPS [22,23]. It has also to be taken into account that the use of a relatively  
159 inert support such as carbon decreases the possibility of a strong interaction between the tin  
160 precursor and the support, this facilitating the Pt-Sn interaction and the formation of Pt-Sn alloy  
161 phases [24]. Results obtained for the Pt/Sn atomic ratios are also presented in Table 1. They  
162 confirm that the intended amount of tin has been deposited.

163

### 164 **3.3 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)**

165           Fig. 1 shows the TEM images of all samples, before and after being used in the glycerol  
166 steam reforming reaction (623 K, 1 atm, 10% w/w glycerol). It can be seen that before the

167 reaction, (left column) platinum and tin particles are well dispersed on the carbon support, with a  
168 homogeneous distribution of the active phase over the catalyst's surface and no agglomerations  
169 being observed. It is important to point out that it was not possible to distinguish between Pt and  
170 Sn, as both species appear in the images as dark dots.

171 TEM micrographs and particle size distribution of all catalyst were also taken after  
172 reaction (right column) and some agglomerations can be observed in this case. It can be seen that  
173 a considerable sintering of the metal particles has been produced to different extents depending  
174 on the sample. In this way, it is noteworthy to note that agglomerations in the tin-containing  
175 catalysts are less evident than in the monometallic Pt/C catalyst, and a lesser amount of  
176 agglomerates are formed when the amount of tin in the catalyst is increased. This indicates that  
177 Sn provides a stabilizing effect on the Pt particles avoiding their sintering, as it has also been  
178 observed in other works [15,25]. Under these conditions, the presence of coke is not observed. It  
179 is well known that Sn inhibits the reactions leading to the formation of coke precursors, and  
180 improves in this way the stability of the catalysts under reaction conditions [24].

181

### 182 ***3.4 Temperature programmed reduction***

183 Fig. 2 shows the TPR profiles of the carbon-supported Pt-Sn catalysts after the drying  
184 process. The TPR profile of the carbon support only shows one H<sub>2</sub> consumption peak at high  
185 temperature (800-1100 K). This peak appears in all the catalysts, and it has been attributed to the  
186 reaction of H<sub>2</sub> with reactive surface sites created by decomposition of surface functional groups  
187 (mainly those that evolve as CO) on the support [26]. For the monometallic Pt/C catalyst three  
188 H<sub>2</sub> consumption peaks can be clearly observed. The first one (400-500 K) is assigned to the

189 reduction of the impregnated metal chloride complex to form metallic Pt particles; the second  
190 one, at intermediate temperatures (490-590 K), can be attributed to H<sub>2</sub> consumption by oxygen  
191 surface functionalities present on the support. Hydrogen which is previously chemisorbed and  
192 dissociated on Pt particles is transported to the carbon surface by spillover, where it reacts with  
193 the oxygen groups located at the metal-carbon interface [27]. The third peak at higher  
194 temperatures (773-873 K) is attributed to hydrogen consumption by the reduction of oxygen  
195 superficial groups on the carbon support that are not located near the metal particles.

196 On the other hand, the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles for the bimetallic catalysts differ as the amount of  
197 tin is increased. The peak at low temperatures becomes more pronounced with the increase of the  
198 amount of tin. The reduction profile of Pt-Sn/C (50:1) is very similar to that of the Pt/C catalyst.  
199 The increase of the amount of Sn produces a more intense peak due to the reduction of both  
200 platinum and tin precursors, this revealing the close proximity and strong interaction between  
201 both species. Thus, tin is reduced at lower temperature due to the presence of platinum in the  
202 catalysts [28,29]. The observed reduction process at intermediate temperatures can be attributed  
203 to the reduction of oxidised Sn species (Sn(II) and/or Sn(IV)) that are not in intimate contact  
204 with Pt. Interestingly, no high temperature reduction peaks are observed in these profiles, what  
205 can be due to the partial blockage/decomposition of the oxygen surface groups during the  
206 impregnation with the tin precursor and drying.

207 Based on the reduction profiles shown, and considering that the reduction treatment  
208 applied previously to the reforming reaction is carried out at 523 K, we can assume that the  
209 bimetallic catalysts are, before reaction, composed of metallic Pt, a fraction of oxidized tin  
210 species (Sn (II)/Sn (IV)) and metallic Sn, likely forming alloy phases with Pt. This conclusion is  
211 also supported by XPS data (Table 1).

### 212 3.5 Catalytic behaviour

213 The catalytic behaviour of the prepared catalysts in terms of gas phase conversion as a  
214 function of time on stream, after being reduced at 523 K, is reported in Fig. 3. The steam  
215 reforming of glycerol was performed at atmospheric pressure, 623 K and 0.05 mL/min of a 10%  
216 w/w of aqueous glycerol solution. The gas phase analysis was carried out every 30 min by on  
217 line chromatography. The results presented are the average of three experiments with very good  
218 reproducibility (error of  $\pm 3\%$ ). A blank run without catalyst was also performed, and negligible  
219 glycerol conversion was obtained.

220 The gas phase conversions, after an initial increase during the first 2-3 h on stream, were  
221 stable during the period of time studied (7.5 h). For the monometallic catalyst, Pt/C, and the  
222 bimetallic catalysts with low tin content (Pt-Sn/C (50:1) and Pt-Sn/C (10:1)) the conversion was  
223 complete, with all the glycerol solution being transformed to gaseous products. A decrease of the  
224 gas phase conversion was observed with the increase of the tin content in the samples. For Pt-  
225 Sn/C (1:1) the conversion was about 78%, and for the catalyst with the highest Sn content (Pt-  
226 Sn/C (1:5)) the conversion was very low, about 10%. This low conversion may be due to  
227 excessive blocking of the active sites of Pt by the large amount of Sn present. In fact, a certain  
228 free adjacent active sites of Pt are needed to adsorb and activate the glycerol molecule (cleavage  
229 of C-C bond) so that it can be reformed [30]. In addition, the differences in metal particle sizes  
230 (Fig. 1) have also an effect on the activity of the samples. For the optimum amount of Sn, Pt  
231 particles are stabilised thus avoiding their sintering and resulting in a greater Pt particles  
232 dispersion. The later means higher active sites available for the adsorption of glycerol molecules  
233 on the metallic surface and its subsequent reforming. As can be seen in Figure 3, the activity was  
234 higher for the catalysts with low tin content.

235 The composition of the gas phase product stream is reported in Table 2. These results  
236 were obtained when the conversion reached a stable value, after 5 h on stream. It can be  
237 observed in Table 2 that the H<sub>2</sub>/CO molar ratio is close to 1 for the monometallic catalyst and for  
238 the bimetallic catalysts with low Sn contents. For the samples with higher Sn content an increase  
239 of this ratio was observed, reaching a value of 3.56 for the Pt-Sn/C (1:5) catalyst. Furthermore,  
240 the CO/CO<sub>2</sub> molar ratio tends to decrease with increasing the amount of tin in the catalysts.

241 These results point to an enhancement of the water-gas shift reaction, which would be  
242 favoured by tin species. There are few reports in the literature on the role of Sn in the water-gas  
243 shift reaction. Recently, Gupta and Hegde reported the catalytic behaviour of a  
244 Ce<sub>0.78</sub>Sn<sub>0.2</sub>Pt<sub>0.02</sub>O<sub>2-δ</sub> catalyst, which was able to convert over 99.5% CO to H<sub>2</sub> at 573 K [31]. In  
245 this case, the role of tin species was claimed to be the stabilization of the catalyst surface against  
246 the formation of deactivating carbonate species. On the other hand, Azzam *et al.* studied the role  
247 of the support in Pt-based catalysts for water gas shift [32], including a titania-supported  
248 bimetallic 0.5%Pt-0.3%Sn catalyst. Although it was less active than other catalysts studied, such  
249 as Pt-Re/TiO<sub>2</sub>, it showed a high catalytic stability at 573 K.

250 Values for the CH<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> molar ratio in Table 2 show that methane formation is very low for  
251 all catalysts. In fact, nearly no methane was produced by the catalyst with the highest amount of  
252 tin, Pt-Sn/C (1:5). The low methane formation is indicative of the role of tin in inhibiting  
253 hydrogenation reactions between CO/CO<sub>2</sub> and the H<sub>2</sub> formed [15].

254 The H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> selectivities (after 5 hours of reaction, time when catalytic  
255 activity is stable) are presented in Fig. 4. The effect of tin is clearly observed. The CO<sub>2</sub>  
256 selectivity slightly increases with the amount of Sn while the CO selectivity decreases. This

257 change is more pronounced with the Pt-Sn/C (1:5) catalyst, so the Sn addition in large amounts  
258 promotes the CO oxidation producing H<sub>2</sub>-rich gas streams and not streams for syngas.  
259 Furthermore the H<sub>2</sub> selectivity increases with Sn addition except for the catalyst with the highest  
260 amount of Sn, but this could be explained as due to the low conversion to gas phase and the  
261 possible H<sub>2</sub> consumption in the formation of liquid products.

262 Finally, considering the above results a stability test (not shown) was carried out with the  
263 Pt/C and Pt-Sn/C (1:1) catalysts, in order to determining the effect of tin during longer reaction  
264 (24 hours) in the same temperature conditions (623 K). In both cases, the conversion to gas phase  
265 products remained stable during all the experiment.

266 In view of these results, it was decided to test these catalysts under harder reaction  
267 conditions: higher temperature (673 K) and a more concentrated of glycerol feed solution (30%  
268 w/w glycerol in water). The results of these experiments are shown in Fig. 5.

269 Under these conditions the monometallic Pt/C was nearly inactive, producing only about  
270 5% conversion in the first hour on stream. In contrast, for the bimetallic catalyst Pt-Sn/C (1:1)  
271 the conversion decreased with respect to reaction under milder reaction conditions (78% versus  
272 50%), but an excellent performance stability, for almost 10 hours on stream, was obtained under  
273 these harder reaction conditions. Furthermore, the H<sub>2</sub>, CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> selectivities and H<sub>2</sub> yield  
274 for PtSn(1:1)/C are presented in Figure 6. Despite the lower conversion in these conditions, H<sub>2</sub>  
275 selectivity remains high with low methane formation.

276 The formation of coke is favoured at high reaction temperature and with high glycerol  
277 concentration in the feed stream. This fact can explain the fast deactivation of the Pt/C catalyst,  
278 which showed a good activity and stability under milder reaction conditions. It is well known

279 that Sn is able to inhibit coke formation reactions in processes such as the dehydrogenation of  
280 hydrocarbons [24]. Thus, by electronic and/or geometric effects Sn is able to modify the catalytic  
281 properties of Pt, inhibiting reactions that form coke precursors and, thereby, improving the  
282 stability of the catalyst. The effect of Sn may be similar in the reforming reaction of glycerol.  
283 Probably a strong Pt-Sn interaction (as indicated by the results of TPR, Fig. 2) inhibits reactions  
284 that produce olefins (coke precursors) during glycerol reforming. Furthermore, Sn has also a  
285 textural promoter effect, inhibiting the sintering of Pt particles (as shown by TEM photographs)  
286 at these higher reaction temperature conditions. Nevertheless, it has to be taken into account that  
287 the beneficial effects of the presence of Sn become detrimental if a too high amount of this  
288 promoter is present, as the amount of active Pt surface sites decrease and, thus, the catalytic  
289 activity.

290

#### 291 **4. Conclusions**

292 The effect of Sn addition to Pt/C catalyst with different Pt:Sn ratios was investigated in  
293 the glycerol steam reforming reaction. XPS and TPR-H<sub>2</sub> data revealed the close proximity and  
294 strong interaction between Pt and Sn. TEM images showed that metal agglomerations in the tin-  
295 containing catalysts were less evident than in the monometallic Pt/C catalyst, and a lesser  
296 amount of agglomerates were formed when the amount of tin in the catalyst is increased.

297 Regarding catalytic tests, a good behaviour in terms of activity and stability was obtained  
298 with bimetallic PtSn/C catalysts with low Sn/Pt ratios, both under mild reaction conditions (10  
299 wt% glycerol and 623 K) and under more severe conditions (30 wt% glycerol and 673 K). It was  
300 found that Sn promotes the CO oxidation reaction producing H<sub>2</sub>-rich gas streams. Furthermore,

301 the H<sub>2</sub> selectivity increased with low Sn/Pt ratios. Sn is also able to inhibit coke formation  
302 reactions and hinder Pt sintering, thereby improving the stability of the catalyst.

303

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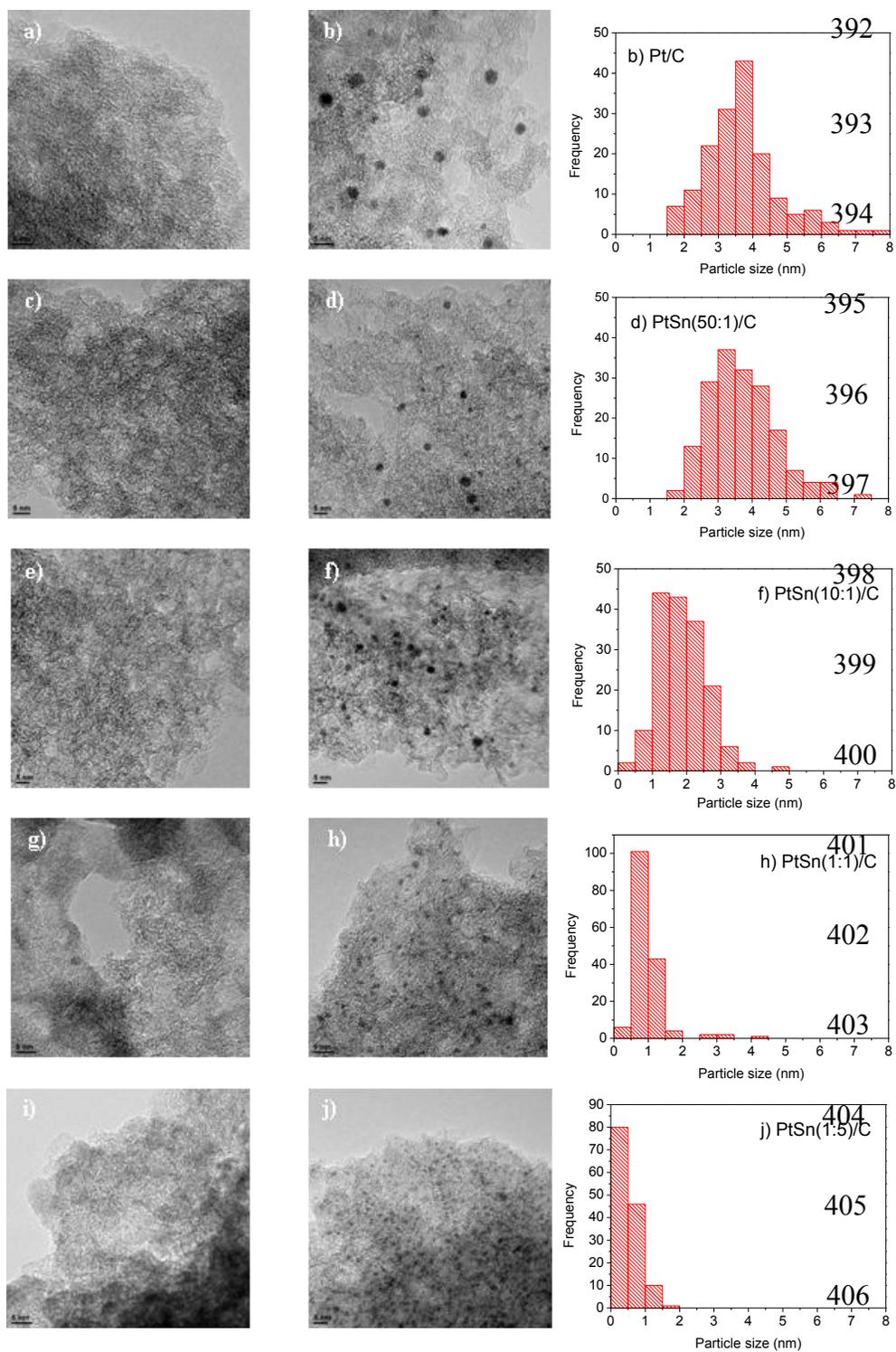
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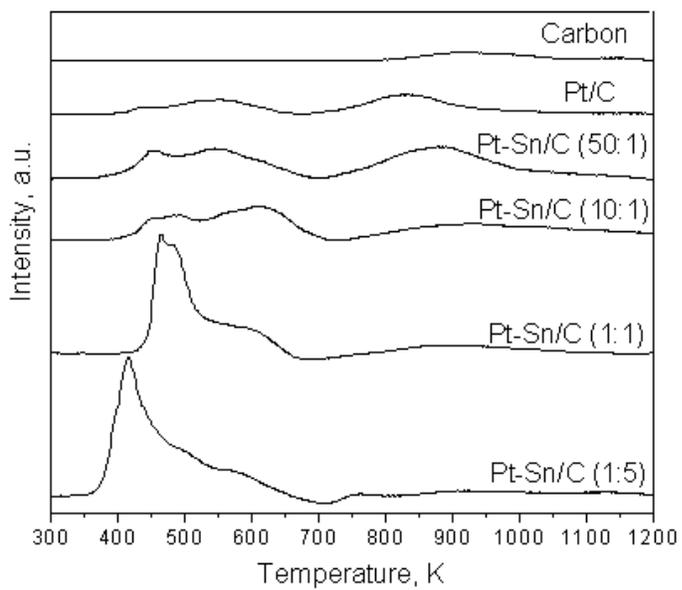
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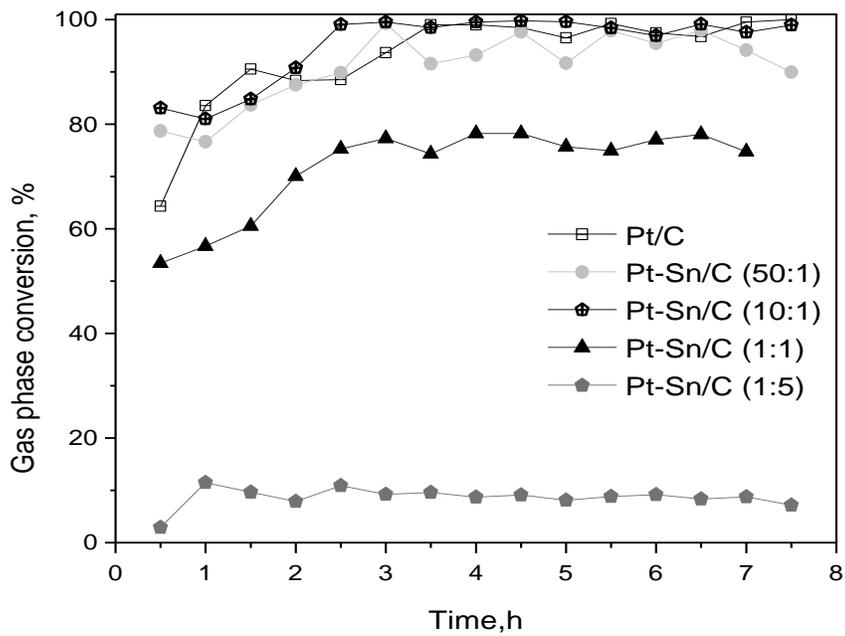
407 **Figure 1.** TEM images before (left column) and after glycerol steam reforming (right column)  
 408 for a), b) Pt/C; c), d) Pt-Sn/C (50:1); e), f) Pt-Sn/C (10:1); g), h) Pt-Sn/C (1:1) and i), j) Pt-Sn/C  
 409 (1:5) catalysts and particle size distributions for all catalysts after glycerol steam reforming.



410

411 **Figure 2.** H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles for the fresh dried catalysts.

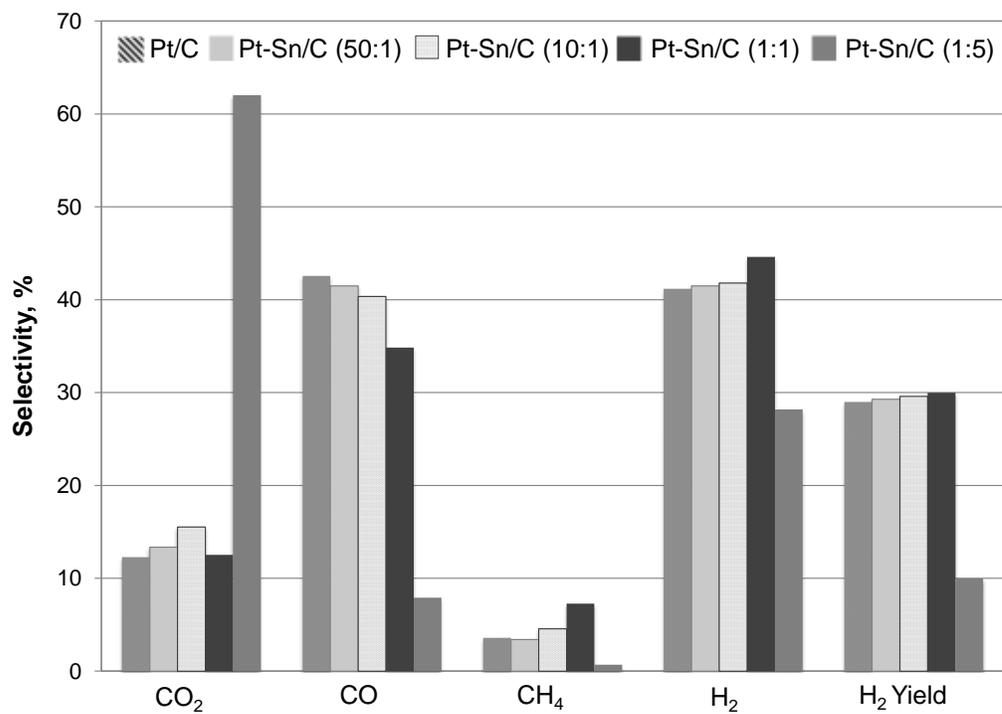
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414 **Figure 3.** Gas phase conversion vs. time on stream of the different catalysts in glycerol steam  
 415 reforming at 623 K.

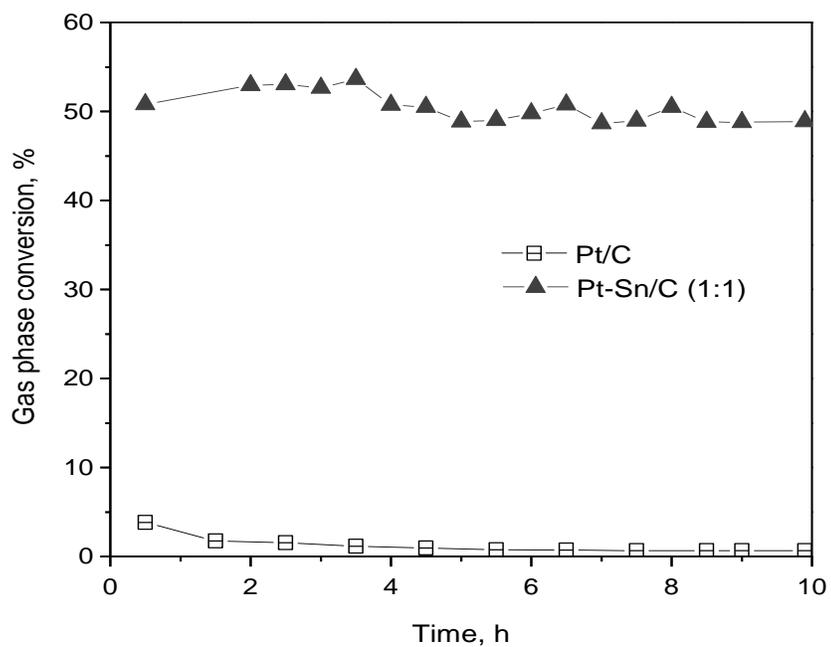
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418 **Figure 4.** Selectivity for the gaseous products in the GSR at 623 K.

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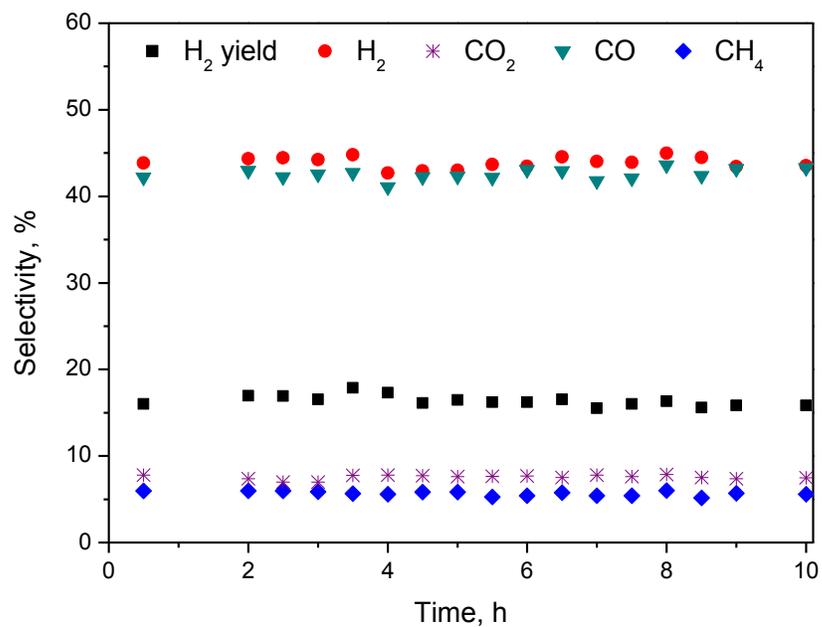


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421 **Figure 5.** Gas phase conversion vs time of reaction for Pt/C and Pt-Sn/C (1:1) catalysts at 673 K

422 and feed of 30 % w/w of glycerol.

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424  
 425 **Figure 6.** Selectivity for the gaseous products and H<sub>2</sub> yield for Pt-Sn/C (1:1) catalyst at 673 K  
 426 and feed of 30 % w/w of glycerol.

427

428 **Table 1.** Atomic ratios and binding energies of the Pt 4f<sub>7/2</sub> and Sn 3d<sub>5/2</sub> levels in catalysts  
 429 reduced at 523 K, and Pt loading.

Catalyst	Binding energies (eV)		Sn(0)/[Sn(II,IV)+Sn(0)]	Pt/Sn (at/at)	*Pt (wt.%)
	Pt 4f <sub>7/2</sub>	Sn 3d <sub>5/2</sub>			
<b>Pt/C</b>	71.4	--		--	4.8
<b>Pt-Sn/C (50:1)</b>	71.3	485.2 - 486.4	0.048	46.3	4.9
<b>Pt-Sn/C (10:1)</b>	71.3	485.2 - 486.3	0.107	11.4	4.8
<b>Pt-Sn/C (1:1)</b>	71.3	485.2 - 486.2	0.086	0.87	4.6
<b>Pt-Sn/C (1:5)</b>	71.2	485.2 - 486.3	0.074	0.28	4.7

430 \* Determined by ICP analysis.

431

432 **Table 2.** Phase gas composition (molar ratios) and conversion in glycerol steam reforming at 623  
433 K for all samples.

434

Catalyst	H <sub>2</sub> /CO	CO/CO <sub>2</sub>	CH <sub>4</sub> /H <sub>2</sub>	Gas phase conv. (%)
Pt/C	0.97	3.46	0.09	100
Pt-Sn/C (50:1)	1.00	3.10	0.08	98
Pt-Sn/C (10:1)	0.98	2.60	0.12	100
Pt-Sn/C (1:1)	1.28	2.78	0.16	78
Pt-Sn/C (1:5)	3.56	0.13	0.01	9

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