

Machine Learning assisted CO₂ utilization in the catalytic dry reforming of hydrocarbons: Reaction pathways and multi-criteria optimization analyses

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Machine Learning assisted CO₂ utilization in the catalytic dry reforming of hydrocarbons: Reaction pathways and multi-criteria optimization analyses

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Abstract

The catalytic dry reforming (DR) process is a clean approach to transform CO₂ into H₂ and CO rich synthetic gas that can be used for various energy applications such as Fischer-Tropsch fuels production. A novel framework is proposed to determine the optimum reaction configurations and reaction pathways for DR of C₁-C₄ hydrocarbons *via* a Reaction Mechanism Generator (RMG). With the aid of machine learning, the variation of thermodynamic and microkinetic parameters based on different reaction temperatures, pressures, CH₄/CO₂ ratios and catalytic surface, Pt(111) and Ni(111), were successfully elucidated. As a result, a promising multi-criteria decision-making process, TOPSIS, was employed to identify the optimum reaction configuration with the trade-off between H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction. Notably, the optimum conditions for the DR of C₁ and C₂ hydrocarbons were 800 °C at 3 atm on Pt(111); whereas C₃ and C₄ hydrocarbons found favor at 800 °C and 2 atm on Ni(111) to attain the highest H₂ yield and CO₂ conversion. Based on the RMG-Cat (first-principle microkinetic database), the energy profile of the most selective reaction pathway network for the DR of CH₄ on Pt(111) at 3 atm and 800 °C was deduced. The activation energy (E_a) for C-H bond dissociation *via* dehydrogenation on the Pt(111) was found to be 0.60 eV, lower than that reported previously for Ni(111), Cu(111), and Co(111) surfaces. The most endothermic reaction of the CH₄ reforming process was found to be $C_3H_3^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + C_3H_4$ (218.74 kJ/mol).

Keywords

CO₂ utilization; Reaction mechanism network; Machine learning; Catalytic dry reforming; Density functional theory, Hydrogen production

1. Introduction

Over the years, carbon dioxide (CO₂) has been classified as one of the main atmospheric greenhouse gases (GHGs) responsible for anthropogenic climate change. Data from the European Environment Agency (EEA) shows that CO₂ emissions from the transport sector represented more than 25% of the total European Union 28 countries' GHGs emissions in 2017 [1,2]. However, due to its abundance CO₂ has sparked renewed interest due to its low cost as a source of clean energy, allowing it to contribute to a carbon circular economy [3]. To achieve a meaningful impact on both the economy and the environment, carbon dioxide utilization (CDU) must be conducted instead of storage to unlock the potential for profitable industrial applications. The proper implication of CDU is capable of reaching critical global net-zero CO₂ emissions targets by 2050. CDU will allow for the production of value-added chemicals such as hydrogen, syngas, allyl alcohols, and long-chain hydrocarbons [4].

Among all the syngas production technologies, the catalytic CO₂ Dry Reforming (CDR) of hydrocarbons is one of the most feasible technologies to be up-scaled into the commercial-scale chemical manufacturing process as compared to its biological counterparts due to the high hydrogen purity, short reaction time, and unnecessary CO₂ downstream purification [5,6]. Besides abating and recycling the CO₂, the Dry Reforming (DR) process can be integrated into the synthesis of various chemical building blocks without complex configurations in the system [7]. Practically, Dry Reforming of Methane (DRM) is the most extensively investigated technology for producing syngas with a low H₂:CO ratio, which is suitable for the synthesis of oxygenated chemicals and hydrocarbons from Fischer–Tropsch synthesis [8]. Notably, DRM reaction is favored at high temperature (e.g., 600-1000 °C) and ambient pressure (~1 atm) to achieve a considerable high conversion [9]. Recently, researchers have discovered alternative ways to convert CO₂ to syngas from the economic and safety standpoints by using light C₂-C₄ hydrocarbons such as ethane, propane, and butane found in shale gas (natural gas

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3 trapped in porous sedimentary shale rock) [10]. With the current high growth of shale gas
4 production at ~2.7% per year, it has become a highly sought industrial petrochemical feedstock
5 that can produce value-added chemicals [11]. Meanwhile, from the thermodynamic
6 stoichiometric equilibrium point of view, the conversion of CO₂ (50%) in DR of C₂H₆ and
7 C₄H₁₀ can be achieved at 488 °C and 444 °C, which is ~12-15% lower than CH₄ (560 °C) [7].
8 Such reduction in reaction temperatures offers better flexibility in catalyst synthesis, especially
9 the physicochemical structural tuning of the catalysts to increase their lifespan and activity.
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20 Over the years, Reaction Mechanism Generators (RMG: version 1.0 and 2.0) have been
21 explored and elucidated for various chemical platform reactions, not limited to modeling for
22 biofuels [12], ketones [13], and aromatic hydrocarbons [14]. On the other hand, density
23 functional theory (DFT), an accurate and reliable computational method, has been widely
24 adopted in an array of homogeneity catalytic processes to investigate the characteristics and
25 performance of catalysts at an atomic scale [15]. With the aid of DFT analysis, researchers can
26 understand the following elements in-depth: (i) identify which crystalline surface(s) of the
27 catalyst is preferred for the desirable process; (ii) identify the possible reactions that can happen
28 on that surface, including short-lived chemical intermediates; (iii) identify the thermodynamic
29 parameters of all the possible reactions; and (iv) elucidate the chemical molecular dynamics of
30 adsorption of a given reactant and material [16,17]. These kinetic and thermodynamic
31 mechanism inputs can be further incorporated into a third-party reactor software package (i.e.,
32 ASPEN Plus, Cantera, and ANSYS Fluent) to simulate the predictions for macro-variables of
33 interest such as product composition, ignition behavior, and flame speed. Nonetheless, RMG
34 does not require any kinetics or thermodynamic information inputs (e.g., ΔH , E_a , and ΔG) for
35 the process or possible reaction pathways to predict the yield of potential products, in which
36 other well-known chemical process simulation tools. Recently, a group of researchers from
37 MIT (USA) has proposed an automated machine learning approach, RMG-Cat, which can
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3 generate microkinetic mechanisms for heterogeneous catalysis based on the ab-initio electronic
4 structure code database [18]. In summary, RMG-Cat has the advantage while comparing
5 towards other automated mechanism generators such as MAMOX, RNG, and XMG, especially
6 with its astonishing effect on handling large number of species and reactions alongside wide
7 cheminformatics libraries [19].
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15 In the past, many different active metals have been considered and investigated in CDR
16 systems, such as noble metals (e.g., Rh, Ru, Pt, and Pd) and non-noble metals (e.g., Ni, Co, and
17 Cu) [20,21]. Among the active metals, Pt and Ni metal-based catalysts are the most extensively
18 investigated for DRM due to their high performance in C-H scission and thermal stability when
19 at high temperatures (>700 °C) [22]. Recently, Niu and their research team [23] have
20 synthesized an active and stable bimetallic PtNi catalyst that exhibited improved catalytic
21 activity compared with monometallic counterparts. The bimetallic PtNi catalyst also
22 successfully suppressed the reverse water-gas shift reaction and improved the coking resistance
23 of the catalysts which prolonged its service life during the reaction. In the similar vein, the
24 same research team [24] investigated the reaction mechanism of CO₂ reforming of methane to
25 syngas over the bimetallic PtNi catalyst in a systematic DFT study. It was revealed that the
26 bimetallic catalyst demands a higher energy requirement than the Ni(111) and Pt(111) and the
27 dominant reaction pathway on Pt and PtNi was determined to be H-assisted CO₂ dissociation.
28 However, to date, there is still a lack of literature in determining the reaction pathway network
29 and for optimizing the reactions simultaneously *via a* machine learning approach, specifically
30 for the field of CO₂ utilization. Thus, our study aims to provide an in-depth understanding on
31 how machine learning helps in determining the thermodynamic parameters as well as the
32 fundamentals behind microkinetic heterogeneous catalyst-reactant complex system. Thus, this
33 study could highly contribute to bridging the research gap between process optimization and
34 microkinetic analysis in determining the optimal light hydrocarbons (LHC) *via* the CDR
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3 process on Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces, focusing on:
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- 6 • Identifying the efficiency of converting CO₂ into a clean H₂ using LHC (C₁-C₄) *via*
7 CDR on both Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces.
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- 10 • Evaluating the H₂ yield generated and the rate of CO₂ reduction of all LHC involved at
11 different operational conditions.
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- 14 • Determine the optimal-operating conditions for each LHC assisted by TOPSIS
15 according to the trade-off between H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction.
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- 18 • Determine the output variation of the CDR process from each LHC through sensitivity
19 analysis.
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- 22 • Assessing the energy profile with the possible reaction pathways and the
23 thermodynamic parameters for the optimized conditions for the selected LHC.
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2. Methodology

The well-established artificial intelligence tool: RMG-Py (version 3.0), established on python, was applied in this study to determine all the possible reaction pathways and products in the DR of C₁-C₄ hydrocarbons [25]. The operational mechanism of RMG is based on the functional groups of the driven reactants in each reaction network proposed, with a thorough search of the RMG-database for all the possible reactions and the products. A detailed description of the essential features for RMG, including species representation, thermodynamic parameter estimation, and rate-based algorithm, can be referred in Gao *et al.* [17]. This study aims to investigate all possible decarbonization reactions initiated by CO₂ and the LHC in the core model. Subsequently, species apart from the initial specification in the reaction will be considered in the core if only the reaction flux agrees. The thermochemical properties of the species that occur in the reaction at a given operating condition (temperature and pressure) are adapted from the RMG-database (version 3.0). In the circumstances where the properties are not known, Benson's group additivity and by on-the-fly semi-empirical quantum chemistry calculations will be applied to assume the respective properties [26].

As mentioned previously, ethane which is found abundantly in shale gas and methane, the significant gas component, will be used in this study [27]. Generally, two of the primary reaction pathways in CO₂ reforming were reported: (i) Syngas (i.e., CO and H₂) production with CO₂ reforming and (ii) ethylene (C₂H₄) generation *via* oxidative dehydrogenation [28]. The former reaction pathway is more favorable in this study that allows the catalytic production of H₂. Due to the DR of hydrocarbons requiring a catalyst, the RMG-Cat (currently embedded into the current version of RMG-Py) has been employed in this study to simulate the reaction which Goldsmith and West initially proposed for DRM on Ni(111) [15]. Blondal *et al.* has validated the application of RMG-Cat in the catalytic combustion of methane on Pt(111) surface [29]. The operational conditions for the DR of C₂H₆ are adapted from Xie *et al.* to

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3 validate the base results of this work [30]. As reported in the study, the flow reactor was set at
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5 600 °C and 1 atm along with the volumetric reactant flow ratio of 1:1:2 for C₂H₆, CO₂, and
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7 Argon (as a balance).
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10 **Fig.1** shows the overall framework applied in this study, starting with the RMG
11 simulation of the CDR on C₂H₆ according to the operating conditions mentioned above for
12 both Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces with the maximal retention time of 0.05 s (pre-fixed
13 termination time in RMG). The RMG simulation was further carried out using other LHCs
14 under similar operating conditions, as shown in **Table 1**. A total of 72 different combinations
15 (18 for each LHC on both Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces) of simulations were conducted on
16 RMG-Cat. Each combination was carried out in triplicate to ensure the accuracy of the results
17 obtained alongside to reduce the noise occurrence. Such replication of result is due to the nature
18 of rate-based algorithm that RMG adopted which it will identify the reaction that most likely
19 occurs from a pool of potential reactions, based on the species and operating conditions
20 initiated prior to the simulation alongside the error tolerance and termination criteria specified.
21 The simulation results (i.e., trends of the effect of reaction temperature and pressure towards
22 CO₂ conversion) attained were also validate with previous studies [31], ensuring the reliability
23 of the results. Then, the optimal combination of LHC concerning the desired products was
24 chosen with Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS). This
25 allows us to identify the optimum operating conditions that yield the highest CO₂ conversion
26 and H₂ yield at a specific retention time. A variation on the ratio of CO₂ and the selected LHC
27 was conducted to identify the resulting changes. Lastly, an analysis of the energy profile for
28 the optimal LHC with the operating configuration proposed was also being performed.
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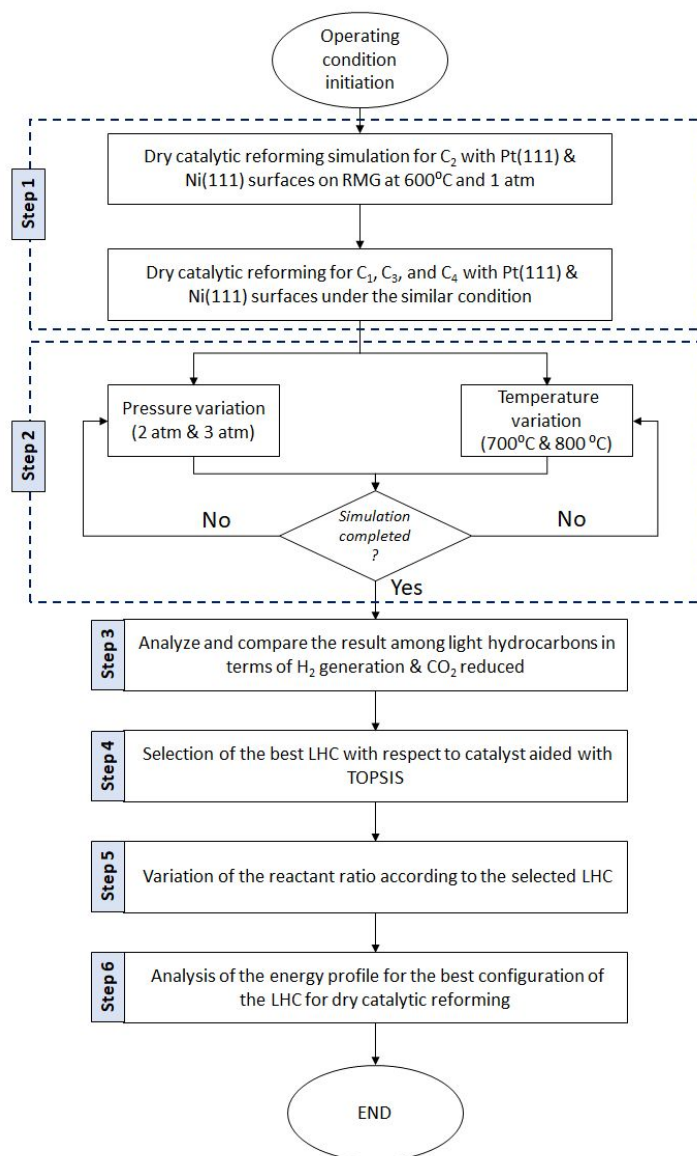


Fig. 1 Overall framework for determining the optimal LHC option among CH_4 , C_2H_6 , C_3H_8 , and C_4H_{10} for H_2 generation and CO_2 utilization *via* CDR.

Table 1. Mole fraction of reactants in the CDR reaction according to the input volumetric flow rate ratio of 1:1:2 for CO_2 , LHC, and Argon with a total of 40 mL/min.

Type of LHC	Input mole fraction for the reactants (mol %)		
	CO_2	LHC	Argon
Methane	0.250	0.250	0.500
Ethane	0.275	0.174	0.551
Propane	0.277	0.170	0.553
Butane	0.283	0.152	0.565

2.1 TOPSIS selection for optimal LHC

Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) is a multi-criteria decision method that aims to identify the potential alternatives with the nearest distance towards positive ideal solutions and most negative ideal solutions [32]. Due to its user friendly interface and high precision, it has been employed in many different applications over the years, such as in the selection of ideal solutions for the reduction in net carbon emissions [33], selection of optimal technology for Power-to-X system (transformation of municipal waste to energy) [34], formulating sustainable fertilizer for oil palm plantations [35], and optimization for the conversion of CO₂ to high-value products [36]. Both the assessment variables (i), H₂ yield, and CO₂ reduction from each output, at each operating condition ($P_{i,LHC}$) are normalized ($P_{i,LHC}^{Norm}$) to the scale of 0 and 1 in accordance with each of the LHC inputs. Here, $P_{i,LHC}^+$ and $P_{i,LHC}^-$ represent the positive-ideal and negative-ideal values reported from the results of catalytic dry LHC reforming, as shown in Eq. (1).

$$P_{i,LHC}^{Norm} = \frac{P_{i,LHC} - P_{i,LHC}^-}{P_{i,LHC}^+ - P_{i,LHC}^-} \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

The general expression of the TOPSIS method, which ranks the solution based on the identified relative closeness, C_i (Eq. (2)) is calculated based on the L² distance towards positive- (S_i^+) and negative- (S_i^-) ideal solutions. Herein, a higher relative closeness value indicates a more desirable result, in this case the optimized operating conditions for each LHC.

$$C_i = \frac{S_i^-}{S_i^+ + S_i^-} \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

Whereby, the L² distance towards the positive-ideal solution (S_i^+), and negative-ideal solution (S_i^-) is calculated according to Eq. (3) and Eq. (4), respectively.

$$S_i^+ = \sqrt{\sum_i (P_{i,LHC}^{Norm} - P_{i,LHC}^+)^2} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

$$S_i^- = \sqrt{\sum_i (P_{i,LHC}^{Norm} - P_{i,LHC}^-)^2} \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Base comparison among LHC

Fig. 2 shows the evolutionary behavior of CO₂ dry reforming of C₁-C₄ LHCs on (a) Ni(111) and (b) Pt(111) at 600 °C and 1 atm. As expected, in both catalytic systems, all the LHCs were fully degraded and remained thermodynamically stable at ~0.01 s, whereas in the absence of a catalyst, the LHC does not react with CO₂, although after a more extended period of reaction time (600 s) to achieve a stable equilibrium in reaction, as shown in **Fig. S1**. All the LHC molecules are relatively stable due to their large C-H bond energy and stable structure [37]. Additionally, as the DR reaction is inherently endothermic, it requires a high temperature to reach equilibrium and facilitate syngas production. Also, the activation of the first C-H bond has been reported to be the rate-limiting step in the DR reaction, where the CH-O oxidation pathway is more favorable than C-O cleavage [38]. As a result, a shorter reaction time was observed when the LHC molecules break down to produce H₂ due to a lower energy barrier for C-H bond dissociation.

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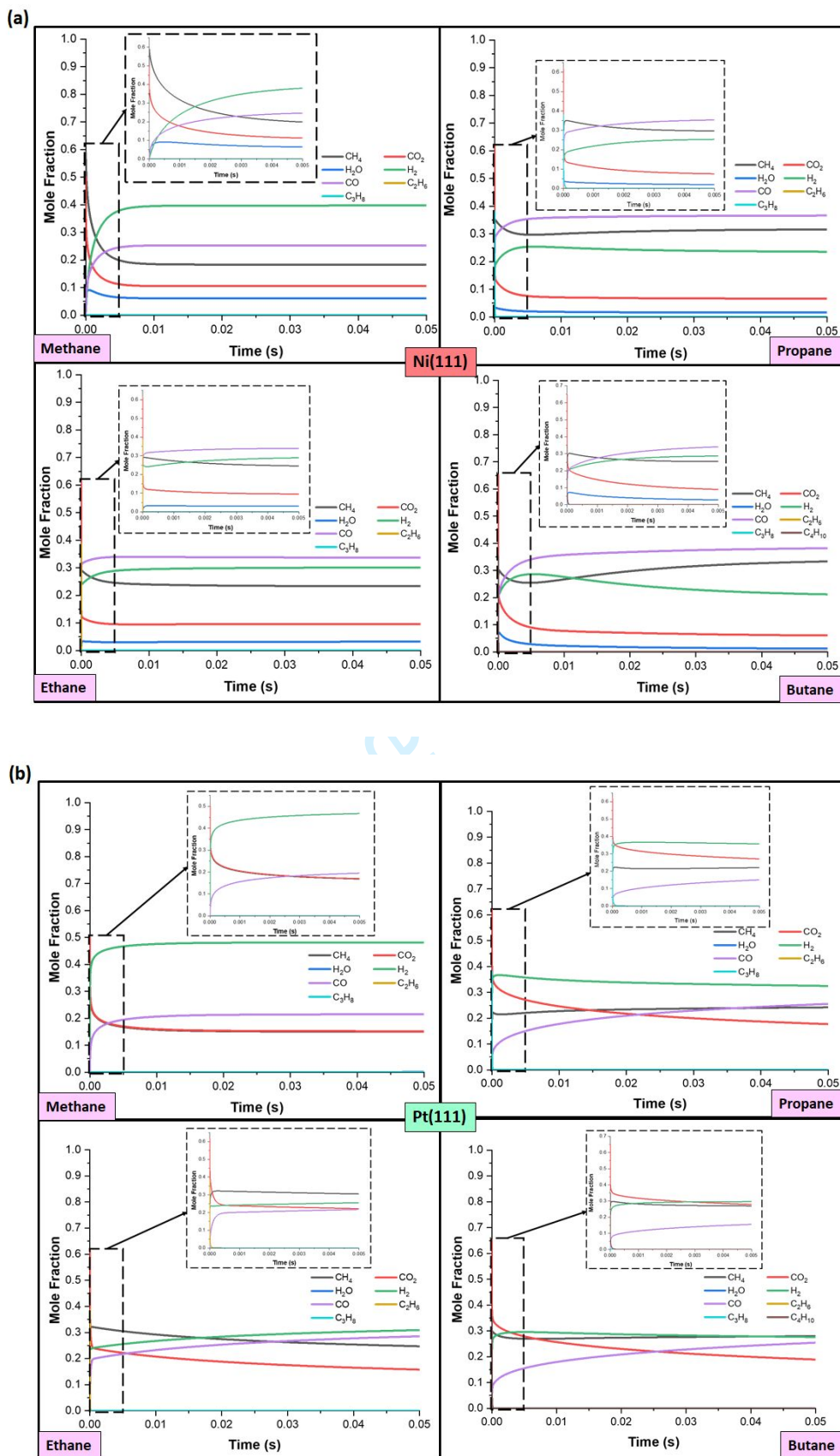


Fig. 2: Evolutionary behavior of different LHC concentrations *via* CDR on (a) Ni(111) and (b) Pt(111) surfaces.

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3 The possible reactions and products formed during the DR of LHCs in both heterogeneous and
4 homogeneous systems are shown in **Table 2** and expressed as Eq. (5)-Eq. (30). Overall, the
5 CDR of CH₄ is an endothermic process requiring high temperatures, > 800 °C, for complete
6 conversion (Eq. (5)). Additionally, many possible simultaneous side reactions (e.g., water-gas
7 shift, disproportionation, carbonization, or dissociation) might happen depending on the H₂:CO
8 ratio, as expressed in Eq. (6)-Eq. (7). Based on the thermodynamic parameter, the main DR of
9 CH₄ (Eq. (5)) is more endothermic compared to steam reforming (Eq. (6)) and partial reforming
10 of CH₄ (Eq. (7)), which is less feasible for long-term H₂ production. Therefore, in order
11 facilitate DR of CH₄ on an industrial scale, an optimal catalyst must be introduced to the system
12 to attain high conversions of CH₄ without leading to deactivation [39]. However, the high
13 reaction temperature for CDR of CH₄ will facilitate the simultaneous Reverse Water Gas Shift
14 (RWGS) reaction, Eq. (14-16), which tends to reduce the H₂:CO ratio to <1 due to H₂
15 consumption (not favorable). The effect of the RWGS reaction can be minimized at higher
16 reaction temperatures and/or higher ratios of CH₄:CO₂ reagents. However, higher ratios of CH₄:
17 CO₂ (>1) have been shown to increase catalyst deactivation *via* carbon deposition [40]. The
18 carbon formed during DRM is primarily attributed to two reactions: (i) CH₄ decomposition
19 (Eq. (9)) and (ii) Boudouard's reaction (CO disproportionation, Eq. (13)). Meanwhile, the
20 remaining equations (Eq. (17-26)) are dedicated to the reforming of higher carbon LHCs (C₂-
21 C₄).

Table 2. Compilation of the possible reactions through the dry catalytic reforming of LHCs

Reaction	ΔH_{298} (kJ/mol)	Equation
$CH_4 + CO_2 \leftrightarrow 2CO + 2H_2$	247.0	Eq. 5
$CH_4 + H_2O \leftrightarrow CO + 3H_2$	205.9	Eq. 6
$CH_4 + O_2 \leftrightarrow C_2H_2 + CO + H_2O$	106.0	Eq. 7
$2CH_4 + 2CO_2 \leftrightarrow C_2H_4 + 2CO + 2H_2O$	284.0	Eq. 8
$CH_4 \leftrightarrow C + 2H_2$	74.9	Eq. 9
$H_2 + CO \leftrightarrow H_2O + C$	-131.3	Eq. 10
$CO + H_2O = CO_2 + H_2$	-41.0	Eq. 11
$CO + 2H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_3OH$	-90.6	Eq. 12
$2CO \leftrightarrow C + CO_2$	-172.4	Eq. 13
$CO_2 + 2H_2 \leftrightarrow C + 2H_2O$	-90.0	Eq. 14
$CO_2 + 3H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_3OH + H_2O$	-49.1	Eq. 15
$CO_2 + 4H_2 \leftrightarrow CH_4 + 2H_2O$	-165.0	Eq. 16
$C_2H_6 + H_2O \leftrightarrow CH_4 + CO + 2H_2$	-369.7	Eq. 17
$C_2H_6 + CO_2 \leftrightarrow C_2H_4 + CO + H_2O$	-238.6	Eq. 18
$C_2H_6 \leftrightarrow C_2H_4 + H_2$	136.2	Eq. 19
$C_3H_8 + CO_2 \leftrightarrow C_3H_6 + CO + H_2O$	166.4	Eq. 20
$C_3H_8 + 6H_2O \leftrightarrow 3CO_2 + 10H_2$	374.1	Eq. 21
$C_3H_8 \rightarrow CH_4 + 2C(s) + 2H_2$	30.5	Eq. 22
$C_3H_8 + 3CO_2 \leftrightarrow 6CO + 4H_2$	620.3	Eq. 23
$C_3H_8 \rightarrow C_3H_6 + H_2$	125.0	Eq. 24
$C_3H_8 \leftrightarrow C_2H_4 + CH_4$	89.0	Eq. 25
$C_4H_{10} + H_2O \leftrightarrow C_3H_8 + CO + 2H_2$	-356.7	Eq. 26
$2CH_3OH \leftrightarrow CH_3OCH_3 + H_2O$	-37.1	Eq. 27
$CH_3OCH_3 + CO_2 \leftrightarrow 3CO + 3H_2$	258.4	Eq. 28
$CH_3OCH_3 + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2CO + 4H_2$	204.8	Eq. 29
$CH_3OCH_3 + 3H_2O \leftrightarrow 2CO_2 + 6H_2$	136.0	Eq. 30

Notably, Pt(111) surface was found to be more favorable towards direct dehydrogenation of CH_4 than Ni(111). This finding is in good agreement with Niu et al. finding [24] where they found that direct CH_4 dehydrogenation was more preferred on a Pt(111) than that of Ni (111) surface. Similar observations were attained for all LHCs, where the equilibrium state was achieved in shorter reaction times, indicating a different LHC dissociation pathway for both Pt(111) and Ni(111). This finding is supported by Yan *et al.*, who found that C–C cleavage was more energetically favorable on Pt(111), whereas Ni(111) was more prone to C–O cleavage [7]. As expected, a higher syngas yield was acquired on Pt(111) compared to Ni (111), since C–C scission is the driving reaction to liberate H_2 and CO molecules. From **Fig. 2**,

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3 a higher yield of CO was attained from Ni(111) surface, suggesting that reversible WGS
4 reaction was more favourable. Whereas, a higher yield of H₂ was attained on Pt(111), indicating
5 it is effectively promoting the WGS reaction. For instance, CDR of C₃H₈ yielded a higher H₂
6 composition on Pt(111) than that of Ni(111) at 0.325 mol% and 0.236 mol%, respectively (on
7 the basis of at 600 °C, 1 atm) . Additionally, the reforming (**Table 2**, Eq. 6, 17, 21 and 26) and
8 WGS reactions (Eq. 11) were more favorable on Pt(111) than Ni(111) as almost all produced
9 H₂O molecules were fully converted to H₂ after ~0.01 s.

3.2 Performance across different operating conditions

3.2.1 Effect of temperature

26 As shown above, all the reactions presented are temperature-dependent, and large or
27 complex molecules are less favored at high temperatures. In order to suppress the formation of
28 large molecules such as methanol or dimethyl ether (Eq. 11- 15), a high-temperature range of
29 600–800 °C is more favorable. **Fig. 3(a)** and **Fig. 3(b)** illustrate the effect of reaction
30 temperature on the H₂ yield produced from LHC on both Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces. An
31 inclined temperature profile leading to a higher H₂ production can be observed among all the
32 LHC in both catalytic surfaces. This observation is supported by Le-Chatelier's principle, in
33 which an increase in reaction temperature for an endothermic reversible reaction would favor
34 the forward reaction. Since most of the main reforming reactions, including DR are
35 endothermic, an increasing temperature profile will induce a higher formation of H₂.
36 Meanwhile, Pt(111) and Ni(111) have an immiscible two-phase system with a low mass
37 transfer rate based on the mass transfer theory. An increase in reaction temperature can
38 accelerate the mass transfer between the reagent molecules in the heterogeneity complex
39 system [40]. Thus a high kinetic energy effect can be attained in a shorter reaction time,
40 promoting H₂ production and CO₂ conversion [41].
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3.2.2 Effect of pressure

Based on **Fig. 3(a)** and **Fig. 3(b)** plots, it can be seen that the increase of reaction pressure was not favorable for the production of H₂ on both catalytic surfaces, regardless of the LHC used. Since most LHC–CO₂ reforming reactions are volumetric expansion processes, the reaction equilibrium conversion decreases with increased pressure in the system [42]. For instance, the CDR of C₂H₆ on Pt(111) at 600 °C showed a diminished H₂ yield from 0.309 mol% to 0.181 mol% when the pressure increased from 1 to 3 atm. A similar finding was observed for the CDR of C₂H₆ on Ni(111), the H₂ yield dropped significantly by 52.15 % when the pressure increased from 1 to 3 atm. This is due to the increase of partial pressures of each gas component within the system. Random collisions between the gas molecules on the catalytic surfaces are expected, hindering complete dissociation and dehydrogenation of C-H bonds (favoring the C-C cracking pathway). As a result, more CH* intermediates were formed, favoring the formation of alkenes such as ethylene and propene (**Table 2**, Eq. 27-30). Fig. 4(a) and Fig. 4(b) show the effect of reaction temperature and pressure on the CO₂ conversion performance for different LHCs over Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces, respectively. From Fig. 4(a) and Fig. 4(b), it can be clearly seen that an increase in reaction pressure from 1 atm to 3 atm has improved the CO₂ conversion performance considerably regardless of the LHC, especially for Ni(111). This observation is in good agreement with the CO₂ conversion, in which the CO₂ conversion increases with higher pressure for both CDR systems. Thus, for an integrated downstream reaction that requires an H₂:CO ratio of 1 to occur, such as Fischer-Tropsch synthesis or direct synthesis of dimethyl ether (DME), a high pressure (>1 atm) is more favorable [43].

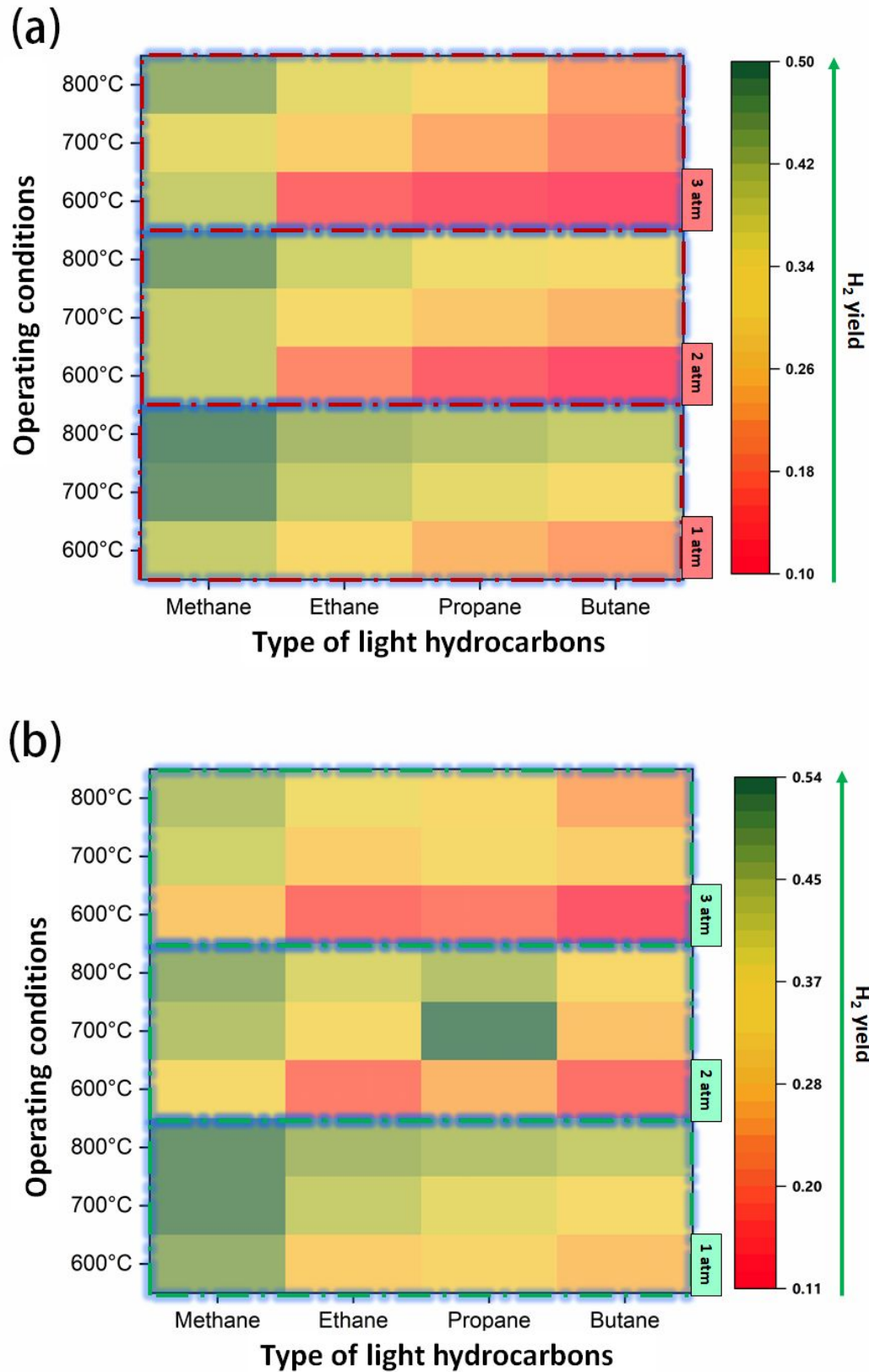


Fig. 3: H₂ yield across different operating conditions for the given LHC with a 0.05 s retention time: (a) Ni(111) and (b) Pt(111)

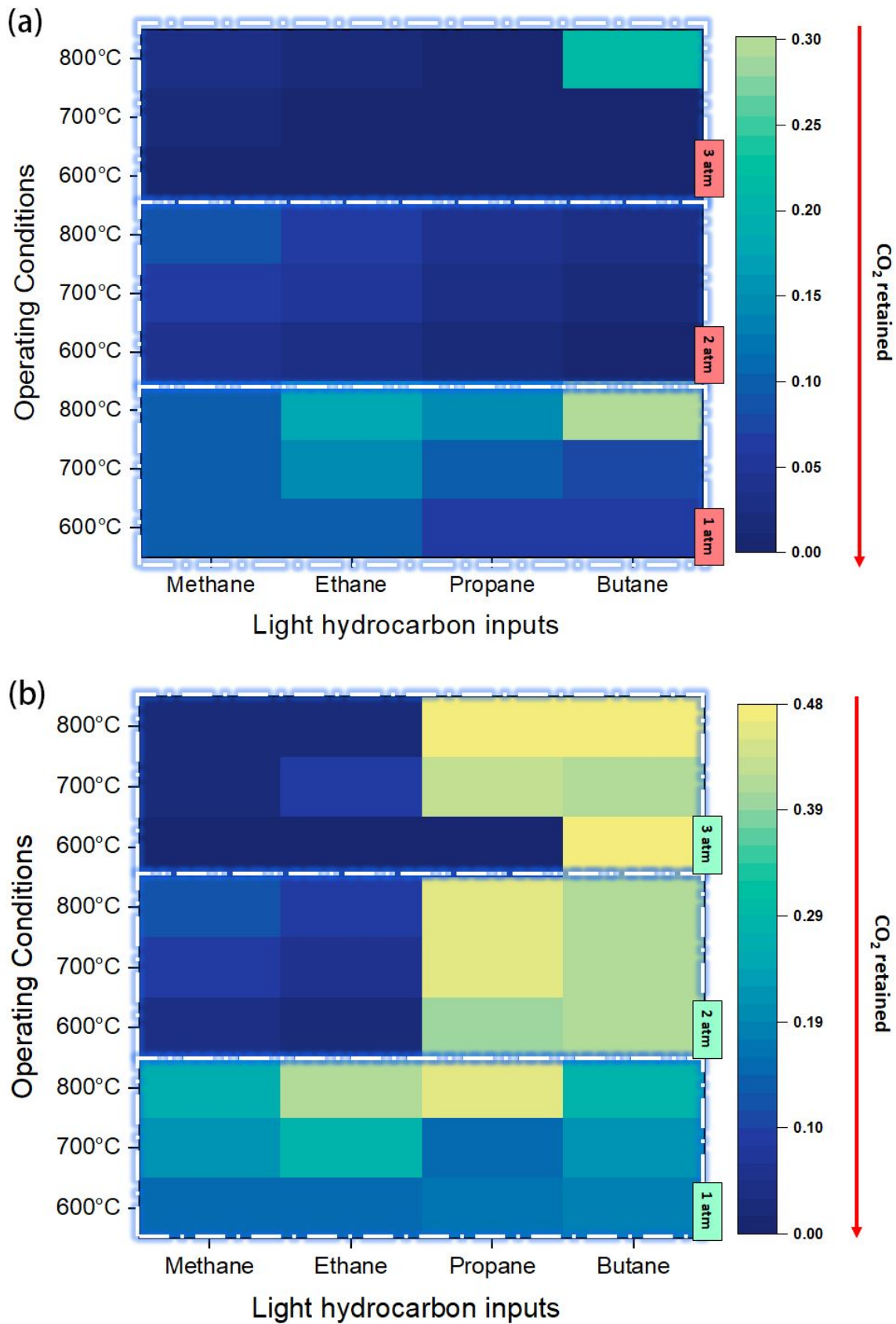


Fig. 4 Performance of CO₂ among different LHC inputs at the end of the reaction: (a) Ni(111) and (b) Pt(111)

3.3 LHC reaction optimization with TOPSIS

The importance of identifying the optimal-operating conditions for each LHC is essential for a promising CO₂ conversion. Herein, TOPSIS was adopted to rank the output of each operating condition for the respective LHC according to the H₂ yield and the remaining CO₂ at the end of CDR, marked at 0.05 s. As bounded by the nature of the algorithm for TOPSIS, a weightage shall be assigned to the variable (in this case, H₂ yield and CO₂ conversion); yet this study has assumed an equally importance of both the variable to ensure a non-biasness in the result. The optimum operating conditions for C₁-C₄, by considering the trade-off between the highest H₂ yield and CO₂ conversion, are shown in Fig. 5 according to the specified positive and negative ideal conditions. The positive ideal condition indicates the output with higher H₂ yield and CO₂ converted, whereas the negative ideal condition acts vice versa. The overall ranking according to the relative closeness can be referred to in **Table S1** to **Table S4**. As a result, the optimum conditions for the DR of C₁ and C₂ hydrocarbons were 800 °C and 3 atm on Pt(111); whereas C₃ and C₄ hydrocarbons were found to be favored at 800 °C and 2 atm on Ni(111) to obtain the highest H₂ yield and CO₂ conversion. Although a lower pressure was found to be more favorable towards H₂ production in Section 3.2.2, by considering the CO₂ conversion reported, such a trade-off on achieving optimality is expected. The H₂ yield and the CO₂ conversion for each LHC are summarized in **Table 3**. From **Table 3**, a further ranking among the LHC was made in which the ranking sequence is according to: CH₄, C₂H₆, C₄H₁₀, and C₃H₈. Therefore, one can conclude that methane is the most effective in H₂ generation by utilizing CO₂ to the greatest extent due to the least energy required to break down into simple molecules, as compared with other LHCs. The H₂ yield was 7.3%, 10%, 12.2% higher than that of C₂H₆, C₃H₈, and C₄H₁₀, respectively on the basis of the most optimum conditions.

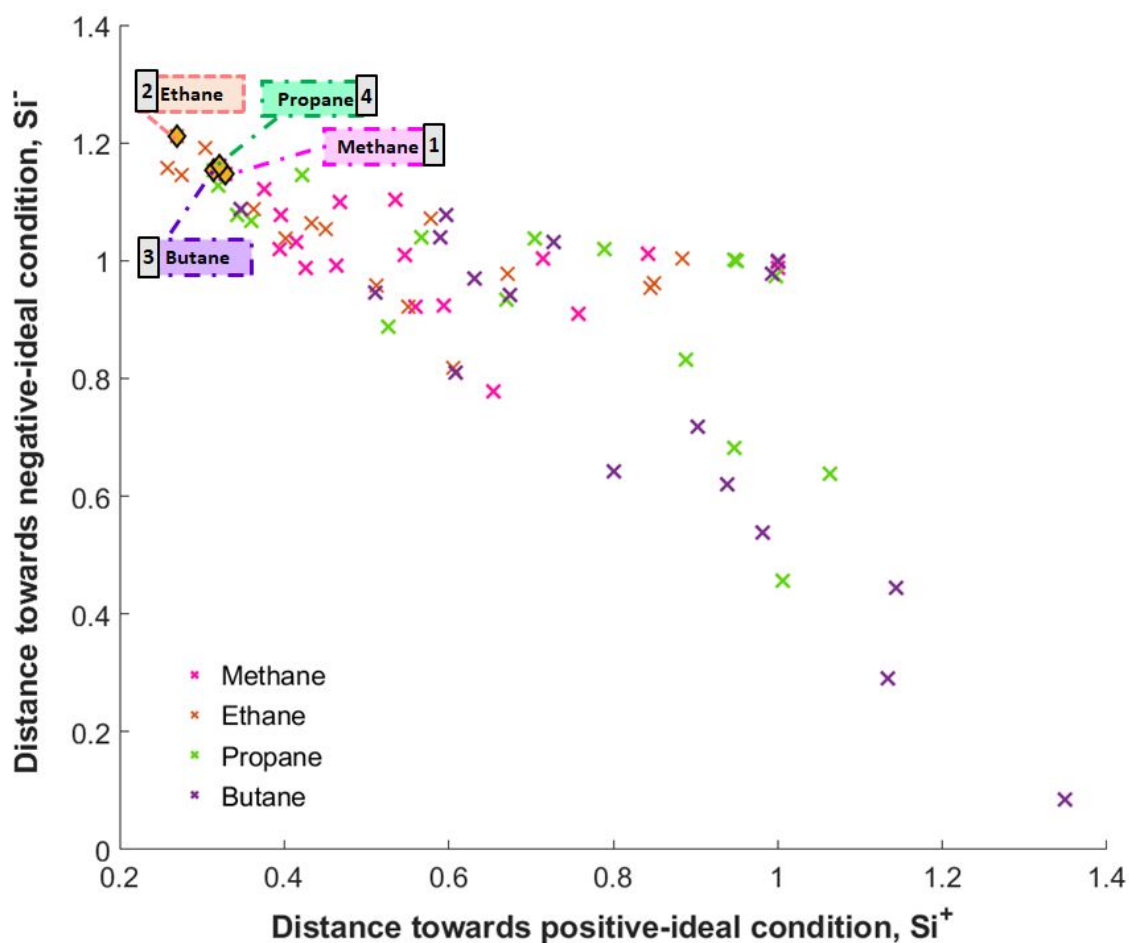


Fig. 5 Results of TOPSIS on the selection for the optimal operating condition combination among C_1 to C_4 LHCs according to hydrogen yield and remaining CO_2

Table 3. Hydrogen yield and CO_2 conversion of each LHC according to the optimal combination of operating condition

Type of LHC	Operating condition combination			Output performance		Ranking among optimal operating condition
	Pressure (atm)	Temperature ($^{\circ}C$)	Catalyst	H_2 yield (mol%)	CO_2 conversion (mol%)	
Methane	3.0	800.0	Pt(111)	44.9	93.8	1
Ethane	3.0	800.0	Pt(111)	37.6	96.8	2
Propane	2.0	800.0	Ni(111)	34.9	93.4	4
Butane	2.0	800.0	Ni(111)	32.7	95.0	3

3.4 Sensitivity analysis of varying the CH₄/CO₂ ratio

The formation of coke and the occurrence of carbon deposits are not solely dependent on the reactor temperature and pressure but also on the gas inlet composition, e.g., the CH₄:CO₂ ratio, as reported by Zhang *et al.*[44], possible aromatics such as benzene is expected with an increase of CH₄:CO₂. The concentration of ethylene and acetylene is also found to decrease slightly when increasing the CH₄:CO₂ ratio. Therefore, further investigation on the variation of the input reactant ratio towards the desired product was also conducted in this study to maximize the CO₂ utilization. The input variables of the reactant (CH₄ and CO₂), diluted in Argon spanned from a CH₄ rich stream to a CO₂ rich stream, are tabulated in **Table S6**.

As per results shown in **Fig. 6**, the H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction increased to maxima, 6.0% (Base: 44.9 mol% H₂ yields) and 5.2% (Base: 93.8 mol% CO₂ conversions), respectively at a 1:4 ratio as compared to that of a 1:1 ratio. The CH₄ conversion was reduced by 19.4% to 69.9 mol% compared to the 1:1 ratio (89.4 mol% CH₄ conversions), indicating that the CO₂ is the limiting reagent. On the other hand, the CH₄ conversion in a CO₂-rich stream was reported to be not favorable towards H₂ generation (16.7%), although a 99.9 mol% CH₄ conversion was attained. Herein, the optimal input reactant ratio was suggested to be 1:1 by considering the trade-off between the H₂ yield, CO₂ conversion, and CH₄ conversion, which agrees with Cao *et al.* [45] which conducted a thermodynamic equilibrium analysis FactSage thermochemical software and databases. Overall, at a low CH₄:CO₂ ratio, the equilibrium in Eq. (1-4) will shift forward and thus, enhance the CO and H₂ yields. When at a high CH₄:CO₂ ratio (> 1), the CO₂ amount decreases, causing a lower CH₄ conversion. This is due to the CH₄ dissociation (CH₄ → C + 2H₂) (Eq. 5), leading to coke formation on the catalyst surface. Moreover, further analysis of the input reactant (LHC/CO₂) effect on the H₂ yield, CO₂ reduction, and CH₄ conversion for other LHCs were investigated, as shown in Table S5-Table S8 and Figure S2- Figure S4.

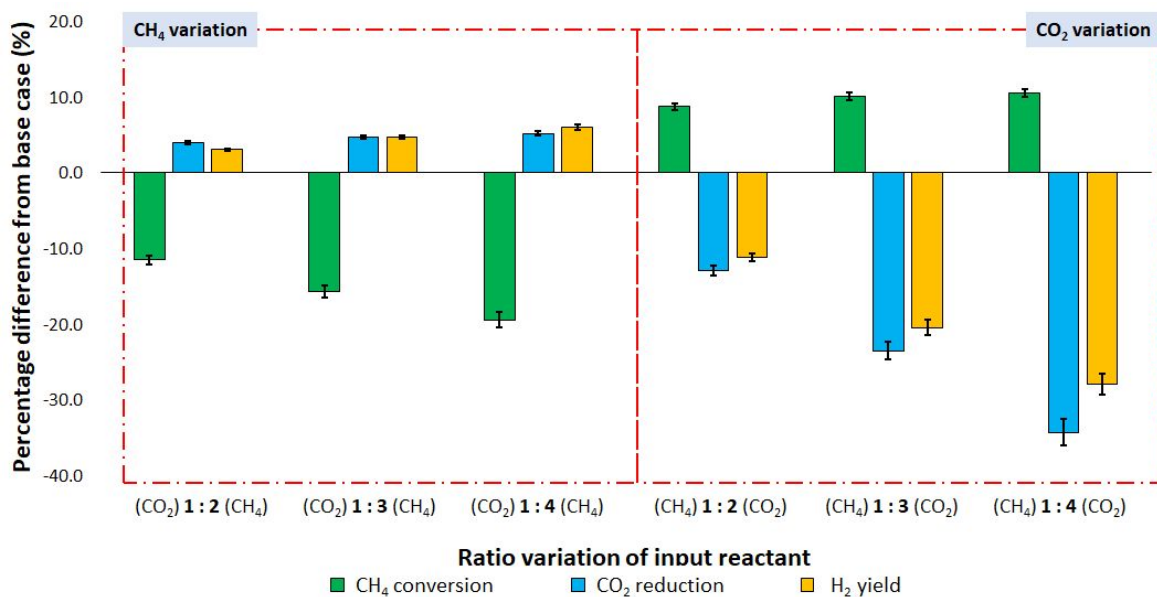


Fig. 6 Output of varying the input reactant (CO₂ and CH₄) for the dry methane reforming with Pt (111) in 3 atm, 800 °C

3.5 Energy profile and proposed mechanisms for dry reforming CH₄ on Pt(111)

According to the reaction pathways determined by the RMG network (**Fig. 7**), the whole reaction network for the DR of CH₄ (reaction conditions: Pt(111) surface, 3 atm, and 800 °C) can be separated into 6 sections, namely CH₄ dehydrogenation, CH₄ dissociation, CO₂ dissociation, CH oxidation, C oxidation, and H₂ formation, respectively. For CH₄ dissociation (b), direct dehydrogenation and H-assisted dehydrogenation were studied. Meanwhile, for CO₂ dissociation (c), both direct dissociation and H-assisted dissociation were investigated. For CH and C oxidation (d-e), the O* and OH* assisted pathways were considered. Lastly, H₂ formation (f) was produced from the desorbed H atoms from the Pt(111) surface.

As mentioned above, CH₄ is a stable molecule owing to its strictly symmetrical structure and large C-H bond energy (+415.5 kJ/mol). Thus, the activation of the first C-H bond *via* dehydrogenation was found to be the rate-limiting step in this reforming system, which has been extensively reported [46,47]. The first activation energy (E_a) of $\text{CH}_4^* + * \leftrightarrow \text{CH}_3^* + \text{H}^*$

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3 on Pt(111) was found to be 0.60 eV, which is still lower than that of Ni(111) (1.21 eV) [24],
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5 Cu(111) (1.88 eV) [48], and Co(0001) (0.95 eV) [49] as reported by other researchers.
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7 Meanwhile, for CH_3^* , CH_2^* , and CH^* dehydrogenation, the activation energies were <0.60
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9 eV, indicating that the process can proceed smoothly with a lower energy barrier than CH_4^*
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11 dehydrogenation. Also, the energy barrier for CH^* dehydrogenation (0.38 eV) was still much
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13 higher than CH_4^* , suggesting that CH^* dehydrogenation is less favorable for Pt(111), under
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15 these conditions.
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20 Based on the O^* and OH^* -assisted CH_4 dissociation graph (**Fig. 7 (b)**), the O^* -assisted
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22 CH_4 direct dissociation direct pathway was more favorable due to lower energy demand,
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24 compared to OH^* -assisted CH_4 dehydrogenation, specifically on CH_4^* , CH_2^* and CH^* .
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26 Moreover, based on the O^* -assisted pathway, the CH_3^* dehydrogenation on Pt(111) only
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28 needed to overcome an energy barrier of 0.33 eV, much less than the OH^* -assisted. It was
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30 worth noting that the direct reaction “ CH_2^* dehydrogenation” became exothermic after CH_3^*
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32 dehydrogenation. Also, the CH^* was readily oxidized (0.25 eV) rather than decomposing to
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34 carbon (1.14 eV), as a result limiting coke formation on the Pt(111) surface. As a whole, this
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36 work provides new mechanistic insights into catalytic dry reforming of CO_2 under the presence
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38 of LHC species using machine learning optimization approach. At the same time, it also sheds
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40 some light on the catalytic nature, energy profile, and thermodynamic parameters of dominant
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42 reaction pathways over the heterogeneous Pd(111) and Ni(111) catalyst surfaces, which could
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44 be another valuable piece of information for pilot-scale kinetic studies in future.
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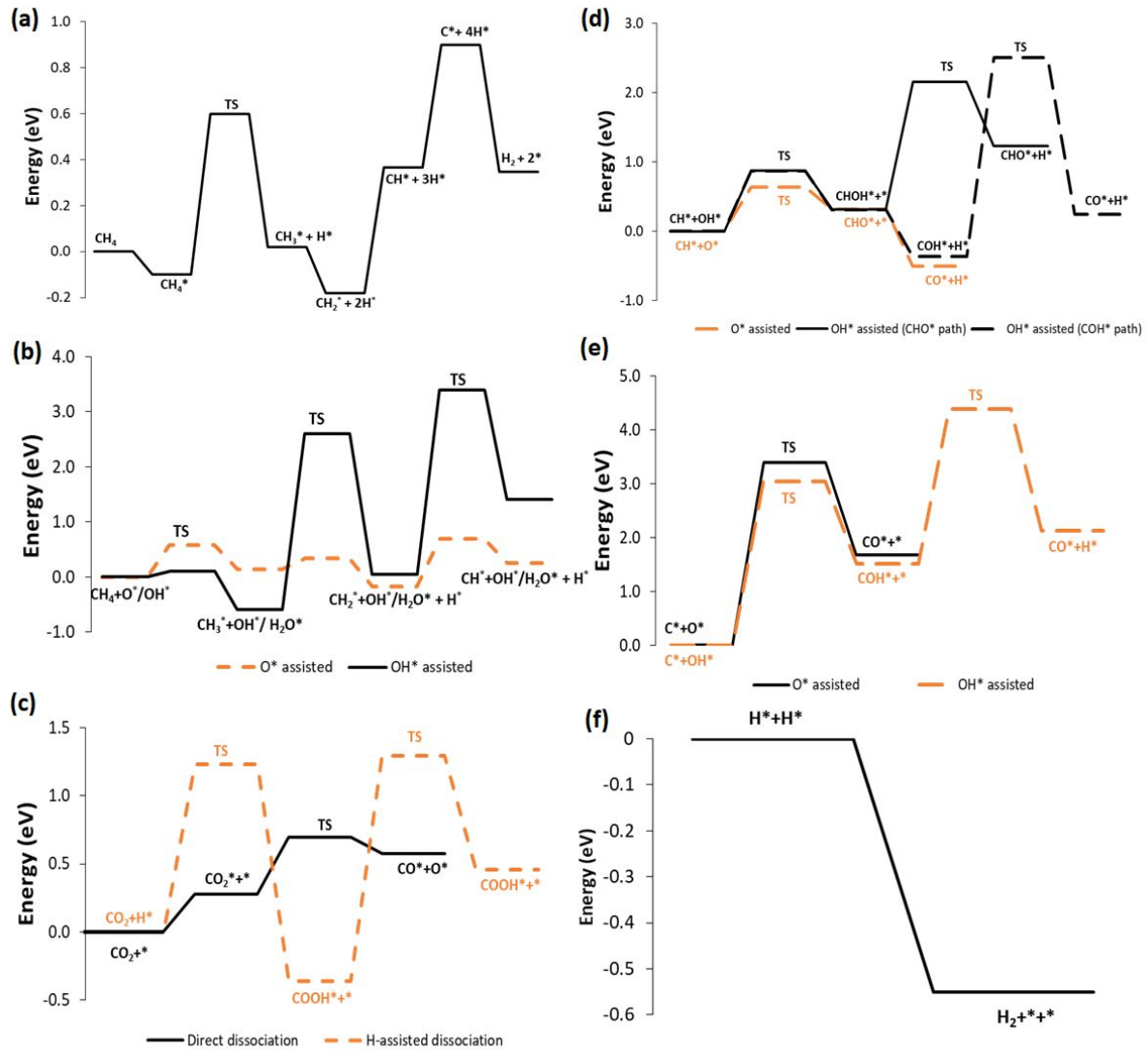


Fig. 7: Energy profile of possible reaction pathways for dry methane reforming on Pt(111) at 3 atm, 800 °C, where: (a) CH₄ direct successive dehydrogenation, (b) CH₄ dissociation through O* & OH* assisted, (c) CO₂ dissociation through direct & H-assisted, (d) CH oxidation through O* & OH* assisted, (e) C oxidation through O* & OH* assisted, and (f) H₂ formation.

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3 For the CO₂ dissociation, the RMG simulation only considered chemisorption of CO₂*
4 on the Pt(111) surface, **Fig. 7(c)**. Two reaction pathways were obtained, namely direct
5 dissociation and H-assisted dissociation pathways. In general, the CO₂ can (i) directly
6 dissociate into adsorbed O and CO species on the Pt(111) surface or (ii) react with dissociated
7 H atoms and promote CO₂ hydrogenation to form an -COOH intermediate, followed by
8 continuous dissociation into adsorbed CO and OH. H-assisted dissociation was more favorable
9 from the energy profile with a lower energy barrier for the overall steps, which is in good
10 agreement with findings reported by Niu *et al.* [50]. CH oxidation is one of the crucial steps to
11 attain high CO₂ conversion and H₂ yield since they are the most abundant species in the CH₄
12 dehydrogenation process [51]. **Fig. 7(d)** shows the oxidative pathways for O*- assisted, OH*-
13 assisted (COH*), and OH*-assisted (CHO) of CH. Overall, O*- assisted CH oxidation was the
14 most favorable pathway with the lowest energy barrier of -0.5 eV as compared to its alternative
15 pathways. Meanwhile, comparing the OH*-assisted CH oxidation, the intermediate CHOH*
16 was first decomposed to CHO* or COH* at the beginning. Then, the COH* (-0.36 eV)
17 proceeds more preferentially than the CHO* pathway (1.23 eV).
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39 **Fig. 7(e)** shows the energy plot of C oxidation through O* & OH* entities. The most
40 favored path was O* assisted with the activation barrier of 1.67 eV, compared to that of OH*
41 (2.12 eV). However, for the first reaction step (e.g., CO* + * and COH* + *), the energy
42 barriers attained in the COH* + * reaction was lower, indicating that OH species are more
43 effective for carbon elimination than the O species. In the last stage (H₂ formation from
44 adsorbed H atoms), the energy barrier obtained was negative with a value of -0.55 eV,
45 indicating the whole process is exothermic with no external energy required. Due to the low
46 desorption energy required, the H₂ can desorb easily from the Pt(111) surface, indicating that
47 a Pt-based catalyst is highly favorable for this reaction, illustrated in **Fig. 7(f)**.
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3.6 Thermodynamic data obtained from RMG networks

Besides determining the most dominant pathways, the RMG simulation also provides insights into the thermodynamic of the whole system, including the enthalpy (ΔH) and Gibbs free energy (ΔG). Based on **Fig. S5** it shows that 548 reactions, out of 744 in total, had positive ΔH values, and the remaining 196 reactions had negative ΔH values at (800 °C, 3 atm on a Pt(111) surface), indicating that the overall CDR of CH₄ is an endothermic reaction system. The RMG simulation also shows that the total ΔG for the CH₄ reforming system was -303.89 eV. Based on the thermodynamic-fundamental theory, the ΔG represents the total potential energy increases in the system as the reagents are introduced and the subsequent formation of an activated complex, since the total ΔG of the system is negative at T = 800 °C, P = 3 atm. This means that the system requires a large amount of energy to react in the forward direction [52]. The reactions with the highest and lowest ΔH and ΔG were also determined by the RMG simulation (**Table 4**). The most endothermic reaction was $C_3H_3^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + C_3H_4$ (218.74 kJ/mol), whereas the most exothermic reaction was $H + OH \leftrightarrow H_2O$ (-496.89 kJ/mol) in the system. This thermodynamic data can serve as a reference for engineers or researchers, bridging the existing research gap of limited fundamental microkinetic data for CDR in the literature and contribute to future decision-making for building a pilot-scale CDR plant using a Pt-based catalyst.

Table 4. Reactions reported with highest and lowest for both enthalpy and Gibbs free energy at 800 °C, 3 atm, Pt(111) surface.

Reaction	ΔH (kJ/mol)	Reaction	ΔG (kJ/mol)
❖ Enthalpy (Top 10 endothermic)		❖ Gibbs free energy (Top 10 non-spontaneous)	
$C_3H_3^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + C_3H_4O$	218.74	$C_3H_3^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + C_3H_4O$	235.43
$C^*O^* + CO_2^* \leftrightarrow C_2^*O_2^* + O^*$	184.31	$C^*O^* + CH_4^* \leftrightarrow H^* + C_2H_3O^*$	185.27
$CO^* + C_2H_6^* \leftrightarrow CH_3^* + C_2H_3O^*$	167.57	$C^*O^* + CO_2^* \leftrightarrow C_2^*O_2^* + O^*$	181.13
$C^*O^* \leftrightarrow O^* + C^*$	162.92	$C_3H_3^* + CH_4^* \leftrightarrow CH_3^* + C_3H_4^*$	178.61
$C^*O^* + CH_4^* \leftrightarrow H^* + C_2H_3O^*$	161.71	$CO^* + C_2H_6^* \leftrightarrow CH_3^* + C_2H_3O^*$	177.49
$^* + C_3H_3O^* \leftrightarrow C^* + C_2H_3O^*$	160.83	$^* + C_3H_3^* \leftrightarrow C^* + C_2H_3^*$	173.55
$C^*O^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + HC^*O^*$	160.79	$^* + C_4H_5^* \leftrightarrow C^* + C_3H_5^*$	171.84
$CO^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow H^* + HOCO^*$	160.46	$C_2H_3^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + C_2H_4^*$	170.08
$^* + C_4H_5^* \leftrightarrow C^* + C_3H_5^*$	157.53	$C^*O^* + H_2O^* \leftrightarrow OH^* + HC^*O^*$	169.95
$^* + C_3H_3^* \leftrightarrow C^* + C_2H_3^*$	155.94	$C_3H_3^* + C_2H_6^* \leftrightarrow C_2H_5^* + C_3H_4^*$	167.86
❖ Enthalpy (Top 10 exothermic)		❖ Gibbs free energy (Top 10 spontaneous)	
$H + OH \leftrightarrow H_2O$	-496.89	$H + OH \leftrightarrow H_2O$	-464.13
$CH_3^* + H \leftrightarrow CH_4$	-439.61	$H + H \leftrightarrow H_2$	-406.56
$H + H \leftrightarrow H_2$	-436.01	$CHO + OH \leftrightarrow H_2O + OC$	-426.06
$CHO + OH \leftrightarrow H_2O + OC$	-430.91	$CH_3 + H \leftrightarrow CH_4$	-402.92
$C_2H_5 + H \leftrightarrow C_2H_6$	-423.04	$C_2H_5 + H \leftrightarrow C_2H_6$	-383.46
$CH_3 + OH \leftrightarrow CH_4O$	-385.93	$CHO + H \leftrightarrow H_2 + OC$	-368.53
$CH_3 + CH_3 \leftrightarrow C_2H_6$	-378.44	$CH_3 + CHO \leftrightarrow CH_4 + OC$	-364.84
$C_2H_3O + H \leftrightarrow C_2H_4O$	-374.13	$C_2H_5 + CHO \leftrightarrow C_2H_6 + OC$	-345.39
$CH_3 + CHO \leftrightarrow CH_4 + OC$	-373.59	$CH_3 + OH \leftrightarrow CH_4O$	-344.76
$C_2H_5 + CH_3 \leftrightarrow C_3H_8$	-373.25	$C_2H_5 + OH \leftrightarrow C_2H_4 + H_2O$	-341.16

4. Conclusions

An innovative and promising machine learning approach of identifying the most suitable LHC for CO₂ DR, alongside the optimum operational configuration and reaction pathways, has been proposed in this study. Based on the RMG simulation, all the possible reactions and evolutionary behavior of the CO₂ CDR for C₁-C₄ LHCs on Pt(111) and Ni(111) have been elucidated. Multiple objective optimizations across different combinations of reaction temperature and pressure for both catalytic surfaces with different LHCs were also successfully executed through TOPSIS analysis by considering the trade-off between H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction. CH₄ presented the optimal performance among the four LHC options with the H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction of 44.9% and 93.75% at 3 atm, 800°C on a Pt (111) surface. The H₂ yields were 16.2%, 22.2%, 27.2% higher than ethane, propane, and butane, respectively (based on the most optimum conditions derived from TOPSIS analysis). Then, a sensitivity analysis on the variation of different input ratios of CH₄:CO₂ (1:1-1:4) for each LHC proposed was also executed to determine the H₂ and CO₂ reduction changes. Notably, the H₂ yield and CO₂ reduction were found to increase to 50.9 mol% and 99.0 mol%, respectively at a CH₄:CO₂ input ratio of 4:1.

Nonetheless, the reaction mechanism of the DCR of CH₄ was determined by the RMG network, the activation energy of the first C-H bond *via* dehydrogenation was found to be 0.60 eV using Pt(111), which is much lower than other catalytic surfaces reported in the literature. Also, the ranking of reactions based on the ΔH (positive to negative) and ΔG (spontaneous to non-spontaneous) from a total of 744 reforming reactions was deducted from the RMG simulation. In summary, the application of machine learning has demonstrated a great potential to be an effective and precise simulation to screen a pool of operational configuration options for possible reactions. This will reduce the time and cost associated with practical reaction optimization and provide insightful thermodynamic-microkinetic information, specifically in

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3 the field of CO₂-assisted dry reforming of LHCs. Also, based on the optimum analysis, it is
4 worthwhile to mention that ethane is the most potential candidate among C₂-C₄ shale gas
5 components to substitute methane for syngas production. On the whole, such machine learning
6 approaches will be the new horizon of material science field, specifically in the search of
7 optimized electronic structure of molecules, elucidation the binding energies of physisorption
8 of the reactants on the metallic site of the catalyst, and the analysis of the thermodynamic
9 parameters of the system. The major outcome of such convergence is the coherence
10 approximation between computational predictions and experimental realizations of novel
11 catalyst (e.g., single atom to nanocluster) chemical-energetics applications. Therefore, this
12 approach aims to reduce the time-consuming experimental work of testing of new materials
13 and serve a guideline for researchers to validate their experimental results.
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33
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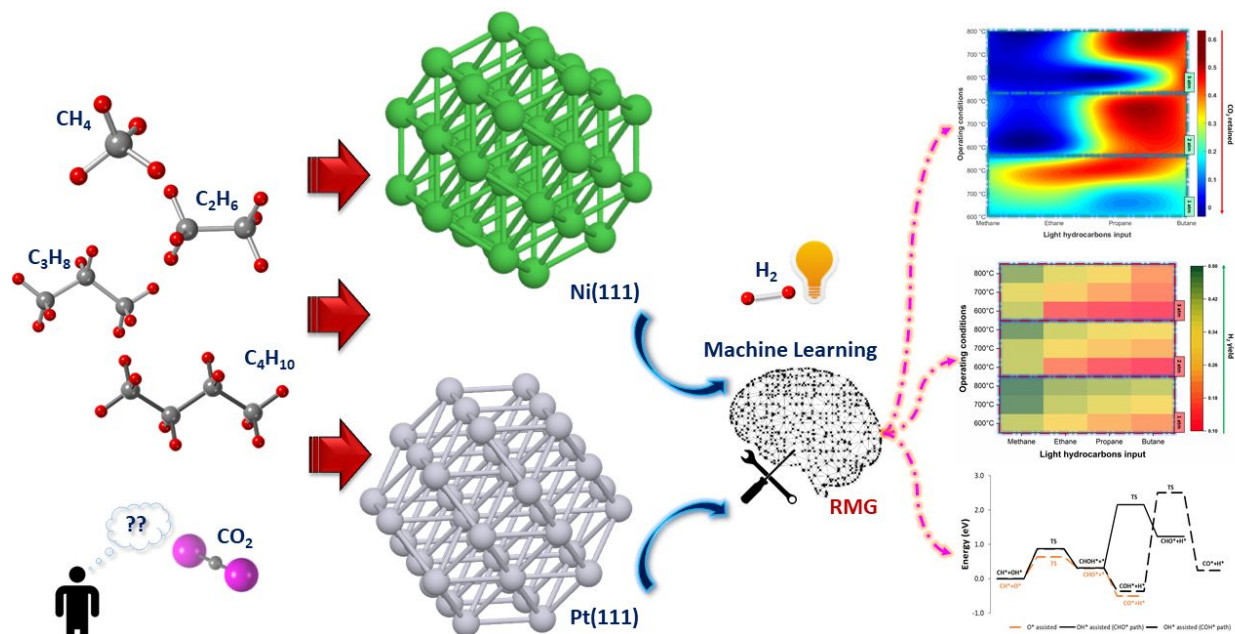
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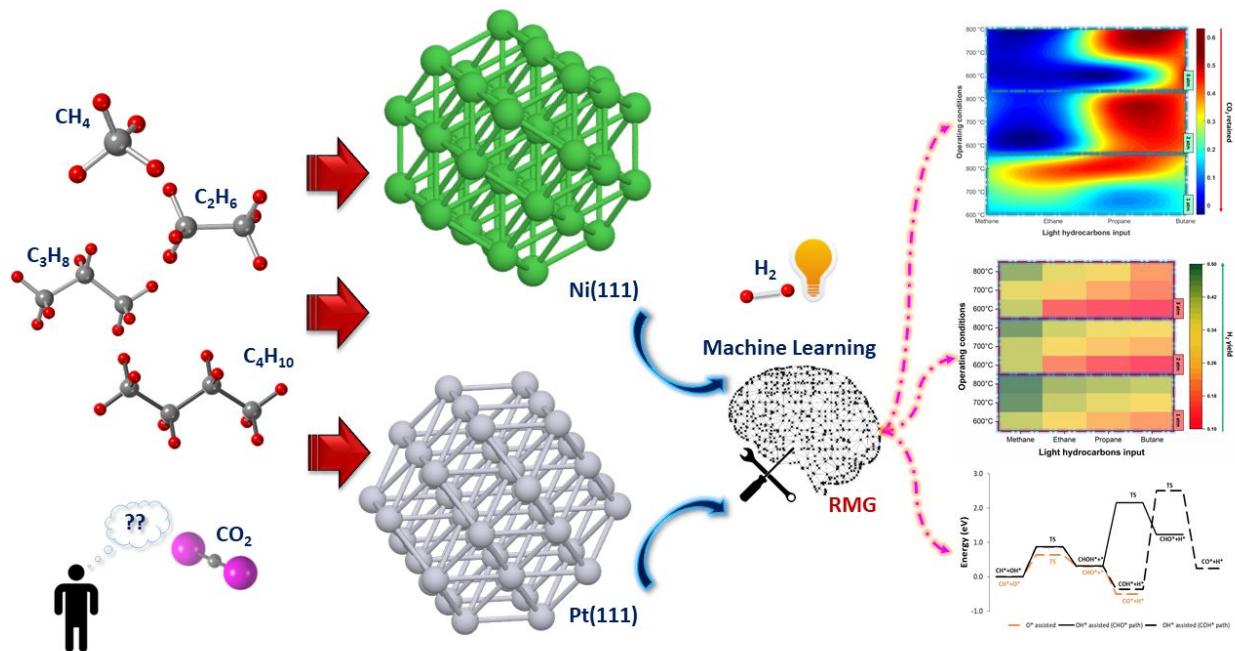
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This article encapsulates a novel reaction mechanism- machine learning framework to determine the optimum reaction configurations and reaction pathways for dry reforming of C₁-C₄ hydrocarbons on both Pt(111) and Ni(111) surfaces.